

A NEW  
ENGLISH  
GRAMMAR



E. A. SONNENSCHN

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# A NEW ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BASED ON THE RECOMMENDATIONS  
OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON  
GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

BY

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PART I—PARTS OF SPEECH AND  
OUTLINES OF ANALYSIS

WITH EXERCISES BY

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DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY

OF

ONE OF MY EARLIEST PUPILS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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## PREFACE

THE whole scheme of grammar teaching recommended by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology depends on a reform in the treatment of English grammar. This Committee was appointed early in 1909 to frame a scheme for the 'simplification and unification of the terminologies and classifications employed in the grammars of different languages', and it issued its report in December, 1910, after holding twenty-four meetings. Two further meetings were held in 1911.<sup>1</sup>

In the present work, as in the *New Latin Grammar* and the *New French Grammar* issued by the Oxford University Press, the recommendations of the Joint Committee are adopted in their entirety.

That a reform was needed in the teaching of grammar is indicated not only by the experience of teachers in this country but also by movements which are taking place in other parts of the world. In France the Ministry of Public Instruction has issued an official scheme of grammatical terminology, based on the recommendations of a special commission of inquiry and designed to introduce simplicity and uniformity into the teaching of grammar in French schools.<sup>2</sup> In America grammar teaching has suffered from the same defects as have been felt in Great Britain and in France, and

<sup>1</sup> *On the Terminology of Grammar*, being the Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology; revised 1911 (John Murray, Albemarle Street, W.). The Committee contained representatives of The Classical Association, The Modern Language Association, The English Association, The Incorporated Association of Head Masters, The Head Mistresses' Association, The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, The Incorporated Association of Assistant Mistresses in Public Secondary Schools, The Association of Preparatory Schools, and two co-opted members.

<sup>2</sup> This *Arrêté* is dated July 25, 1910. No knowledge of grammatical terminology beyond that contained in this scheme is to be required at any

a Joint Committee representative of the teachers and scholars of the United States was appointed (Dec. 1911) to draw up a scheme of reform. Its report has recently been issued,<sup>1</sup> and the principles upon which it has proceeded are indicated in the following extract from the Preface (pp. v, vi).

‘The impulse toward perfection in grammatical nomenclature is a good one, and this impulse necessarily leads to the invention of new terms. Nevertheless, the present state of things is deplorable. In the very desire for betterment we have reached a multiplicity of terms, even for grammatical relations about the nature of which there is no real difference of opinion, as, for example, those seen in the italicized words in “John is *good*”, “This is *John*”, “I admire *John*”, “We made John *president*”. For the first of these there are nine different names in twenty-five of the English grammars in use in the United States to-day, for the second ten, for the third seven, and for the fourth eighteen. Thus “good” in “John is *good*” is variously called, according to the grammar used, *attribute complement*, *predicate adjective*, *subject complement*, *attribute complement or predicate adjective*, *subjective complement*, *complement of intransitive verb*, *predicate attribute*, *adjective attribute*, and *predicate*. The result of such a state of affairs is almost hopeless confusion to the student as he takes up a new text in passing from year to year, or when a new book is adopted, or when he changes his school. Even the strongest students are bewildered. And the teacher’s burden is likewise heavily increased, since he often has to deal with students who do not understand one another’s answers to a grammatical question, even if every answer is right. Moreover, the teacher is obliged to break up his own phrasing, which has so passed into his subconsciousness as almost to utter itself, and watchfully build up a new one, from which he will for a long time slip back every now and then, in spite of his best efforts. The examination of elementary schools or for the certification of teachers for such schools, or at any examination of secondary schools, up to and including that which marks the end of the secondary school course.

A similar movement has been on foot since 1910 in Austria and Germany. The Austrian Commission has issued proposals; and the matter has been discussed at two recent meetings of the German *Neuphilologentag*, but as yet no report has been issued.

<sup>1</sup> Composed and printed by The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.

situation as we now have it is wasteful from the point of view of accomplishment, pitiable from the point of view of the needless inflictions which it puts upon the unfortunate pupil, and absurd from the point of view of linguistic science. As long as it exists, it will make the ideally successful teaching of English grammar in our public schools impossible.

‘But even this is not the whole story. Nowhere else, it is true, has so great a variation of terminology come into existence as in the grammar of our mother tongue. Yet a considerable variation does exist in the grammar of every language; and naturally, in any case, a student who goes on from English to the study of German, or French, or Latin, tho’ he will probably use but one grammar in the new language, will find a terminology largely different from that in which he has been schooled. If he studies two or three of these languages, he will repeat the experience. A new language, a new set of terms! It is as if a student of mathematics, having mastered the common terms *addition*, *subtraction*, *multiplication*, *division*, *quotient*, and the like, for arithmetic, had to learn to call the same things by new names when he came to algebra, and then by still different names when he came to physics. A system for high-school instruction more flatly opposed to the modern demand for efficiency could hardly be devised.

‘Two further results follow. In the first place, the student is almost sure to regard grammatical work as arbitrary and unreal; and he cannot be blamed if he finds it uninteresting. In the second place, he naturally comes to feel that the various languages which he studies have no relation to one another. This belief is frequently shared by his instructors. Many a teacher feels that the syntax, for example, of the language which he teaches stands quite by itself, and has nothing in common with the syntax of the language taught, perhaps, in the next room.

‘Both of these feelings are mistaken. The phenomena of language are as real as the phenomena of physics or chemistry; and the study of the operations of the human mind as seen in language is as interesting as the study of any of the other operations of Nature. The languages studied in our schools are, also, the descendants of the same language, the “parent speech” once spoken by the ancestors of almost all the scholars; and, while the words of that parent speech have largely changed their forms, and differ in the languages spoken to-day, the ways in which they are used have

changed relatively little. The relations expressed, for instance, by the terms *subject*, *predicate*, *direct object*, *indirect object*, *purpose*, *result*, *cause* have not changed at all: it is only *our ways of speaking about these relations* that differ. And if the student, having learned the conception and the name for any of these in any language, found the same conception set forth by the same name in any other language that he might study, a sense of law and order would succeed the present sense of arbitrariness, and, in many minds, a feeling of interest would succeed the feeling of indifference or distaste.'

The nomenclature of the American Committee has been formally adopted for use in the schools of the United States by the National Education Association and by the National Council of Teachers of English; and substantially similar resolutions have since been passed by the Modern Language Association and the Philological Association of America.

The principles on which the British and the American Committees have worked are identical. The immediate object of both Committees has been a practical one<sup>1</sup>; but they have recognized that a common grammatical terminology for all the languages of the Indo-European family must necessarily be constructed on the basis of comparative grammar and in the light of the scientific study of syntax. In so far as their work is successful, it will therefore make for a better understanding of the fundamental features of all the languages of our family, and of the English language in particular. For English has hitherto been treated in schools too much as a language apart, to the great disadvantage of its study both from a practical and from a scientific point of view. This treatment has wrested English grammar from its historical associations, and has largely detracted from its utility as an introduction to the grammars of other languages. The reform contemplated in these two reports brings English into touch with the languages to which it is historically akin, and should

<sup>1</sup> The need of a reform may be illustrated by a recent definition of the pronoun *theirs*. '*Theirs* is a semi-predicative post-adjunct.'

thus serve the double end of making English grammar both more intelligible in itself and more useful in the process of acquiring other languages.

Each of the three volumes of the *New English Grammar* is intended to provide for the work of one school year. The present volume deals with the most elementary notions, and is designed for absolute beginners, of say ten years of age.<sup>1</sup>

In order to give concrete reality and interest to my rules I have taken most of my examples from *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*. It was in the course of writing this grammar that I observed that Browning's short poem contains examples of almost all the forms and constructions of the first importance in the English language. It has also the advantage of being eminently suited in respect of its subject-matter for study by young pupils. It was indeed written to amuse a little boy. The advantage of appealing to instances which are already familiar to pupils is obvious. The poem is here reprinted in an appendix.

I am indebted to several friends for valuable assistance. My colleague Mr. C. D. Chambers has read and discussed with me every word in this book. Dr. Henry Bradley, who was one of the co-opted members of the Joint Committee, and my colleague Professor De Sélincourt have kindly favoured me with comments on my proofs, and I have adopted several of their suggestions. To two former pupils I owe useful suggestions made when the work was in the MS. stage, and also comments when the book was in proof—Mr. C. T. Onions, Joint Editor of the Oxford Dictionary, and Mr. Frank Jones, of King Edward's School, Aston.

This volume has been tested by two years' use in King Edward's High School for Girls, Birmingham.

*The University, Birmingham ; 1916.*

E. A. S.

<sup>1</sup> Part II contains (A) Classification of Pronouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs, (B) Forms and their chief meanings; Part III contains (A) Structure of sentences and clauses, (B) Uses of forms.

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## I. THE SENTENCE—THE SUBJECT AND THE PREDICATE—ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

### The sentence.

- I Compare the groups of words in the left-hand column with those opposite to them in the right-hand column of the following table :

I	II
we shouted loud	shouted loud
the King of France went up the hill	the King of France
ants lay eggs	ants eggs
where are you	where are
what strange things have happened here	have happened here
God save the King	God the King

Each of the groups of words in column I makes sense, but the groups of words in column II do not make sense. The words 'shouted loud' do not tell us who shouted; the words 'the King of France' do not tell us anything about the King of France. In the third group we hear the words 'ants' and 'eggs', but we are not told anything about ants or eggs, for instance whether ants lay eggs, or eggs produce ants; and so forth. This difference is expressed by saying that the groups in column I are sentences and the groups in column II are not sentences.

DEFINITION.—A sentence is a group of words which makes sense.

## The subject and the predicate.

2 Every sentence consists of two parts :

(1) The word or group of words which denotes the person or thing of which the other part is said: 'we', 'the King of France', 'ants', 'you', 'what strange things', 'God'.

This part of the sentence is called the subject.

(2) What is said of the person or thing denoted by the subject: 'shouted loud', 'went up the hill', 'lay eggs', 'where are', 'have happened here', 'save the King'.

This part of the sentence is called the predicate.

## DEFINITIONS.

(1) The Subject of a sentence is the word or group of words which denotes the person or thing of which the Predicate is said.

(2) The Predicate of a sentence is all that is said of the person or thing denoted by the Subject.

3 But though every sentence has a subject and a predicate, these parts of the sentence are not always fully expressed. In some sentences the subject is not expressed at all, but only *understood*; thus 'Thank you' means 'I thank you'. Similarly 'Bless us' means 'God bless us'. The omission of the subject is especially common in commands: instead of 'You come here' we commonly say simply 'Come here'; instead of 'Don't you make any mistake' we say 'Don't make any mistake'. It is chiefly in poetry that we find commands with the subject expressed, as in 'Love thou thy land with love far brought from out the storied past' (Tennyson), 'Gather ye rosebuds while ye may' (Herrick). In some sentences part of the predicate is not expressed: thus 'He a coward?' stands for 'Is he a coward?' (subject *he*, predicate *is a coward*). In the following instances the subject and also part of the predicate are unexpressed: 'What a beautiful night!' (=What a beautiful night it is!); 'Shocking!' (=It is shock-



ing); 'No trifling!' (=Let there be no trifling); 'Well done!' (=It is well done). The single word 'Rats!' may stand for a whole sentence, as in Browning's *Pied Piper*, line 10.<sup>1</sup>

#### Analysis of sentences.

- 4 The breaking up of a sentence into its parts is called 'analysis'—the same word as is used in chemistry, derived from a Greek word meaning 'breaking up'.

In analysing sentences it is convenient, though not necessary, to use the form of a table like the following:

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
we	shouted loud
the King of France	went up the hill
ants	lay eggs
you	where are
what strange things	have happened here
God	save the King

Obs. When the subject of a sentence consists of a group of words, the chief word, around which the other words are grouped, is called the **subject-word**; for example, 'King' and 'things' above.

The subject-word may be indicated by underlining it.

## II. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—NOUNS AND VERBS— TABLE OF ANALYSIS

### The parts of speech.

- 5 By breaking up sentences into the parts of which they are composed, we see that they are made up of words which do different kinds of work in the sentence; and we may arrange the different kinds of words in classes, called 'parts of speech'. There are eight parts of speech: the *noun*, the *verb*, the *adjective*, the *adverb*, the *pronoun*, the *preposition*, the *conjunction*, and the *interjection*.

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix to this volume, pp. 79-87.

## Nouns and verbs.

- 6 In the following sentences the words printed in italics are nouns; those printed in capitals are verbs:

*Hamelin Town* is in *Brunswick*.

The *river Weser*, deep and wide,

WASHES its *wall* on the southern *side*;

A pleasanter *spot* you never SPIED.

They FOUGHT the *dogs* and KILLED the *cats*.

*Brothers, sisters, husbands, wives*

FOLLOWED the *Piper* for their *lives*.

At this the *Mayor* and *Corporation*

QUAKED with a mighty *consternation*.

CONSULT with *carpenters* and *builders*,

And LEAVE in our *town* not even a *trace*

Of the *rats*.

One, stout as *Julius Caesar*, SWAM across.

The *Mayor* SENT *East, West, North, and South*.

No *trifling*!

- 7 A noun is a word which denotes a person or a thing; it is the *name* of a person or a thing.

The term 'name' must be understood in a wide sense; it includes not only what we commonly call names, i. e. names of particular persons or things, like 'Julius Caesar', 'Hamelin', 'Brunswick',<sup>1</sup> but also words which denote any member of a class of persons or things, like 'piper', 'mayor', 'town', 'river', 'rat', 'dog', and words like 'consternation', 'East', 'trifling'.

DEFINITION.—A noun is the name of a person or a thing.

- 8 The verb is a very important part of the sentence, because it is a necessary part of every fully expressed predicate (§ 2).

<sup>1</sup> Nouns denoting particular persons or things are spelled with a capital letter and are called 'proper nouns'.

It would be going too far to say that no sentences can be formed without a verb; for there are sentences like 'What a fine day!', 'A horse, a horse! My kingdom for a horse!', 'The more the merrier, but the fewer the better fare'. But in such sentences we may supply a verb ('Give me a horse. I offer my kingdom for a horse'; 'The more there are, the merrier they are; but the fewer there are, the better is the fare'); and indeed a verb has to be understood to express the meaning fully. So that it is true to say that a verb, either expressed or understood, is a necessary part of every sentence.

DEFINITION.—A verb is a word by means of which something is said of a person or thing.

- 9 In analysing sentences in the form of a table the verb should have a column to itself, to separate it from the rest of the predicate :

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>	
	VERB	REST OF PREDICATE
we the King of France ants	shouted went lay	loud up the hill eggs

Compound forms of verbs.

- 10 The verb of a sentence sometimes consists of two or more words which together express a single verbal meaning. For example, 'is running', 'was running', 'did run', 'has run', 'had run,' 'will run,' 'will have run'. In analysing sentences two or more words which express a single verbal meaning should be put together in the verb column.

III. ADJECTIVES—THE TWO USES OF ADJECTIVES  
(EPITHET-ADJECTIVES, PREDICATIVE  
ADJECTIVES)

Adjectives.

- 11 The words printed in italics in the following sentences are adjectives :

*Great* rats, *small* rats, *lean* rats, *brawny* rats,  
*Brown* rats, *black* rats, *grey* rats, *tawny* rats,  
Brothers, sisters, husbands, wives,  
Followed *the* Piper for *their* lives.

He never can cross *that* *mighty* top.

Once more he stept into *the* street,

And to *his* lips again

Laid *his* *long* pipe of *smooth* *straight* cane ;

And ere he blew *three* notes (such *sweet*

*Soft* notes as yet musician's cunning

Never gave *the* *enraptured* air),

*All* *the* *little* boys and girls

With *rosy* cheeks and *flaxen* curls

And *sparkling* eyes and teeth *like* pearls,

*Tripping* and *skipping*, ran merrily after

*The* *wonderful* music with shouting and laughter.

*A* *pleasanter* spot you never spied.

At *the* *first* *shrill* note of *the* pipe I heard *a* voice.

There was *much* wine in *the* cellars.

- 12 Adjectives tell us something more about the persons or things denoted by nouns. They either describe persons or things (as 'great', 'brown', 'smooth', 'rosy', 'sparkling'), or they indicate them (as 'the', 'that', 'their', 'his'), or they tell their number or amount (as 'three', 'all', 'a', 'first', 'much').

Adjectives generally come before their nouns ; but they may follow them :

The river Weser, *deep* and *wide*,  
Washes its walls on the southern side.

So too, 'tripping', 'skipping' and 'like' at the end of the third passage in § 11. Notice that some of the words that end in *-ing* are adjectives, some nouns ('cunning', 'shouting'). But the words 'cunning' and 'shouting' might in other sentences be adjectives: thus 'a *cunning* fox caught a goose', 'a crowd of *shouting* boys trooped out'.

DEFINITION.—An adjective is a word used with a noun, to describe or indicate or enumerate what is denoted by the noun.

### The two uses of adjectives.

- 13 An adjective may be used in two different ways:  
either (1) qualifying a noun, as in the examples given in § 11.

When used in this way the adjective is called an **epithet** or an **epithet-adjective**:

'*black* rats', '*his long* pipe', '*smooth straight* cane',  
'*sparkling* eyes', '*the little* boys', '*the river deep*  
and *wide*'.

Epithet-adjectives may be used with any noun in the sentence.

- or (2) forming part of the predicate and telling what the person or thing denoted by the subject is declared to be, as in '*the rats were black*', '*their eyes were sparkling*', '*the river is deep and wide*'.

When used in this way the adjective is called a **predicative adjective**.

When sentences are analysed in the form of a table, predicative adjectives should be shown in a separate column; but epithet-adjectives should be put into the same column as the nouns to which they belong: for example,

The *poor old* Mayor was *dumb*.  
All the *troublesome* rats are *dead*.  
*Great* was *their* joy.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	VERB	PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVE
<i>the poor old Mayor</i>	was	<i>dumb</i>
<i>all the troublesome rats</i>	are	<i>dead</i>
<i>their joy</i>	was	<i>great</i>

#### IV. EPITHET-NOUNS—NOUNS IN APPOSITION— PREDICATIVE NOUNS

##### Epithet-nouns.

- 14 Nouns may be used like epithet-adjectives (§ 13. 1):  
an *ermine* gown, a *gipsy* coat, *Sunday* hats, the *Hamelin* people; the river *Weser*.
- 15 Two nouns, of which one is an epithet, may form a compound noun:  
rat-land, fruit-trees, honey-bee, butter-cask, market-place.  
The two nouns are sometimes written as one word:  
playmates, mankind, timepiece, peacemaker.
- 16 Carefully distinguish compound nouns of which the first part is a noun ending in *-ing*, such as '*dancing-lesson*' (= lesson *in dancing*), from nouns accompanied by adjectives in *-ing*, such as '*dancing bears*' (= bears *that dance*).
- 17 An epithet-noun which stands after the noun to which it belongs, and is added after a pause, is said to stand in apposition to it:  
Our late queen, *Victoria*, was beloved by her people.  
The noun in apposition is often qualified by adjectives:  
*Victoria*, *our late queen*, was beloved by her people.  
A deep river, *the Weser*, washed the walls of Hamelin.  
The Mayor of Hamelin, *a fat little man*, was dressed in ermine.
- There is always a pause between the words in apposition and the noun of which they are an epithet. This pause is indicated in writing by a comma; or the words in apposition may be put in brackets:  
The Mayor (a fat little man) wore ermine.

Predicative nouns.

18 Nouns may be used like predicative adjectives (§ 13. 2), that is, forming part of the predicate and telling what the person or thing denoted by the subject is declared to be.

In analysis predicative nouns are shown in a separate column.

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>	
	VERB	PREDICATIVE NOUN
A fat man	was	<i>Mayor</i>
The Mayor	is	an awful <i>noddy</i>

Note that predicative nouns, like other nouns, may have epithet adjectives attached to them : and these epithets are put in the same column as the predicative noun ('an awful').

Further examples of predicative adjectives and predicative nouns.

19 When the predicate contains a predicative adjective or a predicative noun, the verb is generally a verb of 'being' such as 'is', 'was', 'am', 'are'; but not always, as is shown by the following instances :

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>	
	VERB	PREDICATIVE ADJ. OR NOUN
He	<i>became</i>	{ famous King a great man
He	<i>grew</i>	angry
He	<i>got</i>	angry
He	<i>remained</i>	obstinate
He	<i>seems</i>	unhappy
The Mayor	<i>looked</i>	blue
I	<i>feel</i>	sorry
The Piper	<i>proved</i>	no bargain-driver
He	<i>is called</i>	wise
He	<i>was made</i>	King
The prisoner	<i>was found</i>	guilty

- 20 Verbs like the above are similar in meaning to verbs of 'being'. So, too, the verb 'flourish' in 'Thou shalt flourish great and free, the dread and envy of them all' (*Rule Britannia*). But predicative adjectives and predicative nouns may also be used after other verbs than these :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	VERB	PREDICATIVE ADJ. OR NOUN
He	<i>died</i>	{ young a ruined man
They	<i>arrived</i>	safe
The bird	<i>fell</i>	lifeless
The sun	<i>shone</i>	glorious
The children	<i>followed</i>	dancing

These sentences mean 'He was young (or a ruined man) when he died'; 'They were safe when they arrived'; 'The bird was lifeless when it fell'; and so forth. So that here, too, the predicative adjective or predicative noun tells what a person or thing is declared to be.

#### V. ADVERBS—ADVERBIAL QUALIFICATION

Adverbs.

- 21 The words printed in italics in the following sentences are adverbs :

The children laughed *merrily*.

You treat me *worse* than a cook.

The children ran *fast*.

*There* it stands to this very day.

The lame boy *now* goes limping as *before*.

To see the townsfolk suffer *so* was a pity.

*How* were the children stolen *away*?

'Come *in*', cried the Mayor.



*Out* came the children.

*Up* perked the face of the Piper.

*First*, if you please, my thousand guilders! (§ 8).

He laid his pipe to his lips *again*.

He blew *thrice*.

He *never* can cross that mighty top.

He could *not* dance the whole of the way.

22 Adverbs are so called because they may be added to verbs, to tell us something more about what is denoted by the verb. Just as an adjective is attached to a noun to tell us something more about the person or thing denoted by the noun, so an adverb may be attached to a verb to tell us something more about the action denoted by the verb. In the sentence 'Hurrah for merry England!' the adjective 'merry' describes the country called England; in the sentence 'The children ran merrily after the Piper' the adverb 'merrily' describes the action of running. In the sentence 'This England is my native land' the adjectives 'this' and 'my' indicate the country and the native land; in the sentence 'I live here now' the adverbs 'here' and 'now' indicate the place and the time of the action of living. In the sentence 'He blew three notes' the adjective 'three' enumerates the sounds; in the sentence 'He blew thrice' the adverb 'thrice' enumerates the actions of blowing. In fact the adverb dances attendance on the verb just as the adjective dances attendance on the noun. But note that as a general rule the epithet-adjective comes *before* its noun, but the adverb *after* its verb (in prose): 'merry England', 'three notes'; but 'they ran merrily', 'he blew thrice'.

23 But the name 'adverb' must not be understood as meaning that the only words to which adverbs can be attached are verbs; some adverbs may be attached to adjectives or to other adverbs, to tell us something more about what is denoted by

the adjective or the other adverb. The adverbs which can be used in this way are chiefly adverbs denoting amount :

(a) Adverbs attached to adjectives :

The children were  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{exceedingly} \\ \textit{very} \end{array} \right\}$  merry.

*Too* many cooks spoil the broth.

*How* many rats were drowned ?

The Piper was *quite* right.

(b) Adverbs attached to other adverbs :

The children laughed *very* merrily.

The Piper acted *quite* rightly

*How* often did the Piper blow his pipe ?

I heard the voice *so* distinctly.

*Once* more he stepped into the street.

DEFINITION.—An adverb is a word used with a verb or an adjective or another adverb, to describe or indicate or enumerate what is denoted by the verb, adjective, or other adverb.

24 Many adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *-ly*, as 'merrily' from 'merry'. But some adverbs do not differ in form from adjectives; for example, 'fast', 'long', 'wide': compare 'they ran *fast*', 'I waited *long*', 'he bowled *wide*' (adverbs), with 'a *fast* train', 'a *long* pipe', 'a *wide* river' (adjectives). The word 'like', given as an adjective in § 11, may also be used as an adverb, for example, 'they ran *like* hares' (= similarly to hares, in the way in which hares run).

The words 'well' and 'ill' are used in two ways :

(a) as adverbs :

He speaks *well*.

He took it *ill*.

(b) as predicative adjectives :

He is *well* (=in good health). He was *ill* (=in bad health).

But a word which forms part of a predicate after a verb of 'being' is not necessarily a predicative adjective or noun. For example, the words 'here', 'there', 'everywhere' are always adverbs. 'It is here' or 'There it is' are sentences exactly like 'There it stands to this very day', in which the word 'there' tells us something about the action of standing, and does not tell us *what* the thing denoted by 'it' is. Contrast sentences like 'It is *big*', 'It is *beautiful*', which contain predicative adjectives. Most predicative adjectives are words which might be used as epithet adjectives: 'a *big* column', 'a *beautiful* column'; but we cannot say 'a *there* column'.

OBS. The adverb 'there' is often used in a peculiar way, to introduce the subject of a sentence in which the verb stands before the subject :

*There* was once a Piper.

*There* came a plague of rats.

These sentences arise by changing the order of the words; compare 'A Piper was once *there*', 'A plague of rats came *there*'.

- 25 Adverbial qualification.—Just as an epithet-adjective is said to *qualify* a noun (§ 13), so an adverb is said to qualify a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

When an adverb qualifies the verb of the sentence or the predicate as a whole, it is called in analysis 'the adverbial qualification', and is put into a separate column.

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>	
	VERB	ADVERBIAL QUALIFICATION
The children	laughed	merrily
It	stands	(a) there (b) now
The townsfolk	suffered	so

## VI. PRONOUNS

26 Pronouns.—The words printed in italics in the following passages are pronouns :

Just as *he* said *this*, *what* should hap  
At the chamber door but a gentle tap ?  
'Bless *us*', cried the Mayor, '*what's that* ?'

And in after years, if *you* would blame  
His sadness, *he* was used to say  
'*It's* dull in our town since my playmates left.  
*I* can't forget that *I'm* bereft  
Of all the pleasant sights *they* see,  
*Which* the Piper also promised *me*.'

*Anything* like the sound of a rat  
Makes my heart go pit-a-pat !

*Everything* was strange and new.

*Nobody* could enough admire the strange man.

*Some* of the children were boys, *others* were girls  
*Three* of them were mere babies ; these *three* are  
shown in a picture.

*It* is easy to bid *one* rack *one's* brain.

27 Pronouns are so called because they are used *in place of nouns*. Thus the pronoun 'he' in the first passage above (line 1) is used instead of 'the Mayor', and in the second passage (line 2) instead of 'the lame boy'. It would be very inconvenient if every time that a person was referred to we had to repeat the noun denoting that person: as 'The Mayor broke silence. "Bless us," cried the Mayor, as the Mayor sat with the Corporation.' Thus the pronouns 'he', 'she', 'it', and 'they' are a convenient means of avoiding the repetition of a noun.

But pronouns are not mere substitutes for nouns. They have a special meaning of their own, which enables them to do a kind of work in the sentence which nouns cannot do.

Nouns are *names*, and in some cases they tell us a great deal about the persons or things which they denote: as 'Piper', 'rat', 'child'. Pronouns merely *indicate* or *enumerate* persons or things without naming them. But these indicating words express something which is not expressed by a name. For example, the pronoun 'I' shows that the person indicated by it is the speaker of the sentence:

At length the Mayor broke silence:  
'I wish *I* were a mile hence.'

This would not be shown by a noun:

'The Mayor wishes the Mayor were a mile hence.'

The pronoun 'we' shows that one of the persons indicated by it is the speaker of the sentence:

*We* will give you a thousand guilders.

The pronoun 'you' shows that the sentence is spoken *to* the person or persons indicated by it:

Will *you* give me a thousand guilders?

The pronoun 'it' has sometimes a vague meaning, which could not be as well expressed by any noun:

*It* is dull in our town since my playmates left.  
*It* is raining.

Some pronouns show that the sentence is a question; and this no noun can do: *What* is that?

Some pronouns tell number or amount; see the last five passages quoted in § 26.

DEFINITION.—A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun, to indicate or enumerate persons or things, without naming them.

OBS. 1. All pronouns are indicating or enumerating words; but it is not true that all indicating or enumerating words are pronouns. For there are indicating and enumerating adjectives, such as 'my', 'your', 'his', 'their', 'three', 'third' (see § 12). Some indicating words (especially the words 'this',

'these', 'that', 'those') may be used either as pronouns or as adjectives. When they are used by themselves (as in 'this is the boy', 'those were my opinions') they are pronouns; when they are used with a noun (as in 'this boy', 'those opinions') they are adjectives.

Obs. 2. Pronouns, like nouns, may be qualified by adjectives, as in '*This one is bad*; send me *a better one*'; '*these three*'.

## VII. THE OBJECT

28 The object.—In the following sentences the words printed in italics are called 'objects':

The rats frightened <i>the babies</i> .	They bit <i>them</i> .
The Mayor welcomed <i>the Piper</i> .	He treated <i>him</i> badly.
The Mayor broke <i>silence</i> .	You threaten <i>us</i> .

In each of these sentences the action of the verb is performed on some person or thing. The person or thing on which the action is performed is called the **object**; and the verb is said to **govern** the object.

DEFINITION.—An object is a noun or pronoun which denotes the person or thing on which the action of the verb is performed.

Obs. Sentences which contain an object can always be changed in such a way as to turn the object into a subject. For example, instead of 'The rats frightened the babies' we may say 'The babies were frightened by the rats'; instead of 'You threaten us' we may say 'We are threatened by you'.

29 In the sentences in the right-hand column above (§ 28) the objects are pronouns; and here it is easy to distinguish the object from the subject by the form of the pronoun which is used: 'them', 'him', and 'us' could not be subjects of sentences. In the sentences in the left-hand column the objects are nouns; and the same forms are used as would be used if the nouns were subjects.

The best way to discover the object is to ask a question, by

putting the word 'whom' or 'what' after the verb of the sentence; the answer will be the object. For example, to find the objects of the sentences in the left-hand column ask—

'frightened whom?' (Answer 'the babies');

'welcomed whom?' (Answer 'the Piper');

'broke what?' (Answer 'silence').

In some sentences it makes no sense to put 'whom' or 'what' after the verb; and in these cases we may be sure that the sentence does not contain an object: for instance, 'He walked a long way', 'He stayed a month', 'He slept a whole day'. Here the only questions we could ask would be 'walked *how far?*', 'stayed (or slept) *how long?*' Notice also that these sentences cannot be changed so as to turn 'a long way', 'a month', 'a whole day' into subjects. The words 'a long way', 'a month', and 'a whole day' are, therefore, not objects.

In some sentences, though it makes good sense to put 'whom' or 'what' after the verb, the answer to the question thus formed is not given by the words which follow the verb in the sentence; these words, therefore, are not objects. Thus in the sentence 'The rats ate the whole day' the words 'the whole day' do not answer the question 'ate what?' or 'ate whom?' (Answer 'cheeses, &c.'). In this sentence, then, there is no object expressed. Contrast the following sentences, in which there is an object: 'The rats ate the cheeses', 'The rats ate much'.

OBS. 1. The object may be a pronoun denoting the same person as the subject:

I found *myself* outside the hill

You wrong *yourself*.

The general shot *himself*.

We lost *ourselves* in a wood.

OBS. 2. The object may contain an adjective, just as the subject may: 'the Piper had *a long pipe*'. When the object consists of a group of words like this, the noun around which

the other words are grouped may be called the 'object-word', just as the word around which the other parts of the subject are grouped is called the 'subject-word' (§ 4, Obs.).

30 Table showing analysis of sentences containing objects.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	VERB	OBJECT
The <u>rats</u>	killed	the <u>cats</u>
The <u>Piper</u>	had	a long <u>pipe</u>

Underlining is used to distinguish the subject-word from the rest of the subject, and the object-word from the rest of the object.

#### VIII. ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS USED PREDICATIVELY OF OBJECTS—PREDICATIVE PRONOUNS

Adjectives and nouns used predicatively of objects.

31 Sentences containing an object may also contain a predicative adjective or a predicative noun which tells what the object is made or named :

Our losses have made us *thrifty*.

The citizens had elected him *Mayor*.

People call me *the Pied Piper*.

They called it *the Pied Piper's Street*.

The sound of a rat turned the Mayor *pale*.

The rats split *open* the kegs of salted sprats.

He will pipe us *free* from rats and mice.

Such sentences are analysed in tabular form as follows :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	VERB	OBJECT	PREDICATIVE ADJ. OR NOUN
Our losses	have made	us	thrifty
People	call	me	the Pied Piper
They	called	it	the Pied Piper's Street



Obs. When these sentences are changed in the way indicated in § 28, Obs., we get sentences in which the predicative adjective or predicative noun is said of the subject (compare the last three examples in § 19):

We have been made thrifty by our losses.

He had been elected Mayor by the citizens.

**Predicative pronouns.**

32 Pronouns, like nouns and adjectives, may be used predicatively:

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	VERB	PREDICATIVE PRONOUN
It	is	<i>I</i>
You	are	<i>he</i>

Similarly in questions: 'Are you not *he*?' and 'Who are you?' Note that in this last sentence the subject is 'you', and 'who' is a predicative pronoun. But 'who' is the subject in sentences like 'Who did it?'

Pronouns may also be used predicatively of objects, as in 'What did you call him?' Compare § 31.

IX. GROUPS OF WORDS (PHRASES)—  
PREPOSITIONS

**Groups of words.**

33 In analysing sentences we often come across groups of words which go so closely together that they are equivalent to a single word. For instance, instead of 'the palace *of the king*' we may say 'the *king's* palace' or 'the *royal* palace'; instead of 'the men *of Cornwall*' we may say 'the *Cornish* men'. And even when we cannot find a single word which might be substituted for the group of words, we can see that certain groups of words are *used like* (or are *equivalent to* or *do the work of*) a single word.

It is convenient to have a name for such groups of words; and grammarians call them **phrases**. Phrases are of various

kinds. Some phrases are used like adjectives, others like adverbs. They may therefore be named after the part of speech which they resemble. Thus the phrases *of the king* and *of Cornwall* are called **adjective-phrases**, because they are used like adjectives. In the sentence 'The door in the mountain-side shut fast' the group *in the mountain-side* is used like an adjective; for it indicates the particular door that is meant: it is therefore also an adjective-phrase. But in the sentence 'There it stands to the present day' the group *to the present day* is used like the adverb 'now', and is therefore called an **adverb-phrase**. In this instance the adverb-phrase qualifies the verb 'stands'; but in some instances adverb-phrases (like adverbs, § 23) are used to qualify adjectives or adverbs; for example, in 'The sun is high above the hills' the phrase *above the hills* qualifies the adjective 'high'; in 'The Falkland Islands lie eastward of Cape Horn' the phrase *of Cape Horn* qualifies the adverb 'eastward'.

Notice that the word 'phrase' denotes something quite different from the word 'sentence'. A phrase is only a *part* of a sentence, just as an adjective or an adverb is only part of a sentence.

An exact definition of the word 'phrase' will be given later.

### Prepositions.

- 34 Examine the groups of words underlined in the following sentences:

Hamelin Town's in Brunswick,

By famous Hanover city.

The river Weser, deep and wide,

Washes its wall on the southern side.

At this the Mayor and Corporation

Quaked with a mighty consternation.

Each of these groups is an **adverb-phrase**: 'in Brunswick' and 'by famous Hanover city' tell us *where* Hamelin Town is; 'on the southern side' tells us *where* the river washes its

wall; 'at this' tells us *when* the Mayor and Corporation quaked or *why* they quaked; 'with a mighty consternation' tells us the manner of their quaking.

Each of these adverb-phrases consists of a noun (sometimes qualified by an adjective) or a pronoun preceded by a word which is called a **preposition** ('in', 'by', 'on', 'at', 'with'—the words printed in italics in the above examples).

35 In the following sentences the groups of words underlined are formed with a preposition, like those in § 34; but they are **adjective-phrases**, because they qualify nouns or pronouns:

All the little boys and girls

With rosy cheeks and flaxen curls,

Tripping and skipping, ran merrily after

The wonderful music with shouting and laughter.

The man in the moon came down too soon.

The first cable across the Atlantic was laid in  
the year 1858.

Anything like the sound of a rat

Makes my heart go pit-a-pat.

One of them was lame.

'With rosy cheeks and flaxen curls' qualifies 'boys and girls'; 'in the moon' qualifies 'man'; 'across the Atlantic' (= transatlantic) qualifies 'cable'; 'of a rat' qualifies 'sound'; 'of them' qualifies the pronoun 'one'. The other phrases formed with prepositions in the above sentences are not adjective-phrases but adverb-phrases ('after the wonderful music', 'with shouting and laughter', 'in the year 1858'). And 'across the Atlantic' would be an adverb-phrase in a sentence like 'A cable was laid across the Atlantic in 1858'.

Adjective-phrases may also be used predicatively, as in 'He is *in good health*' (= well); but phrases formed with the preposition 'in' after a verb of 'being' are generally adverb-phrases; for example, 'He is *in the room*', 'Hamelin town is

*in Brunswick*' (§ 34). Compare what was said in § 24 (p. 23) about adverbs.

We are now prepared to give a definition of the word 'preposition'.

DEFINITION.—A preposition is a word used with a noun or pronoun to form an adverb-phrase or an adjective-phrase.

### Prepositions and adverbs.

- 36 It will be seen from the above definition that in order to be a preposition a word must be used *with a noun or pronoun*. Many of the words which, when used with a noun or pronoun, are prepositions, may also be used without a noun or pronoun :

'Come *in*!' the Mayor cried, looking bigger :  
And *in* did come the strangest figure.

In the second innings I was not *out*.

'Comment?' said the Frenchman; and I, understanding the lingo, replied 'Come *on*!'

Jack fell down and broke his crown

And Jill came tumbling *after*.

They tried to jump *off*; but it was too late.

He took his cap *off*. He took *off* his cap.

When used in this way the words 'in', 'on', 'after', 'out', 'off', and the like, tell us something more about what is denoted by the verb, and are therefore adverbs.

In the last instance ('He took off his cap') a noun follows the word 'off'; but the word 'off' is not used *with the noun*; for 'his cap' is the object of the verb 'took'. Similarly in the following instances we have adverbs, not prepositions :

Poke *out* the nests and block *up* the holes.

Dig *up* the garden. Shut *down* the window.

Contrast the following sentences, in which two of these words (not 'out') are prepositions :

Walk *up* the garden. Go *down* the street.

Obs. A preposition preceded by an adverb may form a **compound preposition**, as 'out of', 'in to' (into), 'as to', 'as for': 'The rats came tumbling *out of* the houses', '*As for* the guilders, that was only a joke'. Other such compound prepositions are 'because of', 'according to', 'in order to'.

#### X. TABLE OF ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

37

1. We laughed very loud.
2. Montrose was a very great general.
3. Our ancestors conquered this island at various times.
4. To-day the British flag flies free throughout the world.
5. The people of Hamelin generally called it the Pied Piper's Street.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE			
	VERB	OBJECT	PRED. ADJ., NOUN, OR PRONOUN	ADVERBIAL QUALIFICA- TION
We	laughed			very loud
Montrose	was		a very great general	
Our <u>ancestors</u>	conquered	this <u>island</u>		at various times
the British <u>flag</u>	flies		free	(a) to-day (b) through- out the world
The <u>people</u> of Hamelin	called	it	the Pied Piper's Street	generally

Note that in the above table (p. 33)—

(i) The subject-words and the object-word are underlined (see § 30).

(ii) Adjectives and adjective-phrases are put in the same column as the nouns which they qualify.

(iii) Adverbs and adverb-phrases which qualify the verb or the predicate as a whole are put in a column of their own (headed 'Adverbial Qualification'). But when an adverb or adverb-phrase qualifies an adjective or another adverb it is put in the same column as that adjective or adverb; thus 'very' comes in the same column as 'great' in the second sentence, and in the same column as 'loud' in the first sentence.

#### XI. SUBORDINATE CLAUSES—SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Subordinate clauses.

38 Examine the groups of words underlined in the following sentences, and consider how they differ from the groups called 'phrases' in §§ 33-35.

- (a) { They made a decree that all legal documents be dated from the year 1376.  
The Mayor denied that his offer of 1,000 guilders was binding.

- { When all were in to the very last,  
The door in the mountain-side shut fast.  
The wretched Council's bosoms beat,  
As the Piper turned from the High Street.  
Blow your pipe there till you burst.  
(b) { It's dull in our town since my playmates left.  
Ere he blew three notes, there was a rustling of merry crowds.  
You hope, because you're old and obese,  
To find in the furry civic robe ease.  
If I rid your town of rats,  
Will you give me a thousand guilders?

- 39 The groups of words underlined in the above sentences resemble phrases; for each of them is used like a single part of speech. In the first two sentences (marked *a*) the groups underlined are used like nouns; the first group introduced by 'that' is in apposition to the noun 'decree' (like one noun in apposition to another, § 17); the second group introduced by 'that' is the object of the verb 'denied', because it tells us *what* the Mayor denied (see § 29, p. 27).
- 40 In the sentences which follow (marked *b*) the groups of words underlined are used like adverbs; for they tell us something about the actions denoted by the verbs 'shut', 'beat', 'blow', 'is', 'was', 'hope', 'will give', just like adverbs or adverb-phrases. 'When all were in to the very last' is used like the adverb 'then'. 'Till you burst' expresses how long a time the Piper is to blow his pipe; 'since my playmates left' is equivalent to the adverb-phrase 'after the departure of my playmates'; 'if I rid your town of rats' expresses the condition under which the gift will be made; and so forth.
- 41 But all the above groups differ from phrases in one important respect. Each of them contains a verb ('be dated', 'was', 'were', 'turned', 'burst', 'left', 'blew', 'are', 'rid'), whereas phrases have no verbs in them. Moreover, each of these new groups has a subject and a predicate of its own, and in this respect they resemble complete sentences; yet they are not complete sentences, because each of them forms only part of a sentence.

*SUBJECT OF THE  
GROUP*

*PREDICATE OF THE  
GROUP*

(a) {	all legal documents his offer of 1,000 guilders	be dated from the year 1376 was binding
(b) {	all to the very last the Piper you my playmates he you I	were in turned from the High Street burst left blew three notes are old and obese rid your town of rats

- 42 We need some new term differing both from 'phrase' and from 'sentence' to describe these groups, and the term used is subordinate clause. The word 'clause' implies that the group has a subject and predicate of its own, but that it forms only part of a sentence; the word 'subordinate' implies that the group is *arranged under* the chief group or some word in it (often the verb).

### Subordinating conjunctions.

- 43 The word printed in italics at the beginning of each of the underlined groups in § 38 is called a **subordinating conjunction**. The word 'conjunction' means 'link'. These words are called 'conjunctions' because they connect the group with the rest of the sentence, and 'subordinating' because the group which they introduce is subordinate (§ 42).

The chief subordinating conjunctions are—

- (a) those introducing clauses which are used like nouns :

*that, lest*

- (b) those introducing clauses which are used like adverbs :

(i) of time : *when, whenever, while, as, before, ere, after, since, until, till*

(ii) of place : *where, wherever, whence, whither*

(iii) of cause : *because, since, as, that*

(iv) of purpose : *that (= in order that), lest*

(v) of result : *that*

(vi) of condition : *if, unless, whether* (in the sense of 'if on the one hand')

(vii) of concession : *though, although*

(viii) of comparison : *as, than.*

- 44 We are now in a position to give a definition of the term 'phrase', used in § 33, and side by side with it a definition of the term 'subordinate clause'

### DEFINITIONS.

(I) A phrase is a group of words equivalent to a single part of speech and not having a subject and a predicate of its own.



(2) A subordinate clause is a group of words equivalent to a single part of speech and having a subject and a predicate of its own.

A definition of the term 'subordinating conjunction' will be given hereafter.

XII. RELATIVE PRONOUNS—DEFINITIONS OF  
ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES, ADVERB-CLAUSES  
AND NOUN-CLAUSES

45 Relative pronouns.—Examine the groups of words underlined in the following sentences :

Folks who put me in a passion  
Will find me pipe to another fashion.

I chiefly use my charm  
On creatures that do people harm.

46 In these sentences the groups of words underlined are subordinate clauses, like the groups in § 38. But they are equivalent not to nouns or adverbs, but to adjectives; for they describe or indicate the things or persons denoted by the nouns 'creatures' and 'folks'. The clause 'that do people harm' is used like the adjective 'harmful'; the clause 'who put me in a passion' like the adjective 'irritating'.

47 A subordinate clause which is used like an adjective is called an **adjective-clause**.

A subordinate clause which is used like an adverb is called an **adverb-clause** (§ 40).

A subordinate clause which is used like a noun is called a **noun-clause** (§ 39).

48 Adjective-clauses differ from adverb-clauses and from noun-clauses in one important respect. The word that introduces an adjective-clause is not a subordinating conjunction; for in some instances it is itself the subject or the object of the clause. Thus in § 45 the words 'who' and 'that' are subjects of the clauses in which they stand, and if we were to

remove them, the part that would remain would no longer be a clause at all ; for it would have no subject :—

*SUBJECT OF SUB-  
ORDINATE CLAUSE*

who  
that

*PREDICATE OF SUB-  
ORDINATE CLAUSE*

put me in a passion  
do people harm

In the following sentences the words that introduce the adjective-clauses are objects :

Who was he *whom* the Mayor and Corporation treated unjustly ?

This is the house *that* Jack built.

*SUBJECT OF SUB-  
ORDINATE CLAUSE*

the Mayor and Corporation  
Jack

*PREDICATE OF SUB-  
ORDINATE CLAUSE*

VERB

OBJECT

ADVERBIAL  
QUALIFICA-  
TION

treated  
built

whom  
that

unjustly

It is clear, then, that the introducing words 'who', 'whom', 'that' are something more than conjunctions.

Note the form 'whom', used as an object ; it is another form of the word 'who', just as 'him' and 'them' are forms of the words 'he' and 'they' (see § 29).

Another form of the word 'who' is 'whose' :

This is the man *whose* house was burnt down.

- 49 These words, introducing adjective-clauses, are pronouns ; for they indicate persons or things without naming them (see § 27) ; but they are pronouns of a particular kind—pronouns which connect a clause with the rest of the sentence, like conjunctions. Such pronouns are called *relative pronouns*, because they relate to a noun or pronoun in the rest of the sentence ('folks' and 'creatures' in § 45, 'he' and 'house' in § 48) : this noun or pronoun is called the *antecedent*. But the name 'relative' does not fully

describe the work done by these pronouns in the sentence. Relative pronouns not only *relate* to an antecedent, but also connect the clause which they introduce with the rest of the sentence.

- 50 The relative pronoun is sometimes omitted when it is the object of its clause or depends on a preposition ; but the clause remains subordinate, though it has no introducing word. For the sense is exactly the same as if a relative pronoun had been used :

I'm bereft of all the pleasant sights *they see*.

XIII. SIMPLE SENTENCES AND COMPLEX SENTENCES  
—MAIN CLAUSES

Simple sentences and complex sentences.

- 51 If we compare sentences which contain phrases (§§ 34, 35, with sentences which contain clauses (§§ 38, 45), we see that the former are much simpler in construction than the latter. For example, in the following sentences containing phrases there is only one subject and one predicate :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
Hamelin Town	is in Brunswick
The man in the moon	came down too soon

But the sentences given in § 38 and § 45 have *within the predicate* or *within the subject* another subject and predicate :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
It	is dull in our town
	SUBJECT OF SUB. CLAUSE   PREDICATE OF SUB. CLAUSE
	[since] my playmates   left
SUBJECT	PREDICATE
Folks	will find me pipe to another fashion
SUBJECT OF SUB. CLAUSE   PREDICATE OF SUB. CLAUSE	
who	put me in a passion

- 52 There is nothing to prevent a subordinate clause from having another subordinate clause within it: thus we may get a succession of clauses within clauses, like a set of Chinese boxes:

<i>SUBJ.</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>																
They	made a decree																
[that] lawyers	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[that] records</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">should never think</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[that] records</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"> <table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">were duly drawn up</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"> <table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">were dated from the year 1376</td> </tr> </table> </td> </tr> </table> </td> </tr> </table>	<i>SUBJ.</i>	<i>PRED.</i>	[that] records	should never think	[that] records	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">were duly drawn up</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"> <table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">were dated from the year 1376</td> </tr> </table> </td> </tr> </table>	<i>SUBJ.</i>	<i>PRED.</i>	[unless] they	were duly drawn up	[unless] they	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">were dated from the year 1376</td> </tr> </table>	<i>SUBJ.</i>	<i>PRED.</i>	[unless] they	were dated from the year 1376
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[unless] they	were duly drawn up																
[unless] they	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>SUBJ.</i></td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;"><i>PRED.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px; vertical-align: top;">[unless] they</td> <td style="padding-left: 5px; vertical-align: top;">were dated from the year 1376</td> </tr> </table>	<i>SUBJ.</i>	<i>PRED.</i>	[unless] they	were dated from the year 1376												
<i>SUBJ.</i>	<i>PRED.</i>																
[unless] they	were dated from the year 1376																

- 53 A sentence which contains only one subject and one predicate is called a **simple sentence**.

A sentence which contains within it one or more subordinate clauses is called a **complex sentence**.

#### Main clauses.

- 54 The part of a complex sentence which is not subordinate may have a subject and a predicate of its own, and in such cases it is called the **main clause** of the sentence; for example, '*It is dull in our town* since my playmates left'.

But sometimes the part of a complex sentence which is not subordinate has no subject or no complete predicate of its own; for the subordinate clause may be itself the subject or the object of the complex sentence; for example, '*The Mayor denied that his offer was binding*' (noun-clause, object of 'denied'); '*That his offer was binding* was denied by the Mayor' (noun-clause, subject of 'was denied'). In such cases the part of the sentence which remains when the subordinate clause is removed is not a clause (cf. § 42); but it always has at least a **main verb** ('denied', 'was denied').

XIV. ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES—  
SENTENCE-PICTURES

55 In analysing a complex sentence :

first make a sentence-picture, showing the groups of words into which the sentence falls, and which group is subordinate to which ; this is done by writing each subordinate clause a little to the right of the clause to which it is subordinate :

then show in the form of a table the analysis of each separate group. Subordinating conjunctions should be placed outside the table (to the left).

EXAMPLE I

*The Mayor denied that the promise which he had made was binding.*

Complex sentence containing two subordinate clauses :

The Mayor denied

- (1) that the promise . . . was binding (noun-clause, object of 'denied')
- (2) which he had made (adjective-clause, qualifying 'promise')

SUBJECTS		PREDICATES			
		VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON <sup>s</sup> .	ADV. QUALI- FICA- TIONS
	the Mayor	denied			
that	the promise he	was had made	which	binding	

## EXAMPLE II

*There came into many a burgher's pate  
 A text which says that heaven's gate  
 Opes to the rich at as easy rate  
 As the needle's eye takes a camel in.*

Complex sentence, containing three subordinate clauses :

There came into many a burgher's pate a text

- (1) which says . . . (adjective-clause, qualifying 'text')
- (2) that heaven's gate opes to the rich at as easy rate (noun-clause, object of 'says')
- (3) as the needle's eye takes a camel in (adverb-clause, qualifying 'as easy')

SUBJECTS		PREDICATES			
		VERBS	OB- JECTS	PRED. ADJ. <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON. <sup>s</sup>	ADV. QUALIFI- CATIONS
	a text	came			(a) there (b) into many a burgher's pate
that	which heaven's gate	says opes			(a) to the rich (b) at as easy rate
as	the needle's eye	takes	a camel		in

## EXAMPLE III

*When the Piper claimed his pay, the Mayor declared that the promise which he had made before the town was cleared of rats was only a joke, as the Piper very well knew.*

Complex sentence containing five subordinate clauses :

The Mayor declared

- (1) when the Piper claimed his pay (adverb-clause, qualifying 'declared')
- (2) that the promise . . . was only a joke (noun-clause, object of 'declared')
- (3) which he had made (adjective-clause, qualifying 'promise')
- (4) before the town was cleared of rats (adverb-clause, qualifying 'made')
- (5) as the Piper very well knew (adverb-clause, qualifying 'was only a joke')

SUBJECTS		PREDICATES			
		VERBS	OB- JECTS	PRED. ADJ <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON <sup>s</sup> .	ADV. QUALI- FICA- TIONS
	The Mayor	declared			
when	the Piper	claimed	his pay		
that	the promise	was		a joke	only
	he	had made	which		
before	the town	was cleared			of rats
as	the Piper	knew			v. well

EXAMPLE IV

*That the Mayor was telling a lie proves that the Piper was quite right.*

Complex sentence containing two subordinate clauses :

- (1) that the Mayor was telling a lie (noun-clause, subject of 'proves')
- proves
- (2) that the Piper was quite right (noun-clause, object of 'proves')

<i>SUBJECTS</i>		<i>PREDICATES</i>			
		VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ. <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON. <sup>s</sup> .	ADV. QUALI- FICA- TIONS
		proves			
that that	the Mayor the Piper	was telling was	a lie	quite right	

XV. CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS—DOUBLE AND  
MULTIPLE SENTENCES AND MEMBERS OF  
SENTENCES

Co-ordinating conjunctions.

56 Examine the groups of words underlined in the following sentences :

(a) From street to street he piped advancing,  
And step for step they followed dancing.

(b) At this the Mayor and Corporation  
Quaked with a mighty consternation.

(c) He himself was tall and thin.

(d) Nobody could enough admire  
The tall man and his quaint attire.

(e) Here they noticed round his neck  
A scarf of red and yellow stripe.

(f) The rats fought and killed the cats and dogs.



(g) Rouse up, sirs! Give your brains a racking,  
Or, sure as fate, we'll send you packing.

(h) They called it the Pied Piper's Street,  
Nor suffered they hostelry or tavern  
To shock with mirth a street so solemn,  
But opposite the place of the cavern  
They wrote the story on a column.

(i) The Mayor looked blue ;  
For half the money would replenish  
The cellar's biggest butt with Rhenish.

57 The words printed in italics in the above sentences are called **co-ordinating conjunctions**—'conjunctions' because they are links, 'co-ordinating' because the words or groups of words which they link together are of equal rank.

The chief co-ordinating conjunctions are—

*and, or, nor, but, for.*

58 The first member of a pair connected by 'and' is sometimes introduced by 'both', which has the effect of binding the pair more closely together :

Both the Mayor and the Corporation  
Quaked with a mighty consternation.

Similarly 'either' is used before 'or', and 'neither' before 'nor':

Either give your brains a racking or we'll send you packing.  
Neither will I obey nor shall you send me packing.

The words 'both', 'either', 'neither', when used in this way to strengthen the force of a co-ordinating conjunction, are themselves co-ordinating conjunctions.

## DEFINITIONS.

(1) A co-ordinating conjunction is a word used to connect parts of a sentence which are of equal rank.

(2) A subordinating conjunction is a word used to connect an adverb-clause or a noun-clause with the rest of a complex sentence.

## Double and multiple-sentences and members of sentences.

59 A sentence consisting of two or more co-ordinate parts is called a **double sentence** or a **multiple sentence** (see examples *a, g, h, i* in § 56).

Similarly any member of a simple sentence (§ 53) is called **double** or **multiple** when it consists of two or more co-ordinate parts (see examples *b, c, d, e, f* in § 56).

OBS. 'But', 'or' and 'nor' are sometimes used, like 'and' (in *b, c, d, e, f*, § 56), to connect co-ordinate parts in a simple sentence; for example, two epithets, as in 'He made a clever *but* ill-tempered speech', or two objects, as in 'They desired victory *or* death', or two adverbs, as in 'That is *neither* here *nor* there'.

XVI. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES CONTAINING  
CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

60 Co-ordinating conjunctions which connect single words or phrases belonging to the same sentence or clause are placed in the same column as the words or phrases which they connect.

*At this the Mayor and Corporation  
Quaked with a mighty consternation.*

*He himself was tall and thin.*

*The rats fought and killed the cats and dogs in the  
houses and in the streets.*

*I draw after me all creatures that creep or swim or fly  
or run.*

SUBJECTS	PREDICATES			
	VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON <sup>s</sup> .	ADV. QUALIFI- CATIONS
the Mayor and Corpora- tion	quaked			(a) at this (b) with a mighty consternation
he himself	was		tall and thin	
the rats	fought and killed	the cats and dogs		in the houses and in the streets
I	draw  creep or swim or fly or run	all creatures		after me

61 Co-ordinating conjunctions which connect sentences or clauses are placed outside the table of analysis.

*From street to street he piped advancing,  
And step for step they followed dancing.*

*I believe that the day will soon break, but I shall not wait  
until the sun rises.*

*When it is day, but before the sun is high in the sky, we  
shall ascend the mountain.*

#### SENTENCE-PICTURES.

From street to street he piped advancing,  
[And] step for step they followed dancing.

I believe

- (1) that the day will soon break (noun-clause, object of 'believe'),

[but] I shall not wait

- (2) until the sun rises (adverb-clause, qualifying 'shall wait').

We shall ascend the mountain

- (1) when it is day (adv.-cl., qualifying 'shall ascend')

- (2) [but] before the sun is high in the sky (adverb-clause, qualifying 'shall ascend').

	SUB-JECTS	PREDICATES			
		VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ. <sup>e</sup> , NOUNS, PRON. <sup>e</sup>	ADV. QUALIFI-CATIONS
	he	piped		advancing	from street to street
and	they	followed		dancing	step for step
that	I	believe			soon
but	the day	will break			not
until	I	shall wait			
	the sun	rises			
	we	shall ascend	the mountain		
when	it	is		day	
[but] before	the sun	is		high	in the sky

62 A sentence like 'They fought the dogs and killed the cats and bit the babies in the cradles' may be regarded as consisting of three sentences (the subject 'they' being supplied before 'killed' and 'bit'); if so, it is to be analysed like the first example in § 61. But such a sentence may also be analysed as a simple sentence containing only one subject and a multiple predicate (each part of the predicate consisting

of a verb with its object). If so, the co-ordinating conjunctions may be placed within the table, but in brackets and on a separate line, as follows :

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>			
	VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON <sup>s</sup> .	ADV. QUALIFI- CATIONS
They	fought [and] killed [and] bit	the dogs  the cats  the babies in the cradles		

### XVII. CO-ORDINATION WITHOUT A CONJUNCTION— SENTENCE-ADVERBS

63 Co-ordination without a conjunction.—Co-ordinating conjunctions are not always necessary to connect the parts of a sentence which are of equal rank. For double and multiple members of a simple sentence may be formed without any conjunction, by simply putting the co-ordinate parts side by side. In the following sentence we have a multiple subject formed in this way :

Great rats, small rats, lean rats, brawny rats,  
Grave old plodders, gay young friskers,  
Fathers, mothers, uncles, cousins,  
Families by tens and dozens,  
Brothers, sisters, husbands, wives,  
 Followed the Piper for their lives.

Sometimes the conjunction 'and' is put between the last word and the last but one of a multiple group :

The Mayor sent East, West, North *and* South.  
 [= East and West and North and South.]

- 64 Two or more co-ordinate clauses of a double or multiple sentence may be constructed without a co-ordinating conjunction; but in that case the co-ordinate clauses may be regarded as separate sentences:

An hour they sat in council,  
At length the Mayor broke silence.

The Mayor looked blue;  
So did the Corporation too.

- 65 Words like 'therefore', 'consequently', 'so', 'however', 'yet', 'nevertheless', 'also', 'moreover', 'besides', 'even', 'only' are adverbs, not conjunctions; but they qualify not any single word in the sentence (verb, adjective, or adverb) but the sentence as a whole. They are therefore called *sentence-adverbs*, and are put into the adverbial qualification column.

#### XVIII. THE TWO USES OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS— RELATIVE ADVERBS

The two uses of relative pronouns.

- 66 Relative pronouns may be used  
either (1) to introduce a subordinate clause (see §§ 45-50);  
or (2) to introduce a co-ordinate clause:

I gave the letter to my brother, *who thereupon posted it.*

Here the words 'who posted it' are not used to qualify the antecedent 'my brother', but to make a separate statement of equal rank with the first statement. Such a sentence consists of two co-ordinate clauses; for it is equivalent in meaning to 'I gave the letter to my brother *and he posted it*' (a double sentence). This meaning is shown very clearly in a sentence like 'I told it to John, *who* told it to his sister, *and she* told it to many other girls'.

In the following sentence 'which' introduces a co-ordinate clause ('which' = and this):

One swam across and lived to carry  
 To Rat-land home his commentary:  
*Which* was 'At the first shrill notes of the pipe  
 I heard a sound as of scraping tripe', &c.

Note that a co-ordinating relative pronoun can never be omitted, as a subordinating relative pronoun sometimes is (§ 50). For example, it would be impossible to omit 'which' in the sentence 'He brought home his commentary, which others read afterwards'.

Obs. The antecedent of a co-ordinating 'which' may be the whole statement of the preceding clause, as in 'For he's a jolly good fellow, which nobody can deny'.

We are now prepared to give a definition of the term 'relative pronoun'.

DEFINITION.—A relative pronoun is a pronoun which is used to connect two parts of a sentence, like a conjunction.

Of the parts connected the second may be either subordinate to or co-ordinate with the first.

### Relative adverbs.

- 67 The words 'where' and 'when' (and other words like them, such as 'whither', 'whence') are used not only as subordinating conjunctions introducing adverb-clauses (see example with 'when' in § 38), but also to introduce adjective-clauses with a noun as their antecedent in the main clause. In this use they resemble relative pronouns; but they are adverbs, not pronouns, because they have the same adverbial meaning in the adjective-clause as words like 'there', 'then' have in a simple sentence. These words may then be described as relative adverbs:

For he led us to a joyous land  
Where waters gushed and fruit-trees grew.

[ 'where' = in which ]

This is the season when much rain falls.

[ 'when' = at which ]

'Why' is also used as a relative adverb in sentences like 'The reason *why* he did it is unknown'.

Obs.—The words 'where', 'when' and the like may also have co-ordinating force; and in this respect too they resemble relative pronouns (see § 66):

They called it the Pied Piper's Street—  
*Where* any one playing on pipe or tabor  
 Was sure for the future to lose his labour.  
 ['where' = and there *or* and in that street]

Great was the joy in every breast;  
*When*, lo, as they reached the mountain's side  
 A wondrous portal opened wide.  
 ['when' = and then *or* and thereupon]

These are double sentences.

68 In analysing sentences containing relative adverbs, the relative adverb is to be put into the adverbial qualification column. Thus the first example in § 67 is to be analysed as follows:

- For he led us to a joyous land  
 (1)                    where waters gushed  
 (2)            [and] fruit-trees grew

SUBJECTS		PREDICATES			
		VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON <sup>s</sup> .	ADV. QUALIFI- CATIONS
For	he	led	us		to a joyous land
and	waters fruit-trees	gushed grew			where



## XIX. INTERJECTIONS—SENTENCE-WORDS

## Interjections.

69

*O* rats, rejoice!*Oh* for a trap, a trap, a trap!*Alas, alas* for Hamelin!*Hurrah* for merry England!A Merry Christmas to everybody! *Hallo* here!DICKENS, *A Christmas Carol*.*Heigh-ho!* I'm tired to death.Then, *lo*, a wondrous portal opened wide.*Ah*, when shall they all meet again?

The words printed in italics in the above sentences, and words like them, are called **interjections**, because they may be, as it were, 'thrown into' the sentence, forming no necessary part of its structure, as in 'Our children, *alas*, will never return'.

In many cases, however, the sentence would have no complete sense if the interjection were removed, as in the second, third, and fourth examples above. This is because such sentences are really fragments of sentences: 'oh for a trap!' means 'oh I long for a trap'; in 'alas for Hamelin', 'alas' is equivalent to a sentence like 'I am sorry'. 'Alas' is derived from the Old French *ha las*, which is the interjection *ha* or *a* (= 'ah') and the adjective *las* 'weary' (Latin *lassus*).<sup>1</sup> Thus *ha las!* means literally 'ah weary!' = 'ah, I am weary'. This instance shows how an interjection may be equivalent to a whole sentence.

DEFINITION.—An interjection is a word expressing a feeling, such as joy, grief, surprise, or calling the attention of the person addressed.

Note that interjections are *single words*. Groups of words like 'What a pity!' 'How awful!' are not interjections but sentences of which the subject and part of the predicate are

<sup>1</sup> The Modern French *hélas* is a similar formation with *hé* instead of *ha*.

not expressed (= 'What a pity it is!' 'How awful that was!'). Such sentences are called exclamations, not interjections. And commands, like 'Come', 'Go', 'Speak', 'Hark' are not interjections.

The note of admiration (!) may be written after any sentence which is spoken in an excited tone; see *Pied Piper*, lines 30, 32, 38, 54, 56, &c.

### Sentence-words.

- 70 There are two common words in the English language which do not belong to any of the eight parts of speech (§ 5)—the words 'yes' and 'no'. They are not interjections, because they do not express emotion or call the attention of the person addressed; they are not adverbs, because they do not go with any verb, adjective, or adverb, expressed or understood. They are themselves equivalent to whole sentences and may be best described as 'sentence-words':

Did you see the show? *Yes*.

[ 'Yes' = I did see the show ]

And when all were in to the very last,  
The door in the mountain-side shut fast.

Did I say all? *No!* One was lame.

[ 'No' = They were not all in ]

'Yes' is probably derived from the Old English form of the adverb *yea* (meaning 'surely'); the *s* at the end comes from the word *so*. Thus 'yes' means *surely so*.

'No' is derived from an Old English adverb meaning 'never'.

### XX. NOTE TO THE TEACHER.

The pupil after working through §§ 1-70 will be able to parse and analyse most sentences; but the uses of verb-nouns (infinitives) as objects and as adverbial qualifications are reserved for treatment in the second volume of this grammar. So, too, the indirect object, which will be treated in connexion with the dative case.

# EXERCISES

SENTENCES (§§ 1-4).

## I

Divide the following sentences into Subject and Predicate :

- A.
1. Fishes swim.
  2. The book was red.
  3. All the flowers are withered.
  4. Have you seen the King?
  5. Long live the King.
  6. The little girl is sewing hard.
  7. That ship of war was lost in the North Sea.
  8. The house at the cross-roads is very old.
- B.
1. I have lost my precious stamp-book.
  2. My friend left it in the schoolroom.
  3. That book I shall never see again.
  4. Have you seen it anywhere?
  5. How careless I have been!
  6. The bird with the yellow bill is building a nest.
  7. Last week a man arrived from Canada.
  8. In this house a very great man was born.
  9. Great was their joy.

## II

Supply Subjects for the following Predicates, varying them as much as you can :

- |                              |                                  |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. . . . is the best player. | 5. . . . was lost?               |
| 2. . . . saw the fox.        | 6. . . . swam to the shore.      |
| 3. . . . won the match.      | 7. May . . . never grow less.    |
| 4. . . . are reading.        | 8. How quickly . . . is running! |

Supply Predicates for the following Subjects :

- |                           |                                      |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Birds . . .            | 5. . . . we . . . ?                  |
| 2. The old bridge . . .   | 6. . . . the boy with the straw hat? |
| 3. The slaves . . .       | 7. Mary . . .                        |
| 4. An old fisherman . . . | 8. . . . the flowers in the garden   |

## NOUNS (§§ 6, 7).

Pick out the nouns in the following:

- A.
1. Heap on more wood.
  2. The wind is chill.
  3. The King was in his counting-house  
Counting out his money.
  4. We saw pictures and books in the old house.
  5. All at once I saw a crowd,  
A host of golden daffodils.
  6. The King laid his crown on the ground.
  7. There are many nouns on this page.
  8. The mouse stole the cheese from the trap.
- B.
1. Godfather Gilpin often lets me play with his books. I sit on the floor and sometimes I build with the books, and sometimes I make people of them and call them by the names on their backs.
  2. We played at church and I was the parson, and Godfather Gilpin was the old gentleman who sits in the big pew with the knocker, and the books were the congregation.

MRS. EWING.

3. So Perseus floated on across the desert, over ledges of rock and banks of shingle and level wastes of sand, and shells bleaching in the sunshine, and skeletons of great monsters and dead bones of ancient giants strewn up and down. Over the sand he went till he saw the hills of the Psylli and the dwarfs who fought with cranes. Their spears were of reeds and rushes, and their houses of the eggshells of the cranes.

CHARLES KINGSLEY.

## VERBS (§§ 8-10).

## I

Pick out the verbs in the following:

- A.
1. I see the cowslips in the meadow.
  2. Choose quickly.
  3. I worked in my garden.
  4. Did the traveller kill many lions?
  5. Give me your book.
  6. The soldiers were talking.
  7. Here come two battleships.
  8. Snow has fallen on the ground.

B. 1. In a corner at the furthest end crouched a lady. Before her stood a Spanish gentleman, sword in hand. They were in difficulties. For six or eight men with swords and pikes cut and thrust at them. Three servants lay dead upon the ground. Jack rushed forward, and with his pistol shot the leader of the assailants, and then placed himself beside the gentleman and shouted to the men. The latter, at the appearance of an English officer, drew back. Jack ran to the window and opened it, and shouted as if to some soldiers below.

HENTY, *The Bravest of the Brave.*

2. The hedge broke in, the banner blew,  
 The butler drank, the steward scrawled,  
 The fire shot up, the martin flew,  
 The parrot screamed, the peacock squaled,  
 The maid and page renewed their strife,  
 The palace banged and buzzed and clackt,  
 And all the long-pent stream of life  
 Dashed downward in a cataract.  
 And last with these the King awoke,  
 And in his chair himself upreared,  
 And yawned and rubbed his face and spoke,  
 'By holy rood, a royal beard!'

TENNYSON.

## II

Complete the following sentences by supplying verbs :

- |                                   |                                 |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. The cat . . . the mouse.       | 7. The storm . . . the sailors. |
| 2. The whistle . . .              | 8. Farmers . . . corn.          |
| 3. . . . the army . . . the town? | 9. Long . . . the King.         |
| 4. I <del>read</del> the books.   | 10. I never . . . the town.     |
| 5. The donkey . . . the hay.      | 11. The fire . . . the dresses. |
| 6. Where . . . the flowers?       | 12. How they . . . !            |

### ANALYSIS (§ 9).

Analyse the following sentences in the form given in § 9 :

1. I saw a host of golden daffodils.
2. The King was in his counting-house.
3. Perseus floated across the desert.
4. Did the traveller kill many lions?
5. Here come two battleships.
6. A quantity of snow has fallen during the night.

## ADJECTIVES (§§ 11, 12).

Find the adjectives in the following :

1. Our next friend was an exquisite collie, fleet, thin-flanked, dainty, and handsome as a small greyhound, with all the grace of silky waving black and tan hair.

DR. JOHN BROWN.

2. And now they could see the Sirens on the flowery isle—three fair maidens, who sat on the beach beneath a red rock in the setting sun, among beds of crimson poppies. Slowly they sang with silver voices which stole over the golden waters. All things stayed round and listened ; the gulls sat in white lines along the rocks ; on the beach great seals kept time with lazy heads.

CHARLES KINGSLEY.

3. Two frogs went into a cool dairy, and by a sad chance fell into a large basin of fresh milk. One frog always looked on the bright side of things, and had good hopes of the future even in painful circumstances. The other frog lost hope when he fell into the milk, and gave up all attempts to save his life. So he soon perished. But the cheerful frog swam about bravely, till in the early morning the dairymaid came in and found him on a large pat of butter, which he had churned for himself by his swimming.

## THE TWO USES OF ADJECTIVES (§ 13).

## I

Pick out the adjectives in the following sentences and say how each is used :

1. Our sailors are brave.
2. The battle was long.
3. My friend has sent a long letter.
4. Our British sailors are brave.
5. The old king is ill.
6. The long lane is muddy.

## II

Underline the subject-word (§ 4, OBS.) in each of the above sentences.

## III

Analyse the following sentences in the form of a table (§ 13, p. 18), and underline the subject-word in each sentence :

1. The old castle is beautiful.

2. Long poems are wearisome.
3. The old soldiers will be glad.
4. The diligent schoolboy was busy.
5. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
6. Are all long sentences difficult?

EPITHET-NOUNS (§§ 14-17).

I

Arrange the nouns in the following sentences in two lists: (i) those which are epithet-nouns, (ii) those which are not epithet-nouns:

1. The door in the mountain-side shut fast.
2. The school boys went into the dining-room.
3. The master had a handsome writing-desk in his study.
4. Do you know where the London County Council offices are?
5. I read about his money troubles in the evening paper.
6. This girl leads a butterfly life.
7. 'Hearts of oak!' our captains cried,

When each gun

From its adamantine lips

Spread a death shade round the ships,

Like the hurricane eclipse

Of the sun. CAMPBELL.

II

Arrange the nouns in the following sentences in two lists: (i) those which are in apposition, (ii) those which are not in apposition:

1. I heard the sweet songsters of the grove, thrushes and black-birds.
2. I listened to the singing of thrushes, blackbirds, and nightingales.
3. The Countess of Salisbury, daughter of George, Duke of Clarence, was there.
4. This was the message sent to the king of Angola, a mischievous chieftain.
5. Bacon, Lord Chancellor of England, wrote the Advancement of Learning, a book of great importance.

6. A bishop by the altar stood,  
A noble lord of Douglas blood.

SCOTT.

7. A sure stronghold our God is still,  
A trusty shield and weapon.  
CARLYLE'S *Translation of Luther's Hymn.*
8. Their leader was Mamilius,  
Prince of the Latin name. MACAULAY.
9. Never was there such a knight in friendship or in war  
As our Sovereign Lord, King Henry, the soldier of Navarre.  
MACAULAY.

PREDICATIVE AND EPITHET WORDS (§§ 14-20).

I

Pick out in the following sentences—

1. Predicative adjectives.
  2. Predicative nouns.
  3. Nouns which are not predicative.
- A.
1. Thy father was duke of Milan.
  2. These people are hypocrites.
  3. That was my belief.
  4. This dog is my dog.
  5. Sir John was chosen admiral of the fleet.
  6. The Piper stood erect.
  7. Green and blue his sharp eyes twinkled.
  8. The Piper was master of the situation.
  9. The Councillors sat mute.
  10. The people came flocking to the Town Hall.
  11. The Mayor looked bigger when he cried 'Come in!'
  12. Benedick, a character in one of Shakespeare's plays, says 'I will live a bachelor'.

- B.
- The nations not so blest as thee  
Must in their turn to tyrants fall,  
While thou shalt flourish great and free,  
The dread and envy of them all.  
Still more majestic shalt thou rise,  
More dreadful from each foreign stroke;  
As the loud blast that tears the skies  
Serves but to root thy native oak. THOMSON.

II

Make up three sentences of your own containing predicative nouns and three containing epithet-nouns.



## III

Analyse the first nine sentences contained in I above in the form of a table like the one given in § 19.

## ADVERBS (§§ 21-24).

Pick out the adverbs in the following:

- A.
1. He fought bravely.
  2. I see clearly.
  3. Where are our books?
  4. We came to school yesterday.
  5. It happened here on July 22nd, 1376.
  6. How unhappy the Mayor was!
  7. I chiefly use my charm on creatures like rats.
  8. His fingers were ever straying.
  9. I shall never hear of that country more.
  10. Nobody could admire him enough.
  11. Poke out the nests, and block up the holes.
  12. The children skipped merrily by.
- B.
1. An Arab was wandering in a very large desert. As the sun was shining fiercely overhead, he soon became very thirsty, and sank down wearily. Then seeing a bag, which some traveller had left behind, he crawled slowly forward, and seized it eagerly, hoping that it might possibly contain fruit. He opened the bag carefully and soon found that there were many pearls in it. Elsewhere they would have been very valuable, but in the desert they were quite worthless. He lay down on the sand greatly disappointed.
  2. Short halt did Deloraine make there,  
Little recked he of the scene so fair;  
With iron hand on the wicket strong  
He knocked full loud, and knocked full long.  
SCOTT.
  3. There is a tribe of alien people in Transylvania who have not forgotten the story of the Pied Piper.

## ADVERBS CONTINUED (§§ 21-25).

## I

Make up sentences of your own containing adverbs formed from the following adjectives:

Wise, short, easy, fierce, cruel, savage, gentle, quick, active, loud, generous, noble.

## II

Analyse the following sentences in the form of the table given in § 25, dividing the predicates into verb and adverbial qualification :

1. I hear clearly.
2. The echoes are ringing still.
3. Splinters were flying about.
4. He will never run again.
5. The books are here.
6. The children skipped by merrily.

## PRONOUNS (§§ 26, 27).

## I

Complete the following sentences by supplying pronouns :

1. Tell me where . . . have put my book.
2. When the master praises the servants, . . . are pleased.
3. If Dick touch the nettles, . . . will sting.
4. Since Mary has given me this book, . . . will take care of . . .
5. If the stranger would like to see the cave, . . . will lead . . . to . . .
6. The books are lost. Has any one seen . . . ?
7. The old man showed his garden to the boys : . . . thanked . . . , because . . . had been so kind to . . .
8. If the boys attack the dog, . . . will bite . . .

## II

Find the pronouns in the following :

1. He took the children by the hand,  
Tears standing in their eye,  
And bade them straightway follow him  
And look they did not cry ;  
And two long miles he led them on,  
While they for food complain,  
'Stay here,' quoth he, 'I'll bring you bread  
When I come back again.'

## THE BALLAD OF THE BABES IN THE WOOD.

2. 'Now my lads,' the colonel went on, addressing the men, 'You have all been pressed to serve Her Majesty in accordance with Act of Parliament, and though some of you may not like it, you will soon get over that, and take to it kindly enough. In

a newly raised regiment like this one it is necessary to keep a tight hand, but if you behave well, and do your duty, you will not find the life hard. Remember it's no use any of you thinking of deserting; for we have got your names. That will do.'

HENTY, *The bravest of the Brave.*

3. Our children's children  
Shall see this, and bless Heaven.  
SHAKESPEARE, *Henry VIII.*
4. What is the Flag of England? Winds of the world declare.  
KIPLING.
5. MACBETH. Hark!—who lies in the Second Chamber?  
LADY MACBETH. Donalbain.  
MACBETH. This is a sorry sight. . . . There's one did laugh  
in his sleep and one cried Murder! . . . I stood and heard  
them.  
SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth.*

#### OBJECTS (§§ 28-30).

Pick out the objects in the following; and where the object consists of a group of words distinguish the object-word from the rest of the object by underlining it.

- A.
1. We fought a great battle yesterday.
  2. The enemy made the first attack early in the morning.
  3. Our men resisted them bravely the whole day.
  4. I foresaw a great British victory.
  5. We drove the enemy several miles from the field.
  6. After the battle the soldiers cheered their general.
  7. They forgot their wounds in that joyful hour.
  8. We had gained a great victory.
- B.
1. Never shall we know again  
A heart so stout and true;  
The olden times have passed away,  
And weary are the new.  
He never owned the foreign rule,  
No master he obeyed,  
But kept his clan in peace at home  
From foray and from raid.

AYTOUN, *A Jacobite Ballad.*

2. And eastward straight from wild Blackheath the warlike errand went,  
 And roused in many an ancient hall the gallant squires of Kent ;  
 And on and on without a pause untired they bounded still,  
 All night from tower to tower they sprang, they sprang from hill to hill,  
 Till the proud peak unfurled the flag o'er Darwin's rocky dales,  
 Till like volcanoes flared to heaven the stormy hills of Wales,  
 Till Belvoir's lordly terraces the sign to Lincoln sent,  
 And Lincoln sped the message on o'er the wide vale of Trent.
- MACAULAY.

3. Oh, no! Alas, I rather hate myself  
 For hateful deeds committed by myself.
- SHAKESPEARE.

WORDS USED PREDICATIVELY OF OBJECTS (§ 31).

Analyse the following sentences in the tabular form given in § 31 :

1. This news makes me furious.
2. We called our late King the Peacemaker.
3. The gardener is painting the white gate green.
4. The evidence proved the prisoner guilty.
5. We elected him cricket captain.
6. This deed rendered our soldiers famous.
7. We nicknamed our friend the Grasshopper.
8. They built the walls thick.
9. He showed himself a wise ruler.
10. The lightning struck the general blind.
11. They showed themselves brave men.
12. Trouble drove King Lear mad.

PHRASES (§ 33).

I

Find in the following :

- (1) Adjective-phrases.
- (2) Adverb-phrases.

The walk to the field was a muddy one. We crossed a river, which, for some reason, was called 'The Waters of Babylon'. But the bridge across the water had become useless, so we waded through the stream. When we got to the field, we heard the

Captain's voice. We arrived at the playing-ground just as the game was beginning.

*A Day at Eton.*

## II

Find adjective-phrases and adverb-phrases in the Exercises on the Object (§§ 28-30), pp. 63, 64.

## PREPOSITIONS (§§ 34, 35).

Find prepositions in the following passages, and say whether the phrases formed with the prepositions are (1) adjective-phrases, or (2) adverb-phrases qualifying verbs, or (3) adverb-phrases qualifying adjectives or adverbs (see § 33).

- A.
1. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
  2. I held the bird in my hand.
  3. We protested against this injustice.
  4. They cannot complain of our action.
  5. Where in the world does he live?
  6. This statement is quite different from the other.
  7. He told me about all his adventures.
  8. All save one were drowned.
  9. They sailed through stormy seas till daybreak.
  10. Have you ever read 'The Heart of Midlothian'?
  11. I sat between my two brothers.
  12. These brave men died for their country.
  13. They were men without fear.
  14. They met their death off Heligoland.
  15. Their behaviour during the war was noble.
- B.
- Bells upon the city are ringing in the night,  
 High above the gardens are the houses full of light,  
 On the breezy Pentlands is the curlew flying free,  
 And the broom is blowing bonnie in the North Countrie
- STEVENSON.
- C.
- On the sward at the cliff top  
 Lie strewn the white flocks;  
 On the cliff side the pigeons  
 Roost deep in the rocks.  
 In the moonlight the shepherds,  
 Soft lulled by the rills,  
 Lie wrapt in their blankets,  
 Asleep on the hills.

MATTHEW ARNOLD, *Callicles' Song.*

## PREPOSITIONS AND ADVERBS (§§ 34-36).

## I

Find the prepositions and adverbs in the following sentences, and say whether the phrases formed with prepositions are adverb-phrases or adjective-phrases.

1. Come unto these yellow sands.
2. Captain Cook sailed round the world.
3. I sailed round in a little boat.
4. The last chapter in the book is too long.
5. We went off to school in the morning.
6. Do you know the meaning of that word?
7. Be very careful of these flowers.
8. They were bought for three shillings in the market.
9. The market is here in the middle of the town.
10. Have you read the end of the story?
11. I remained behind.
12. The children ran behind us.
13. The fowls were running about in the farm-yard.
14. The fowls in the farm-yard were running about.
15. He remained outside the cavern.
16. The alien tribe in Transylvania had come out of Hamelin according to the tradition which had been handed down to them.

## II

Replace the phrases in the following sentences by adverbs or adjectives.

1. They set out with glee.
2. By good luck I was there.
3. This book contains many quotations from the Bible.
4. Remain on this spot.
5. Our king ruled with wisdom.
6. He spoke with great clearness.
7. At what time did the battle begin?
8. The country seems at peace.
9. He used many expressions from Shakespeare.
10. He was without fear.
11. The times of Elizabeth will never come back.
12. Have you read a history of Rome?
13. We find rules of grammar easy.
14. Books about history were scarce.

## III

Find in stanzas v and viii of the *Pied Piper* adverbs which have the same form as prepositions.

## ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES (§ 37).

## I

Analyse in tabular form the following sentences (taken from the Exercises on adverb-phrases and adjective-phrases, § 33, page 64 and on prepositions, §§ 34-35, page 65):

1. We arrived at the playing-ground.
2. The walk to the field was a muddy one.
3. The bridge across the water had become useless.
4. Bells upon the city are ringing in the night.
5. High above the gardens are the houses full of light.
6. On the breezy Pentlands the curlew flies free.
7. The broom is blowing bonnie in the North Countrie.
8. In the moonlight the shepherds lie asleep on the hills.

## II

Analyse in tabular form the following sentences:

1. This bad news made me furious at the time.
2. Yesterday at my request the gardener painted the white gate green.
3. Without a moment's hesitation they elected him chairman by a unanimous vote.
4. People proudly call her reign 'The spacious times of great Elizabeth'.

5. He always showed himself a wise ruler.
6. At that place the general was struck blind by the lightning.
7. Why does not Britannia rule the waves straight?
8. All Etna heaves fiercely  
Her forest-clad frame.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

9. They buried the dark chief. They freed  
Beside the grave his battle-steed.  
Swift an arrow cleaved its way  
To his stern heart. One piercing neigh  
Arose. . . . On the dead man's plain  
The rider grasps his steed again.<sup>1</sup>

LONGFELLOW, *Burial of an Indian Chief*.

<sup>1</sup> This passage contains five sentences, which are to be analysed separately.

## SUBORDINATE CLAUSES (§§ 38-43).

## I

Find the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and say to what part of speech each is equivalent:

- A.
1. I believe that he will come.
  2. We shall not start while it is raining.
  3. I waited until they returned.
  4. We are going to the city because we want to see the exhibition.
  5. Where the Piper went the children followed.
  6. If you have finished your letter I can post it.
  7. When it 's dull in London I go to Paris.
  8. I can't forget that I shall never see those beautiful sights.
  9. Offer the Piper silver and gold wherever you find him.
  10. If we have promised anything let us keep our promise.
  11. The Piper perceived that the Mayor wanted to cheat him.
  12. The Mayor had said that he would give the Piper a handsome reward.

- B.
1. As Sir Roger is landlord to the whole congregation he keeps them in very good order and will suffer nobody in it to sleep besides himself. For if by chance he has been surprised into a short nap at sermon upon recovering out of it he stands up and looks about him and if he sees anybody else nodding either wakes them himself or sends his servant to them. Sometimes he will be lengthening out a verse in the singing Psalms half a minute after the rest of the congregation have done with it. Sometimes he stands up when everybody else is kneeling to count the congregation or to see that none of his tenants are missing. As soon as the sermon is finished nobody presumes to stir till Sir Roger is gone out of the church. The knight walks down from his seat in the chancel while a double row of his tenants stand bowing to him on each side.

ADDISON.

2. When the Black Watch after years of foreign service returned to Scotland veterans kissed the earth at Port Patrick.

R. L. STEVENSON, *Memories and Portraits*.

## II

Write a short story about a mistake that arose from trusting to appearances. Underline the subordinate clauses.



CONNECTING WORDS (RELATIVE PRONOUNS §§ 45-49 and  
SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS § 43).

## I

Pick out the connecting words in the following sentences. State what part of speech each is.

- A.
1. I have heard a legend which has been handed down amongst the country people.
  2. They told me that a village had once stood upon this spot.
  3. Some of them showed me the place that had once been the churchyard.
  4. They always lowered their voices when they drew near the place.
  5. The village had been buried in the sand after a great storm-wind had blown for three days and nights.
  6. They believed the story before any records were found.
  7. If they walk over the sand-hills at night they fancy that they can hear the voices of the villagers who were buried there.
  8. I suppose that that was the reason which prevented them from coming with me when I went out in the dusk.

B.

1. How happy is he born and taught  
That serveth not another's will,  
Whose armour is his honest thought.

SIR HENRY WOTTON.

2. The breeze which swept away the smoke,  
Round Norham Castle roll'd,  
When all the loud artillery spoke  
With lightning-flash and thunder-stroke,  
As Marston left the hold—  
It curled not Tweed alone, that breeze.

SCOTT.

## II

Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate connecting words. State in each case what part of speech you have supplied.

1. . . . it was fair, I ran out to see the blind man . . . was reading at the corner.
2. . . . I drew near, he was reading the line . . . I had always heard him read before.

3. . . . he turned his head towards me, I could see . . . his eyes were half shut.

4. . . . he looked up, a passer-by threw him some coppers, . . . he at once picked up.

5. I wondered at the eager expression . . . seemed to come into his blind eyes.

6. 'Was it at the blind school . . . you learned to see so well with your blind eyes?'

7. . . . I had asked this question, . . . seemed to alarm him, he got up and turned away hastily.

8. Then I understood . . . he saw so well with his blind eyes . . . he was not blind at all.

## III

Find adjective-clauses or adverb-clauses in the following :

1. The hand that mingled in the meal  
At midnight drew the felon steel. SCOTT.

2. There was a rustling that seemed like a bustling.

3. Before his eye grew dim  
He had seen the faces of the sons  
Whose sires had marched with him.

KIPLING, *on Lord Roberts.*

## COMPLEX SENTENCES (§§ 51-55).

## I

Analyse in tabular form (with a sentence-picture, as in § 55) :

(a) The first seven of the sentences numbered I. A in the exercises on subordinate clauses (§§ 38-43), p. 68.

(b) Blow your pipe there till you burst.

(c) Ere he blew three notes there was a rustling that seemed like a bustling of merry crowds.

(d) All the rats perished except the one who carried home the story.

(e) Your manly hearts shall glow  
As ye sweep through the deep  
While the stormy tempests blow. CAMPBELL.

(f) They stood so still that Alice quite forgot that they were alive.

## II

Write a story entitled 'Discontent: a brother and a sister change places for a day'. Mark the sentences which are complex with a C, and underline the main part of each.

CONJUNCTIONS (§§ 56, 57, and § 43).

## I

Turn to the examples in § 56, pp. 44, 45, and write out the words or groups of words which are connected by the conjunctions 'and', 'or', 'nor', 'but', 'for'. Omit the conjunctions.

## II

Find in the following sentences—

1. Co-ordinating conjunctions;
2. Subordinating conjunctions.

- A.
1. As he read the letter, he laughed.
  2. He read the letter and laid it down.
  3. So he told me, but I did not believe him.
  4. He did not reply, nor did he make any sign that he had heard.
  5. After we had seen our mistake, we retraced our steps.
  6. Either accept our conditions or go away.
  7. We rested until the storm was over.
  8. I heard a thousand blended notes,  
While in a grove I sat reclined.

WORDSWORTH.

- B.
1. When the Jacobites had been defeated, Lord Forbes had to go into hiding, and he hoped that as he had many faithful servants he would be safe in his own house, if the enemy came. But one morning at day-break the house was suddenly surrounded by troops, and he had to hide in a deep recess behind a curtain. Although the soldiers looked very carefully, they neither discovered him, nor did they suspect that he was so near. After they had gone, although all danger was not yet over, he was able to come out and leave his uncomfortable hiding-place.

2. Then Denmark blessed our chief,  
That he gave her wounds repose;  
And the sounds of joy and grief  
From her people wildly rose,  
As death withdrew his shades from the day,  
While the sun looked smiling bright  
O'er a wide and woeful sight.

CAMPBELL.

3. For this is England's greatest son,  
 He that gained a hundred fights,  
 Nor ever lost an English gun.  
 This is he that far away  
 Against the myriads of Assaye  
 Clashed with his fiery few and won;  
 And underneath another sun  
 Round affrighted Lisbon drew  
 The treble works and vast designs  
 Of his laboured rampart-lines,  
 And ever great and greater grew,  
 Beating from the wasted vines  
 Back to France her banded swarms,  
 Till o'er the hills her eagles flew. TENNYSON.

## III

Write a description of the Pied Piper's dress and appearance in your own words. When you have finished, underline the subordinating conjunctions.

## DOUBLE AND MULTIPLE SENTENCES AND MEMBERS OF SENTENCES

(§§ 59-62).

## I

Analyse in tabular form (as in §§ 60-62) the following sentences:

1. Barnack Rectory was a fine old house, built in the fourteenth century, and contained a celebrated haunted room called Button Cap. Little Charles, when he was ill of brain fever, was moved into this room, and for many years his imagination was haunted by the weird sights and sounds which were associated with it.

*Life of Charles Kingsley.*

2. The horses were showing signs of fatigue, and Jack drew rein on somewhat rising ground and looked anxiously round. Then he rode up to the front door, and dismounted, and rang the bell. A man opened the door and looked with surprise and alarm at the English uniforms. Jack put his shoulder against the door, and pushed it open.

HENTY, *The Bravest of the Brave.*

3. Consult with carpenters and builders,  
 And leave in our town no trace of the rats.

4. Once more he stept into the street,  
 And to his lips again  
 Laid his long pipe of smooth straight cane.
5. Would you match the base Skippon and Massey and Brown  
 With the Barons of England that fight for the Crown?

SCOTT.

## II

Write a letter from the Mayor of Hamelin to a friend telling about his first interview with the Pied Piper. When you have finished it, underline the main clauses and mark the double sentences.

CO-ORDINATION WITHOUT A CONJUNCTION—SENTENCE-ADVERBS  
 (§§ 63-65).

## I

Find the co-ordinate parts in the following passages:

1. Let our halls and towers decay,  
 Be our name and line forgot,  
 Lands and manors pass away,  
 We but share our monarch's lot.  
 If no more our annals show  
 Battles won and banners taken,  
 Still in death, defeat, and woe,  
 Ours be loyalty unshaken. SCOTT.
2. However he turned from South to West  
 And to Koppelberg Hill his steps addressed,  
 And after him the children pressed.
3. Bring me flesh, and bring me wine,  
 Bring me pine-logs hither;  
 Thou and I will see him dine,  
 When we bring them thither.  
 Page and monarch forth they went,  
 Forth they went together;  
 Through the rude wind's wild lament  
 And the bitter weather. *Christmas Carol.*
4. A moment now he slacked his speed,  
 A moment breathed his panting steed;  
 Drew saddle-girth and corslet band,  
 And loosened in the sheath his brand. SCOTT.
5. The world is grown to one vast dry-saltery,  
 Sc munch on, crunch on, take your nuncheon.

## II

Find the sentence-adverbs in the following :

1. The angle  $ABC$  is equal to the angle  $ACB$  ; therefore the side  $AB$  is equal to the side  $AC$ .

2. The story contradicts itself ; it is therefore false.

3. Alice had no idea what he meant ; so she let the matter drop.

4. These pretty babes

Went wandering up and down ;

Yet never did they see the man

Approaching from the town.

*Ballad of the Babes in the Wood.*

5. Besides, we must remember that the man is not trustworthy.

6. The inn was noisy ; consequently we could not rest.

7. The storm was then at its worst ; however, we set out.

8. Nevertheless the journey that thou takest will not be for thine honour.

OLD TESTAMENT.

9. Moreover he hath left you all his walks,

His private arbours and new-planted orchards.

SHAKESPEARE.

SUBORDINATING AND CO-ORDINATING RELATIVE PRONOUNS (§ 66).

## I

Say whether the relative pronoun in the following sentences is subordinating or co-ordinating.

- A.
1. We shouted for the officer, who came at once.
  2. We praised the officer who had come so quickly.
  3. They have been deserted by their allies, which will give great pleasure to their enemies.
  4. This is a fact which will please our enemies.
  5. The news of the retreat was brought to the prince, who at once went in pursuit.
  6. The prince who was pursuing the enemy was killed on the march.
  7. We heard the colonel's closing words, which were 'The Gordon Highlanders will take the position'.
  8. The colonel's words which inspired the soldiers gave us the victory.

- B. 1. With Clare alone he credence won,  
Who, rather than wed Marmion,  
Did to St. Hilda's shrine repair.

SCOTT.

2. That man's the true conservative  
 Who lops the mouldered branch away.      TENNYSON.

3. From that stile there goes a path that leads directly to  
 Doubting Castle, which is kept by Giant Despair.

BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

4. Thinking it was all right I lay down and went to sleep, but  
 was presently waked by half a dozen monks, who were tying my  
 hands and feet with cords.

HENTY, *The Bravest of the Brave*.

5. The hermit good lives in that wood  
 Which slopes down to the sea.      COLERIDGE.

6. Forthwith this frame of mine was wrenched  
 With a woeful agony,  
 Which forced me to begin my tale.      COLERIDGE.

7. Upon the arrival of the Earl of Peterborough at Valencia he  
 was received with the profoundest sympathy and respect by the  
 people, who were filled with indignation at the treatment which  
 the man whose daring and genius had freed Catalonia had received  
 at the hands of their ungrateful monarch. The Earl took with him  
 his two aide-de-camps, who were both too indignant at the treat-  
 ment which their chief had received to desire to remain with the  
 army in Spain.

HENTY, *The Bravest of the Brave*.

## II

Make up:

- (1) Six sentences with a co-ordinating relative pronoun.
- (2) Six sentences with a subordinating relative pronoun.

### RELATIVE ADVERBS (§ 67 and § 43).

#### I

What parts of speech are the connecting words in the following  
 passage?

At last you fetch clear of the forests and climb bare hills where  
 wolves howl in the ruins of our cities that have been. . . . No more  
 jolly magistrates who knew your father when he was young. . . .  
 That's the place where you meet hunters and trappers for the  
 circuses, prodding along chained bears and muzzled wolves. . . . In

the naked hills beyond the naked houses, where the shadows of the clouds play like cavalry charging, you see puffs of black smoke from the mines. When you think that you are at the world's end, you see a smoke from East to West, and then, under it, houses and temples, shops and theatres, barracks and granaries. . . . And that is the Wall.

KIPLING, *Puck of Pook's Hill*.

## II

1. Make up sentences of your own with 'where' used as a subordinating conjunction, and 'when' used as a relative adverb.

2. Make up sentences of your own in which 'where' is (a) a subordinating conjunction, (b) a subordinating relative adverb, (c) a co-ordinating relative adverb.

3. Supply an antecedent to 'where' in the following sentence from the *Pied Piper*:

The wretched Council's bosoms beat,  
As the Piper turned from the High Street  
To where the Weser rolled its waters.

## III

Analyse in tabular form the following sentences:

1.       The Ladye sought the lofty hall  
          Where many a bold retainer lay.
2.       This will be St. Michael's night,  
          When, tho' stars be dim, the moon is bright,  
          When the Cross of bloody red  
          Will point to the grave of the mighty dead.

SCOTT.

3.       Good King Wenceslas looked out  
          On the feast of Stephen,  
          When the snow lay round about  
          Deep and crisp and even.  
  
          Brightly shone the moon that night,  
          Though the frost was cruel;  
          When an old man came in sight,  
          Gathering winter fuel.

*Christmas Carol.*



## INTERJECTIONS (§ 69).

Find the interjections in the following sentences :

1. Alack! it was I who leaped at the sun.  
BROWNING.

2. Lo! From the assembled crowd,  
Came a shout prolonged and loud.  
Sail forth into the sea, O ship. LONGFELLOW.

3. I look out. Hallo! it's raining. Bravo! now I am dressed. Where's my hat? Oh! I know. I left it in Jenson's room last night. I go after it. 'Jenson!' I yell at him. 'Eh?' he says sleepily. 'Get up!' I say. 'Oh, ah!' says Jenson and prepares to go to sleep. Ah! here's my fag. 'Oh! hi! I want some chairs.'  
*A Day at Eton.*

4. Hark! what murmurs arise from the heart of these mountainous deserts?  
Lo! the big thunder canoe that steadily breasts the Missouri's merciless current!  
Ha! how the breath of these Saxons and Celts like the blast of the east-wind,  
Drives evermore to the West the scanty smokes of thy wigwams.  
LONGFELLOW.

5. Aha! of course I am put on to translate. I feel uncommonly nervous. Oh! good luck! this piece has come once before. That is the beauty of Homer. . . . Hurrah! there's the clock, and school is over for the day.  
*A Day at Eton.*

6. Well-a-day! their race was fled. SCOTT.

## GENERAL EXERCISE ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Make lists showing what part of speech each word in the following passages is :

1. *Story of a Turkish Prisoner.*

I was without food for two days by the Suez Canal. The others had food, but I had none. I was an officer's servant, and my officer said he would see that I got food, but I got none. While we were by the canal, an aeroplane came flying over us. My officer said 'Shoot'. But I did not shoot. I had never seen an aeroplane before, and it was going so beautifully, like a bird. He

again cried 'Shoot', but I did not; for I was looking at the beautiful aeroplane. Then he got very angry and we had an altercation. So I shot my officer. I did not shoot the aeroplane, because it looked so beautiful, as it flew along.

*The Times*, March 13, 1915.

2. Stanza II of *The Pied Piper* (lines 10-20).

3.           Oh! sing and wake the dawning,  
               Oh! whistle for the wind;  
               The night is long, the current strong.

CHARLES KINGSLEY.

4. 'What did the Brownie do, Granny?'

'He came in before the family were up, and swept up the hearth, and lighted the fire and set out the breakfast, and tidied the room and did all sorts of housework. But he was never seen.'

'Did they pay him for his services, Granny?'

'No! . . . They set a pancheon of clear water for him overnight, and now and then a bowl of bread and milk or cream. Sometimes he left a bit of money in the water. Sometimes he weeded the garden or threshed the corn. . . .'

'Oh, Granny! why did he go?'

MRS. EWING, *The Brownies*.

## APPENDIX

### THE PIED PIPER OF HAMELIN

(WRITTEN BY ROBERT BROWNING FOR WILLIE MACREADY)

#### I

HAMELIN 'TOWN's in Brunswick,  
By famous Hanover city;  
The river Weser, deep and wide,  
Washes its wall on the southern side;  
A pleasanter spot you never spied; 5  
But, when begins my ditty,  
Almost five hundred years ago,  
To see the townsfolk suffer so  
From vermin, was a pity.

#### II

Rats! 10  
They fought the dogs, and killed the cats,  
And bit the babies in the cradles,  
And ate the cheeses out of the vats,  
And licked the soup from the cooks' own ladles,  
Split open the kegs of salted sprats, 15  
Made nests inside men's Sunday hats,  
And even spoiled the women's chats,  
By drowning their speaking  
With shrieking and squeaking  
In fifty different sharps and flats. 20

#### III

At last the people in a body  
To the Town Hall came flocking:  
'Tis clear,' cried they, 'our Mayor's a noddy;  
And as for our Corporation—shocking!

To think we buy gowns lined with ermine 25  
 For dolts that can't or won't determine  
 What's best to rid us of our vermin!  
 You hope, because you're old and obese,  
 To find in the furry civic robe ease?  
 Rouse up, Sirs! Give your brains a racking 30  
 To find the remedy we're lacking,  
 Or, sure as fate, we'll send you packing!  
 At this the Mayor and Corporation  
 Quaked with a mighty consternation.

## IV

An hour they sat in council, 35  
 At length the Mayor broke silence:  
 'For a guilder I'd my ermine gown sell;  
 I wish I were a mile hence!  
 It's easy to bid one rack one's brain—  
 I'm sure my poor head aches again, 40  
 I've scratched it so, and all in vain.  
 Oh for a trap, a trap, a trap!  
 Just as he said this, what should hap  
 At the chamber door but a gentle tap?  
 'Bless us,' cried the Mayor, 'what's that?' 45  
 (With the Corporation as he sat,  
 Looking little though wondrous fat;  
 Nor brighter was his eye, nor moister  
 Than a too-long-opened oyster,  
 Save when at noon his paunch grew mutinous 50  
 For a plate of turtle green and glutinous)  
 'Only a scraping of shoes on the mat?  
 Anything like the sound of a rat  
 Makes my heart go pit-a-pat!'

## V

'Come in!'—the Mayor cried, looking bigger: 55  
 And in did come the strangest figure!  
 His queer long coat from heel to head  
 Was half of yellow and half of red;  
 And he himself was tall and thin,  
 With sharp blue eyes, each like a pin, 60

And light loose hair, yet swarthy skin,  
 No tuft on cheek nor beard on chin,  
 But lips where smiles went out and in—  
 There was no guessing his kith and kin!  
 And nobody could enough admire 65  
 The tall man and his quaint attire:  
 Quoth one: 'It's as my great-grandsire,  
 Starting up at the Trump of Doom's tone,  
 Had walked this way from his painted tomb-stone!'

## VI

He advanced to the council-table: 70  
 And, 'Please your honours,' said he, 'I'm able  
 By means of a secret charm to draw  
 All creatures living beneath the sun,  
 That creep or swim or fly or run,  
 After me so as you never saw! 75  
 And I chiefly use my charm  
 On creatures that do people harm,  
 The mole and toad and newt and viper;  
 And people call me the Pied Piper.'  
 (And here they noticed round his neck 80  
 A scarf of red and yellow stripe,  
 To match with his coat of the self-same cheque;  
 And at the scarf's end hung a pipe;  
 And his fingers, they noticed, were ever straying  
 As if impatient to be playing 85  
 Upon this pipe, as low it dangled  
 Over his vesture so old-fangled.)  
 'Yet,' said he, 'poor piper as I am,  
 In Tartary I freed the Cham,  
 Last June, from his huge swarms of gnats; 90  
 I eased in Asia the Nizam  
 Of a monstrous brood of vampyre-bats:  
 And as for what your brain bewilders,  
 If I can rid your town of rats  
 Will you give me a thousand guilders?' 95  
 'One? fifty thousand!'—was the exclamation  
 Of the astonished Mayor and Corporation.

## VII

Into the street the Piper stept,  
     Smiling first a little smile,  
 As if he knew what magic slept 100  
     In his quiet pipe the while ;  
 Then, like a musical adept,  
 To blow the pipe his lips he wrinkled,  
 And green and blue his sharp eyes twinkled  
 Like a candle-flame where salt is sprinkled ; 105  
 And ere three shrill notes the pipe uttered  
 You heard as if an army muttered ;  
 And the muttering grew to a grumbling ;  
 And the grumbling grew to a mighty rumbling :  
 And out of the houses the rats came tumbling. 110  
 Great rats, small rats, lean rats, brawny rats,  
 Brown rats, black rats, grey rats, tawny rats,  
 Grave old plodders, gay young friskers,  
     Fathers, mothers, uncles, cousins,  
 Cocking tails and pricking whiskers, 115  
     Families by tens and dozens,  
 Brothers, sisters, husbands, wives—  
 Followed the Piper for their lives.  
 From street to street he piped advancing,  
 And step for step they followed dancing, 120  
 Until they came to the river Weser,  
 Wherein all plunged and perished  
 —Save one who, stout as Julius Caesar,  
 Swam across and lived to carry  
 (As he, the manuscript he cherished) 125  
 To Rat-land home his commentary :  
 Which was, ‘At the first shrill notes of the pipe,  
 I heard a sound as of scraping tripe,  
 And putting apples, wondrous ripe,  
 Into a cider-press’s gripe, 130  
 And a moving away of pickle-tub-boards,  
 And a leaving ajar of conserve-cupboards,  
 And a drawing the corks of train-oil-flasks,  
 And a breaking the hoops of butter-casks ;

And it seemed as if a voice 135  
 (Sweeter far than by harp or by psaltery  
 Is breathed) called out, O rats, rejoice!  
 The world is grown to one vast dry-saltery!  
 So, munch on, crunch on, take your nuncheon,  
 Breakfast, supper, dinner, luncheon, 140  
 And just as a bulky sugar-puncheon,  
 All ready staved, like a great sun shone  
 Glorious scarce an inch before me,  
 Just as methought it said, Come, bore me!  
 —I found the Weser rolling o'er me.' 145

## VIII

You should have heard the Hamelin people  
 Ringing the bells till they rocked the steeple.  
 'Go,' cried the Mayor, 'and get long poles!  
 Poke out the nests and block up the holes!  
 Consult with carpenters and builders, 150  
 And leave in our town not even a trace  
 Of the rats!'—when suddenly, up the face  
 Of the Piper perked in the market-place,  
 With a 'First, if you please, my thousand guilders!'

## IX

A thousand guilders! The Mayor looked blue; 155  
 So did the Corporation too.  
 For council dinners made rare havoc  
 With Claret, Moselle, Vin-de-Grave, Hock;  
 And half the money would replenish  
 Their cellar's biggest butt with Rhenish. 160  
 To pay this sum to a wandering fellow  
 With a gipsy coat of red and yellow!  
 'Beside,' quoth the Mayor with a knowing wink,  
 'Our business was done at the river's brink;  
 We saw with our eyes the vermin sink, 165  
 And what's dead can't come to life, I think.  
 So, friend, we're not the folks to shrink  
 From the duty of giving you something for drink,  
 And a matter of money to put in your poke;  
 But as for the guilders, what we spoke 170  
 Of them, as you very well know, was in joke.

Beside, our losses have made us thrifty.  
A thousand guilders! Come, take fifty!

## X

The Piper's face fell, and he cried  
'No trifling! I can't wait, beside! 175  
I've promised to visit by dinner time  
Bagdat, and accept the prime  
Of the Head-Cook's pottage, all he's rich in,  
For having left, in the Caliph's kitchen,  
Of a nest of scorpions no survivor. 180  
With him I proved no bargain-driver,  
With you don't think I'll bate a stiver!  
And folks who put me in a passion  
May find me pipe to another fashion.'

## XI

'How?' cried the Mayor, 'd'ye think I'll brook 185  
Being worse treated than a cook?  
Insulted by a lazy ribald  
With idle pipe and vesture piebald?  
You threaten us, fellow? Do your worst,  
Blow your pipe there till you burst!' 190

## XII

Once more he stept into the street,  
And to his lips again  
Laid his long pipe of smooth straight cane;  
And ere he blew three notes (such sweet  
Soft notes as yet musician's cunning 195  
Never gave the enraptured air)  
There was a rustling that seemed like a bustling  
Of merry crowds justling at pitching and hustling,  
Small feet were pattering, wooden shoes clattering,  
Little hands clapping and little tongues chattering, 200  
And, like fowls in a farm-yard when barley is scattering,  
Out came the children running.  
All the little boys and girls  
With rosy cheeks and flaxen curls  
And sparkling eyes and teeth like pearls, 205  
Tripping and skipping, ran merrily after  
The wonderful music with shouting and laughter.



## XIII

The Mayor was dumb, and the Council stood  
As if they were changed into blocks of wood,  
Unable to move a step, or cry 210  
To the children merrily skipping by—  
And could only follow with the eye  
That joyous crowd at the Piper's back.  
But how the Mayor was on the rack,  
And the wretched Council's bosoms beat, 215  
As the Piper turned from the High Street  
To where the Weser rolled its waters  
Right in the way of their sons and daughters!  
However he turned from South to West,  
And to Koppelberg Hill his steps addressed, 220  
And after him the children pressed;  
Great was the joy in every breast.  
'He never can cross that mighty top!  
He's forced to let the piping drop,  
And we shall see our children stop!' 225  
When, lo, as they reached the mountain's side,  
A wondrous portal opened wide,  
As if a cavern was suddenly hollowed;  
And the Piper advanced and the children followed,  
And when all were in to the very last, 230  
The door in the mountain-side shut fast.  
Did I say, all? No! One was lame,  
And could not dance the whole of the way;  
And in after years, if you would blame  
His sadness, he was used to say,— 235  
'It's dull in our town since my playmates left!  
I can't forget that I'm bereft  
Of all the pleasant sights they see,  
Which the Piper also promised me.  
For he led us, he said, to a joyous land, 240  
Joining the town and just at hand,  
Where waters gushed and fruit-trees grew,  
And flowers put forth a fairer hue,  
And everything was strange and new;  
The sparrows were brighter than peacocks here, 245  
And their dogs outran our fallow deer,

And honey-bees had lost their stings,  
 And horses were born with eagles' wings :  
 And just as I became assured  
 My lame foot wou'd be speedily cured, 250  
 The music stopped and I stood still,  
 And found myself outside the Hill,  
 Left alone against my will,  
 To go now limping as before,  
 And never hear of that country more !' 255

## XIV

Alas, alas for Hamelin !  
 There came into many a burgher's pate  
 A text which says that heaven's gate  
 Opes to the rich at as easy rate  
 As the needle's eye takes a camel in. 260  
 The Mayor sent East, West, North and South,  
 To offer the Piper, by word of mouth,  
 Wherever it was men's lot to find him,  
 Silver and gold to his heart's content,  
 If he'd only return the way he went, 265  
 And bring the children behind him.  
 But when they saw 'twas a lost endeavour,  
 And Piper and dancers were gone for ever,  
 They made a decree that lawyers never  
 Should think their records dated duly 270  
 If, after the day of the month and year,  
 These words did not as well appear,  
 'And so long after what happened here  
 On the twenty-second of July,  
 Thirteen hundred and seventy-six :'  
 And the better in memory to fix 275  
 The place of the children's last retreat,  
 They called it the Pied Piper's Street—  
 Where anyone playing on pipe or tabor  
 Was sure for the future to lose his labour. 280  
 Nor suffered they hostelry or tavern  
 To shock with mirth a street so solemn ;  
 But opposite the place of the cavern  
 They wrote the story on a column,

And on the great Church-Window painted 285  
 The same, to make the world acquainted  
 How their children were stolen away;  
 And there it stands to this very day.  
 And I must not omit to say  
 That in Transylvania there's a tribe 290  
 Of alien people that ascribe  
 The outlandish ways and dress  
 On which their neighbours lay such stress  
 To their fathers and mothers having risen  
 Out of some subterraneous prison 295  
 Into which they were trepanned  
 Long time ago in a mighty band  
 Out of Hamelin town in Brunswick land,  
 But how or why, they don't understand.

## xv

So, Willy, let me and you be wipers 300  
 Of scores out with all men—especially pipers:  
 And, whether they pipe us free from rats or from mice,  
 If we've promised them aught, let us keep our promise.

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# A NEW ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BASED ON THE RECOMMENDATIONS  
OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON  
GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

BY

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ON GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

## PART II

- (A) KINDS OF PRONOUNS, ADJECTIVES,  
AND ADVERBS  
(B) FORMS AND THEIR CHIEF MEANINGS

WITH EXERCISES BY

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## PREFACE

THE present volume of the *New English Grammar* brings the pupil and the teacher of grammar to the heart of the reform which the English and the American committees on grammatical terminology are promoting. That reform depends on a recognition of the fact that English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages, and on the belief that harm is done to the study of English, both from the practical and from the scientific point of view, by wresting it from its historical associations. In the present volume the full conclusions of this principle are drawn.

It has often been said, and is still said by some grammarians, that the system of 'cases', 'tenses', and 'moods' on which the grammars of more highly inflected languages are built up is really inapplicable to modern English. But this contention seems to involve a misconception as to what is the signification of terms like 'case', 'tense', and 'mood'. It is impossible to frame a definition of such terms on the basis of distinctions in *form*.<sup>1</sup> They are essentially terms of syntax; that is to say, they denote categories of *meaning*, not categories of *form*.<sup>2</sup> And this is just as true of Latin grammar as it is of English grammar. The term 'nominative case', for example, is applied to a great variety of forms in Latin; nor do the different cases of a Latin noun always differ from one another in form.<sup>3</sup> It follows that in any true

<sup>1</sup> Dr. Johnson defines 'case' as a *change of termination*: see the Grammar published in his Dictionary. The absurdity of any such definition is shown by trying to apply it to any particular case, even a case which differs in form from other cases. Who, for example, would be satisfied with the following definition of the genitive in English?—'The genitive case is the form which is made by adding *s* to the nominative singular'. This definition would apply equally well to the nominative plural. The only way of defining the genitive or any other case is by declaring the syntactical function of the form; cf. § 158, below.

<sup>2</sup> In 'Accidence' morphology and syntax are blended for practical purposes. This point of view has been well set forth by Professor Jespersen, of Copenhagen, in his recent *Modern English Grammar*, Part II, 1914.

<sup>3</sup> For example, the accusative of neuter nouns has always the same form as the nominative, both in the singular and in the plural number. All ablative plurals are the same in form as dative plurals. The vocative has generally the same form as the nominative. In some nouns the dative singular does not differ in form from the genitive singular, in others from the ablative singular.—Conversely, why are *deus* and *dī* both called nominative?

definition of terms like 'case', 'tense', 'mood' difference of form plays no essential part. The important thing is the syntactical function denoted by these terms. And from this point of view the supposed inapplicability of such terms to languages which have lost many of their old inflexions disappears.

Nor is it true, as a matter of fact, that progress in English grammar has been brought about by its gradual emancipation from the system of grammar which was originally framed for Greek and adapted to Latin. There have, no doubt, been writers who based English grammar on Latin grammar.<sup>1</sup> But in the main the history of English grammar during the last three centuries shows a gradual, though still incomplete, process of bringing English grammar within the pale of the common grammatical system of the Indo-European languages. In the matter of 'case', for example, the earliest writer of a modern English grammar was so obsessed by the idea of inflexion as the essential thing in grammar that he could see nothing in English nouns corresponding to the cases of Latin nouns: he even ignored the inflected genitive in *s*.<sup>2</sup> But gradually cases of English nouns were introduced. Butler recognizes two cases of nouns, 'rect' and 'oblique'.<sup>3</sup> Ben Jonson also recognizes two, a 'genitive' and what he calls an 'absolute' case.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Alexander Gil (*Logonomia Anglica*, London, 1619 and 1621) and George Mason (*Grammaire Angloise*, London, 1622 and 1633) are the earliest. They recognize, for example, six cases of English nouns (some of them formed with prepositions); and this tradition crops up occasionally in subsequent writers. Thus Butler (see below) recognizes, side by side with his two English cases, four 'oblique cases of the Latins'. The tendency to impose the Latin declensions and conjugations on the mother-tongue was more pronounced in Germany: see Prof. Jellinek's *Geschichte der neuhochdeutschen Grammatik*, 1913, § 10.

<sup>2</sup> *Grammatica Anglicana, praecipue quatenus a Latina differt*, by 'P. Gr.', Cambridge, 1594. In pronouns which have inflected forms the author recognizes two cases, called 'rectus' and 'obliquus'. John Stockwood's *A plaine and easy laying open of the meaning and understanding of the rules of construction in the English Accidence*, London, 1590, is not an English Grammar, but a Latin Grammar explained in English.

<sup>3</sup> Charles Butler, *The English Grammar*, Oxford, 1633. By 'oblique' he means the genitive. He also recognizes two cases of pronouns; but here the 'oblique' is the form *me*, *him*, &c. Butler defines 'case' as 'the different termination of the same word' (p. 32).

<sup>4</sup> Ben Jonson, *The English Grammar*, first printed in 1640, three years after the author's death.



Priestley<sup>1</sup> and Lowth<sup>2</sup> get no further. But Lindley Murray, after vacillating in his early editions, takes the momentous step of recognizing an 'objective' case of nouns, though its form is not different from that of the nominative. In an interesting passage he states his reasons: an objective case must be recognized because 'the irregularity of having our nouns sometimes placed in a situation in which they cannot be said to be in any case at all' will thereby be avoided.<sup>3</sup> In taking this step Lindley Murray rendered English grammar the service of liberating it from the false definition of 'case' by which his predecessors had been hampered; for he thus opened the door to the admission of a dative case—a case which is syntactically distinct from the accusative, though it does not differ from it in form in Modern English. That this further step was justified in the case-system of English as a Germanic language could hardly have been seen by grammarians who wrote before the birth of comparative philology and the discovery of the Indo-European family of languages at the beginning of the nineteenth century: but the dative case has been recognized in English by several recent grammarians,<sup>4</sup> as well as by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology.<sup>5</sup> It appears, then, that English grammar has actually advanced from the failure to recognize any cases of nouns to a recognition of four (or, if the vocative be included, five) cases—all of them identical in function with the cases called by the same names in Latin, Greek, German, and Russian. Similarly, whereas 'P. Gr.' (1594) does not recognize any moods in English, modern grammarians recognize three. Objections have, no doubt, been raised against this course of develop-

<sup>1</sup> Priestley's English Grammar was first published in 1761.

<sup>2</sup> Bishop Lowth's English Grammar was first published in 1762. Lowth employs the term 'objective case' for pronouns, but denies it to nouns (p. 33), though under the head of 'parsing' he vacillates.

<sup>3</sup> Lindley Murray's English Grammar, p. 56 of the edition of 1824 (38th ed.). The first edition was published in 1795.

<sup>4</sup> For example, Wundt in the second volume of his *Völkerpsychologie*, Dr. Max Förster at a recent meeting of the *Neuphilologentag*, and Messrs. Marseille and Schmidt in their *Englische Grammatik*, 1912. See my articles in *The School World* for July, 1913, p. 256, and in *Modern Language Teaching*, vol. xi, March, 1915.

<sup>5</sup> *On the Terminology of Grammar*, 1911, p. 25 f.

ment from the time of Priestley to the present day. But they have not arrested it. They are all based on the same misconception; and they are partly responsible for the chaotic condition of English grammar at the present day.

In the second half of the present volume the true relation of 'forms' to 'meanings' is set forth in language which, it is hoped, will be found intelligible to young pupils (§§ 140-145). And the sections which follow (§§ 146-281) contain an exposition of the fundamental features of English which are denoted by the terms 'number', 'case', 'degrees of comparison', 'tense', 'mood', and 'voice'. As in the other grammars of this series,<sup>1</sup> the meanings of forms are treated in close connexion with the forms themselves—a method of procedure which is now generally regarded by grammarians as essential to a proper understanding of the subject. But I have designedly made the treatment simple by reserving details and difficulties for a third and more advanced course (Part III).

The first half of the present volume (§§ 71-139)<sup>2</sup> contains a new classification of pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs on a uniform principle, according to their meanings and their syntactical functions in the construction of sentences.

As in Part I, my examples are taken largely from Browning's *Pied Piper*. The others I have tried to make representative of all departments of cultivated English speech, poetry as well as prose, the literary language as well as the language of everyday life. For the object of an English grammar written for English schools is not the same as that of a grammar written to teach the foreigner the elements of English for practical purposes. And some important features of English live at the present day more in poetry and literary prose than in ordinary parlance.

My best thanks are due to *The Times* for permission to reproduce the poems which are quoted from that journal.

E. A. S.

<sup>1</sup> *New Latin Grammar* (2nd ed., 1914), *New French Grammar*, 1912.

<sup>2</sup> The numeration of sections in this volume follows on that of the sections in Part I (§§ 1-70), which deals with the parts of speech and analysis.

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## (A) KINDS OF PRONOUNS, ADJECTIVES, AND ADVERBS

71 Pronouns have been defined (Part I, § 27) as words used instead of nouns, to indicate or enumerate persons or things without naming them. But a pronoun may indicate in various ways: 'I', 'this', 'who'. Hence there are several different kinds of indicating pronouns.

Similarly the adjectives which indicate a person or thing without describing it (I, § 12) differ in the way in which they indicate: 'my house', 'this house', 'which house'. Hence there are several different kinds of indicating adjectives; and they correspond to a great extent with the classes of indicating pronouns.

Similarly the adverbs which indicate without describing (I, § 23) are of several different kinds, and these too correspond to a great extent with the classes of indicating pronouns and indicating adjectives: for example, 'here' corresponds to 'this', 'there' to 'that', 'where' to 'which'.

In parsing it is usually sufficient to say that a word is a pronoun or an adjective or an adverb. But for some purposes it is necessary to distinguish between the different kinds of pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs. For example, we do not fully grasp the construction of sentences like 'I know the book which he wrote' and 'I know the house where he was born', unless we see that the pronoun 'which' and the adverb 'where' play similar parts in these sentences; that is, that the one is a relative pronoun (§ 90) and the other a relative adverb (§ 130). Similarly it is important to understand that in the sentences 'That is the man' and 'There he was born' the pronoun and the adverb are both used to point out something: 'that' points out a certain person; 'there' points out one of the circumstances of his birth; it means 'at that place'.

For the purpose of showing the similarity of meaning in

certain pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs, the same name is employed. Thus pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs which point out are called 'demonstrative'; pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs which make questions are called 'interrogative', and so forth. In studying the following lists it is very useful to compare the several classes of adjectives and adverbs with the classes of pronouns which bear the same name; for example, to compare interrogative adjectives and adverbs with interrogative pronouns. For the pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs which bear the same name play similar parts in the construction of sentences.

### KINDS OF PRONOUNS

**72** There are two main classes of pronouns :

#### 1. Indicating pronouns.

Indicating pronouns are of the following kinds :

- (a) Personal pronouns.
- (b) Possessive pronouns.
- (c) Reflexive pronouns.
- (d) Emphasizing pronouns.
- (e) Demonstrative pronouns.
- (f) Interrogative pronouns.
- (g) Exclamatory pronoun.
- (h) Relative pronouns.

#### 2. Pronouns denoting number or amount.

##### 1. Indicating Pronouns.

**73** There are eight kinds of indicating pronouns.

(a) **Personal pronouns.** The name 'personal' comes from a special use of the term 'persons' to denote characters in a play (Latin *drāmatīs persōnae*, 'persons of the drama'). From this use the word 'persons' came to be employed in grammar to denote the characters of dialogue—the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

Pronouns of the 1st person indicate the *speaker* of the sentence :

*I, me*, indicating one person ;

*we, us*, indicating more than one person, namely the speaker and another person or other persons associated with him.

Pronouns of the 2nd person indicate the person or persons *spoken to* in the sentence :

*thou, thee*, indicating one person ;

*ye*, indicating more than one person ;

*you*, indicating either one or more than one person.

Pronouns of the 3rd person indicate the person or thing *spoken of* in the sentence :

*he, him, she, her, it*, indicating one person or thing ;

*they, them*, indicating more than one person or thing.

74 Some of the personal pronouns distinguish males from females :

*he, him* indicate a male person or a male animal ; but they are also used to indicate a thing personified as male, that is, spoken of as if it were of the male sex, as in 'I saw the sun set last night ; *he* sank into the ocean and left the old year behind *him*'.

*she, her* indicate a female person or a female animal, or a thing personified as female. Thus we often speak of ships, cities, and countries as if they were female : 'The Broke is a destroyer ; *she* is a beauty ; I saw *her* launched last year' ; 'London is more favoured by sunshine to-day than *she* was yesterday' ; 'Belgium is greater to-day than *she* ever was before'.

*it* indicates a thing without sex, or a living creature when not spoken of as male or female. Thus we may say 'Whose dog is this ? *It* is a fine animal' ; 'How old is this baby ? Is *it* yours ?'

75 The pronoun 'it' is also used :

- (i) in a vague sense, indicating something which is not definitely expressed in the sentence :

*It* is dull in our town since my playmates left.

( 'It is dull' = things are dull.)

How goes *it*? (= how are things going?)

*It's* a long, long way to Tipperary.

*It* says so in this book. ('it' = somebody)

*It* is raining. ('it' = something)

Contrast sentences with a subject of definite meaning, as '*Life* is dull', 'How goes *the war*?', '*The writer* says so', 'Let *the sky* rain potatoes' (SHAKESPEARE), '*I* will rain upon him' (EZEKIEL xxxviii. 22).

- (ii) indicating a group of words in the sentence :

(a) *It* is easy to bid one rack one's brain.

Here 'it' indicates the group of words 'to bid one rack one's brain', which forms the subject of the sentence. The pronoun 'it' may be called a provisional subject :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	VERB	PRED. ADJ.
It ( <i>provisional subject</i> ) to bid one rack one's brain	is	easy.

(b) They found *it* easy to blame the Mayor.

Here 'it' indicates the group of words 'to blame the Mayor', which forms the object of the sentence. Thus 'it' is here a provisional object.

76 The following personal pronouns do not distinguish males from females :

*I, me, and we, us*

*thou, thee, you, and ye*

*they, them.*



77 (b) **Possessive pronouns.** These pronouns are closely connected in meaning with the personal pronouns. Thus they, too, are of three persons :

of the 1st person :		of the 2nd person :		of the 3rd person :
<i>mine, ours</i>		<i>thine, yours</i>		<i>his, hers, theirs.</i>

It was *mine*, but now it is *yours*.

He is a friend of *mine* (= one of *my friends*).

My best regards to you and *yours*.

I am, *Yours* faithfully . . . ('faithfully' qualifies the verb 'am' : I am faithfully yours. There should properly be no comma after 'am', and no capital letter in 'yours').

*Theirs* not to reason why, *theirs* but to do and die.

TENNYSON (generally misspelled in texts : *their's*).

78 (c) **Reflexive pronouns.**

of the 1st person :		of the 2nd person :		of the 3rd person :
<i>myself</i> <i>ourselves</i>		<i>thysself, yourself</i> <i>yourselves</i>		<i>himself, herself, itself</i> <i>themselves.</i>

*Oneself* is the reflexive of *one* (= any one), § 98 b.

79 Reflexive pronouns are used either as objects (I, § 29, Obs.) or after a preposition, when the person or thing indicated is the same as the doer of the action :

I found *myself* outside the hill.

He made me talk about *myself*.

He wrongs *himself*.

He thought little of *himself*.

One should not praise *oneself*.

I am surprised that they gave *themselves* up.

80 But after most prepositions the personal pronouns (§ 73) are used with reflexive meaning instead of the reflexive pronouns ; so too sometimes as objects :

I found the Weser rolling o'er *me*.

The Mayor begged the Piper to return and bring the children behind *him*. Bring your friends with *you*.

I laid *me* down with a will.

R. L. STEVENSON.

- 81 (d) **Emphasizing pronouns.** The above compounds of *self* or *selves* may also be used merely as emphatic forms of the personal pronouns, and they are then called **emphasizing pronouns** :

The persons whom you are describing are *ourselves*.

He is not Hector ; he is *himself*. SHAKESPEARE.

Here is the money, and a shilling extra for *yourself*.

- 82 **Emphasizing pronouns** often stand in apposition to a noun or pronoun ; compare I, § 17 (on nouns in apposition). When used in this way the compounds of *self* and *selves* must be carefully distinguished from reflexive pronouns. Contrast the examples of reflexive pronouns in § 79 with the following examples of emphasizing pronouns in apposition :

His queer long coat from heel to head  
Was half of yellow and half of red ;  
And he *himself* was tall and thin.

The Piper came *himself*.

I did not see the Piper *myself*.

One should do right *oneself* instead of telling others to do so.

SENTRY. Who goes there ?

SPECIAL CONSTABLE. Special Constable.

SENTRY. Advance.

SPECIAL CONSTABLE. Advance *yourself*. (Here the subject 'you' is understood.) *Punch*, March 17, 1915.

- 83 In these examples the compounds of *self* are added to a noun or pronoun to emphasize it ; but in § 79 the compounds of *self* stand by themselves. The difference between emphasizing pronouns and reflexive pronouns is so great that in some languages (for example French and Latin) quite different words are employed to express these different meanings.

- 84 **Emphasizing pronouns** in apposition differ from reflexive pronouns not only in meaning but also in pronunciation.

For the emphasizing pronouns have a stress: 'The Piper came *himself*'. But the reflexive pronouns are unstressed ('the Mayor wronged himself'), except where they are used to distinguish the object from some other person or thing ('the Mayor injured himself, not the Piper'). Thus the meaning of the following dialogue, though not perfectly clear in writing, would be quite clear when spoken: *A.* 'I had good sport in Scotland this season.' *B.* 'I think I shall go and shoot myself there next year.'

85 (e) **Demonstrative pronouns.** The word 'demonstrative' means 'pointing out'. The demonstrative pronouns are—

*this, these*, indicating what is near the speaker;  
*that, those*, indicating what is remote from the speaker;  
*such* (= of this kind, or of that kind);  
*same*.

At *this* the Mayor and Corporation  
 Quaked with a mighty consternation.

'Bless us!' cried the Mayor, 'What's *that*?'

The burghers' power was greater than *that* of the Mayor.

The Piper revenged himself on all *such* as injured him.

Kings are constituted *such* by law. ('*such*' = kings)

They painted the *same* on the church-window. (The pronoun '*same*' is always qualified by the adjective '*the*').

86 (f) **Interrogative pronouns.** The word 'interrogative' means 'asking a question'. The interrogative pronouns are—

*who, whom, whose*, indicating a person or persons;  
*which*, indicating either a person (or persons) or a thing  
 (or things);  
*what*, indicating a thing (or things).

*Who's* there? *Whom* did you see? *Whose* dog is this?

*Which* of them do you like best? *Which* is *which*?

*What's* that? *What* did you say? *What* are these creatures? *What* are your views?

- 87 The interrogative pronouns are used not only in simple sentences, as in the above instances, but also in subordinate clauses :

They can't or won't determine  
*What's* best to rid us of our vermin.

Here 'what' is an interrogative pronoun; for the clause 'what's best to rid us of our vermin' is simply the question 'What is best to rid us of our vermin?' thrown into dependence on 'can't or won't determine'. Such a clause is a noun-clause (playing the part of the object in the complex sentence), and is called a 'dependent question'. But when 'what' is equivalent to 'that which', and 'who' to 'he who', the pronoun is a relative pronoun (see §§ 90, 93, 94).

- 88 (g) Exclamatory pronoun.

The word 'what' is sometimes used as an exclamatory pronoun :

*What* might they not have accomplished !

*What!* Never? Well, hardly ever.

*What!* Ho! Let the portcullis fall.

SCOTT.

- 89 Introducing a dependent exclamation (compare § 87):

Think *what* they might have accomplished.

- 90 (h) Relative pronouns (see Part I, § 49). The relative pronouns are—

*who, whom*, indicating a person or persons,

*whose*, generally indicating a person or persons, but sometimes indicating a thing or things ;

*which*, indicating a thing or things (or sometimes a person in old-fashioned English) ;

*that*, indicating either a person (or persons) or a thing (or things) ;

*what* (= that which, § 94), indicating a thing or things ;

*as*, indicating a thing (or things) or sometimes a person (or persons) :

Folks *who* put me in a passion  
 May find me pipe after another fashion.  
 A triangle *whose* three sides are equal is called an  
 equilateral triangle.

I'm bereft

Of all the pleasant sights they see,  
*Which* the piper also promised me.

(In the clause 'they see' the relative pronoun 'which'  
 or 'that' is understood; see Part I, § 50.)

I chiefly use my charm  
 On creatures *that* do people harm.

*What's* dead cannot come to life.

The Piper lived long after *what* } ('what' = that which)  
 happened in 1376.

He blew such sweet, soft notes *as* musician's cunning  
 never gave the enraptured air. ('as' = which, or the  
 like of which: object of 'gave')

He said the same *as* he had said before.

NOTE ON *THAT* AND *WHO*, *WHICH*.

91 When the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is co-ordinate  
 (Part I, § 66), the relative is always 'who' or 'which', and a stop  
 (, or ; or :) precedes it:

He lived to carry

To Rat-land home his commentary:

*Which* (= And this, And that) was as follows.

When the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is subordinate,  
 the relative may be either 'that' or 'who' or 'which', and no stop  
 precedes it; see examples in § 90.<sup>1</sup> To insert a comma would  
 completely alter the sense of the following sentences: 'I will wear  
 no clothes which will distinguish me from my fellow Christians';  
 'The Hague Declaration forbids the use of shells the object of  
 which is to diffuse poisonous gases.' See Part I, § 66, Obs.

<sup>1</sup> The comma after 'see' in the third example is put there in order to  
 separate the clause 'which the Piper also promised me' from the clause  
 'they see'; if this clause were omitted there would be no need of a comma:  
 'I'm bereft of all the pleasant sights which the Piper promised me.'

- 92 But 'that' is never used as a relative pronoun when a preposition or 'than' immediately precedes the relative, or when the antecedent is the demonstrative pronoun 'that'<sup>1</sup>; in these cases only 'who' or 'which' can be used:

The person *of whom* (or *about whom*) I was speaking is dead.

He is a person *than whom* I respect no one more.

I have received *that which* I wanted.

#### NOTE ON *WHAT* AND *WHO*.

- 93 The antecedent of the relative pronoun 'what' is generally not expressed but only understood (see examples in § 90). But the demonstrative pronoun 'that' is sometimes used as the antecedent of 'what', if the subordinate clause comes first in the sentence:

*What* I have promised, *that* I will perform.

'Who' may also be used without any antecedent expressed (like 'whoever', § 96), though this is not usual in prose of the present day:

*Who* breaks pays. ('who' = he who)

*Whom* the gods love die young. ('whom' = those whom)

- 94 In analysing sentences containing 'what' or 'who' without an antecedent it is convenient to supply an antecedent, in order to show what the construction is. Thus the sentence 'What I have written I have written' is to be analysed as consisting of the clauses 'what I have written' (subordinate clause) and 'that I have written' (main clause). In this construction 'what' is equivalent in meaning to 'that which', and these words may be substituted in analysis. — In this way the difference between a relative pronoun and an interrogative pronoun introducing a dependent question (§ 87) may be clearly shown. For example, in the sentence 'Give me what you have bought', *what* means *that which*, and is therefore a relative pronoun; but the sentence 'Tell me what you have bought' means 'Tell me the answer to the question *what have you bought?*'; here *what* is an interrogative pronoun.

<sup>1</sup> The last mentioned construction (*that that*) was quite common in Old English; and in Modern English the plural demonstrative *those* may be followed by *that* in a subordinate clause: 'Those who think must govern those *that* toil'. (GOLDSMITH.)

## NOTE ON 45.

- 95 'As' is correctly used as a relative pronoun, introducing an adjective-clause, when the antecedent contains the pronoun or adjective 'such' or 'same' (but not when the antecedent is a noun unaccompanied by 'such' or 'same'); see examples in § 90.
- 96 Generalizing relative pronouns are a special kind of relative pronouns, formed by adding '-ever' or '-soever' to 'who' ('whom', 'whose') or 'which', 'what':

*whoever, whomever; whosoever, whomsoever:*  
*whichever; whichsoever:*  
*whatever; whatsoever.*

These words (like 'what', § 93) generally have no antecedent expressed:

*Whoever* wanted to go went. ('whoever' = anyone who)  
 He did *whatever* he wished. ('whatever' = anything that)

But an antecedent is sometimes expressed, if the subordinate clause comes first in the sentence (compare § 93):

Whatever I have promised, *that* I will perform.

Whosoever would, Jeroboam consecrated *him*. (1 Kings xiii. 33.)

## 2. Pronouns denoting number or amount.

- 97 Words which answer the question 'How many?' or 'How much?' are used as pronouns in sentences like the following.<sup>1</sup>

*One* of them was lame. The *other* (*Another*) was not strong.

*Two* were mere babies. Two *others* were much older.

They came by *ones* and *twos*.

*Both* of them got into the cavern. ('both' = the two)

Their parents could not find *either* of them.

*Neither* of the *two* returned to Hamelin.

<sup>1</sup> Most of these words may also be used as adjectives (see § 118); but the plural forms in *s* are always pronouns.—When used as pronouns, these words are often qualified by adjectives. Compare Part I, § 27, Obs. 2.

*None* (*Few*, Not *many*) of the children returned to Hamelin.  
*Some* of them were boys, *others* were girls.

Their parents did not see *any* of them again, except *one*.

The rats came to the river Weser, wherein *all* plunged.

That was *all* that the Piper had to say.

*Each* of them saw wonderful sights. ('each' = all taken separately)

I have already done *much*; I cannot do *more*.

Man wants but *little* here below, nor wants that *little* long.

*Enough* is as good as a feast.

98 The pronoun 'one' is also used—

(a) to avoid repeating a noun :

This knife will not cut ; send me a better *one*. The *ones* you have sent are all blunt.

(b) in the sense of 'anyone' or 'people generally' :

It is easy to bid *one* rack *one's* brain.

*One* does not see such sights every day.

99 The pronoun 'each' often stands in apposition to the subject of the sentence (like a noun, see Part I, § 17) :

These buns cost a penny *each*. (= these buns, each of them, cost a penny)

The sides of this triangle are equal, *each* to each.

100 'Each', standing in apposition to the subject of the sentence, is often followed immediately by 'other', and the two pronouns go so closely together that a preposition can be placed before the pair ; here 'other' stands for 'the other' :

They hate *each other*. (= they hate, each the other)

They do harm *to each other*. (= they do harm, each to the other)

They are *each other's* enemies. (= they are enemies, each the other's. Compare § 159, Obs.)

101 Similarly 'one' may form a pair with 'another' :

They love *one another*.

They bear in mind *one another's* needs.



They do good *to one another*. (Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'A plague upon it when thieves cannot be true, *one to another*.')

- 102 The compounds of *one* or *body* or *thing* with the adjectives *any*, *every*, *some*, *no* (= not any, § 118. iii) are pronouns; so, too, are the compounds of *whit* (= thing) with an adverb:<sup>1</sup>

*anyone, everyone, someone, no one* :

*anybody, everybody, somebody, nobody* :

*anything, everything, something, nothing*.

*Anything* like the sound of a rat

Makes my heart go pit-a-pat.

If we've promised them *aught*, let us keep our promise.

*Everything* was strange and new.

*Nobody* could enough admire

The tall man and his strange attire.

#### KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

- 103 There are three main classes of adjectives :

1. Descriptive adjectives.

2. Indicating adjectives.

These words correspond in meaning to the first class of pronouns (§ 72), and may be classified accordingly :

(a) Possessive adjectives.

(b) Emphasizing adjectives.

(c) Demonstrative adjectives.

(d) Interrogative adjectives.

(e) Exclamatory adjectives.

(f) Relative adjectives.

3. Adjectives denoting number or amount.

These words correspond in meaning to the second class of pronouns (§ 72).

<sup>1</sup> *Aught, naught* ; sometimes spelt *ought, nought*. These compounds are derived from the adverb *ā* (= ever) or *nā, nō* (= never), and *whit* (= wight, whit). Thus the compounds mean 'ever a whit', 'never a whit'.

## 1. Descriptive Adjectives.

- 104 Descriptive adjectives are adjectives which describe a person or thing, such as 'good', 'great', 'black', 'pretty', 'useful', 'loud', 'hard', 'deep', 'wide', 'big', 'little', 'like'.

To this class belong all adjectives formed with the suffixes *-ing*, *-en*, *-ed*, *-t*. Some of these are formed from verbs, as '*sparkling eyes*', '*a graven image*', '*a learned man*', '*a lost endeavour*'. Some of them are formed from nouns, as '*flaxen curls*', '*a wooden spoon*', '*a bearded man*', '*a spirited horse*'.

## 2. Indicating Adjectives.

- 105 There are six kinds of indicating adjectives :

(a) **Possessive adjectives.** These adjectives correspond in form and meaning to the possessive pronouns. Thus they are of three persons :

of the 1st person :	of the 2nd person :	of the 3rd person :
<i>my, our</i>	<i>thy, your</i>	<i>his, her, its, their.</i>

*Our* Mayor's a noddy.

There was no guessing *his* kith and kin.

The river Weser, deep and wide,

Washes *its* wall on the southern side.

The words 'mine' and 'thine' (generally used as possessive pronouns, § 77) are also used as possessive adjectives in poetry and old-fashioned prose, before a noun beginning with a vowel or *h* :

*Mine* eyes ; *mine* host.

Give every man *thine* ear, but few thy voice.

- 106 There are no reflexive adjectives corresponding to the reflexive pronouns (§ 78) ; but all possessive adjectives may be used reflexively, that is, to denote the doer of the action :

I have lost *my* labour.

We shall see *our* children stop.

- 107 (b) **Emphasizing adjectives.** The adjective 'own' may be used to emphasize a possessive adjective :

I am my *own* master.

He put his *own* son to death. ('his' used reflexively)

His *own* father put him to death.

Similarly 'They licked the soup from the cooks' *own* ladles' means 'They licked the soup from the ladles of the cooks *themselves*', in which 'themselves' is an emphasizing pronoun in apposition to 'cooks' (see § 82).

- 108 'Very' is used as an emphasizing adjective in sentences like the following :

There it stands to this *very* day.

His *very* servants bully him.

- 109 (c) **Demonstrative adjectives.** The chief demonstrative adjectives are :

*this, these :*

*that, those :*

*the :*

*yon, yonder :*

*such :*

*same, selfsame.*

*This* city is called Hanover.

They could only follow with *the* eye

*That* joyous crowd at *the* Piper's back.

We shall never be able to ascend *yon* mountain.

Did you ever hear *such* piping ?

Did the children hear the *same* piping as the rats had heard ?

- 110 The demonstrative adjective 'the' is commonly called the **definite article** ; compare § 120 on the term 'indefinite article'.

111 There are some other adjectives which are used to indicate rather than to describe a person or thing; for example, 'former', 'latter', 'late', 'present', 'next', as in '*former* times', 'the *late* King', 'the *present* Prime Minister', 'the *next* street'. And some adverbs may be used as demonstrative adjectives: 'the *then* Prime Minister', 'the *above* remarks', 'the *under* side of the table'.

112 (d) **Interrogative adjectives.** The interrogative adjectives are *what* and *which*:

*What* news do you bring?      *What* magic is this?

'Which' is used when there is a limited choice between two or more persons or things belonging to a known group:

From *which* lord to *which* lady are you taking this?  
*Which* way did he go?

113 Interrogative adjectives, like interrogative pronouns, may introduce dependent questions (§ 87):

He smiled as if he knew *what* magic slept in his pipe.

114 (e) **Exclamatory adjectives.** The word *what* is sometimes an exclamatory adjective:

*What* nonsense this is!

*What* a piece of work is a man!      SHAKESPEARE.

See *what* nonsense he talks! (The subordinate clause is a dependent exclamation.)

115 (f) **Relative adjectives.** The words *which* and *what* are sometimes used as relative adjectives:

Wait for two days, within *which* time he will certainly return. (co-ordinating; hence the comma, § 91)

He took with him *what* forces he had. (subordinating; hence no stop, § 91)

'What time' is sometimes used in poetry in the sense *at the time at which*: 'His guile deceived the mother of mankind, *what time* his pride had cast him out'. MILTON.

116 But the generalizing relative adjectives *whichever*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, *whatsoever*, are much commoner, and the clauses which they introduce are always subordinate:

*Whichever* way he goes, we shall be sure to catch him.  
*Whatever* steps he takes, we shall be prepared.

117 'Whatever' is often used in the sense of 'at all':

There is no doubt *whatever*.

Would any reasonable person *whatever* say such a thing?

This use arises by omitting the rest of the subordinate clause: 'whatever' = whatever it (*or* he) may be. Thus in the full form of the clause 'whatever' is a relative adjective or pronoun (predicative); but when the clause is abbreviated 'whatever' loses its relative force and comes to be used like an emphasizing adjective.

### 3. Adjectives denoting number or amount.

118 These adjectives answer the question 'How many?' or 'How much?'<sup>1</sup>, or denote order in a series. They fall into three groups:

(i) Words like 'one', 'two', 'three'. These are called **cardinal numerals** (literally 'hinge numbers', from the Latin *cardō*, 'a hinge'), because they are the numerals on which other numerals hinge or depend:

*one* note, *two* notes, *three* notes:  
*fifty* different sharps and flats:  
 my *thousand* guilders.

(ii) Words like 'first', 'second', 'third'. These are called **ordinal numerals** (literally 'rank numbers', from the Latin *ordō*, 'rank'), because they denote rank or position in a series:

the *first* note, the *second* note, the *third* note.

<sup>1</sup> Some of these words may be used as pronouns; see § 97.

(iii) Words like the following :

*other, another, both* (= the two), *either* (= each of two) :  
*all, each, every* :

*some, several, certain* :

*an, a, any, no* (= not any), *only* :

*many, more, most* ; *few, fewer, fewest* :

*much, more, most* ; *little, less, least* ; *enough*.

*One* boy wins a prize, *another* boy doesn't.

*Two* boys won prizes ; *other* two (cp. § 97) did not.

*Both* (= the two) boys won prizes.

*All* boys and girls ought to get presents at Christmas.

*Certain* ships were torpedoed.

*A* ship was torpedoed. (§ 120)

There was *no* guessing his kith and kin.

That was the *only* way.

*Few* (= not many) ships of war were torpedoed.

*Much* cry, *little* (= not much) wool. Have you *enough* wool?

Obs. In sentences like 'Both the boys won prizes', 'All the children ran after the Piper', it is best to regard 'both' and 'all' as pronouns standing in apposition to the subject (like nouns, I, § 17): 'the boys, both of them, won prizes', 'the children, all of them, ran after the Piper'.

119 The adjective 'some' denotes either indefinite number, as in 'Give me *some* apples', or indefinite amount, as in '*Some* water was spilt'; or it may denote an unknown *one*, as in '*Some* fool has locked the door'; 'They came out of *some* subterranean prison'.

120 The adjective 'an', 'a' is a weakened form of the cardinal numeral 'one'; and its meaning is also weakened. It is called the **indefinite article**. It has the same kind of indefinite meaning as 'some' in the instance last quoted: for example, we might say 'They came out of *a* subterranean prison' without much difference of meaning. Thus 'an' is contrasted with the 'definite article' (§ 110); compare '*a* voice called out' with '*the* voice called out'. But there is

a more important difference between 'the' and 'an' than a greater or less degree of definiteness: 'an' denotes number, but 'the' is demonstrative.

121 The original meaning of 'an', 'a' (one) is shown in passages like the following:

'Will you give me *a* thousand guilders?'  
 'One? Fifty thousand!'—was the exclamation  
 Of the astonished Mayor and Corporation.

A great sun shone  
 Glorious, scarce *an* inch before me. ('an' = one)  
 Not *a* drum was heard, not *a* funeral note. WOLFE.

122 The form 'a' arises from dropping the final *n*. It is used before nouns beginning with a consonant sound: '*a* man', '*a* boy', '*a* house'; '*a* unit', '*a* eulogy' (pronounced with a *y*-sound before the *u* or *eu*). The full form 'an' is used before nouns beginning with a vowel sound: '*an* island', '*an* umpire', '*an* hour' (the *h* being not sounded). 'An' is also generally used before nouns beginning with a sounded *h*, if the accent does not fall on the first syllable: '*an* histórian' (but '*a* históry'), '*an* hotél' (but '*a* hóstelry').

### KINDS OF ADVERBS

123 There are three main classes of adverbs:

1. Descriptive adverbs.

2. Indicating adverbs.

These words correspond in meaning to the first class of pronouns (§ 72), and may be classified accordingly

(a) Demonstrative adverbs.

(b) Interrogative adverbs.

(c) Exclamatory adverbs.

(d) Relative adverbs.

3. Adverbs denoting number or amount.

These words correspond in meaning to the second class of pronouns (§ 72).

## 1. Descriptive Adverbs.

**124** Descriptive adverbs correspond to descriptive adjectives (§ 104); they are chiefly used with verbs, to describe the action denoted by the verb, as 'well', 'greatly', 'prettily', 'usefully', 'loud', 'hard', 'deep', 'wide', 'like' (I, § 24). When used with adjectives (other than those formed from verbs, § 104), as in '*hideously* ugly', '*divinely* fair', '*really* useful', '*widely* different', '*greatly* superior', they do not differ much from adverbs denoting amount, such as 'very' (§ 135. iii).

## 2. Indicating Adverbs.

**125** Indicating adverbs are generally used with verbs; but some of them may also be used with adjectives or with other adverbs so as to denote amount.

**126** There are four kinds of indicating adverbs :

(a) **Demonstrative adverbs** point out, like demonstrative pronouns and demonstrative adjectives. For example, the adverb 'here' in 'Stand *here*' points out in the same way as the adjective 'this' in 'Stand in *this* place': but 'here' goes with the verb and is therefore an adverb, whereas 'this' goes with the noun 'place', and is therefore an adjective.

The demonstrative adverbs are words like the following :

*there, thence, thither ; here, hence, hither :*  
*far, yonder, away, near :*  
*apart, together :* } denoting place

*above, after, before, behind, below, by, down, in, on, up, within, without,* and other words (mostly denoting place) which may be used also as prepositions :

*then, ago, since, formerly, previously, yesterday :*  
*now, already, still, yet, to-day :*  
*thereupon, henceforth, afterwards, soon, to-morrow :* } denoting time

*thus, so, as* (in the sense of 'so') :

*the* (= by so much, in that degree), with a comparative.



*There* it stands to this very day.

*Here* they noticed round his neck

A scarf of red and yellow stripe.

I wish I were a mile *hence*.

The children skipped merrily *by*.

The Piper had lips where smiles went *out* and *in*.

Poke *out* the nests, block *up* the holes.

The Piper went *on* smiling.

*Then*, like a musical adept,

To blow the pipe his lips he wrinkled.

It happened long *since*—nearly five hundred years *ago*.

(‘five hundred years’ qualifies the adverb ‘ago’, telling us ‘how much’)

I *now* go limping as *before*.

I can draw all creatures after me *so* as you never saw.

(‘so’ = in such a way)

They would not shock a street *so* solemn.

(‘so’ = to such an extent)

*As* sure as fate, we’ll send you packing.

(‘as’ = so, to such an extent)

And *the* better in memory to fix

The place of the children’s last retreat

They called it the Pied Piper’s street.

(= in order to fix it *by so much* better)

} with adjective  
or adverb,  
§ 125

Obs. The demonstrative adverb ‘the’ was written *thé* or *thy* in Old English; it comes from the same root as the demonstrative adjective ‘the’ (§ 110): *thé* or *thy* = by that.

127 (b) Interrogative adverbs are used in questions, like interrogative pronouns and interrogative adjectives:

*where*, *whence*, *whither* (denoting place):

*when* (denoting time):

*how*, *why*.

*Where* is Hamelin ?

*When* did the Piper punish the town ?

*How* did he punish the town ?

*Why* did he punish the town ?

- 128 Interrogative adverbs, like interrogative pronouns (§ 87) and interrogative adjectives (§ 113), may introduce dependent questions :

*How* or *why* it happened, they don't understand.

- 129 (c) **Exclamatory adverbs** are used in exclamations, like the exclamatory pronoun and adjective 'what' (§§ 88, 114):

*how, why.*

*How* the Mayor was on the rack !

*How* angry the burghers were !

*How* bitterly they reproached the Corporation ! } (§ 125)

*Why*, what had happened ?

( 'why' is here an exclamatory adverb, 'what' an interrogative pronoun)

*Why*, the rats had overrun the whole town.

'How' may be used to introduce a dependent exclamation :

See *how* they run.

- 130 (d) **Relative adverbs**, like relative pronouns, relate to an antecedent and are also connective (see Part I, § 67) :

*where, whence, whither ; wherein, whereat, whereupon ; when ; why :*

*as* (= to whatever extent) :

*the* (= by how much, in whatever degree), with a comparative.

For he led us, he said, to a joyous land

*Where* waters gushed and fruit-trees grew.

( 'where' = in which ; subordinating, hence no stop, § 91)

They came to the river Weser,

*Wherein* all plunged and perished.

( 'wherein' = in which ; co-ordinating, hence the comma)

The year *when* this happened was A.D. 1376.

(‘when’ = in which ; subordinating, hence no stop)

The reason *why* it happened is told in Browning’s poem.

(‘why’ = on account of which ; subordinating)

In the above instances the antecedent of the relative adverb is a noun, and the clause introduced by the relative adverb is an adjective-clause.

131 But the antecedent of the relative adverbs ‘as’ and ‘the’ is a demonstrative adverb (‘so’ or ‘as’ or ‘the’, § 126):

I can draw all creatures after me *so as* you never saw.

*As* sure *as* fate we’ll send you packing.

(‘as fate’ means ‘as fate is sure’)

*The* older a man gets, *the* less exercise he takes.

*The* sooner [it is done], *the* better [I shall be pleased].

These sentences may be compared with sentences in which a relative pronoun has a demonstrative pronoun as its antecedent: ‘What (*or* Whatever) I have promised, that I will perform’ (§§ 93, 96).

132 The first ‘the’ in these sentences means ‘by how much’, and the second ‘the’ means ‘by so much’ (§ 126, Obs. 1). Note that the antecedent in this case comes after the relative word.

133 The clauses introduced by the relative adverbs ‘as’ and ‘the’ are adverb-clauses, like the clauses introduced by subordinating conjunctions (Part I, § 43).

134 The word ‘however’ is a relative adverb when it qualifies a verb or an adjective or an adverb in a subordinate clause :

*However* the thing turns out, we shall be all right.

*However* rich he gets, he does not grow contented.

*However* often I tell him, he forgets.

### 3. Adverbs denoting number or amount.

135 Many of the following adverbs, especially those denoting amount, may be used with adjectives or other adverbs.

(i) The words 'once', 'twice', 'thrice', derived from the cardinal numerals (§ 118. i);

(ii) Words like 'firstly', 'first',<sup>1</sup> 'secondly', 'thirdly', derived from the ordinal numerals (§ 118. ii);

(iii) Words like the following :

*somewhere, nowhere, everywhere, anywhere :*

*always, often, sometimes, seldom, rarely :*

*ever, never, once* (in the sense of 'at some unknown time'),

*again, daily, yearly, lastly, last :*

*somehow, nohow, anyhow :*

*much, more, most :*

*little, less, least :*

*very, quite, wholly, almost, any; hardly, scarcely,* } denoting  
*only, but (= only), no (= not any), not<sup>2</sup> :* } amount

*far, full, greatly, slightly :*

*too, enough, about, somewhat, rather.*

His fingers, they noticed, were *ever* (= always) straying.

Shall we *ever* (= at any time) see our children again ?

They will *never* (= at no time) hear of that country more.

A Piper *once* came to Hamelin. It was *almost* five hundred years before Browning wrote his poem.

The Piper got *very* angry.

( 'Very' is used only with adjectives and adverbs, not with verbs, nor with verb-adjectives except when they have lost their verbal force, as in 'very loving', 'very learned'. )

I *quite* approve of what the Piper did.

You treat me *no* better (*not any* better) than a cook.

He would *not* wait *any* longer.

That was *far* better. It is *too* good to be true.

Nobody could *enough* admire

The tall man and his quaint attire.

<sup>1</sup> 'First' is now generally used instead of 'firstly' by good writers.

<sup>2</sup> 'Not' is a shortened form of 'nought' (§ 102, n.).

## SENTENCE-ADVERBS

136 Several of the adverbs belonging to one or another of the above three classes (§ 123) may be used to qualify the sentence as a whole; when so used they are called **sentence-adverbs**. For example—

*accordingly, consequently, likewise, otherwise, else :*  
*therefore, wherefore, thus, so, then, hence, now :*  
*however, moreover, nevertheless<sup>1</sup>, notwithstanding, yet, still :*  
*also, too, besides, beside :*  
*well, why, though :*  
*indeed, truly, perhaps, possibly :*  
*only, merely, simply, even, not.*

Be punctual, *otherwise* (or *else*) you will miss me.

So munch on, crunch on, take your nuncheon.

Now the Piper was a clever fellow.

*Beside*, our losses have made us thrifty.

What! Never?—*Well*, hardly ever.

Who did that?—*Why*, I did!

You never told me *though*. ('*though*' = however)

*Possibly* (*Perhaps*) you may succeed.

It is *only* (or *but*) a scraping of shoes on the mat.

137 Some sentence-adverbs (especially 'too', 'else', 'only', 'even') may be used in such a way as to emphasize the word which stands next to them in the sentence. The word which is emphasized may be almost any part of speech, and it stands either immediately before or immediately after the sentence-adverb:

He <i>too</i>	} disappointed me.	<i>Only</i> he	} disappointed me.
No one <i>else</i>		<i>Even</i> he	

Similarly 'not'. Distinguish 'not all' from 'all . . . not', as in '*Not all* of us are rich', '*All* of us are *not* rich'.

<sup>1</sup> 'Nevertheless' means 'never by so much less' (§ 126, Obs.).

138 The word 'whether' has two uses :

- (1) as an interrogative sentence-adverb, introducing a dependent question, and sometimes followed by 'or' (= or whether) :

Tell me *whether* the Piper ever returned to Hamelin.  
 Tell me *whether* he returned *or whether* he did not.  
 Tell me *whether* he returned *or* not.

- (2) as a subordinating conjunction, meaning 'if on the one hand' and followed by 'or' (= or whether, or if on the other hand) :

*Whether* they pipe us free from rats *or* from mice,  
 If we've promised them aught, let us keep our promise.

OBS. The word 'if' has the same two uses as 'whether'.

### TABLE OF CORRESPONDING WORDS

139 This table shows how the chief indicating pronouns and adjectives correspond (i) to one another, (ii) to indicating adverbs.

Indicating Pronouns and Adjectives	Demonstrative	Interrogative	Relative
	<i>this, that, the</i> (§ 110) <i>such, same</i>		<i>who, which,</i> <i>what</i>
Indicating Adverbs	<i>here, hence, hither</i> } <i>there, thence, thither</i> } <i>then</i> <i>so</i> (§ 126) <i>as</i> (§ 126) <i>the</i> (§ 126)	<i>where, whence,</i> <i>whither</i> <i>when</i> <i>how</i>	<i>where, whence,</i> <i>whither</i> <i>when</i> <i>as</i> (§ 130) <i>as</i> (§ 130) <i>the</i> (§ 130)

## (B) FORMS AND THEIR CHIEF MEANINGS

140 Some parts of speech have different 'forms', as they are called, which arise either by adding an 'ending' to the word or by some other change in the word.

Five parts of speech may have different forms :

(1) Nouns, as *rat, rats; man, men.*

(2) Pronouns, as *this, these; he, him.* But some pronouns never change their form, as 'which', 'what'.

(3) Adjectives, as *small, smaller, smallest.*

(4) Adverbs, as *soon, sooner, soonest.*

(5) Verbs, as *speak, speaks, spoke; call, calls, called.*

The other three parts of speech (Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections) never change their form, as *to, and, if, ah.*

141 The different forms of a word generally differ from one another also in *meaning* or *use*. The form 'boy' denotes one person, the form 'boys' denotes more than one person. The form 'him' differs from the form 'he' in its use; and this difference of use is really a difference of meaning. For example, in a sentence like 'He saw him' the form 'he' denotes the subject, 'him' the object. The difference of meaning between 'small' and 'smaller', and that between 'soon' and 'sooner', is plain. So too is the difference between 'spoke' and 'speak' or 'speaks'. Sometimes, it is true, there is no difference of meaning or use between two different forms: for example, we may say either 'the cock crew' or 'the cock crowed', in exactly the same sense.

But it must not be supposed that the same form of a word always has the same meaning or use. On the contrary, a single form often has several quite different uses. This is true of all

languages, but especially of English, which has lost a great many of the differences of form that it once possessed; for example, in Old English people said 'ic binde' for 'I bind' and 'wē bindath' for 'we bind'; but at the present day the same form 'bind' is used in both these cases, and also in a number of other ways, as 'you bind', 'they bind', 'to bind', and in commands like 'Bind him fast'. Again the form 'boy' may denote either the subject or the object, as in 'My boy saw your boy'; and it may be used in other ways, as will be shown below (as 'Come here, boy', 'I gave my boy a present'). The form 'sheep' may denote either one or more than one, as 'The sheep is in the meadow', 'The sheep are in the meadow'. Modern English is none the worse for the loss of most of its old forms of words. For all the old meanings are expressed, as clearly as is necessary, by fewer forms. How is this possible? In the first place the order of words in the sentence often shows the meaning: for example, if we say 'The Germans attacked the French', it is clear that 'the Germans' is the subject, because these words come before the verb, and 'the French' is the object, because these words come after the verb. In 'I showed the captain my prisoner', it is clear that 'the captain' is the person to whom the prisoner was shown, because 'the captain' comes before 'my prisoner': if we alter the order of the words, the meaning is quite different: 'I showed my prisoner the captain'. In the second place, where the order of words does not help, there is often something in the rest of the sentence which shows the meaning: for example, in 'The sheep are in the meadow' the verb 'are' shows that 'sheep' denotes more than one sheep. On the other hand, in a sentence like 'The sheep ran into the meadow', it is not clear whether we are speaking of one sheep or of more than one. The context, however, would show the meaning.

142 The different uses of forms have been arranged in groups, and to each of these groups grammarians have given names. Thus when a noun denotes one person or thing it is said to



be in the *singular number*, as 'rat', 'man', 'sheep'; when a noun denotes more than one person or thing it is said to be in the *plural number*, as 'rats', 'men', 'sheep'. When a noun or a pronoun stands as the subject of a sentence, it is said to be in the *nominative case*, as 'John is rich', 'He is rich'; when it stands as the object of a sentence, it is said to be in the *accusative case*, as 'Fetch John', 'Fetch him'. A verb is said to be in a certain *voice* and *mood* and *tense* and *number* and *person*; and an adjective or adverb is said to be in a certain *degree of comparison*.

143 Names like 'number', 'case', 'tense', 'mood', 'voice' properly denote differences of *meaning*, not differences of *form*. Thus when we say that a certain noun is 'in the plural number' we mean that it denotes more than one: 'rats', 'men', 'sheep' are all in the plural number, though their forms are quite different. Similarly when we say that a certain noun or pronoun is 'in the nominative case' we mean that it is used as the subject of the sentence or in some way that is similar to its use as the subject: 'he' and 'man' (in the sentence 'The man has gone home, but he will soon return') are both in the nominative case, though they are not at all alike in form. But names like 'plural number', 'nominative case', 'past tense' and so forth are often applied to the forms themselves. When we use the names in this way, we say that 'he' *is* the nominative case of this pronoun, and that 'rats' *is* the plural number of 'rat'. Each of these names may, in fact, denote **a form of a word used in a particular way**.

144 Now it is clear that, as the same form may be used in several different ways, it will have sometimes one name, sometimes another, according to the part which it plays in the sentence: thus the form 'rat' may be sometimes the nominative, sometimes the accusative, sometimes the dative case. Moreover a form may have two or more names at the same time. For instance, in the sentence 'Take your hats off', the form 'hats' is plural number and accusative case;

and the form 'take' is plural number (as shown by 'hats'), second person, imperative mood, and active voice. In the sentence 'Take your hat off', the form 'hat' is also accusative case, but singular number; and the form 'take' is singular number (as shown by 'hat'), but the same person and mood and voice as before.

- 145 To give names to the forms of words is called **parsing** them.<sup>1</sup> And in parsing, as in telling what part of speech a word is, the pupil should bear in mind the following rule: *Take care of the SENSE, and the SOUNDS will take care of themselves.* For it is impossible to parse correctly merely by considering the outward appearance of a word. Neither the sound nor the look of a word enables us to parse it completely, though they often tell us *something* about its use. For example, the word 'call' may be either a verb or a noun. If it is a verb, its mood may be indicative or imperative or subjunctive, its number may be either singular or plural, its person may be first or second or third, according to the sense. If it is a noun, its number must necessarily be singular, but its case may be either nominative or accusative.<sup>2</sup>

## NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

### I. NUMBERS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

- 146 A noun or pronoun is said to be in the *singular number* when it denotes one person or thing, and in the *plural number* when it denotes more than one person or thing.

The only adjectives which have distinct forms for the plural in Modern English are the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* (§ 109), which form the plurals *these* and *those*, like the corresponding pronouns (§ 156).

- 147 **Plurals of nouns.**

Nouns form their plurals in four different ways:

(1) by adding an s or the syllable ES to the singular:

<sup>1</sup> Models for parsing are given in Appendix II, p. 94.

<sup>2</sup> This particular noun could hardly be used in the dative case.

**s** (not forming a separate syllable) is added when an *s*-sound can be pronounced after the last sound of the singular:<sup>1</sup>

*rat, rats; tail, tails; sea, seas; boy, boys;*  
*tale, tale-s; lie, lie-s; eye, eye-s.*

*Peculiarities of spelling.* The plural of words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant is spelled with *ie*, as *baby, babies*; and the plural of most words ending in *o* preceded by a consonant is spelled with *oe*, as *echo, echoes*. In neither case does the *es* form a separate syllable.

**es** (forming a separate syllable) is added when a simple *s* cannot be pronounced after the last sound of the singular:

*gas, gases; lass, lasses; box, boxes; buzz, buzzes;*  
*wish, wishes; church, churches;*  
*horse, hors-es; face, fac-es; nose, nos-es; size, siz-es;*  
*bridge, bridg-es; wage, wag-es.*

When the singular is spelled with a silent *e* at the end, that *e* is dropped before the *es* of the plural.

Obs. 'Penny' forms two plurals: (1) *pennies*, (2) *pence*.

148 In many words ending with the sound of *f* or *th* or *s* this sound is changed before the ending of the plural.

The *f* sound becomes *v*, and this is shown in the spelling: as *leaf, leaves; life, lives; calf, calves; self, selves; wolf, wolves*. But many words in *f* and most in *ff* retain the *f* sound and the *f* spelling before the *s* of the plural: as *belief, proof, dwarf, gulf, fife, safe; cliff, stuff*. Notice *scarf*, plur. *scarfs* or *scarves*; *wharf*, plur. *wharfs* or *wharves*; *staff*, plur. *staffs* or *staves*.

Similarly the *th*-sound and the *s*-sound are changed in some words, though this is not shown in the spelling: *path, paths; truth, truths; house, houses*.

<sup>1</sup> The *s*-sound is voiceless after a voiceless consonant (*p, t, k*), as in 'taps', 'rats', 'rocks', but voiced (= *z*) after all other sounds, as in 'tubs', 'lads', 'dogs', 'tails', 'fathers', 'rooms', 'tons', 'trees'.

## 149 (2) by adding EN to the singular:

*ox, oxen.*

The word *child* forms its plural *children* by adding *n* or *en* to an old plural *childre* or *childer*; *childre-n* is thus a double plural in form.

The word *brother* forms two plurals: (1) *brothers*, (2) *brethren*.

The word *cow* forms two plurals: (1) *cows*, (2) *kine*.

## 150 (3) by changing the vowel of the singular:

*man, men; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice.*

## 151 (4) without any change or addition:

*deer, deer; sheep, sheep; swine, swine.*

So some nouns denoting measurement: 'he stands six *foot* high', 'a three *year* old horse', 'he weighs sixteen *stone*'.

The word *fish* forms two plurals: (1) *fishes*, (2) *fish*.

The word *folk*, which is no longer used in the singular, forms two plurals: (1) *folks*, (2) *folk*: as 'folks who put me in a passion', 'to see the folk suffer'.

152 The word *people* is used in two ways:

(a) as a singular, denoting 'nation'; and in this sense it forms the plural *peoples*: 'the peoples of the Empire are fighting as one people'.

(b) as a plural, denoting 'persons': 'people are often mistaken'; 'I saw many people in the streets'.

### Plurals of pronouns.

153 Some pronouns have forms which denote more than one person, and which may therefore be called 'plurals'. But some of these are not plurals in the same sense as 'rats' is the plural of 'rat'. For example, 'we' does not denote 'I and I'; it denotes 'I and you', or 'I and he (or she)', or 'I and they', or 'I and you and they'. On the other hand, 'these' is a true plural of 'this', and 'those' is a true plural of 'that'.

- 154 The following pronouns have plural forms :—  
 Personal pronouns :
- (1) sing. *I* (denoting the speaker of the sentence);  
 plur. *we* (denoting the speaker of the sentence and  
 some other person or persons associated with him) :
  - (2) sing. *thou* or *you* (denoting the person addressed) ;<sup>1</sup>  
 plur. *you* or *ye* (denoting two or more persons  
 addressed) :
  - (3) sing. *he, she, it* (denoting a person or thing spoken of) ;  
 plur. *they* (denoting persons or things spoken of).
- 155 Reflexive and emphasizing pronouns :
- (1) sing. *myself* ; plur. *ourselves* :
  - (2) sing. *thymself, yourself* ; plur. *yourselves* :
  - (3) sing. *himself, herself, itself* ; plur. *themselves*.
- 156 The demonstrative pronouns ‘this’ and ‘that’ :
- sing. *this* ; plur. *these* :  
 sing. *that* ; plur. *those*.
- 157 The pronouns ‘one’ and ‘other’ :
- sing. *one* ; plur. *ones* :  
 sing. *other, another* ; plur. *others*.

## 2. FORMS OF CASES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

- 158 A ‘case’ of a noun or pronoun is a form of the word used in a particular way in the construction of a sentence. (See §§ 143, 144.)

There are five cases in English, called (1) *nominative*, (2) *vocative*, (3) *accusative*, (4) *genitive*, (5) *dative*. Their meanings and uses will be explained below, §§ 164–180.

<sup>1</sup> The form ‘you’ was originally a plural ; and even when it is singular in meaning in Modern English it always takes the same form of the verb as when it is plural : ‘You *are* mistaken, my friend (my friends.)’ Compare the French, ‘Vous *avez* tort.’

## NOUNS

159 Only one of the cases of nouns differs from the other case in *form*. This is the genitive case.

The genitive of nouns is formed—

(1) in the singular by adding 's to the nominative :<sup>1</sup>

*rat's, boy's, girl's, eagle's, river's, heaven's.*

The 's forms an additional syllable when the nominative ends in a sound to which s cannot be added in the same syllable: *ass's, fox's, horse's, James's, midge's*. But in a few expressions the s is omitted (though the apostrophe is written, as a sign of the genitive case), as in 'for *goodness*' sake', 'for *conscience*' sake'.

(2) in the plural—

(a) by adding an apostrophe (') to the nominative plural, if it is formed with -s or -es :

*rats', boys', girls', eagles', rivers' :*  
*asses', foxes', horses', midges'.*

(b) by adding 's to the nominative plural, if it is not formed with -s or -es :

the *oxen's* horns, the *children's* last retreat, *men's* lot,  
the *women's* chats, the *deer's* antlers.

Obs. A group of words treated as a noun takes the 's of the genitive at the end<sup>2</sup>: the *heir apparent's* title, my *brother in law's* house, a *day or two's* delay, *somebody else's* money

<sup>1</sup> This s varies in pronunciation like the s of the plural. See § 147, note. The use of the apostrophe before the s has the convenience of distinguishing to the eye genitives from plurals. But it is a mere spelling device and of comparatively recent origin. In Old English it was quite unknown, as it is also in Modern German nouns whose genitive is formed with s.

<sup>2</sup> This rule does not apply to the s of the plural in such groups (*heirs apparent, brothers in law, &c.*).

TABLE OF THE CASES OF A NOUN

160

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	rat, as in 'The <i>rat</i> killed the cat'	rats, as in 'The <i>rats</i> killed the cats'
<i>Vocative</i>	rat, as in 'O <i>rat</i> , rejoice'	rats, as in 'O <i>rats</i> , rejoice'
<i>Accusative</i>	rat, as in 'The cat killed the <i>rat</i> '	rats, as in 'The cats killed the <i>rats</i> '
<i>Genitive</i>	rat's, as in 'The <i>rat</i> 's tail is long'	rats', as in 'The <i>rats</i> ' tails are long'
<i>Dative</i>	rat, as in 'Give the <i>rat</i> poison'	rats, as in 'Give the <i>rats</i> poison'

TABLES OF THE CASES OF PRONOUNS

161 The personal pronouns have no genitive case in Modern English (see Obs. on next page):

First Person.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	I	we
<i>Accusative</i>	me	us
<i>Genitive</i>	[none]	[none]
<i>Dative</i>	me	us

Second Person.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	thou or you	you or ye
<i>Vocative</i>	thou or you	you or ye
<i>Accusative</i>	thee or you	you or ye
<i>Genitive</i>	[none]	[none]
<i>Dative</i>	thee or you	you or ye

Third Person.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	he she it	they
<i>Accusative</i>	him her it	them
<i>Genitive</i>	[none]	[none]
<i>Dative</i>	him her it	them

*The Genitive Case of Personal Pronouns*

Obs. In Old English the personal pronouns had genitives :

First person		<i>Sing.</i> mīn	<i>Plur.</i> ūre
Second person		þīn (þ = th)	ēower
Third person		his, her, his	heora

From these genitives we get in Modern English—

- (i) the possessive pronouns *mine, thine, his* (§ 77);<sup>1</sup>  
 (ii) the possessive adjectives *my, thy, his, her, our, your* (§ 105). *Its* was substituted for *his* (gen. of *it*) in the seventeenth century. *Their* does not come from *heora*; it is a Scandinavian form, like *they* and *them*.

<sup>1</sup> The pronouns *hers, ours, yours, theirs* may be called 'double genitives', because the *s* is the genitive-ending, added superfluously to the old genitives in *r*.

162 The pronoun 'who' (interrogative and relative) has the following cases :

	<i>Singular and Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	who
<i>Accusative</i>	whom
<i>Genitive</i>	whose
<i>Dative</i>	whom

163 The only other pronouns which have any differences of form for the different cases are the pronouns 'one' and 'other', which have genitives in *-s*, as in 'It is easy to bid one rack *one's* brain', 'This man doubts the *other's* word'.

### 3. MEANINGS OF THE CASES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

164 The **nominative case** is used as the subject of a sentence or clause :

*I* heard a sound. *Out* came the *children*.



And step for step *they* followed dancing,  
 Until *they* came to the river Weser,  
 Wherein *all* plunged and perished,  
 Save one, *who*, stout as *Julius Caesar*,  
 Swam across and lived to carry  
 (As *he* the manuscript *he* cherished)  
 To Rat-land home his commentary:  
*Which* was . . . . . *P. P.*, ll. 120-7.

- 165 Predicative nouns and predicative pronouns agree in case with the word of which they are said; hence a noun or pronoun said of the subject stands in the nominative case:

Our Mayor is a *noddy*.

*Who* are you? Are you not *he*? I am *he*. This is *she*.

- 166 The vocative case is used to call the attention of the person or thing addressed:

You threaten us, *fellow*? Rouse up, *sirs*! *Ladies*  
 and *gentlemen*, I desire to say a few words on this  
 subject. O *rats*, rejoice!

- 167 The accusative case is used in three ways:

(1) as the object of a sentence or clause:

You threaten *us*, *fellow*? The rats followed the *Piper*.  
 They rang the *bells* till they rocked the *steeple*.  
 I found *myself* outside the hill.

*What* we spoke was in joke. (Here the relative 'what' means 'that which'; and, if we substitute these words, 'which' is an accusative, and 'that' is a nominative, subject to 'was': compare §§ 93, 94).

OBS. 1. The accusative of the relative pronouns 'who', 'which', 'that' is often understood:

This is the man I want (= the man *whom* I want).  
 He carried home the manuscript he cherished (= the  
 manuscript *which* he cherished). *P. P.*, l. 125.  
 All he's rich in (= All *that* he's rich in, All in *which*  
 he's rich). *P. P.*, l. 178. See § 169.

OBS. 2. A predicative noun or pronoun which is said of the object stands in the accusative case (cp. above, § 165):  
 'People call me the *Piper*.'      'They made him *Mayor*.'

168 (2) adverbially.

The only words whose accusative can be used adverbially are nouns denoting time or place or measurement:

	<i>Answering the question</i>
An <i>hour</i> they sat in council.	'how long?'
Last <i>June</i> I freed the Cham.	'when?'
He blew his pipe three <i>times</i> .	'how often?'
He carried his commentary <i>home</i> .	} 'whither?'
The Mayor sent <i>East, West, North</i> .	
They could not move a <i>step</i> .	} 'how far?'
I wish I were a <i>mile</i> hence.	
It shone scarce an <i>inch</i> before me.	
It fell <i>yards</i> away from me.	
The river is a <i>quarter</i> of a mile broad.	} 'how much?'
It happened <i>years</i> ago.	

OBS. An important difference between adverbial accusatives and object-accusatives is that the object-accusative may become the subject of a passive construction (§ 220), but the adverbial accusative cannot become a subject. 'You threaten *us*' may be turned into '*We* are threatened by you', but 'They sat an *hour*' cannot be turned into 'An *hour* was sat by them'.

169 (3) after prepositions, to form with the preposition either (a) an adverb-phrase, or (b) an adjective-phrase:<sup>1</sup>

- (a) I found the Weser rolling o'er *me*.  
 He sat between *you* and *me*.  
 He turned from *South* to *West*.  
 Out of the *houses* the rats came tumbling.

<sup>1</sup> All prepositions take the accusative case in Modern English. This will be explained in Part III (§ 489).

- (b) All the little boys and girls  
 With rosy *cheeks* and flaxen *curls*  
 Ran merrily. ('with rosy cheeks' = rosy-cheeked)  
 They ran like fowls in a *farm-yard*.

170 The genitive case denotes 'belonging to' or 'connected with', and is used adjectivally, to qualify a noun :

the *Piper's* face, the *needle's* eye, a *burgher's* pate, his *heart's* content, *heaven's* gate, the *children's* last retreat, *men's* lot, *eagles'* wings.

It is easy to bid one rack *one's* brain.

In *whose* hats did the rats make nests ?

In some of the above instances the genitive denotes 'possession' or 'ownership', as '*whose* hats'. 'The *Piper's* coat' means 'the coat possessed by the Piper', but 'the *Piper's* face' and 'the *Piper's* anger' do not denote possession in the same sense ; nor is the idea of ownership applicable to 'the *needle's* eye' or to many others of the genitives given above. In the following instances it is still more out of the question : 'the *slave's* master', 'the *King's* enemies', '*Caesar's* murderers', 'a *stone's* throw', 'a *nine days'* wonder', 'the *Thirty Years'* war', '*to-day's* paper', 'a *summer's* day'. These genitives all denote 'connected with', but they do not denote 'owned by'. Similarly 'a *boys'* book' means not 'a book owned by boys' but 'a book for boys'.

171 It is clear, then, that the genitive has different meanings in different instances. But one thing we may say about all genitives—that they are used like adjectives. The particular kind of 'connexion' which is denoted by this adjectival case may be shown by substituting for the genitive an adjective-clause, introduced by a relative pronoun : 'the *Piper's* coat' = the coat which the Piper owns ; 'the *needle's* eye' = the eye which there is in a needle ; '*Caesar's* murderers' = those who murdered Caesar ; '*Caesar's* victories' = the victories which Caesar won ; 'a *nine days'* wonder' = a wonder which lasts nine days ; '*Scio's* rocky isle' = the rocky isle called Scio.

**172** ORDER OF WORDS. The genitive always comes *before* the noun which it qualifies. Thus it stands in the same position as an epithet-adjective: *men's* lot = *human* lot.

**173** The dative case is used in two ways:

(1) as a kind of object, in sentences which have also an object in the accusative<sup>1</sup>:

Will you give *me* a thousand guilders?

Give your *brains* a racking.

They offered the *Piper* silver and gold.

The rats caused the *Corporation* much trouble.

And I chiefly use my charm

On creatures that do *people* harm.

Forgive *us* our trespasses.

The money they promised *him* was never paid.

(the accusative *which* is omitted; see § 167, Obs. 1)

They did *themselves* much dishonour.

In such sentences the dative is called the 'indirect object', and the accusative may be called, for the sake of distinction, the 'direct object'.

**174** The meaning of the dative in such sentences is plain: it is equivalent to a phrase formed with *to*. Thus in the first example *me* means *to me*. The difference of meaning between the dative and the accusative may also be shown by comparing sentences like the above with sentences containing an object and a predicative noun, both in the accusative (§ 167, Obs. 2): compare—

They offer *me* a thousand guilders. (dat. and acc.)

They call *me* the Piper. (acc. and acc.)

'Piper' is a name for the same person as is denoted by 'me'; but 'guilders' denotes something quite different from 'me'.

**175** That the indirect object is really a kind of object may be shown by throwing the sentence into the 'passive form'

<sup>1</sup> In the passive form of such sentences the dative may be retained: thus, '1,000 guilders will be given *me*'. (See § 175. i.)

(see above, § 168, Obs.). The chief test of an *object* as distinct from an adverbial use of a case is whether it can become the *subject* in the passive form. Now if we change a sentence like 'The mayor offers me 1,000 guilders' into its passive form, we get—

- either (i) '1,000 guilders are offered me by the mayor',  
or (ii) 'I am offered 1,000 guilders by the mayor'.

In (i) the direct object (accusative) has become the subject (nominative); in (ii) the indirect object (dative) has become the subject (nominative). In some sentences this conversion makes rather awkward English; but it is very common with certain verbs: 'He was awarded the prize', 'I was told the truth', 'They were shown the way', 'He was paid his bill'.

176 Notice that in the second of the above passive constructions (§ 175. ii) the accusative of the active construction is retained; it may be called 'the retained accusative'.

177 Beware of thinking that the dative case is merely an accusative with the preposition omitted. For example, the dative *me*, though it means the same as *to me*, does not arise from the omission of the preposition. It is quite a different case, and older than the phrase *to me*, which has come to be used as its equivalent.

178 ORDER OF WORDS. The dative-object comes before the accusative-object, except when the accusative-object is a personal pronoun: thus, 'Give *me* the money', 'Give *your brother* the money', but 'Give *it* me', 'Give *it* your brother'.

179 (2) adverbially.

Adverbial datives are chiefly employed to qualify adjectives or adverbs, especially 'like' and 'near':

And he himself was tall and thin,  
With sharp blue eyes, each like a *pin*. } Qualifying  
*Whom* was he most like? } adjectives.

And green and blue his sharp eyes twinkled  
 Like a *candle-flame* where salt is sprinkled.  
 ('like' = similarly to)

He stood near *me*.

} Qualifying  
adverbs.

180 Adverbial datives may, however, qualify verbs. Notice that the dative cannot in these instances become the subject of a passive construction. Compare § 168, Obs., and § 175.

Woe is *me*! (= woe is to me)

*Methought* I heard a voice. ('methought' = it seemed to me; from the Old English *hyncan* = 'seem'.)

It will last *you* your life. ('you' = for you)

Write *me* out that lesson.

Keep *me* a good seat.

Curse *me* this people. (*Bible*,  
*Book of Numbers*, xxii. 6.)

} ('me' = for me)

They saddled *him* the ass. (*1 Kings*, xiii. 13: 'him' = for him)

I bought *myself* a new bat. ('myself' = for myself)

Obs. Adverbial datives come before accusatives. Cp. § 178.

#### 4. CASES REPLACED BY PHRASES FORMED WITH PREPOSITIONS

181 (1) Phrases formed with 'of' are often equivalent to genitives: thus, 'the face *of the Piper*' means the same as '*the Piper's* face', and in most instances in which a genitive is used the phrase formed with 'of' may be substituted for it.<sup>1</sup>

Notice that a definite article has generally to be inserted in substituting a phrase with 'of' for a genitive: 'men's lot' becomes '*the* lot of men'; 'the Piper's face' becomes '*the* face of the Piper'; 'a man's body' becomes '*the* body of a man'.

182 In some instances, however, the genitive is the only proper expression; and in other instances, though the phrase with 'of' might be used, it is less clear in its meaning than the genitive:

<sup>1</sup> Phrases with 'of' which are equivalent to genitives may be called 'genitive-phrases'.

'a nine *days*' wonder'; 'a *boys*' book'; '*whose* hat is this?'; 'it is easy to bid one rack *one's* brain'.

'Love of a father' might mean either 'a father's love' or 'love for a father'. 'The cause of the war was the jealousy and fear of England' (translated from the German in *The Times*, Jan. 6, 1915) is obscure: does it mean that England's jealousy and fear [of Germany] or that [Germany's] jealousy and fear of England was the cause of the war?

183 On the other hand, where a word has no genitive, the phrase with 'of' is necessary:

'They did this in defence *of themselves*'; 'The property *of these* was destroyed'; 'They defended the property of you and *of yours*'.

And the genitive of nouns denoting lifeless things is avoided, except in special expressions such as are quoted in § 170: thus we should say 'the legs of the table', not 'the table's legs'.

184 In sentences like 'He is a friend *of John's*' there is a noun understood: 'of John's' means 'of John's friends', so that the sentence is equivalent to 'He is one of John's friends'. Here 'of' means 'out of the number of'. Compare 'He is a friend of *mine*' = 'He is one of *my friends*', § 77.

185 ORDER OF WORDS. Phrases with 'of' (unlike genitives, § 172) always come after the noun which they qualify: 'the lot *of men*'; 'the hope *of better things*'.

186 (2) Phrases formed with 'to' or 'for' are often equivalent to **datives**.<sup>1</sup> Thus in most of the examples in § 173 and §§ 179, 180 we might substitute a phrase with 'to' or 'for': 'Give a racking *to your brains*'; 'Creatures that do harm *to people*'; 'The rats caused much trouble *to the Corporation*'; 'He was near *to the goal*', 'Write that lesson out *for me*', 'They saddled an ass *for him*', &c., and vice versa we might say: 'To pay *a wandering fellow* this sum', instead of 'To pay this sum *to a wandering fellow*' (*P. P.*, l. 161).

<sup>1</sup> Phrases with 'to' or 'for' which are equivalent to datives may be called 'dative-phrases'.

187 The dative 'whom' is never used as an indirect object (§ 173), but only adverbially (§ 179); thus it is necessary to use the phrase with 'to' in sentences like '*To whom* did you promise the money?' 'It was he *to whom* I promised it.'

188 ORDER OF WORDS. Phrases with 'to' or 'for' (unlike datives, §§ 178, 180 Obs.) nearly always come after accusatives. Thus we say 'Give the money *to me*', 'Give the money *to your brother*', 'Give it *to me*'.

But this rule does not apply to phrases containing 'whom', interrogative or relative: see examples in § 187.

189 (3) Phrases formed with prepositions are often equivalent to **adverbial accusatives**: for example, in § 168 we might say: '*For an hour* they sat in council'; 'He carried the book *to his home*'; 'The Mayor sent *to the East, to the West, to the North, and to the South*'. Similarly, instead of 'One day he came to see me' we might say '*On a certain day* he came to see me'; instead of 'a great deal bigger' we might say 'bigger *by a great deal*'.

But it must not be supposed that a preposition is *omitted* before an adverbial accusative. (Compare § 177.)

##### 5. TABLE OF ANALYSIS SHOWING CASES AND PHRASES FORMED WITH PREPOSITIONS

190 The indirect object (§§ 173, 186) requires a column of its own in analysis; and this column may be placed before that of the direct object (see Order of Words, § 178).

Cases used adverbially (§ 168 and §§ 179, 180) and equivalent phrases formed with prepositions, when they qualify an adjective or an adverb, are put in the same column as that adjective or adverb; but when they qualify the verb or the sentence as a whole they are put in the 'Adverbial Qualification' column.

Genitives and equivalent phrases, being adjectival (§§ 171, 181), are put in the same column as the nouns which they qualify.

Vocatives (§ 166) are omitted from the table of analysis.



SUBJECT	PREDICATE				
	VERB	INDIRECT OBJECT	DIRECT OBJECT	PREDIC. ADJ., NOUN, PRON.	ADVERBIAL QUALIFICATION
God	gave	all men	all earth		to love
	Build <sup>1</sup>		a cottage		me (for me)
These creatures	do	to people	harm		
He	carried		his commentary		home
It	shone			glorious	scarce an inch before me
the rats	did make		nests		In whose hats <sup>1</sup>
The Piper's coat	was			yellow and red	
The people of Hamelin	call		it	the Pied Piper's Street	to the present day

## ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

### I. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

191 Most descriptive adjectives and a few adjectives denoting number or amount ('few', 'many', 'much', 'little') have three degrees of comparison :

the **positive**, as *black, strange, few*.

the **comparative**, generally formed by adding the ending *-er* to the positive, as *blacker, strang-er, fewer*.

the **superlative**, generally formed by adding the ending *-est* to the positive, as *blackest, strang-est, fewest*.

<sup>1</sup> The capital letter indicates the first word in the sentence: 'Build me a cottage', 'In whose hats did the rats make nests?'

- 192 But adjectives of three or more syllables form the comparative and the superlative by adding the adverbs 'more' or 'most' before the positive:<sup>1</sup>

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
<i>beautiful</i>	<i>more beautiful</i>	<i>most beautiful</i>

- 193 For adjectives of two syllables no general rule can be given. Those which are accented on the second syllable (like *severe*, *polite*), or end in *y* or *er* or *le* preceded by a consonant (like *angry*, *clever*, *gentle*), admit of the endings *-er*, *-est*.

- 194 The following adjectives borrow a comparative and superlative from positives which are no longer in use:

<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>bad</i> }		
<i>evil</i> }	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>ill</i> }		
<i>much</i> }		
<i>many</i> }	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>little</i> (=not much) <sup>2</sup>	<i>less</i> or <i>lesser</i>	<i>least</i>

- 195 The adjective *old* forms (i) *older*, *oldest*; (ii) *elder*, *eldest* (used to distinguish members of the same family or group).

The adjective *late* forms (i) *later*, *latest* (denoting time); (ii) *latter*, *last* (denoting order).—*Former* and *first* are the comparative and superlative of an old positive *fore*.

## 2. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

- 196 Most descriptive adverbs and a few others ('soon', 'near', 'often', 'seldom', 'much') have three degrees of comparison.

- 197 Descriptive adverbs formed from adjectives by adding the suffix *-ly* add 'more' for the comparative and 'most' for the superlative:

<i>merrily</i>	<i>more merrily</i>	<i>most merrily</i>
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<sup>1</sup> The opposite meaning may be expressed by adding the adverbs 'less', 'least'; as *less beautiful*, *least beautiful*.

<sup>2</sup> 'Little' may also mean *small* (comp. *smaller*, superl. *smallest*).

- 198** The other adverbs which have degrees of comparison, including those which are formed from adjectives but without the suffix *-ly* (such as 'fast'), generally take the ending *-er* for the comparative and the ending *-est* for the superlative :

<i>soon</i>	<i>sooner</i>	<i>soonest</i>
<i>near</i>	<i>nearer</i>	<i>nearest</i>
<i>fast</i>	<i>faster</i>	<i>fastest</i>

Other adverbs like *fast* are *long, loud, wide, early, late*.

- 199** The following borrow a comparative and superlative, like the adjectives in § 194 :

<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>badly, ill</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i>
	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i>
<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>little (= not much)</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>

## VERBS

- 200** Verbs have 'persons', 'numbers', 'tenses', 'moods', and 'voices', the chief meanings of which are given in §§ 207-20.

The following tables show the chief forms of a verb in the 'active voice', together with the personal pronouns which are chiefly used with them.<sup>1</sup> *S* stands for singular, *P* for plural; 1, 2, 3 denote the three persons of each number. **Other ways of forming the past tense and the past participle are given in §§ 276-81.**

- 201** From verbs are formed certain adjectives and nouns, called 'verb-adjectives' and 'verb-nouns'. These are not verbs, but as they are formed from verbs they are added at the foot of the tables below a thick line.

Obs. Some of the forms of the active voice are compound, i.e. made up of a verb and a verb-noun or verb-adjective, as 'shall see' (§ 202), 'have seen' (§ 203). The formation of these tenses is explained in §§ 241, 255.

<sup>1</sup> The compound forms are explained in § 241 and §§ 255, 256.

## ACTIVE VOICE

202

		<i>INDICATIVE</i>	<i>IMPERATIVE</i>
		PRESENT	
S. 1	I	see	
2	thou	seest, you	see
3	he	sees	
		<i>(old form seeth)</i>	
P. 1	we	} see	see
2	you		
3	they		
		<i>SUBJUNCTIVE</i>	
		PRESENT	
S. 1	I	shall see	I see
2	thou	wilt (you will) see	thou see, you see
3	he	will see	he see
P. 1	we	shall see	} see
2	you	will see	
3	they	will see	
		PAST	
S. 1	I	saw	I saw
2	thou	sawest, you saw	thou sawest, you saw
3	he	saw	he saw
P. 1	we	} saw	} saw
2	you		
3	they		
		PAST	
		FUTURE IN THE PAST	
S. 1	I	should see	
2	thou	wouldst (you would) see	
3	he	would see	
P. 1	we	should see	
2	you	would see	
3	they	would see	
<i>VERB-ADJECTIVE</i>		PRESENT PARTICIPLE seeing	
<i>VERB-NOUNS</i>		PRESENT INFINITIVE [to] see	PRESENT GERUND seeing

ACTIVE VOICE (*continued*)

203

	<i>INDICATIVE</i>	<i>IMPERATIVE</i>	
	PRESENT PERFECT		
S. 1	I have seen		
2	thou hast (you have) seen		
3	he has seen	[none]	
P. 1	we } you } have seen they }		
2			
3			
	FUTURE PERFECT	<i>SUBJUNCTIVE</i>	
		PERFECT	
S. 1	I shall have seen	I have seen	
2	thou wilt (you will) have seen	thou have (you have) seen	
3	he will have seen	he have seen	
P. 1	we shall have seen you will have seen they will have seen	we } you } have seen they }	
2			
3			
	PAST PERFECT	PAST PERFECT	
S. 1	I had seen	I had seen	
2	thou hadst (you had) seen	thou hadst (you had) seen	
3	he had seen	he had seen	
P. 1	we } you } had seen they }	we } you } had seen they }	
2			
3			
	FUTURE PERFECT IN THE PAST		
S. 1	I should have seen		
2	thou wouldst (you would) have seen		
3	he would have seen		
P. 1	we should have seen you would have seen they would have seen		
2			
3			
<i>VERB-ADJECTIVE</i>		PERFECT PARTICIPLE having seen	
<i>VERB-NOUNS</i>		PERFECT INFINITIVE [to] have seen	PERFECT GERUND having seen

*CONTINUOUS AND OTHER COMPOUND FORMS  
OF THE ACTIVE VOICE*

**204** Continuous forms. Each of the above tenses of the active voice (§§ 202, 203) has a continuous form, which marks an action as *going on* at the time referred to :

- (1) present : I *am* (you *are*, he *is*) *seeing*; as ' I am now seeing the sights of London ' :
- (2) future : I *shall* (you *will*, he *will*) *be seeing* :
- (3) past : I *was* (you *were*, he *was*) *seeing* :
- (4) future in the past : I *should* (you *would*, he *would*) *be seeing* :
- (5) present perfect : I *have* (you *have*, he *has*) *been seeing* :
- (6) future perfect : I *shall* (you *will*, he *will*) *have been seeing* :
- (7) past perfect : I *had* (you *had*, he *had*) *been seeing* :
- (8) future perfect in the past : I *should* (you *would*, he *would*) *have been seeing*.

**205** Compound forms with 'do'.—Two of the tenses of the active voice (the present and the past) have a form compounded with the verb 'do'. In negative and interrogative sentences and also in some affirmative sentences this form is exactly equivalent in meaning to the corresponding simple form :

- (1) present : *do* I (*do* you, *does* he) *see* ?  
I *do* (you *do*, he *does*) not *see*.  
*do* I (*do* you, *does* he) not *see* ?
- (2) past : *did* I (*did* you, *did* he) *see* ?  
I *did* (you *did*, he *did*) not *see*.  
*did* I (*did* you, *did* he) not *see* ?

In affirmative sentences this use is poetical and old-fashioned :

It is not growing like a tree

In bulk *doth* (= *does*) *make* man better be.

BEN JONSON.

In *did come* the strangest figure. *Pied Piper*, l. 56.

They set bread before him, and he *did eat*.

2 *Samuel* xii. 20.

In modern English the compound with 'do' in affirmative sentences is used only for the sake of emphasis, as in 'It *does make* a noise'. Sometimes the verb 'do' alone stands for the compound :

When they asked 'Does it buzz?' he replied 'Yes, it *does* ;

It's a regular brute of a bee'.

Obs. There is also a compound form of the imperative (used for the sake of emphasis) and of the subjunctive :

*Do come*. The motion is that the House *do now adjourn*.

06 **Additional future forms.** An additional way of expressing future time is provided by the expression 'about to' or 'going to' with the infinitive :

*I am* (you *are*, he *is*) *about to see* or *going to see*.

*I was* (you *were*, he *was*) *about to see* or *going to see*.

In these expressions 'about to see' and 'going to see' are equivalent to future participles.

### MEANINGS OF THE FORMS OF VERBS

07 **Persons and numbers of verbs.** The persons and numbers of verbs are the forms which are used with the nominative case of the pronouns of the 1st, the 2nd, and the 3rd person in each number. For example, the form 'sees' is 3rd person and singular number, because it is used with 'he', 'she', or 'it'. When a verb is used with the nominative case of a noun as its subject, it is of the 3rd person, as in 'The enemy sees us'.

08 **Tenses of the indicative.** A tense is a form of the verb used to mark the time, the continuance, and the completeness of an action. The meanings of the eight tenses of the indicative given in §§ 202, 203 are indicated by their names :—

(1) The **present** marks an action as taking place at the time of speaking, as 'he *sees*'.

(2) The **future** marks an action as about to take place after the time of speaking, as 'he *will see*'.

(3) The **past** marks an action as having taken place before the time of speaking, as 'he *saw*'.

(4) The **future in the past** marks an action as about to take place after some point of time in the past, as 'he *would see*' (= he *was about to see*). Thus the future in the past is a tense of past time, but it differs from the other tenses of past time by referring to what *was then future*. The other tense called 'future' (No. 2, above) refers to what *is now future*. Compare 'He says that he *will see* to it', 'He said that he *would see* to it'.

Examples of the future in the past:

I became assured

My lame foot *would be* speedily cured. *P. P.*, ll. 249-50.

'would be cured' = was about (was going) to be cured.

'There!' cried Booth, 'I knew what opinion the Doctor *would be* of' (FIELDING): 'would be' = was about to be.

A few days were to bring on the fatal fight of Edgehill, when the slain *would be counted* by thousands: 'would be counted' = were about (*or* were sure) to be counted.

Compare 'Where any one playing on pipe or tabor *was sure* for the future to lose his labour'. *P. P.*, ll. 279-80.

The bells were all very pretty in their way, but I had heard some of the hollow notes of Pan's music.

*Would* the wicked river *drag* me down by the heels indeed? (R. L. STEVENSON): 'would drag' = was about to drag, was going to drag.

209 The word 'perfect', which is used in the names of the four tenses of the indicative in § 203, means *already completed*.

(5) The **present perfect** marks an action as already completed at the time of speaking: 'he *has seen*' means 'he *is* in



the position of *having seen*'. Thus the present perfect is a tense of present time. ✓

(6) The **future perfect** marks an action as already completed at some point of time in the future: 'he *will have seen*' means 'he *will be* in the position of *having seen*'. Thus the future perfect is a tense of future time.

(7) The **past perfect** marks an action as already completed at some point of time in the past: 'he *had seen*' means 'he *was* in the position of *having seen*'. Thus the past perfect is a tense of past time. ✓

(8) The **future perfect in the past** marks an action as already completed after some point of time in the past: 'he *would have seen*' means 'he *was about to be* in the position of *having seen*'. Thus the future perfect in the past is a tense of past time:

I felt assured that my lame foot *would have been cured* before Christmas (= that before Christmas the cure of my lame foot was about to be completed).

The pilots flew high to avoid the haze, and were steering in an easterly direction when they were lost to view. The course *would take* (future in the past, = *was about to take*) them to Dunkirk or the Belgian border, and with the speed at which they were travelling the Channel crossing *would have been made* (fut. perf. in the past, = *was about to have been made*) in 20 minutes.

Obs. A different use of tenses with 'would' and 'should' will be mentioned below (§ 215) and treated fully in Part III.

10 **Moods of verbs.** A mood is a group of tenses which have a similarity of meaning. Verbs have three moods, called the 'indicative', the 'imperative', and the 'subjunctive'.

211 The **indicative mood** speaks of a matter of fact:

He <i>sees</i> me.	} STATEMENTS OF FACT.
He <i>does not see</i> me.	

*Does he see me?* } QUESTIONS AS TO A MATTER OF  
*Does he not see me?* } FACT.

I *see* what you *mean* when you *say* that I *have not done* my duty. (A complex sentence, containing an expression of fact in each of the four clauses.)

The continuous forms and other compound forms given in §§ 204-6 are all tenses of the indicative mood.

- 212 The **imperative mood** expresses what is desired by the speaker: it is used in commands, requests, entreaties, and (less commonly) in wishes:

*See*, the conquering hero comes. }  
*Fear* not at all. } COMMANDS.  
*Blow* your pipe there till you burst. }

*Come*, take fifty (=fifty guilders: *P. P.*, l. 173). REQUEST.

*Give* us this day our daily bread. ENTREATY.

*Farewell*. (= may you fare well) }  
 O King, *live* for ever. } WISHES.

- 213 The imperative has only one person (the second), and its singular does not differ from its plural in form. See § 202.

The imperative is not used in questions or in subordinate clauses.

- 214 The **subjunctive mood** is not so much used at the present day as it was in Old English (Anglo-Saxon) or even at the time when the Authorized Version of the Bible was made and the plays of Shakespeare were written. Moreover, most subjunctives cannot be distinguished from indicatives by their *form*. Nevertheless the *meaning* of the subjunctive is quite different from that of the indicative, and this enables us to recognize subjunctives. And some subjunctives differ from indicatives in form as well as in meaning; for example, the third person singular of the present subjunctive differs in form from the same person of the present indicative.

215 The reason why the subjunctive is not so common now as it used to be is that we have got into the habit of expressing the subjunctive meaning in other ways, especially by using the verbs 'shall' and 'may' with the infinitive instead of the subjunctive of the verb from which the infinitive comes. For example, instead of 'Every soldier *kill* his prisoners' we may say 'Every soldier *shall kill* his prisoners'; instead of 'God *save* the King' we may say '*May* God *save* the King'. Similarly 'should', 'would', and 'might' with the infinitive are used to form equivalents of past subjunctives. Nevertheless the subjunctive itself is the only proper form of expression in some sentences.

216 The meaning of the subjunctive mood is shown most clearly by its present tense. The meaning of the past tense will be explained when we come to a verb which has a separate form for the past subjunctive ('were', §§ 230-4).

217 The present subjunctive expresses that something *is to be done* or *shall be done*.

(1) It is chiefly used in the third person, and mostly in sentences where the thing that is to be done by the person spoken of (denoted by the subject of the sentence) is at the same time *desired* by the speaker. Thus these sentences are equivalent to (a) Commands or (b) Wishes, which are expressed in the second person by the imperative (§ 212):

(a) Every soldier *kill* his prisoners; give the word through.

SHAKESPEARE, *Henry V*, iv. 6. 36. ('kill' = is to kill)

*Deny* it who can. (= Anyone who can deny it is to deny it)

*Suffice* it to say . . .

(b) Long *live* the King. So *help* me God.

God *save* the King.

*Rule* Britannia, Britannia *rule* the waves.<sup>1</sup>

JAMES THOMSON.

<sup>1</sup> Often quoted wrongly with the indicative: 'Britannia *rules* the waves.'

Quoth she 'The Devil *take* the goose,  
And God *forget* the stranger.'

TENNYSON, *The Goose*.

In all expressions like 'God *forbid*', 'Heaven *help* him', the verb is a present subjunctive. 'Bless us' is short for 'God bless us'. 'Please your honours' (*P.P.*, l. 71) is short for 'It please (= may it please, or if it please) your honours'. Other examples are given in § 228 (examples of *be*).

- 218 (2) The present subjunctive is also used in the first person plural, expressing what is desired or requested of a number of persons, including the speaker :

*Make* we our sword-arm doubly strong,  
And *lift* on high our gaze.

ANONYMOUS, *The Times*, Jan. 19, 1915.

Here 'make' and 'lift' are shown to be subjunctives by the meaning, not by the form. The order of words, however, also shows that they are not indicatives.

- 219 (3) The present subjunctive is very common in several kinds of subordinate clause ; and it was from this use that the mood got its name 'subjunctive' (literally 'subjoining') :

(a) Noun-clauses which express that something *is to be done* :

Give the order that every soldier *kill* (= is to kill, shall kill) his prisoners.

It is requested that every candidate *write* (= shall write) legibly, and that no one *leave* (= shall leave) the hall till an hour after the commencement of the examination.

(b) Adverb-clauses which express that the thing which is to be done is *desired* or *purposed* :

Ye shall feel that my strength is yours,  
In the day of Armageddon, at the last great fight of all,  
That Our House *stand* together, and the pillars *do not fall*.

KIPLING, *England's Answer*. ('stand' = may stand ;

'do fall' is the subjunctive of the compound form,  
§ 205, Obs.)

Not enjoyment and not sorrow is our destined hope  
or way,  
But to act that each to-morrow *find* us farther than  
to-day.

LONGFELLOW. ('that . . . find' = so that . . . shall find)  
Govern your temper lest it *govern* you.

(c) Adverb-clauses in which an action is marked as *in prospect*, especially after 'till', 'until':

Spare not to spur, stint not to ride,  
Until thou *come* to fair Tweedside. SCOTT.  
( 'come' = shalt come )

(d) Adverb-clauses which express a *supposition* :

Who stands, if freedom *fall*?  
Who dies, if England *live*?

KIPLING, *The Times*, Sept. 2, 1914. ('fall' = shall fall)  
*Come* what may, I'll do it.  
(= supposing that whatever may come comes)

*Flow* Thames, flourish London.  
(= provided that Thames flows, London shall flourish)

Obs. In some of the above examples the present indicative might have been used: thus (c) 'comest', and (d) 'falls' and 'lives'. But these present indicatives would be used with a special meaning (not that of § 208, 1); they would, in fact, be *equivalent to subjunctives*. Note that in all the examples in §§ 217-219, *a* and *b*, a present indicative would have been quite impossible.

It is a mistake to say (as is often said) that the subjunctive mood has practically disappeared from modern English; it is quite common.<sup>1</sup> But it is true to say that the equivalent expressions mentioned in § 215 are still commoner.

<sup>1</sup> This will be shown more completely in Part III, where a full statement of the uses of the subjunctive, including those of the past tense, will be given.

**220** Voices of verbs. 'Voice' is a grammatical term which relates to the distinction between *doing* and *being done to*.

Compare the following sentences :

(1) The rats bit the babies.

(2) The babies were bitten by the rats.

These sentences mean the same thing ; the action is the same, and it was performed by the same animals and performed on the same persons. But the meaning is expressed differently. The second sentence is the first sentence turned round : what was the object ('the babies') has become the subject, and what was the subject ('the rats') has become an adverb-phrase formed with the preposition 'by'. In the sentence thus obtained the verb is said to be in the **passive voice**. Sometimes the term 'passive' is applied to the verb itself ; that is, the verb is said to be 'passive', though it is rather the subject of the sentence ('the babies') than the verb which is passive in the ordinary sense of the word.

**DEFINITION.** The passive voice of a verb is the form which shows that an action is done to the person or thing denoted by the subject.

**221** All verbs that are not in the passive voice are in the **active voice**. But, whereas the passive voice can be used only in one way, the active voice can be used in two ways :

(1) with an object :

The rats *bit the babies*.

In such sentences the verb is said to be **used transitively**.

(2) without an object :

The rats *squeaked*.

*Come in !*

Our Mayor *is* a noddy.

The townsfolk *suffered* from vermin.

The Mayor *looked* at the Piper.

The Mayor *looked* blue.

In such sentences the verb is said to be **used intransitively**.

222 Most verbs can be used either transitively or intransitively :

*Verb used transitively*

The rats bit the babies.  
 The townsfolk suffered tor-  
 ments.  
 The Mayor looked daggers.  
 The rats fought the dogs.  
 We begin lessons at 9 o'clock.  
 He spoke the truth.

*Verb used intransitively*

This horse bites.  
 The townsfolk suffered from  
 vermin.  
 The Mayor looked blue.  
 The rats fought vigorously.  
 Lessons begin at 9 o'clock.  
 He spoke loud.

But some verbs can only be used intransitively : for example, *am, come, become, go, fall*. Such verbs have no passive voice.

Obs. 1. Note carefully that adverbial accusatives (§ 168) are not objects ; hence the verb in sentences like 'the Mayor sent *East*' is used intransitively.

Obs. 2. Verbs of 'saying', 'thinking', 'asking' and the like, used transitively, may have as their object (i) a whole sentence or (ii) a noun-clause :

(i) 'Come in' said the Mayor.

The Piper asked '*Will you give me a thousand guilders?*'

(ii) The Mayor said *that he would give fifty thousand*.

---

The following tables show the chief forms of the passive voice of the verb 'see'.<sup>1</sup> All the forms of the passive voice are compound (see § 201, Obs., and § 253, Obs.). Two of the tenses of the passive have corresponding 'continuous forms', like those of the active given in § 204, namely the present and the past :

Continuous present indic. pass. : I *am* (you *are*, he *is*)  
*being seen*.

Continuous past indic. pass. : I *was* (you *were*, he *was*)  
*being seen*.

<sup>1</sup> All the forms of the passive voice are compound. How these compound forms arise is shown in § 253, Obs.

## PASSIVE VOICE

223

		<i>INDICATIVE</i>	<i>IMPERATIVE</i>
		PRESENT	
S.	1	I am seen	
	2	thou art (you are) seen	be seen
	3	he is seen	
P.	1	we	
	2	you } are seen	be seen
	3	they }	
		FUTURE	<i>SUBJUNCTIVE</i>
			PRESENT
S.	1	I shall be seen	I be seen
	2	thou wilt (you will) be seen	thou be (you be) seen
	3	he will be seen	he be seen
P.	1	we shall be seen	we
	2	you will be seen	you } be seen
	3	they will be seen	they }
		PAST	PAST
S.	1	I was seen	I were seen
	2	thou wast (you were) seen	thou wert (you were) seen
	3	he was seen	he were seen
P.	1	we	we
	2	you } were seen	you } were seen
	3	they }	they }
		FUTURE IN THE PAST	
S.	1	I should be seen	
	2	thou wouldst (you would) be seen	
	3	he would be seen	
P.	1	we should be seen	
	2	you would be seen	
	3	they would be seen	
<i>VERB-ADJECTIVE</i>		PRESENT PARTICIPLE being seen	
<i>VERB-NOUNS</i>		PRESENT INFINITIVE [to] be seen	PRESENT GERUND being seen



PASSIVE VOICE (*continued*)

224

	<i>INDICATIVE</i>	<i>IMPERATIVE</i>
	PRESENT PERFECT	
S. 1	I have been seen	
2	thou hast (you have) been seen	[none]
3	he has been seen	
P. 1	we	
2	you } have been seen	
3	they }	
	FUTURE PERFECT	<i>SUBJUNCTIVE</i>
		PERFECT
S. 1	I shall have been seen	I have been seen
2	thou wilt (you will) have been seen	thou have (you have) been seen
3	he will have been seen	he have been seen
P. 1	we shall have been seen	we
2	you will have been seen	you } have been seen
3	they will have been seen	they }
	PAST PERFECT	PAST PERFECT
S. 1	I had been seen	I had been seen
2	thou hadst (you had) been seen	thou hadst (you had) been seen
3	he had been seen	he had been seen
P. 1	we	we
2	you } had been seen	you } had been seen
3	they }	they }
	FUTURE PERFECT IN THE PAST	
S. 1	I should have been seen	
2	thou wouldst (you would) have been seen	
3	he would have been seen	
P. 1	we should have been seen	
2	you would have been seen	
3	they would have been seen	
	<i>VERB-ADJS.</i>	PERFECT PARTICIPLE
		having been seen
		PAST PARTICIPLE
		seen
	<i>VERB-NOUNS</i>	PERFECT INFINITIVE
		[to] have been seen
		PERFECT GERUND
		having been seen

I. THE VERB 'AM, WAS, BEEN'<sup>1</sup>

225 The tenses of this verb come from three verbs, which were originally distinct:

(1) a verb meaning 'to be'; hence *am, art, are, is*.

(2) a verb meaning 'to remain'; hence *was, wast, were, wert*.

(3) a verb meaning 'to become'; hence *be, been, being*.

<i>INDICATIVE</i>	<i>IMPERATIVE</i>	<i>SUBJUNCTIVE</i>
PRESENT		PRESENT
I am thou art, <sup>2</sup> you are he is we (you, they) are	be  be	I be thou be, you be he be we (you, they) be
PAST		PAST
I was thou wast, <sup>3</sup> you were he was we (you, they) were		I were thou wert, you were he were we (you, they) were
<i>VERB-ADJS.</i>	PRESENT PARTICIPLE being	PAST PARTICIPLE been
<i>VERB-NOUNS</i>	PRESENT INFINITIVE [to] be	PRESENT GERUND being

The other tenses of the active voice are formed regularly, as in the verb 'see', §§ 202-3: *e. g.* future indicative *I shall be*, present perfect indicative *I have been*, perfect participle *having been*, perfect infinitive [to] *have been*. But this verb has no continuous forms, no compound forms with 'do' (except the emphatic imperative, § 205, Obs.), and no passive voice.

Obs. The form *be* is sometimes a present indicative<sup>4</sup>:

'There *be* few things nastier than Government rations'  
(KIPLING, *Life's Handicap*); 'the powers that *be*'.

<sup>1</sup> In this and the following sections verbs are quoted with their principal parts. The principal parts of a verb are the present indicative (1st person singular), the past indicative (1st person singular), and the past participle.

<sup>2</sup> Note the ending of the 2nd person sing. (-*t* instead of -*est*).

<sup>3</sup> The form *wert* is sometimes used for *was-t*. Note -*t* instead of -*est*.

<sup>4</sup> The old indicative form *be* is little used at the present day.

## Two uses of the verb 'am'.

226 The tenses of the verb 'am' are used—

(1) by themselves, like the tenses of any other verb:

I *am* the Mayor. Thou *art* the man. Whatever *is*  
(= exists) *is* right.

*Be* it so. It *were* well, if he *were* here.

(2) in some of the compound tenses of other verbs:

(a) with the present participle of another verb, forming continuous tenses of that verb (§ 204 and p. 67):

<i>I am seeing</i> : continuous present indicative active	} of <i>see</i>
<i>I am being seen</i> : continuous pres. indic. passive	

(b) with the past participle passive of another verb, forming the tenses of the passive voice of that verb, §§ 223-4 (for use in active tenses see § 258):

<i>I am seen</i> : present indicative passive	} of <i>see</i>
<i>I have been seen</i> : past perfect indicative passive	

OBS. When used to form compound tenses the verb 'am' is called an **auxiliary verb** ('helping verb').

227 Notice that in some compound tenses the auxiliary verb is itself compound: *I have-been* seen, *I have-been* seeing, *I shall-have-been* seen, *I had-been* seen.

228 Uses of the subjunctives 'be', 'were'.

The **present subjunctive** 'be' is used like the present subjunctive of other verbs (§§ 217-19):

(1) In simple sentences (compare §§ 217, 218):

This *be* the verse you grave for me. **COMMAND.**

*Be* we bold and make dispatch. **REQUEST.**

Mine *be* a cot beside the hill.

God <i>be</i> with you (generally shortened to 'Goodbye').	} <b>WISHES.</b>

- 229 (2) In subordinate clauses (compare § 219 *a, b, c, d*):

Care is taken to ensure that the reports *be* trustworthy.

I pray that your swords *be* sharp.

WILLIAM MORRIS, *Fall of Troy*.

So do God to me, if I taste bread till the sun *be* down.

*Bible*, 2 Sam. iii. 35.

If he *be* alive,

Though he *be* dead,

Whether he *be* alive or dead,

} I will seek for him.

*Be* he alive or *be* he dead,

I'll grind his bones to make my bread.

Obs. In the last four instances the subordinate clause expresses *supposition*: '*be* he' (without 'if') and 'if he *be*' both mean *supposing him to be* (compare § 219 *d*.)

- 230 The past subjunctive 'were' is used chiefly—

(1) in wishing that something were otherwise than it actually is at the time of speaking:

Oh, *were* I a mile hence!

This use is commoner when the clause expressing the wish is subordinated to another clause:

I wish I *were* a mile hence. (Originally two sentences:  
'Were I a mile hence! I wish it'.)

Would that I *were* a mile hence. ('Would' is 1st pers. sing. = I would.)

- 231 (2) in stating that something *would be* (that is, in stating that *under imagined conditions* something *is likely to be*); this meaning may be called *likelihood under imagined conditions* or *conditioned futurity* (that is, what is likely to happen under certain conditions, or if something else happens):

To lose thee *were* to lose myself. ('were' = would be)

It *were* well to go at once.

'*Twere* pity two such friends should be long foes.

(Contrast the past indicative in 'To see the townsfolk suffer *was* a pity.' *P.P.*, ll. 8, 9.)

The imagined condition in such sentences is 'if it were to happen': thus the first example means 'to lose thee [if it were to happen] would be to lose myself'.

232 To say that a thing is likely to happen *under imagined conditions* implies that under other conditions it is *not* likely to happen. Thus sentences with 'were' always imply some doubt as to whether the thing will happen at all. There is, therefore, an important difference between 'it were' and 'it will be'. But 'it were' is often used where 'it will be' might have been used. We often wish to avoid making a confident statement as to the future, and therefore speak of what is 'likely to be under imagined conditions' instead of what 'will be'.

233 (3) in subordinate clauses which express the imagined condition under which something 'would be'. These are clauses of supposition, like those mentioned above with the present subjunctive, § 229:

Without a subordinating conjunction:

*Were* it all yours to give it in a breath,

How quickly were it gone. SHAKESPEARE.

With a subordinating conjunction ('if' or 'though'):

It were well, if he *were* here.

What, though he *were* my enemy?

234 'As if' (= as *would be the case* if) is followed by the past subjunctive in sentences like the following:

He speaks as if he *were* my friend. ('*as if* he were' = *as he would speak if* he were.) Note that the past subjunctive is here used in subordination to a present indicative ('speaks').

The Council stood as if (= as they would have stood if) they *were* changed into blocks of wood. *P.P.*, l. 209.

Obs. The past indicative is sometimes used after 'as if', but it always has the meaning of a past subjunctive:

A wondrous portal opened wide,  
As if a cavern *was* suddenly hollowed. *P.P.*, l. 228.

2. THE VERBS 'DO, DID, DONE' AND 'HAVE, HAD, HAD'

235

INDIC. PRESENT	IMP.	SUBJ. PRESENT	INDIC. PRESENT	IMP.	SUBJ. PRESENT
I do thou doest <i>or</i> dost, <sup>1</sup> you do he does (doth, doeth <sup>2</sup> ) we (you, they) do	do  do	I do thou do, you do he do we (you, they) do	I have thou hast, you have he has (hath <sup>2</sup> ) we (you, they) have	have  have	I have thou have, you have he have we (you, they) have
PAST I did thou didst, you did he did we (you, they) did		PAST I did thou didst, you did he did we (you, they) did	PAST I had thou hadst, you had he had we (you, they) had		PAST I had thou hadst, you had he had we (you, they) had
<i>VERB-ADJECTIVES</i>		PRES. PART. doing		PRES. PART. having	
		PAST PART. done		PAST PART. had	
<i>VERB-NOUNS</i>		PRES. INFIN. [to] do		PRES. INFIN. [to] have	
		PRES. GERUND doing		PRES. GERUND having	

The other tenses, active and passive, are formed regularly, as in the verb 'see'; but the passive of 'have' is little used.

<sup>1</sup> The form *dost* is used as an auxiliary: '*dost thou know?*'

<sup>2</sup> The forms *doth*, *doeth*, and *hath* are old-fashioned: '*How doth the little busy bee improve each shining hour!*'

## 236 Two uses of the verbs 'do' and 'have'.

The tenses of these verbs, like those of 'am' (§ 226), are used—

(1) by themselves :

He *does* his duty.

Do your duty.

He *had* no money.

*Have* some more.

(2) as auxiliaries, in some of the compound tenses of another or the same verb (§ 205 and §§ 203, 209, 224):—

The present and the past tenses of 'do' are used with the present infinitive of another or the same verb to form compound present and past tenses of the active voice :

*Does* he *see* me ?

*Did* he *see* me ?

*Do have* some more.

How *do* you *do* ?

*Did* he *do* it ?

The present, the past, and the future tenses of 'have' are used with the past participle of another or the same verb to form tenses of completed action of the active voice :

I *have seen*.

I *had seen*.

I *shall-have seen*.

I *have done* it.

I *have had* enough.

### 3. THE DEFECTIVE VERBS 'SHALL', 'WILL', 'MAY', 'CAN'

## 237 Defective verbs are verbs which lack certain forms.

The verbs 'shall', 'will', 'may', 'can' have **no verb-nouns** and **no verb-adjectives** (§ 201) formed from them. Thus they have no compound tenses. They have also no **imperative mood**; nor have they any separate forms for the subjunctive mood in modern English.

These verbs have also the great peculiarity that they form the 3rd pers. sing. of the present indicative **without the ending -s**. The reason for this is not that these forms have lost the *s*, but that they never had it.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> They were originally 3rd persons of the *past* tense, and therefore had no *s* from the first. But they came to be used as presents.

- 238 The only forms of these verbs which are in use at the present day are those given in the following table.

		PRESENT INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE				
S. 1	I	shall	will	may	can	
	2 { thou	shalt <sup>1</sup>	wilt <sup>1</sup>	mayest, mayst	canst	
3	you	shall	will	may	can	
	he	shall	will	may	can	
P. 1, 2, 3		shall	will	may	can	
		PAST INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE				
S. 1	I	should	would	might	could <sup>2</sup>	
	2 { thou	shouldst	wouldst	mightst	couldst	
3	you	(-est)	(-est)	(-est)	(-est)	
	he	should	would	might	could	
P. 1, 2, 3		should	would	might	could	

- 239 Note, however, that there is another verb 'will', which differs from the defective 'will' in two respects: (1) it is regular throughout, and forms all the tenses of the active and passive voices; (2) it may take as its object either a noun (or pronoun) or an infinitive with 'to' or a *that*-clause. This verb 'will' is made out of the noun 'will', just as verbs like 'button' and 'cycle' are made out of the nouns 'button', 'cycle'. Examples: 'God *wills* (not *will*) it', 'The fisherman *willed* the genie into his presence', 'I *have willed* it', '*Will* (imperative) to do it, and you will succeed'. Contrast *will succeed* (defective verb followed by infinitive without 'to') with *will to do* it (regular verb followed by infinitive with 'to').

<sup>1</sup> Note the ending of the 2nd person sing. (-*t* instead of -*est*); cp. *ar-t*, *was-t*, *uer-t*, § 225.

<sup>2</sup> The *l* of 'could' has no proper place there. It was introduced through imitation of 'should' and 'would', where the *l* belongs to the stem.



Uses of the verbs 'shall', 'will', 'may', 'can'.<sup>1</sup>

- 240 (1) The only object which these verbs can take is an infinitive without 'to' (§ 261); and they are never used without an infinitive, expressed or understood. '*Will* thou *have* this woman to (=for) thy wedded wife?'—'I *will*' (understand '*have* her').—'Can he *speak* French?' 'He cannot.'

In this respect the above defective verbs, together with 'must', differ from all other verbs. Take, for example, the verb 'like': we may say 'I like my *cycle*', 'I like *to cycle*', 'I like *cycling*', but not 'I like *cycle*'. This last construction is the only one possible with the above defective verbs:

I shall (will, may, can, must) *cycle*.

There are a few other verbs which *sometimes* take the infinitive without 'to', but none which *always* take it. For example, we may say 'I *do cycle*' and '*Let* me *cycle*', but we may also say 'I *do my duty*', '*Let* air into the room'. For the constructions with 'dare' and 'need' see §§ 242, 243.

- 241 (2) 'Shall' in the 1st person and 'will' in the 2nd and 3rd persons, singular and plural, are used with the infinitive of other verbs to form the future and the future perfect tenses, and their past tenses 'should' and 'would' to form the future in the past and the future perfect in the past (§§ 202-3, 223-4). When so used, the defective verb which goes to form the compound tense is an auxiliary verb; compare § 226, Obs.

But 'shall' in the 2nd and 3rd persons, and 'will' in the 1st person, singular and plural, are not auxiliary verbs. For the infinitive which follows them does not combine with them to form a tense of any mood. Contrast 'I *will speak*' (expressing resolve) with 'I *shall speak*' (future tense), and 'You *shall speak*' (expressing obligation or necessity) with 'You *will speak*' (future tense).

<sup>1</sup> A fuller account of these uses will be given in Part III.

## 4. THE VERBS 'DARE' AND 'NEED'

- 242 'Dare' is properly a defective verb of the same class as 'shall', 'will', 'may', 'can'; hence the form *dare* for the 3rd pers. sing. of the present tense, and the use of an infinitive without 'to' as an object. To this defective verb belongs the form *durst* for the past tense (all three persons, singular and plural). But in modern English 'dare' often takes the forms of a regular verb: 3rd sing. present tense *dares*, past tense *dared*. And it forms verb-nouns and verb-adjectives: pres. infin. [*to*] *dare*, gerund *daring*, pres. part. *daring*, past part. *dared*. Thus it has compound tenses, such as *I shall dare*, *I have dared*. Moreover it sometimes takes as its object an infinitive with 'to' or a noun or pronoun:

He *dare* (*He durst*) not come. *Does* he *dare* to come?

He *dares* (*He dared*) to deny it. He *dared* me to do it.

He *dares* (*He dared*) death.

- 243 'Need', when it denotes necessity or obligation in a negative or interrogative sentence, forms its 3rd pers. sing. present without *s*, and takes as its object an infinitive without 'to':

He *need* not (= is not obliged to) trouble himself.

*Need* he trouble himself?

But when the verb is used with this sense in an affirmative sentence, and when it denotes 'am in want of', the 3rd pers. sing. is formed regularly (*needs*), and the object may be an infinitive with 'to' or a noun or pronoun:

It *needs* to be done with care.

He *needs* help. He *needs* me.

## 5. THE DEFECTIVE VERBS 'MUST' AND 'OUGHT'

- 244 These verbs have no *s* in the 3rd person singular of the present tense; and no verb-adjectives or verb-nouns are formed from them. Moreover they have no past tense.

		PRESENT	
S. 1	I	must	ought
2	{ thou	must	oughtest
	{ you	must	ought
3	he	must	ought
P. 1, 2, 3		must	ought

These forms were originally past tenses : the *t* of 'must' and 'ought' is the same as the *t* in past tenses like 'lost'.<sup>1</sup> But they have come to be used as presents (compare § 237). The past meaning is now expressed by 'I was obliged to...', 'I had to...', or in some other way.

#### 245 6. THE VERB 'QUOTH'

is a past indicative, mostly used only in the 1st and 3rd persons singular :

'Beside,' *quoth* the Mayor, 'our business was done at the river's brink'.  
*P.P.*, ll. 163, 164.

No other forms of the Old English verb to which 'quoth' belongs are used in modern English. The verb 'quote' is an entirely different verb (of Latin origin).

### VERB-ADJECTIVES AND VERB-NOUNS

246 A verb-adjective is an adjective which is formed from a verb. A verb-noun is a noun which is formed from a verb. Verb-adjectives and verb-nouns therefore denote *acts* or *states*.

247 The verb-adjectives are called **participles** :

the present participle active : *seeing* :

the perfect participle active : *having seen* :

the present participle passive : *being seen* :

the perfect participle passive : *having been seen* :

the past participle passive or active : *seen* (passive),  
*gone* (active).

<sup>1</sup> 'Ought' was originally the past subjunctive of the verb 'owe', used with the meaning indicated in § 231 ; thus 'he ought' meant 'he would owe' or 'he would be bound to'. But it has come to mean 'he is bound to'.

248 The verb-nouns are called either infinitives or gerunds.

INFINITIVES :

- the present infinitive active : [to] *see* :
- the perfect infinitive active : [to] *have seen* :
- the present infinitive passive : [to] *be seen* :
- the perfect infinitive passive : [to] *have been seen*.

GERUNDS :

- the present gerund active : *seeing* :
- the perfect gerund active : *having seen* :
- the present gerund passive : *being seen* :
- the perfect gerund passive : *having been seen*.

249 But, though verb-adjectives and verb-nouns are not verbs, yet they are like verbs in three respects :

(1) They have tenses and voices (see above) ;

(2) They take the same constructions as the verb from which they are formed : for example, they may take an object :

Obeying (verb-adj.) the *laws*, he lived happily.

To obey (verb-noun) the *laws* is your duty.

By obeying (verb-noun) the *laws* you do your duty.

(3) They may be qualified by adverbs :

*Always* obeying (verb-adj.) the *laws*, he lived happily.

It is your duty *always* to obey (verb-noun) the *laws*.

By *always* obeying (verb-noun) the *laws*, you do your duty.

250 But the verb-noun in *-ing* (the gerund) may also be qualified by an adjective or by a phrase formed with 'of', like an ordinary noun :

*The* muttering grew to *a* grumbling.

There was *no* guessing his kith and kin.

*Good* hunting !

Only *a* scraping *of* shoes on the mat.

251 There are some other adjectives and nouns which are connected with verbs ; for example, 'obedient' and 'obedience', 'dead' and 'death'. But they differ from verb-adjectives and verb-nouns in that they have no tenses or voices and cannot take the constructions of the verbs with which they are connected.

USES OF VERB-ADJECTIVES AND VERB-NOUNS

252 Verb-adjectives, like other adjectives, are used in two ways :

(1) as epithets :

- |  |   |                        |
|--|---|------------------------|
| <i>living</i> creatures—creatures <i>living</i> beneath<br>the sun   | } | Active<br>Participles  |
| <i>skipping</i> children—the children <i>merrily</i><br><i>skipping</i> by                                 |   |                        |
| a pleasant land <i>joining</i> the town  |   |                        |
| a <i>painted</i> tombstone—a <i>lost</i> endeavour—a<br><i>broken</i> promise—the <i>astonished</i> mayor— | } | Passive<br>Participles |
| gowns <i>lined</i> with ermine   |   |                        |

253 (2) as predicative adjectives :

(a) said of the subject :

- |                                       |   |                    |
|---------------------------------------|---|--------------------|
| (i) The people came <i>flocking</i> . | } | Active Participles |
| Small feet were <i>pattering</i> .    |   |                    |

OBS. From this predicative use of the present participle active with tenses of the verb 'am' all the continuous forms of the active voice arise : *are pattering, were pattering, will be pattering, &c.* (§ 204).

- |  |   |                        |
|--|---|------------------------|
| (ii) I became <i>assured</i> that my foot would<br>be <i>cured</i> . | } | Passive<br>Participles |
| They were <i>changed</i> into blocks of wood.                        |   |                        |

OBS. From this predicative use of the past participle passive with tenses of the verb 'am' all the forms of the passive voice arise : *are changed, were changed, will be changed, &c.* (§§ 223, 224).

## 254 (b) said of the object :

(i) I found the Weser <i>rolling</i> o'er me.	} Active	
They heard the people <i>ringing</i> the bells.		} Participles
We'll send you <i>packing</i> .		

(ii) I see a rat <i>caught</i> in a trap.	} Passive Participles
I got my leg <i>broken</i> .	

255 From this predicative use of the past participle passive with tenses of the verb 'have' all the tenses of completed action in the active voice arise (§ 203). If we substitute 'have' for 'see' in the first instance above (ii) we get the sentence 'I *have* a rat *caught* in a trap', and, by a change in the order of the words—

I *have caught* a rat in a trap.

Here we have the perfect tense of the active voice of the verb 'catch'. Thus we see how a *passive* participle can come to form part of an *active* tense.

256 The other tenses of completed action (§ 203) arise by using a different tense (past or future) of the verb 'have'. Thus in the second instance of § 254 (ii), if we substitute 'had' for 'got' and change the order of the words, we get—

I *had broken* my leg.

Similarly 'Honey-bees *had lost* their stings' comes from 'Honey-bees *had* their stings *lost*'. Notice that in this instance the verb 'had' no longer denotes possession: for when the honey-bees had lost their stings they did not *have* them any longer. The tenses of verbs like 'lose' are formed on the model of the tenses of verbs in which there is no contradiction between 'having' and the past participle of the verb.

257 When the combination of 'have' with the past participle passive had been established in usage as a single active tense, it came to be used sometimes without an object: 'I have won', 'I have lost', just like 'I shall win', 'I shall lose'. Here the original construction of the participle is lost sight of.

258 Some past participles, however, are not passive at all: for example, 'been', 'come', 'become', 'gone', 'fallen' (§§ 222, 247). Compound tenses with these participles were originally formed with the verb 'am', not with 'have': thus 'He *is gone*', 'How *are* the mighty *fallen*'. But 'have' was substituted through imitation of its use with other participles, such as 'caught', 'broken'.

259 (c) said of what is neither the subject nor the object:

Weather *permitting*, we shall cross to-morrow.

God *willing*, we hope to prevail over our enemies.

Everything *having been prepared*, he dropped a bomb.

This *done*, he retired as quickly as he could.

He *having* the start, the enemy was at a disadvantage.

This construction is called the **nominative absolute construction**—*nominative*, because the noun (or pronoun) of which the verb-adjective is said stands in the nominative case,<sup>1</sup> and *absolute* because the noun (or pronoun) forms with the participle a group of words which is separated off from the main part of the sentence. 'Absolute' means 'set free', 'standing apart'. Note that the absolute group is equivalent to an adverb-clause: 'weather permitting' = *if weather permits*; 'this done' = *when this had been done*; 'he having the start' = *as he had the start*.

260 Verb-nouns are used in most of the constructions of other nouns. But the three verb-nouns are not all used in each of these constructions.

261 The infinitive without 'to' is used in only two constructions:

(1) as the **object** of certain irregular verbs—'do', 'can', 'dare', 'may', 'must', 'need', 'shall', 'will':

In did *come* the strangest figure. (§ 205. 2, § 236. 2)

I can *rid* your town of rats. (§ 240)

They may *find* me pipe to another fashion. (§ 240)

Will you *give* me 1,000 guilders? (§ 240)

I dare *say*. You must *pay*. You need not *pay*. (§§ 242-4)

<sup>1</sup> In Old English it stood in the dative case (imitated by Milton).

In this construction the irregular verb is used transitively, with the infinitive as its object. Some of these verbs may be used with other objects: compare 'did *give*' with 'did his *duty*'. The infinitive plays the same part in the first sentence as the noun does in the second: 'did *give*' means 'did the giving'. Similarly compare 'you need not *pay*' with 'you need no *money*'; 'I dare *say*' with 'I dare all *things*'. Some of these verbs cannot take any object except the infinitive (see § 240): for instance, 'you can *pay*', 'you shall *pay*'. But the verbs 'can' and 'shall' originally denoted 'know' and 'owe'. Hence their use with an object-infinitive.

- 262 (2) as one of two objects. This construction is found only with the verbs 'see', 'hear', 'feel', 'find', 'know', 'bid', 'let', 'make'; the first object is a noun or pronoun:

We saw *the vermin sink*.

I heard *the bells ring*.

They may find *me pipe* to another fashion.

I have never known *it fail*.

It is easy to bid *one rack* one's brains.

He will let *the piping drop*.

It makes *my heart go* pit-a-pat.

- 263 The infinitive with 'to'. The 'to' is properly a preposition, meaning much the same as 'for': *to see* thus meant originally *for seeing*. This explains many constructions, especially adverbial uses: 'I went to see' = I went *for seeing*; 'best to rid' = best *for ridding*. But the 'to' gradually lost its proper meaning, and came to be used merely as a sign of the infinitive. This has happened where the infinitive with 'to' is used as the subject (§ 268) or the object (§ 266), though in some of the latter instances a *for*-meaning may still be felt: 'I try to find' = I try *for finding*. It was owing to this loss of the *for*-meaning that the preposition 'for' was added in instances like 'What went ye out *for to-see*' (St. Matt. xi. 3).

In the following list the uses in which the 'to' has most meaning are put first.



- 264 The infinitive with 'to' is used :
- (1) **adverbially**, to qualify a verb or an adjective :
- Rack your brains *to find* a remedy.  
 One rat lived *to carry* the story home.  
 What am I (was I) *to do* ?  
 What's best *to rid* us of our vermin ?  
 They were unable *to move*.  
 He was sure *to lose* his labour.
- 265 (2) **adjectivally**, to qualify a noun :
- He had round his neck a scarf *to match* with his coat.  
 Here is money *to put* in your poke (= pocket money).
- 266 (3) **as the object** :
- I've promised *to visit* Bagdad.  
 You hope *to find* ease in the civic robe.  
 He used *to say* so. He had *to go*.
- 267 (4) **as one of two objects** :
- England expects *every man to do* his duty. ('every man' is the first object, 'to do' the second object)  
 Nor suffered they *hostelry or tavern*  
*To shock* with mirth a street so solemn.  
 I know (I see, I believe, I declare) *him to be* a rascal.
- This construction is called the **accusative with the infinitive** construction. The two objects (together with any words which go with them) are equivalent to a clause in a complex sentence : 'every man to do his duty' = that every man shall (will) do his duty ; 'him to be a rascal' = that he is a rascal.
- In the passive form of this construction the object-infinitive is retained (compare § 176) : 'Every man is expected *to do* his duty' ; 'He is known (He is seen, &c.) *to be* a rascal'.
- 268 (5) **as the subject**, and as a **predicative noun** :
- To see* the townsfolk suffer was a pity.  
*To see* is *to believe*.  
 It is easy *to bid* one rack one's brains.
- (6) **in exclamations** : see *P.P.*, ll. 25, 161.

269 The gerund is used:

(1) as the subject, and as a **predicative noun**:

*Seeing is believing.*

Is it only a *scraping* of shoes on the mat?

270 (2) as the object:

Cease *firing*. I began *seeing* the sights.

I have-done *seeing* the sights.

271 (3) as **one of two objects**:

Give your brains (dative) a *racking* (accusative).

Give truth-telling (dative) a chance (accusative).

He will let the *piping* (accusative) drop (§ 262).

272 (4) **adverbially**, but only after 'like' and 'near':

The rustling seemed like a *bustling*. } dative, § 179.  
He was near *being killed*.

273 (5) **with prepositions**. This is the commonest use. The gerund may be used with almost any preposition;

I got used *to seeing* sights.—I prefer cycling *to riding*.  
—We'll not shrink from the duty *of giving* you something.  
—It seemed like a bustling of crowds justling (present participle) *at pitching* and *hustling*.—They spoiled the women's chats *by drowning* their speaking *with shrieking* and *squeaking*.—I shall be rewarded *for having left* no scorpion alive.  
—I insist *on your paying* the money.—I went *a-fishing* ('a' = *on*; often omitted, as in 'I went *fishing*', 'the church is *building*').—I saw three ships *a-sailing* by ('a' = *in*: '*a-sailing*' = in the act of sailing).

274 Note the possessive adjective 'your' in the last example but two, and compare 'I insist on *John's* paying'. People often say 'I insist on *you* (or *John*) paying', and this is generally declared by grammarians to be incorrect. But Browning has 'They ascribe their outlandish ways to their *fathers and mothers* (not *fathers' and mothers'*) having risen out of some subterraneous prison' (*P.P.*, ll. 291-5); and

this construction is preferable in some cases, for example (i) with a passive, as 'I insist on *John* being paid', 'I insist on *something* being done'; (ii) when the noun denotes a lifeless thing, as 'There is a chance of the *milk* turning sour', cp. § 183; (iii) when the noun is a plural ending in *s*, as 'Accidents often happen without the *sufferers* claiming damages'. And this construction is necessary when the word which precedes is a pronoun which does not admit of a genitive form, as 'It ended with *these* returning home'. The construction is also quite intelligible: the form in *-ing* is to be regarded as a participle used predicatively (compare § 259), and the group consisting of the noun or pronoun and the participle forms a phrase with the preposition which precedes.

- 275 (6) as an **epithet-noun**, forming the first part of a compound noun.

Just as we may say 'playmate', 'rat-land', 'honey-bee', 'gipsy coat', so we may say 'playing-room', 'writing-table', 'spelling-bee', 'riding-coat'. The two words form one compound word, and the first part *must* be regarded as a verb-noun (gerund), not as a verb-adjective (participle).

#### FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE AND THE PAST PARTICIPLE

- 276 The **past tense** of the indicative and subjunctive moods, active voice, is formed in four ways :

(1) by adding the ending *-ed* or *d*.

This is the formation found in most verbs.

The ending forms a separate syllable after a *d* or *t* sound :

dread, *dreaded* ; melt, *melted*.

But after other sounds it does not form a separate syllable :

free, *freed* ; lie (= speak falsely), *lied* ; lay, *laid* ; call, *called* ;  
prize, *prized* ; rub, *rubbed* ; drag, *dragged*.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> After a voiceless consonant the ending *-ed* is pronounced as *t* (voiceless) : stop, *stopped* ; quake, *quaked* ; hiss, *hissed* ; perish, *perished*.

- 277 (2) by a change of vowel-sound, without any ending. The changes are very various, as shown by the following specimens :

take, *took* ; awake, *awoke* ; break, *broke* ; slay, *slew* :

hang, *hung* ; stand, *stood* :

draw, *drew* ; fall, *fell* :

bear, *bore* :

get, *got* :

see, *saw* (§ 202) ; freeze, *froze* ; speak, *spoke* ; meet, *met* ;

feed, *fed* ; lead, *led* ; read, *read* ; eat, *ate* :

begin, *began* ; sit, *sat* ; ring, *rang* ; sing, *sang* ; sink,

*sank* ; spring, *sprang* ; shrink, *shrank* ; swim, *swam* ;

bid, *bad*, *bade* ; give, *gave*.

Note the following : cling, *clung* ; dig, *dug* ; sling, *slung* ;

slink, *slunk* ; spin, *spun* or *span* ; stick, *stuck* ; sting,

*stung* ; swing, *swung* ; win, *won*.

rise, *rose* ; shine, *shone* ; find, *found* ; fight, *fought* ; strike,

*struck* ; bite, *bit* ; hide, *hid* ; lie, *lay* ; fly, *flew* :

hold, *held* ; know, *knew* :

choose, *chose* ; shoot, *shot* :

run, *ran* ; come, *came*.

- 278 (3) with both the ending *-ed*, *-d*, or *t* and a change of vowel-sound, and sometimes with other changes :

catch, *caught* :

say, *said* :

sell, *sold* ; tell, *told* :

seek, *sought* ; teach, *taught* ; flee, *fled* ; keep, *kept* ; leave,

*left* ; hear, *heard* :

bring, *brought* ; think, *thought* :

buy, *bought* :

lose, *lost*.

- 279 (4) without either an ending or a change of vowel-sound. This form is found in many verbs that end in *t* or *d* :

cast, *cast* :

let, *let* ; set, *set* :

beat, *beat* :  
 rid, *rid* ; hit, *hit* ; split, *split* :  
 cost, *cost* :  
 put, *put* :  
 cut, *cut* ; shut, *shut* :  
 hurt, *hurt* ; burst, *burst*.

In some verbs *d* is turned into *t*: send, *sent* ; build, *built*.

280 The past participle has the same form as the past indicative in the large majority of verbs :

verbs like dread, *dreaded* (class 1, § 276) :  
 „ „ catch, *caught* (class 3, § 278) :  
 „ „ cast, *cast* (class 4, § 279).

And some verbs which form their past indicative by a change of vowel without any ending (class 2, § 277) have the same form for the past participle: for example—

hang, *hung* ; get, *got* ; dig, *dug* ; find, *found* ; hold, *held*.

281 But some verbs of class 2 form the past participle with the ending *-en* or *-n* :

either with a change of vowel : break, *broken* ; freeze, *frozen* :

or without a change of vowel : take, *taken* ; see, *seen*.

And others of class 2 have the same form for the past participle as for the present indicative: come, *come* ; run, *run*.

An alphabetical list of the verbs of classes 2, 3, and 4, showing the formations of the past indicative and the past participle, is given in the Appendix, pp. 90-4.

The present indicative (1st person singular), the past indicative (1st person singular), and the past participle are called the 'principal parts' of a verb.

# APPENDICES

## I. PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS<sup>1</sup>

(CLASSES 2, 3, 4)

Only those forms are given which are used at the present day. Those rarely used at the present day are put in brackets. \* means 'used only, or chiefly, as adjectives (not in compound tenses)'.

<i>Present Indicative 1st person singular.</i>	<i>Past Indicative 1st person singular.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
abide	abode	abode
am	was	been
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoke, awaked <sup>2</sup>
bear	bore	borne, born <sup>3</sup>
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
beget	begot	begotten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereaved, bereft	bereaved, bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bespeak	bespoke	bespoke, bespoken
bid	bad, bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound, bounden *
bite	bit	bitten (bit)
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blended (blent)	blended (blent)
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt (burned)	burnt (burned)
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
can	could	—
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (= split)	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft
cleave (= stick fast)	cleaved, clave	cleaved

<sup>1</sup> This list includes (i) all the verbs belonging to classes 2, 3, and 4, §§ 277-9; (ii) a few other verbs which have some other peculiarity, such as *burn*.

<sup>2</sup> More often *awakened* (from *awaken*). So too *wakened* for *waked*, p. 94.

<sup>3</sup> *Born* (without the *e*) means 'brought to birth'.

cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	crew, crowed	crowed
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed
drink	drank	drunk, drunken *
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgo (= go without) <sup>1</sup>	forwent	forgone
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forsake	forsook	forsaken
forswear	forswore	forsworn
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten *, as in <i>ill-</i> <i>gotten</i>
gild	gilded (gilt)	gilded, gilt *
gird	girded, girt	girded, girt
give	gave	given
go	went <sup>2</sup>	gone
grave	graved	graven *
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged <sup>3</sup>	hung, hanged <sup>3</sup>
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove

<sup>1</sup> There is another verb, *forego* (= precede), from which come the participles *foregoing* and *foregone* (as in 'a foregone conclusion').

<sup>2</sup> From the verb *wend*; compare *send*, past tense *sent*.

<sup>3</sup> Used only in the sense of 'executed by hanging'.

hew	hewed	hewn, hewed
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
knit	knitted, knit	knitted, knit
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leaned, leant	leaned, leant
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped
learn	learnt, learned	learnt, learned <sup>1</sup>
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie <sup>2</sup>	lay	lain
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
may	might	—
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
melt	melted	melted, molten *
mow	mowed	mown, mowed
must	—	—
ought	—	—
pen	penned, pent	penned, pent
put	put	put
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	riddled, rid	rid (riddled)
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven (rived)
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
seethe	seethed	seethed, sodden *
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced as two syllables when an adj. (e. g. 'a learned man').

<sup>2</sup> *Lie* meaning 'speak falsely' forms *lied, lied* (§ 276).



sew	sewed	sewn, sewed
shake	shook	shaken
shall	should	—
shave	shaved	shaved, shaven *
shear	sheared (shore)	shorn (sheared)
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show, shew	showed, shewed	shown, shewn
shrink	shrank	shrunk, shrunken *
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang (sung)	sung
sink	sank (sunk)	sunk, sunken *
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid (slidden)
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
smell	smelt (smelled)	smelt (smelled)
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled
spin	spun, span	spun
spit	spat	spat
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt, spoiled	spoilt, spoiled
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank, stunk	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed
stride	strode	(stridden, strid)
strike	struck	struck, stricken *
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung

take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve (thrived)	thriven (thrived)
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden, trod
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke, waked	waked, woken, woke
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
weep	wept	wept
will	would	—
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

## II. MODELS FOR PARSING (p. 38).

(1) *Pied Piper*, lines 76, 77.

*and*: conj., co-ordinating (here joining two sentences).

*I*: pron., personal; 1st pers. sing.; nom.; subject of 'use'.

*chiefly*: adv., of amount; qualifying 'use'.

*use*: verb; 1st pers. sing., pres. indic. act.

*my*: adj., possessive; epithet of 'charm'.

*charm*: noun; acc. sing.; object of 'use'.

*on*: prep.; with 'creatures'.

*creatures*: noun; acc. plur.; after 'on'.

*that*: pron., relative; 3rd pers. plur.; nom.; subject of 'do'.

*do*: verb; 3rd pers. plur., pres. indic. act.

*people*: noun; dat. plur.; indirect object of 'do'.

*harm*: noun; acc. sing.; direct object of 'do'.

(2) *Pied Piper*, lines 8, 9.

*to see*: verb-noun (inf. of 'see', with 'to'); pres. act.; subject of 'was'.

*the*: adj., demonstrative; epithet of 'townsfolk'.

*townsfolk*: noun; acc. plur.; first object of 'to see'.

*suffer*: verb-noun (inf. of 'suffer'); pres. act.; second object of 'to see'.

*so*: adv., demonstrative; qualifying 'suffer'.

*was*: verb; 3rd pers. sing., past indic. act. of 'am'.

*a*: adj., of number; epithet of 'pity'.

*pity*: noun; nom. sing.; predicative of the subject 'to see'.

(3) *Pied Piper*, line 55.

*looking*: verb-adj. (participle of 'look'); pres. act.; epithet of 'Mayor'.

*bigger*: adj., descriptive; comparative of 'big'; predicative of the subject.

## EXERCISES (A) ON §§ 73-139

### PERSONAL AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS (§§ 73-77).

Pick out the pronouns in the following sentences, and say to which kind each belongs :

1. Thou canst not say I did it. SHAKESPEARE.
2. He does not know the difference between mine and thine.
3. It was a bitterly cold day.
4. It was raining cats and dogs.
5. Tell me your names.
6. Is he a friend of yours ?
7. It is excellent  
To have a giant's strength ; but it is tyrannous  
To use it like a giant. SHAKESPEARE.
8. Nay, it shall ne'er be said, while England stands,  
That Alexander Iden, an esquire of Kent,  
Took odds to combat a poor famished man. SHAKESPEARE.
9. Thine evermore, most dear lady. SHAKESPEARE.
10. Let us assist them ; for our case is as theirs. SHAKESPEARE.
11. Thy dowerless daughter, king, thrown to my chance,  
Is queen of us, of ours, and our fair France. SHAKESPEARE.
12. Hers is the story, hers be the glory,  
England !  
HELEN GRAY CONE, *A Chant of Love for England*,  
*Atlantic Monthly*, Feb. 1915.

### REFLEXIVE AND EMPHASIZING PRONOUNS (§§ 78-84).

- A. Pick out and name the pronouns in the following sentences :
1. He himself has said it, and it's greatly to his credit.
  2. He admires himself too much.
  3. I always weed my garden myself.
  4. Put yourself in his place.

5. I have spoken about it to the Prime Minister himself.
6. They set themselves free.
7. You said so yourself.
8. I saw the battle myself.
9.       Myself would work eye dim and finger lame  
          Far liefer than so much discredit him.

TENNYSON.

10.       To die is to be banished from myself;  
          And Silvia is myself.

SHAKESPEARE.

11. We are not fighting for ourselves alone.

12.       The sun himself cannot forget  
          His fellow-passenger.

*Anonymous poem on Sir Francis Drake, 1641.*

- B. Imagine yourselves in our position. These people, whom we thoroughly trusted, had themselves put us into a little boat, and we rowed away in good cheer. But within three days we found ourselves at the mercy of the waves. The gods themselves seemed to be jealous of our good fortune. Our captain himself was fast losing courage. Margaret, although herself the weakest of us all, insisted on taking a turn at the oars. At last we descried an island on the horizon, and comforted ourselves with the hope of safety. But we were not yet at the end of our troubles. Our captain went mad suddenly and threw himself overboard.

DEMONSTRATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, AND EXCLAMATORY PRONOUNS  
(§§ 85-89).

Pick out the pronouns in the following sentences, and say to which kind each belongs :

1. Whom did you see there ?
2. What do you suggest yourself ?
3. The cost of oil is less than that of coal.
4. Which of them is most like yours ?
5. Those in the window are better than these.
6. Those standing by applauded him.
7. What on earth is the matter ?
8. That is no good.
9. Take that !

10. 'Who's who?' is the name of a book.
  11. He knows what's what, and that's enough.
  12. Tell me whom you saw there.
  13. Think what you are doing.
  14. What! Ho! She bumps.
  15. That was only said in joke.
  16. Who saw him die?—I, said the fly.
  17. What ever will he do next?
  18. Those saved from the wreck were landed in Holland.
  19. These are pronouns and easily recognized as such.
20. *Macduff.* Your royal father's murdered.  
*Malcolm.* Oh, by whom?  
*Lennox.* Those of his chamber had done it.

SHAKESPEARE.

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS (§§ 90-96).

## I

Pick out the relative pronouns in the following sentences, and say whether they are the subject or the object in their clauses. Say also what is the antecedent of the relative pronoun.

- A.
1. This is the house that Jack built.
  2. This is the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.
  3. The Sphinx used to ask any one who came to Thebes to guess a riddle.
  4. Whoever could not guess the riddle which the Sphinx asked, she put to death.
5. We must be free or die, who speak the tongue  
That Shakespeare spake. WORDSWORTH.
  6. I dare do all that may become a man;  
Who dares do more is none. SHAKESPEARE.
  7. The peace of heaven is theirs that lift their swords  
In such a just and charitable war. SHAKESPEARE.
  8. The evil that men do lives after them. SHAKESPEARE.
  9. What he says is not what he really thinks.

10. You contradict whatever I say.
11. Whatever is, is right.
12. Whatsoever you do, do with all your might.
13.     Myself and what is mine to you and yours  
       Is now converted. SHAKESPEARE.
14. I say the same as you.

B.     Who is the happy warrior? Who is he  
        That every man in arms should wish to be?  
        —It is the generous spirit, who, when brought  
        Among the tasks of real life, hath wrought  
        Upon the plan that pleased his boyish thought:

. . . . .

But who, if he be called upon to face  
 Some awful moment to which Heaven has joined  
 Great issues, good or bad for human kind,  
 Is happy as a lover, and attired  
 With sudden brightness, like a man inspired.

. . . . .

'Tis, finally, the man who, lifted high,  
 Conspicuous object in a nation's eye,  
 Or left unthought-of in obscurity,  
 Plays in the many games of life that one  
 Where what he most doth value must be won:  
 Whom neither shape of danger can dismay,  
 Nor thought of tender happiness betray.

. . . . .

This is the happy warrior, this is he  
 That every man in arms should wish to be.

WORDSWORTH.

## II

Make two lists of the pronouns in the following sentences, according to their meaning. When the pronoun is relative, supply an antecedent (as in §§ 94, 96).

1. He means what he says and says what he means.
2. What I have written I have written.
3. Tell me what you have written.
4. Who steals my purse steals trash.



berries so good for their animals, why did they not try them on themselves?

PRONOUNS DENOTING NUMBER OR AMOUNT (§§ 97-102).

Find the pronouns denoting number or amount in the following passages, and say whether they belong to the subject or the object or some other part of the sentence :

1. Some of the men had been pressed by a press-gang.
2. Not one of them, however, was insubordinate.
3. I never saw a finer regiment than this one was.
4. Some of them were middle-aged men, others were mere boys.
5. Two of them, whom I knew, saw one another daily, and each learned from the other.
6. All's well that ends well.
7.       How then should I and any man that lives  
          Be strangers to each other?

COWPER.

8. Fellow-citizens ought to love one another.
9.       Peace to you, brother and brother,  
          Ye have need of one another.  
                                  R. A. TAYLOR, *The Appeal to the Artist*.
10.                               With one accord  
          They grasped each other's hand,  
          Then plunged into the angry flood,  
          That bold and dauntless band.

AYTOUN.

11. Two and two is four.
12. We are seven.

ALL CLASSES OF PRONOUNS (§§ 73-102).

I

Make up sentences of your own containing the following pronouns, and say to which class each pronoun belongs :

*Who, what, which, that, none, his, whoever, it, whatsoever, each, other.*



## II

Tell the story of an adventure in the snow as if it had happened to yourself. Then rewrite the story as if you were telling it of some one else.

## DESCRIPTIVE AND INDICATING ADJECTIVES (§§ 104-117).

## I

Make two lists of the adjectives in the following passages: (i) descriptive adjectives, (ii) indicating adjectives, subdivided as in §§ 105-117.

- A. 1. They may jest  
Till their own scorn return to them unnoted.  
SHAKESPEARE.
2. His master's interest and his own combined  
Prompt every movement of his heart and mind.  
COWPER.
3. From that time to this I am alone. TENNYSON.
4. Our brown canal was endless to my thought,  
And on its banks I sat in dreamy peace.  
GEORGE ELIOT.
5. This way the King will come. SHAKESPEARE.
6. Which way will the King come?
7. Please tell me which way the King will come.
8. Nothing ill can dwell in such a temple. SHAKESPEARE.
9. Ah, what a shame! ah, what a fault were this!  
SHAKESPEARE.
10. What a pity that the carriage should break down on such  
a spot! BULWER LYTTON.
11. To what green altar, O mysterious priest,  
Leadst thou that heifer lowing at the skies? KEATS.
12. Show me what high and stately pile  
Is reared o'er Glory's bed. MRS. HEMANS.
13. A pound of that same merchant's flesh is thine.  
SHAKESPEARE.

14. 'Twas I that led the Highland host  
Thro' wild Lochaber's snows,  
What time the plaided clans came down.     AYTOUN.
15. What crest is on those banners wove,  
The harp, the minstrel dare not tell.     SCOTT.

- B.
1. Do you know what towns stand on the Thames?
  2. I do not know on which side of the river Oxford stands.
  3. Whichever side it stands on, it is a beautiful city.
  4. Which University of England has the most beautiful gardens?
  5. Whatever trouble it costs, go and see Cambridge.
  6. What ever do you mean?
  7. I mean that, whatever part of England you live in, except London, Cambridge is a difficult place to reach.
  8. Oh, no. There is no difficulty whatever in getting to Cambridge.
  9. What difficulty there is can be easily overcome.
  10. I will devote what time I have to visiting both Oxford and Cambridge.

## II

Write a description of the Pied Piper's interview with the magistrates of Hamelin. Underline the adjectives and say to which class each of them belongs.

## ADJECTIVES DENOTING NUMBER OR AMOUNT (§§ 118-122).

## I

In the following passages pick out (i) adjectives denoting number or amount, (ii) descriptive adjectives :

- A.
1. An eastern merchant came with many packages to the old castle.
  2. The winter had been long and stormy.
  3. The few inhabitants of the half-ruined castle had had no visitors for six or seven months.
  4. Most people were glad to see the first visitor of the season.
  5. The merchant opened several big bundles in front of a cheerful fire in the great hall.
  6. One package contained a strange black box, in which there were some wonderful things.

7. In it there was a collection of bright jewels and all sorts of curiosities of beautiful workmanship.

8. The contents must have been worth a hundred pounds.

9. The servants examined each article with the greatest curiosity.

10. The lady of the castle bought a few curiosities.

B. This was our second expedition to the North. I often think of that long journey through those lonely moors. In that district no tree is to be seen. This makes the country look still more desolate. Do you remember that old inn, where we changed horses? This was the only break in that long, cold drive. It was a most pleasant moment when we left those uncomfortable seats in the coach, and were greeted by the cheerful old inn-keeper. 'These horses must be very tired,' said he; 'that is always the case at this stage of the journey.' With these words he led us into his quaint old kitchen. This is what I remember best about our journey.

## II

Write out a list of twelve nouns preceded by 'a' and twelve nouns preceded by 'an', avoiding the words used in § 122.

## III

Correct the following, where necessary, stating your reasons :

1. Each of the soldiers ran forward in their turn.
2. Which was the wisest of the two old men?
3. These kind of things do not trouble me.
4. Of all races the British are the most capable of self-government.
5. Of the two poets the latter is the most famous.
6. Montrose was greater than all the generals of his time.
7. I do not like those sort of people.
8. The two first lines of the poem are wrong.
9. We are trying to understand the epithet and predicative use of adjectives.
10. We saw many copies of the Old and New Testament.

Comment on the following from Milton (*Paradise Lost*, iv. 321 f.)

So hand in hand they passed, the loveliest pair  
 Adam, the goodliest man of men since born  
 His sons, the fairest of her daughters Eve.

DESCRIPTIVE, DEMONSTRATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, EXCLAMATORY,  
AND RELATIVE ADVERBS (§§ 124-134).

## I

Make two lists of the adverbs contained in the following sentences :

(i) descriptive adverbs

(ii) indicating adverbs, subdivided as in §§ 126-134.

- A. 1. Hang it up at that friendly door. THOMAS MOORE.  
 2. Lord Marmion waits below. SCOTT.  
 3. The world had tried hard to put him down. CARLYLE.  
 4. How long within this wood intend you stay? SHAKESPEARE.  
 5. The magic music in his heart  
 Beats quick and quicker. TENNYSON.  
 6. Build me straight, O worthy master,  
 Staunch and strong, a goodly vessel. LONGFELLOW.  
 7. He closed his door and locked himself in. DICKENS.  
 8. I do not trouble my head about who is in and who is out. GOLDSMITH.  
 9. On, toward Calais, ho! SHAKESPEARE.  
 10. Scrooge thought it over and over and over. DICKENS.  
 11. There let me sit beneath the sheltered slopes. THOMSON.  
 12. For my life with fancy played,  
 Hither thither idly swayed. TENNYSON.
- B. 1. Where the bee sucks, there suck I:  
 In a cowslip's bell I lie;  
 There I couch when owls do cry.  
 On the bat's back I do fly  
 After summer merrily.  
 Merrily, merrily shall I live now  
 Under the blossom that hangs on the bough.  
 SHAKESPEARE, *Ariel's Song*.

2. *Lucio*. Where is he, think you? *Duke*. I know not where.  
SHAKESPEARE.
3. He is in heaven, where thou shalt never come.  
SHAKESPEARE.
4. Why speaks my father so ungently? SHAKESPEARE.
5. Ask me no reason why I love you. SHAKESPEARE.
6. Why, that's my dainty Ariel! SHAKESPEARE.
7. Yonder the shores of Fife you saw,  
Here Preston Bay and Berwick Law. SCOTT
8. How beautiful a thing it was to die  
For God and for my sire! TENNYSON.
9. Shades of the prison-house begin to close  
Upon the growing boy;  
But he beholds the light, and whence it flows;  
He sees it in his joy.  
WORDSWORTH.
10. When shall we three meet again? SHAKESPEARE.
11. When and where and how  
We met, we woo'd, and made exchange of vow,  
I'll tell thee as we pass.  
SHAKESPEARE.
12. His love-suit hath been to me  
As fearful as a siege.  
SHAKESPEARE.
13. The better shall my purpose work on him.  
SHAKESPEARE.
14. The better the day, the better the deed.
15. The nearer the bone, the sweeter the meat.

C. And strangely on the knight looked he  
And his blue eyes gleamed wild and wide;—  
He thought on the days that were long since by,  
When his limbs were strong and his courage was high;  
Now, slow and faint, he led the way  
Where, cloistered round, the garden lay;  
Spreading herbs and flowerets bright  
Glistened with the dew of night;

Nor herb nor floweret glistened there,  
 But was carved in the cloister-arches as fair,  
 The Monk gazed long on the lovely moon,  
 Then into the night he lookèd forth ;  
 And red and bright, the streamers light  
 Were dancing in the glowing north.

SCOTT.

## II

1. Make up six questions introduced by interrogative adverbs, and then turn them into dependent questions by putting another clause either before or after them.

2. Make up six sentences containing relative adverbs, and six containing relative pronouns.

ADVERBS DENOTING NUMBER OR AMOUNT (§ 135), TOGETHER WITH DESCRIPTIVE ADVERBS (§ 124) AND INDICATING ADVERBS (§§ 125-134).

Make classified lists of all the adverbs in the following sentences, arranged in three classes, as in § 123 :

- A.
1. How slowly the time seemed to pass!
  2. I never thought that an hour could be so long.
  3. We were very weary at the end of the match.
  4. The opposite side played badly.
  5. Where did you last see our captain?
  6. When did the match begin?
  7. Why did you miss a ball twice?
  8. We can bowl much faster than the others.
  9. We rarely bowl wide.
- B. Have you ever heard this story? A Brahmin first devised the game of chess for a very tyrannical king. The latter was much pleased with the invention, and readily promised any reward, however large. The Brahmin cunningly spoke thus: 'My Prince, if you count the squares on the board carefully, you will find that there are sixty-four. As you offer me a reward, I ask that you will graciously give me a piece of gold for the first square, two for the second, and continue thus, always doubling the number up to the last.' 'If your demand is so moderate,' rashly answered the prince, 'it will be easily satisfied. Make your calculation now, and bring it to me quickly.' The Brahmin did so, and the prince was greatly

surprised to find that he had unfortunately promised more than he could ever perform, and that he was not rich enough to pay the debt which he had so incautiously contracted.

- C. When the magistrate had received the money, and signed and returned a certain paper which I handed to him, he rubbed his hands, and looking very benignantly at me exclaimed, 'And as our business is now over, perhaps you can tell me where the fight is to take place?'

'I am sorry, sir,' said I, 'that I can't inform you, but everybody seems to be anxious about it'; and then I told him what had occurred to me on the road with the ale-house keeper.

'I know him,' said his worship; 'he is a tenant of mine, and a good fellow, though somewhat too much in my debt. But how is this, young gentleman? You look as if you had been walking. You did not come on foot?'

'Yes, sir, I came on foot.'

'On foot! Why, it is sixteen miles.'

'I shan't be tired, when I have walked back.'

'You can't ride, I suppose.'

'I have frequently to make journeys connected with my profession; sometimes I walk, sometimes I ride, as the whim takes me.'

GEORGE BORROW.

- D. 1. Oh, when shall Englishmen  
With such acts fill a pen,  
Or England breed again  
Such a King Harry?  
DRAYTON, *The Battle of Agincourt*.
2. Where lies the land to which the ship would go?  
Far, far ahead, is all her seamen know.  
And where the land she travels from? Away  
Far, far behind, is all that they can say.  
A. H. CLOUGH.
3. *Paulina*. I like your silence; it the more shows off  
Your wonder.  
*Leontes*. Her natural posture!  
. . . She was as tender  
As infancy and grace. But yet, *Paulina*,  
*Hermione* was not so much wrinkled, nothing  
So aged as this seems.

*Polixenes.* Oh, not by much.

*Paulina.* So much the more our carver's excellence,  
Which lets go by some sixteen years and makes her  
As<sup>1</sup> she lived now.

SHAKESPEARE, *Winter's Tale*.

<sup>1</sup> This 'as' stands for 'as if'. Compare *Pied Piper*, l. 67.

4. The more I hate, the more he follows me.

SHAKESPEARE.

5. Revenge is a kind of wild justice ; which the more man's  
nature runs to, the more ought man to root it out. BACON.

E. All are scattered now and fled,  
Some are married, some are dead ;  
And when I ask with throbs of pain,  
Ah, when shall they all meet again,  
As in the days long since gone by,  
The ancient timepiece makes reply :  
For ever ! Never ! Never ! For ever !  
Never here, for ever there  
Where all parting, pain, and care  
And death and time shall disappear :  
For ever there, but never here.

LONGFELLOW, *The Old Clock on the Stairs*.

In the phrase 'for ever' the adverb 'ever' is used like a noun. Find some other examples of adverbs coming after prepositions ('for', 'since', 'from', 'by').

#### SENTENCE-ADVERBS (§§ 136-138).

##### I

Substitute an adverb-phrase (formed with a preposition) or an adverb-clause of condition or cause (introduced by a subordinating conjunction) for the words printed in italics in the following sentences :

1. He was found guilty and *therefore* put to death.
2. They are at hand, ready to fight : *wherefore* prepare.
3. I became alarmed, and *consequently* left home at once.
4. I became alarmed, but *nevertheless* I did not leave home.
5. I had read the proclamation ; *otherwise* I should not have enlisted.



6. I had read the proclamation, and I *also* desired to enlist.
7. Many of my friends enlisted; *accordingly* I enlisted *too*.
8. 'Beside', quoth the Mayor with a knowing wink,  
'Our business was done at the river's brink.'  
*P. P.*, ll. 163 f.
9. It was all a mistake; let us shake hands, *then*, and be friends.
10. He said nothing about the matter; *hence* we cannot judge what his opinions were.

## II

What parts of speech are the words printed in italics in the following sentences? Distinguish sentence-adverbs from other adverbs.

1. (a) It was a pity to see the townsfolk suffer *so*.  
(b) That is *so*.  
(c) We were *so* sorry for them.  
(d) *So*, Willy, let me and you be wipers  
Of scores out with all men—especially pipers.  
*P. P.*, ll. 300 f.
2. (a) It was the *only* thing I had.  
(b) They could *only* follow with the eye  
That joyous crowd at the Piper's back.  
*P. P.*, ll. 212 f.
- (c) There were *only* two persons in the room.
3. (a) They *even* spoiled the women's chats. *P. P.*, l. 17.  
(b) Leave in the town not *even* a trace  
Of the rats. *P. P.*, l. 151.  
(c) Ten is an *even* number.  
(d) They climbed upon a fair and *even* ridge.  
TENNYSON.
4. (a) She was dressed very *simply*.  
(b) They *simply* laughed at me.
5. (a) Just as he said this, what should hap  
At the chamber door *but* (=except) a gentle tap?  
*P. P.*, l. 44.  
(b) I am *but* (= only) a poor piper.  
(c) *But* how the Mayor was on the rack!  
*P. P.*, l. 214.

6. (a) God *save* the King.

(b) Wherein all plunged and perished  
*Save* (= except) one. *P. P.*, ll. 122 f.

7. (a) *Then*, like a musical adept,  
To blow the pipe his lips he wrinkled.

*P. P.*, ll. 102 f.

(b) I have done you no wrong; why, *then*, do you persecute me?

8. (a) It was once mine; *now* it is yours.

(b) I reflected that by concealing the truth I should get my friends into trouble. *Now* this was intolerable to me.

(c) 'Now sir, who and what are you?'—'I was prefect of a legion this morning. What I am *now*, you know as well as I'.

KINGSLEY.

(d) I will do my duty, *now* (= now that, or since) I know it.

9. (a) *Thus* spoke the King.

(b) I never said so; *thus* your statement is baseless.

10. (a) I thought *otherwise*.

(b) You never asked me; *otherwise* I should have come.

11. (a) Make haste, *else* you will be too late.

(b) There was no one *else* in the room.

12. (a) I do not know *whether* you have called in a doctor *or* not.

(b) *Whether* you call in a doctor *or* not, you will not recover.

13. (a) She is very *like* him (= similar to him).

(b) She acted *like* him (= similarly to him).

(c) Thou shalt come to thy grave in a full age, *like* (= in like manner) as a shock of corn cometh in in its season. JOB v. 26.

(d) They are as *like* as two peas.

(e) They *like* one another.

14. (a) *If* I see her, I will ask her *if* she knows about it.

(b) I cannot tell *whether* she knows or *whether* she does not.

(c) *Whether* she knows or not, it will do no harm to ask her.

(d) He asked me *if* I knew the captain. STEVENSON.

### III

Make up sentences to show the different effects produced by changing the position of the sentence-adverbs 'too', 'only', 'even' in the sentence (see § 137).

## EXERCISES (B) ON §§ 140-281

### (FORMS AND THEIR CHIEF MEANINGS)

#### PLURALS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (§§ 146-157).

##### I

Form the plural of the following nouns: *safe, waif, knife, lady, day, toy, house, fox, wolf, half, goose, salmon, trout, chicken, child, gentleman, Norman.*

##### II

Make up sentences each of them containing the plural of one of the following nouns: *mass, fish, sense, moustache, jolly, elf, grief, youth, health, fruit, hair, wine, cone, people.*

##### III

Form the plural of the following nouns: *thief, wharf, staff, flag-staff, gulf, sheriff, bath, mouth, case, grouse, penny, sixpence, death, month, birth, storey.*

##### IV

Change singulars into plurals in the following sentences:

1. I myself think so.
2. Thou art the man.
3. A pailful was brought from the spring.
4. The runaway himself had stolen the box.
5. That is a strange story.
6. This is a magnificent piano.

#### FORMS OF CASES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (§§ 158-163).

##### I

Make up sentences, each containing two of the following forms: *me, myself, thee, thyself, you (singular), yourself, him, himself, her, herself, it, itself, whom, whose (singular).*

## II

Make up four sentences, each containing two of the following forms : *we, us, you* (plural), *they, them, who, whom, whose* (plural).

## III

Make up sentences containing the following nouns in the genitive case : *horses, mouse, oxen, fox, Lord-Lieutenant, stags, huntsman* ; also a sentence containing the following group of words in the genitive case : *Wolsey the Chancellor*.

USES OF THE NOMINATIVE, VOCATIVE, AND ACCUSATIVE OF NOUNS  
AND PRONOUNS (§§ 164-169).

## I

Pick out the nouns and the pronouns in the following passages, and state the case of each, giving your reasons.

- A. A dwarf once lived beside a hill. He was often annoyed by a shepherd, who had a pipe on which he played very noisily. So the dwarf presented the shepherd with a cap, which made the wearer invisible, and then led him away to a neighbouring castle. They entered unseen, and performed many tricks on the guests, who heard in astonishment the laughter of the two visitors, whom they could not see. The shepherd had seized a silver cup ; but the dwarf pulled off his cap and the thief was revealed. The servants carried him away, and were just lowering him into a dungeon, when the dwarf replaced the cap and the shepherd disappeared from view. 'In future, friend', said the dwarf, as he led the shepherd out of the castle, 'I hope that you will stop your music when I ask you.'
- B. 1. I wish I were a mile hence.  
2. We walked a long time before we overtook him.  
3. 'Bless us !' cried the mayor.  
4. They searched the house for evidence.  
5. This story about the great leader was often told by his followers during the war.  
6. It happened a long time ago.  
7. I moved a step further.  
8. They begged him to return the way he went.  
9. So, Sir, you see that we're not dishonest.  
10. What will you give, your Worship ?

11. I'm bereft of all the pleasant sights they see.

12. Poor Piper as I am,  
In Tartary I freed the Cham,  
Last June, from his huge swarms of gnats.

13. The Mayor of Hamelin disgraced himself.

14. The children of Hamelin found themselves in a wonderful land.

## II

Make up six sentences each containing an object-accusative and an adverbial-accusative.

## USES OF THE GENITIVE OF NOUNS (§§ 170-172).

## I

Pick out the genitives in the following passages, and replace each of them by an adjective-clause (introduced by 'which' or 'who').

1. Cromwell's hopes were now excited. 2. He faced a despot's anger and died a felon's death. 3. The village lies a day's journey from here. 4. He met his death during the Seven Years' war.

5. A good sword and a trusty hand!  
A merry heart and true!  
King James's men shall understand  
What Cornish lads can do.

R. S. HAWKER.

6. Other Romans shall arise  
Heedless of a Roman's name,  
Sounds not arms shall win the prize,  
Harmony the path to fame.

COWPER.

## II

Pick out the genitives in the following passages, and say which of them denote possession. Make up sentences containing the nominative and the accusative of the same words.

1. Cities and thrones and powers  
Stand in time's eye  
Almost as long as flowers  
Which daily die.  
This season's daffodil,  
She never hears  
What change, what chance, what chill  
Cut down last year's.

But with bold countenance,  
 And knowledge small,  
 Esteems her seven days' continuance  
 To be perpetual.

KIPLING, *Puck of Pook's Hill*.

2. Whose ox or whose ass have I taken? Of whose hand have I received any bribe? *Bible*, 1 Sam. xii. 3.

3. We found the identity disk of a German soldier belonging to a regiment about whose presence in this quarter there had been much doubt. *The Times*.

### III

Try to find an explanation of the fact that a preposition seems to take the genitive case in the following sentences :

1. I bought it at the bookseller's.
2. Nelson is buried in St. Paul's.

USES OF THE DATIVE AND THE ACCUSATIVE (§§ 173-180 and §§ 167-169).

### I

Pick out the nouns and the pronouns in the following sentences, and state the case of each, giving your reasons.

- A. 1. I gave him a book which he had not read. 2. He did not read it at the time. 3. I thought him an ungrateful boy. 4. But I promised him another book. 5. Did you keep your promise? 6. Yes; I do not like promises which are not kept. 7. What book was it? 8. I got him a boys' book of adventures. 9. Did you tell him any of the stories contained in it? 10. Yes, and I also read him one about Nelson. 11. You did him a service. 12. Did he show you gratitude? 13. Did he show himself a grateful pupil? 14. Yes; he made me a good return. 15. He made me his debtor. 16. I shall always congratulate myself that I presented him with this book.

- B. 1. There was a rustling that seemed like a bustling  
 Of merry crowds justling at pitching and hustling.  
*Pied Piper*, ll. 197, 198.

I raised her, called her : 'Muriel, Muriel, wake !'  
 The fatal ring lay near her.

TENNYSON, *The Ring*.

3. Into the west they are marching! This is their longed-for day,  
 When that which England gave them they may at last repay;  
 When for the faith she dealt them, peasants and priests and lords,  
 When for the love they bear her, they shall unsheathe their swords.

R. E. VERNÈDE, *The Indian Army* (*The Times*,  
 Sept. 11, 1914).

4. Sing me a song of a lad that is gone,  
 Say, could that lad be I?  
 Merry of soul he sailed on a day  
 Over the sea to Skye.  
 Mull was astern, Rum on the port,  
 Eigg on the starboard bow;  
 Glory of youth glowed in his soul:  
 Where is that glory now?  
 Give me again all that was there,  
 Give me the sun that shone!  
 Give me the eyes, give me the soul,  
 Give me the lad that's gone!

R. L. STEVENSON, *Songs of Travel*.

5. 'Swallow me a good draught of this,' said the knight. 'This will give you manhood. Thereafter I will give you both a meal. For, Dick,' he continued, 'I will avow to you in all good conscience it irks me sorely to be safe between four walls. Some of my lads will pick me their way home, and if I can but buy me peace, why, Dick, we'll be a man again.' And so saying the knight filled himself a horn of canary.

R. L. STEVENSON, *The Black Arrow*.

## II

1. Make up sentences containing a dative and an accusative used with the verbs *render*, *tender*, *build*, *fetch*, *bring*, *write*, *save*, *sing*, *pay*, *lend*, *award*, *get*, *buy*, *sell*, *send*.

2. Say whether 'like' is an adjective or an adverb in the following sentences from the *Pied Piper*:

- (a) Anything like the sound of a rat makes my heart go pit-a-pat.  
 (b) Like fowls in a farmyard when barley is scattering,  
 Out came the children running.

(c) Then, like a musical adept, to blow the pipe his lips he wrinkled.

## III

Make up sentences of your own containing—

1. A noun in the nominative and a pronoun in the vocative case.
2. The accusative used adverbially.
3. The accusative as object.
4. The dative case of (1) a noun, (2) a pronoun used adverbially.
5. A genitive case.

PHRASES FORMED WITH PREPOSITIONS REPLACING CASES  
(§§ 181-189).

## I

1. Substitute phrases with 'of' for genitives, wherever possible, in the examples given in § 170 of the Grammar.
2. Make up six sentences of your own containing phrases with 'of' (three containing nouns, three pronouns), for which genitives might have been used.
3. Make up four sentences containing phrases with 'of' for which genitives could not have been used.

## II

1. Show the meaning of the phrase with 'of'—

(a) by substituting an adjective-clause (as in Exercise I on §§ 170-172):

1. Anything like the sound of a rat makes me jump.
2. The city of London is built on the site of an old Roman town.
3. At the first shrill notes of the pipe I heard a sound like that of scraping tripe.

In the following sentences the noun (or noun together with 'the') on which the phrase with 'of' depends will also have to be changed:

1. The murderers of the Archduke did not have a proper trial.
2. The keeper of the castle showed us round.
3. Employers of labour are in a difficulty because they cannot find enough men.



(b) by substituting an adjective :

1. He wore a gipsy coat of red and yellow.
2. His scarf had stripes of a red colour.
3. They were mariners of England.
4. He was a man of importance.

(c) by substituting a clause introduced by 'that' (in apposition to the noun that precedes the word 'of'):

1. There was no chance of getting in.
  2. The poor boy had no hope of seeing the wonderful place.
  3. The danger of being devoured by rats frightened the whole town.
  4. Leave in our town not even a sign of the rats.
2. Express the meaning of the following sentences without using 'of' :
1. There is a sufficient quantity of water in the tank.
  2. I saw a large number of wounded men.
  3. Some of the prisoners were shot.
  4. Half of his coat was yellow.
  5. It sounded like a moving away of pickle-tub-boards.
  6. Let us be wipers out of scores with all men.

### III

Pick out the datives in the following passages, and substitute phrases with 'to' or 'for', wherever possible :

1. Captains, give the sailor place;  
He is admiral in brief.  
\* \* \* \* \*  
Praise is deeper than the lips.  
You have saved the king his ships.  
You must name your own reward.  
BROWNING.
2. 'Well,' cried he, 'Emperor, by God's grace  
We've got you Ratisbon.'  
BROWNING.
3. Make me a cottage in the vale. TENNYSON.

4. God gave all men all earth to love,  
 But, since man's heart was small,  
 Ordained for each one spot should prove  
 Belovèd over all.

KIPLING (ON SUSSEX).

5. My friend showed me the stables near his garden to-day. This left me just three minutes before my train started. In my hurry I lost my way, but an errand-boy told me which turning to take. The journey gave me an opportunity of thinking over things.

6. She came to the conclusion that waste of time had cost her much. So she resolved to buy herself a watch, and, in future, not to let any one tell her long stories when she was in a hurry. This would give her a better chance of being in time.

7. That course of action may have gained them some advantage, but it has lost them a great deal.

#### IV

Pick out the adverbial accusatives in the following sentences, and substitute phrases formed with prepositions, wherever possible :

- (a) He arrived here the last day of January 1883.  
 (b) What o'clock did he arrive?  
 (c) How many days did he stay?  
 (d) He stayed a week longer than he had intended.  
 (e) He now lives several miles farther in the country.  
 (f) The airmen flew a great distance in safety; but then they had to return home.  
 (g) The village lay hundreds of feet higher than the road.  
 (h) Lead us the right way.  
 (i) He looked this way and that way.  
 (j) They could not move an inch.  
 (k) You were mistaken all the while.  
 (l) Charles the First walked and talked; half an hour after his head was cut off.  
 (m) The frame was three inches high, seven feet long, and four feet broad.  
 (n) She is now ten years old.  
 (o) She was born ten years ago.  
 (p) I do not care one jot.  
 (q) I am not a bit anxious.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES CONTAINING CASES OR PHRASES  
FORMED WITH PREPOSITIONS (§ 190).

Analyse the following sentences on the model of the table in § 190 :

1. Captains, give the sailor place.
2. He offered the Piper silver and gold to his heart's content.
3. They fixed in their memories the place of the children's last retreat.
4. I saw horses with eagles' wings.
5. They did all sorts of mischief to the soldiers of the King.
6. I use my charin on creatures of this kind.
7. We waited a long time.
8. This story about the great leader was often told by his followers during the war.
9. I am bereft of all those pleasant sights.
10. They travelled a thousand miles.
11. They searched the general's house for evidence.
12. Merry of soul he sailed on a day  
Over the sea to Skye.  
R. L. STEVENSON.
13. The good sword stood a hand's breadth out  
Beyond the Tuscan's head.  
MACAULAY.
14. The cavern gave us shelter  
From the blinding sleet and hail. AYTOUN.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES (§§ 191-195).

I

Give the three degrees of the adjectives in the following sentences, wherever the word admits of degrees of comparison :

- A. 1. The longest lane has a turning. 2. He chose the wiser course.  
3. The enemy's forces were more numerous than we thought.  
4. This is the younger of my two sons. 5. She was the cleverest of my three daughters. 6. Andrew Lang wrote a Red True Story Book and a Violet Fairy Book. 7. It is kept in a wooden box.  
8. He travelled by the latest train. 9. The people became freer and freer every year. 10. Our dinner-table is round. 11. Ours is

square. 12. The train was full. 13. I travelled by an empty train.  
14. He took infinite pains. 15. There was universal rejoicing.

- B. 1. The more food he consumes, the thinner he becomes.  
2. The more the merrier, but the fewer the better fare.  
3. He preferred the latter, but I chose the former.  
4. That is the least that he can do.
5. All service is the same with God,  
With God, whose puppets best and worst  
Are we; there is no last or first. BROWNING.
6. For war itself is but a nurse  
To make us worse;  
Come, blessèd Peace, we once again implore,  
And let our pains be less or power more.  
ALEXANDER BROME, *The Riddle* (1644).
7. Louder yet and yet more dread  
Swells the high trump. SCOTT.

## II

Write down the comparative and superlative of each of the following adjectives: *hopeful, honest, severe, beautiful, lowly, heavy, queer, contemptuous, complete, straightforward, stupid, mountainous, attractive, like, unlike, different.*

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS (§§ 196-199).

## I

Give the three degrees of the adverbs in the following sentences, wherever the word admits of degrees of comparison:

- A. 1. They fortified the place strongly.  
2. They fought hard.  
3. She sang it beautifully—indeed, perfectly.  
4. I am infinitely obliged to you.  
5. He spoke hopefully about the future.  
6. He did not say exactly what he meant.  
7. The ships were sailing leisurely round the island.  
8. They receive thirty shillings each annually.  
9. He sat between me and my brother, but nearer me.  
10. I often see him, but I seldom speak to him.

- B. 1. Rarely, rarely comest thou,  
Spirit of delight. SHELLEY.
2. Let the blow fall soon or late. STEVENSON.
3. Jason gave him a golden cup ; for he wrestled best of all.  
KINGSLEY.
4. Down on his knees the bishop fell,  
And faster and faster his beads did he tell.  
SOUTHEY.
5. Guard it well, guard it warily,  
Singing airily,  
Standing about the charmèd root.  
TENNYSON, *The Hesperides.*
6. Generally, a man is never more uselessly employed than when  
he is at this trick. STEVENSON.

## II

1. Make up sentences using the following adverbs in each degree of comparison : *little, ill, wisely, well, much, quietly, late.*
2. Analyse I. B. 4 (*Down on his knees . . . tell*).

PERSONS, NUMBERS, AND TENSES OF VERBS (§§ 200-202  
and 207, 208 ; see also § 225).

## I

State the person, the number, and the tense of each of the verbs in the following sentences :

1. I see what you mean.
2. Here he comes.
3. The war will cease some day.
4. I hope that I shall live to see the end of the war.
5. I did not hope that I should live to see the end of the war.
6. He is a very old friend of mine.
7. I met him as I walked down the street.
8. We shall meet again.
9. I knew what they wanted.
10. 'Bless us', cried the Mayor, 'what's that?'  
With the Corporation as he sat.

11. Where we stood not an hour before, there was nothing to be seen but the waters, and soon they would cover the place where we were.

12. There were four batteries in four strong lines stretching backward, and presently they would deploy.

13.           Then he sat down, still and speechless,  
               At the feet of Laughing Water,  
               At those willing feet that never  
               More would lightly run to meet him,  
               Never more would lightly follow.

LONGFELLOW, *Hiawatha*.

14. He awaits the return of comrades who will return no more.

15. I expect that the children will all receive Christmas presents.

16. I expected that they would receive Christmas presents.

17. They looked forward to the presents which their parents would give them.

18.           He looked for his little playmates,  
               Who would return no more.

LONGFELLOW, *The Open Window*.

19. There it stood, and there it still stands.

20. Thou sawest a glory growing on the night,  
       But not the shadows which that light would cast.

TENNYSON, *Epitaph on Caxton*.

## II

1. Make up four sentences of your own, containing examples of (i) the present, (ii) the future, (iii) the past, (iv) the future in the past; and then turn each of these sentences into a clause of a complex sentence introduced by the conjunction 'that' or by a relative pronoun.

2. Write a description of *An Adventure in a Snow-storm*. State the tenses of the verbs used.

### PERSONS, NUMBERS, AND TENSES, CONTINUED (§§ 203, 209).

#### I

State the person, the number, and the tense of each of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Before the end of the war the blockade will have ceased.
2. Some people believe that the blockade has already ceased.

3. He believed that the blockade had already ceased.
4. We shall have started by the early train.
5. While the lion and the tiger were engaged in fighting, the jackal had carried off the prey.
6. The Nabob had feared and hated the English, even while he was still able to oppose to them their French rivals.

MACAULAY.

7. I have known many remarkable men, but the most wonderful man I ever knew was Coleridge.

WORDSWORTH.

8. You have known us these ten years.

9. They had known all about it for ten years.

10. We have almost forgotten that we were once barbarians.

PITT.

11. Never was there a situation such as has arisen since last summer.

12. Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey.

*SOUTHEY, Life of Nelson.*

13. We have not forgotten that Hetty will be eighteen in October.

14. We had not forgotten that Hetty would be eighteen in October.

15. I felt sure that I should have received the money by Christmas.

16. They intended to give their friends a share in the presents which they would have received.

17. I thought I should have seen some Hercules.

Alas, this is a child, a silly dwarf! SHAKESPEARE.

18. The tide was rising fast ; in a few moments it would cover my feet.

## II

Make up four sentences of your own, containing examples of (i) the present perfect, (ii) the future perfect, (iii) the past perfect, (iv) the future perfect in the past ; and then turn each of these sentences into a subordinate clause forming part of a complex sentence.

## PERSONS, NUMBERS, AND TENSES, CONTINUED (§§ 204-206).

## I

State the person, the number, and the tense of each of the verbs in the following sentences :

- A. 1. The spies did not escape until we reached the frontier. 2. Stone walls do not a prison make. 3. Drake was playing a rubber of bowls. 4. I hope that the cavalry will soon be arriving. 5. When the cavalry did at last arrive, we had been fighting for six hours.

6. Have you seen the tall trees swaying  
When the blast is sounding shrill? AYTOUN.

7. King Philip had vaunted his claims ;  
He had sworn for a year he would sack us ;  
With an army of heathenish names  
He was coming to fagot and stack us.  
AUSTIN DOBSON.

8. And one was safe and asleep in his bed  
Who at the bridge would be first to fall,  
Who that day would be lying dead,  
Pierced by a British musket-ball.  
LONGFELLOW.

- B. 1. At the time of the Armada the Spaniards thought that they were going to win an easy victory ; for the English fleet counted only 80 vessels against the 149 which composed the Armada.

2. An army had been mustering under Leicester at Tilbury ; the militia of the midland counties were gathering to London, and those of the south and east were ready to meet a descent on either shore.

3. The ship her way was winging  
As they loaded every gun. NEWBOLT.

4. News of battle ! news of battle !  
Hark ! 'tis ringing down the street. AYTOUN.

5. The large Newfoundland house-dog  
Was standing by the door.  
He looked for his little playmates  
Who would return no more. LONGFELLOW.

6. I did not waste the gifts which Nature gave. AYTOUN.



7. This England never did  
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror,  
But when it first did help to wound itself.  
SHAKESPEARE.
8. In a cowslip's bell I lie ;  
There I couch when owls do cry.  
On the bat's back I do fly. SHAKESPEARE.

## II

1. Make up six sentences of your own, containing (i) continuous forms, (ii) compound forms with 'do'.
2. EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS. Analyse I. A. 7 (*King Philip... stack us*).

## THE THREE MOODS (§§ 210-219).

## I

Write out in three parallel columns the singular number of the present indicative, the imperative, and the present subjunctive of the following verbs, using as a model the table in § 202: *blow, fear, give, call, save, bless*.

## II

State the person, tense, and mood of each of the verbs in the following sentences, and in each case say what the mood denotes :

- A. 1. Come and see me to-morrow.  
2. He understands what he is talking about.  
3. Always say what you mean, and mean what you say.  
4. Woe betide him.  
5. Perish the thought.  
6. Come what may, we must do our duty.  
7. Who is he that cometh like an honoured guest?  
TENNYSON.
8. It is requested that every visitor put a penny into the box.  
9. My orders are that nobody speak to him.  
10. Every man take care of himself.  
11. Bid me discourse, I will enchant thine ear.  
SHAKESPEARE.
12. Be debaters never so discreet, they are sure to disclose something which ought to be kept secret.  
13. Long live King Albert !

14. The Lord give thee wisdom and understanding.

15. Happily come the day.

TENNYSON.

B. I. God save our gracious King,  
Nations and State and King,  
God save the King!  
Grant him good peace divine,  
But, if his wars be Thine,  
Flash on his fighting line  
Victory's wing.

Thou in his suppliant hands  
Hast placed such mighty  
lands :

Save Thou our King!  
As once from golden skies  
Rebels with flaming eyes,  
So the King's enemies  
Doom Thou and fling.

But most these few dear miles  
Of star-flower-meadowed isles,  
England, all spring,  
Scotland, that by the marge  
Where the blank north doth  
charge  
Hears thy voice loud and large,  
Guard, and their King!

Grace on the golden dales  
Of Thine old Christian Wales  
Shower till they sing—  
Till Erin's island lawn  
Echo the dulcet-drawn  
Song with a shout of dawn—  
God save the King!

JAMES ELROY FLECKER, *The Times*,  
Jan. 14, 1915.

2. Move eastward, happy earth, and leave

Yon orange sunset waning slow :

From fringes of the faded eve,

O, happy planet, eastward go ;

Till over thy dark shoulder glow

Thy silver sister-world, and rise

To glass herself in dewy eyes

That watch me from the glen below.

TENNYSON.

3. Praise we the seaman who abides

The vigil and the price :

Though his body sway with the swaying tides,

Where the mine-rent warship lies,

Yet his soul shall stand by God's right hand,

Who loveth sacrifice.

*The Times*, Jan. 19, 1915.

Omit 'shall stand' in parsing.

4. If German steel be sharp and keen,

Is ours not strong and true ?

AYTOUN.

## III

1. Make up sentences of your own, containing examples of the same verb (i) in the imperative mood, (ii) in the indicative mood, (iii) in the subjunctive mood.

2. Make up examples of your own illustrating the uses of the Present Subjunctive in the different kinds of clause shown in § 219. Begin one of your sentences with 'It is desirable'.

3. EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse part of B. 1 (*But most these few dear miles . . . till they sing*).

## VOICES (§§ 220-224).

## I

State the voice and tense of each of the verbs in the following passages :

1. She sleeps; her breathings are not heard  
 In palace chambers far apart,  
 The fragrant tresses are not stirred  
 That lie upon her charmèd heart.

TENNYSON, *The Sleeping Princess*.

2. Thus Christian went on a great while and the flames would be reaching towards him; also he heard doleful voices and rustlings to and fro, so that sometimes he thought he would be torn in pieces. . . . This frightful sight was seen and these dreadful sounds were heard by him for several miles together. Sometimes he had half a thought to go back. Then he remembered how he had already vanquished many a danger.

JOHN BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

3. And sadder days were in store for Mrs. Hawkins, poor soul. Nine years hence she would be asked to name her son's brave new ship, and would christen it 'The Repentance'; and she would hear that Queen Elizabeth, complaining of the name as an unlucky one, had re-christened her 'The Dainty'. With sad eyes Mrs. (then Lady) Hawkins would see that gallant bark sail Westward-ho, to go the world around, as many another ship had sailed. And a sadder day than that was in store, when a gallant fleet would round the Ram Head, not with drum and trumpet, but with solemn minute-guns, and all flags half-mast high.

KINGSLEY, *Westward Ho*, ch. xiii.

4. Our men have been ordered to retire.
5. This news had not been received yesterday.
6. We hope that before another year has passed our garrison, which is now besieged, will have been relieved.

## II

State the voice and tense of the verbs in the following sentences, and say whether the verbs in the active voice are used transitively or intransitively :

1. The battle is won by the men that fall.  
LAURENCE HOUSMAN.
2. The King has come to marshal us. MACAULAY.
3. The Rhine is running deep and red. AYTOUN.
4. We shall run a long race to-morrow.
5. The river will be frozen by the north wind.
6. The thieves stole a valuable picture.
7. They stole away quietly.
8. The picture was stolen while we were away from home.
9. He plays cricket well.
10. Do you play every morning?
11. They danced the whole of the way.
12. They lived many years in a subterranean prison.
13. The day is ending,  
The night is descending. LONGFELLOW.
14. Mend it or end it.
15. I expected that the battle would be ended by the arrival of the reinforcements.
16. I rolled the stone to the top of the hill, but it rolled back again.
17. He said he would assemble the people on a neighbouring hill, where they would never have been assembled before.
18. When the weather changes, he changes his dress.
19. His whole life will have been changed by this misfortune.
20. I thought that the troops would have been moved to new quarters before this.

## III

1. Make up sentences of your own containing transitive uses of the verbs which are used intransitively in the following passages from the *Pied Piper*, stanza xiii :

- (a) The wretched Council's bosoms beat,  
As the Piper turned from the High Street  
To where the Weser rolled its waters.
- (b) And after him the children pressed.
- (c) A wondrous portal opened wide.
- (d) The Piper advanced and the children followed.
- (e) The door in the mountain-side shut fast.
- (f) The music stopped.
2. Turn your sentences into the passive form.

## IV

1. Make up eight sentences of your own, containing verbs in the active voice used transitively, each in a different tense. Change each into the passive voice without altering the meaning.

2. Make up eight sentences of your own, using verbs in the passive voice, each in a different tense. Change each into the active voice without altering the meaning.

3. EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse II. 1-4, 8, 12.

THE VERB 'AM, WAS, BEEN' (§§ 225-234).

## I

Parse the parts of the verb 'am' in the following sentences. See Models for Parsing, p. 94.

- A. 1. If that story be true, you are a coward.
2. Be it wet or be it fine, I intend to go.
3. Neither a borrower nor a lender be. SHAKESPEARE.
4. Gallant nobles of the league, look that your arms be bright.  
MACAULAY.
5. I wish I were where Helen lies,  
Night and day on me she cries;  
O that I were where Helen lies,  
On fair Kirconnell lea!  
ANONYMOUS, *Helen of Kirconnell*.
6. O Helen fair! O Helen chaste!  
If I were with thee, I were blest.
7. These be the great 'Twin Brethren  
To whom the Dorians pray. MACAULAY.

- B. 1. Be the day weary or be the day long,  
At last it ringeth to evensong. LONGFELLOW.
2. If it be a sin to covet honour,  
I am the most offending soul alive. SHAKESPEARE.
3. 'Sail on', it says, 'sail on, ye stately ships ;  
Be mine to guard this light from all eclipse,  
Be yours to bring man nearer unto man.'  
LONGFELLOW.
4. If I am a wild beast, I cannot help it.  
JANE AUSTEN, *Letter*.
5. God bless the narrow seas,  
I wish they were a whole Atlantic broad.  
TENNYSON.
6. 'Mid pleasures and palaces though we may roam,  
Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home.  
J. HOWARD PAYNE, *Home, Sweet Home*.
7. 'Twere long and needless here to tell  
How to my hand these papers fell. SCOTT
8. Southern gales are not for me ;  
Though the glens are white with winter,  
Place me there and set me free. AYTOUN.

## II

1. Make up eight sentences containing examples of the present and the past subjunctive of the verb 'am' used (i) in a subordinate clause without a subordinating conjunction, (ii) in a subordinate clause with a subordinating conjunction, (iii) in a simple sentence, (iv) in a main clause.

2. What is a continuous tense? Write out three continuous tenses (naming them) of the verb 'dance'.

3. Complete the following sentences by putting in parts of the verb 'am'. In each case give your reason.

(1) They spoke as if they — angry (2) — at my house at one o'clock. (3) You talk as if it — a matter of no account. (4) See that the books — ready for me. (5) Though the sea — calm, I should not set sail. (6) Though the sea — calm, I disliked the voyage. (7) To do this — madness. (8) The manuscript — written lately.

## III

Analyse I. B. 2 and 3.

## THE VERBS 'DO' AND 'HAVE' (§§ 235-236).

## I

Parse the parts of 'do' and 'have' in the following sentences, and say whether each forms a compound tense or not:

- A. 1. I do believe that he has truth on his side.  
 2. Do you really think so?  
 3. What I have written I have written.  
 4. He has many books but little understanding.  
 5. The miser had much gold stored in his safe.  
 6. The sailors had stored much corn on their vessel.  
 7. Do try to come early.
- B. 1. I have done the deed. Didst thou not hear a noise?  
SHAKESPEARE.
2. Dost thou so hunger for my empty chair? SHAKESPEARE.
3. What do they know of England  
 Who only England know? KIPLING.
4. Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear  
 In all my misery, but thou hast forced me  
 Out of thine honest truth to play the woman.  
SHAKESPEARE.
5. Whatever he does prospers.
6. I did send to you for gold. SHAKESPEARE.
7. Nought shall make us rue,  
 If England to herself do rest but true.  
SHAKESPEARE.
8. Thou hast spoken  
 As a valiant man and true. AYTOUN.

## II

1. Make up six sentences of your own showing the two uses of 'do' and 'have' (§ 236).  
 2. Write a letter from a prisoner of war asking to be ransomed; introduce various uses of the verbs 'do' and 'have'.

THE DEFECTIVE VERBS 'SHALL', 'WILL', 'MAY', 'CAN'  
(§§ 237-241).

## 1

Parse the defective verbs in the following sentences :

- A. 1. They can who think they can.
2. Gather ye rosebuds while ye may. HERRICK.
3. I have seen you in the fight  
Do all that mortal may. AYTOUN.
4. Justice you shall have. KINGSLEY.
5. Who wills may hear Sordello's story told. BROWNING.
6. Who willed has heard Sordello's story told. BROWNING.
7. He that will not when he may,  
When he will he shall have nay.
- B. 1. Dost thou so hunger for my empty chair  
That thou wilt needs invest thee with mine honours?  
SHAKESPEARE.
2. We have fought such a fight for a day and a night  
As may never be fought again. TENNYSON.
3. By oppression's woes and pains!  
By your sons in servile chains!  
We will drain our dearest veins,  
But they shall be free.  
BURNS, *Bruce's Address before Bannockburn*.
4. He joyed to see the cheerful light  
And he said Ave Mary as well as he might.  
SCOTT.
5. Come what come may,  
Time and the hour run through the roughest day.  
SHAKESPEARE.
6. This England never did nor never shall  
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror,  
But when it first did help to wound itself.  
Come the three corners of the world in arms  
And we shall shock them. SHAKESPEARE.



7. Chance visitors like myself might give what they chose as a freewill offering. I may mention that when I was going away Father Michael refused twenty francs as excessive. I explained the reasoning which led me to offer him so much; but even then from a curious point of honour he would not accept it with his own hand. STEVENSON, *Travels with a Donkey in the Cevennes*.

8. When shall English men  
With such acts fill a pen? DRAYTON.
9. Even our good chaplain as I ween  
Since our last siege I have not seen.  
The mass he might not sing or say  
Upon one stinted meal a day. SCOTT.
10. There will I make thee beds of roses,  
The shepherd swains shall dance and sing  
For thy delight each May morning. MARLOWE.

## II

1. Explain (i) the spelling of 'could', (ii) the absence of 's' in the 3rd singular of the verbs 'shall', 'will', 'may', 'can'.
2. Make up sentences showing the difference in meaning between 'shall' and 'will' in the three persons of the singular and plural.

THE VERBS 'DARE', 'NEED', 'MUST', 'OUGHT' (§§ 242-244).

## I

Parse the verbs in the following sentences :

- A. 1. They dared to follow their leader everywhere.  
2. They dare not do this.  
3. If I must go, I must.  
4. This needs no reply.  
5. He durst not challenge the enemy.  
6. He need not tell us the whole story.  
7. It needed many arguments to convince him.  
8. He must needs forget.
- B. 1. I must praise virtue though in an enemy. MASSINGER.

2. We do not what we ought,  
 What we ought not, we do,  
 And lean upon the thought  
 That Chance will bring us through.  
MATTHEW ARNOLD.
3. I dare do all that may become a man,  
 Who dares do more is none. SHAKESPEARE.
4. Time, I dare thee to discover  
 Such a youth and such a lover. DRYDEN.
5. Britannia needs no bulwarks. CAMPBELL.
6. We need not bid for cloistered cell  
 Our neighbour and our work farewell. KEBLE.
7. You ought to know better.

## II

Write an imaginary conversation between Queen Elizabeth and one of her courtiers, illustrating the uses of 'dare', 'need', 'must', 'ought'.

## VERB-ADJECTIVES AND VERB-NOUNS (§§ 246-251).

## I

In the following find (1) verb-adjectives, (2) verb-nouns :

- A. 1. He wasted much time in telling his story. 2. Hurrying our steps, we soon reached home. 3. By extending the road you will improve the town. 4. He walked to school reading his Greek grammar. 5. So far am I from disagreeing with you that I think you are quite right. 6. Working diligently, we shall finish before night. 7. By working diligently we shall finish before night.
- B. 1. I had an amusing experience some time ago when residing in Staffordshire. One morning three men described as seamen came to my house asking for help. Always interested in sailors, I gladly promised an interview. On seeing them, however, I became convinced that only one of them was a sailor, the others probably chance companions picked up by the way. Asked the name of their vessel, they all replied 'The Elizabeth'. Accordingly, having told the man most resembling a sailor to remain where he was, I asked the others to step away some little distance. Not understanding my intentions, they did so at once. I began my questioning

by asking the seaman what was their Captain's name. 'Jones', he replied. Going to the next and asking the same question, I received the answer 'Captain Brown'. Having heard this, I approached the third, continuing my questioning in the same way. On hearing from him the statement that the Captain's name was Smith, I called the three together, remarking 'A crew sailing in a ship under three Captains deserves to be shipwrecked. You will get nothing from me by begging.'

2. Soon there was a broad streak of orange melting into gold along the mountain tops. A solemn glee possessed my mind at this lovely and gradual coming in of day. I looked round me for something beautiful and not expected; but the still black pine trees, the hollow glades, the munching ass remained unchanged in figure.

R. L. STEVENSON.

## II

Find verb-nouns in the following, and supply equivalent expressions (verb-nouns or nouns):

1. The building of this tower cost much money.
2. To obey is better than sacrifice.
3. Remembering injuries only does harm.
4. To laugh at one's betters is amusing but not wise.
5. Capturing the city was not an easy task.
6. I like to embroider.
7. To refuse this proposal was to achieve greatness.
8. There is no denying it.

### USES OF VERB-ADJECTIVES (§§ 252-259).

#### I

Pick out the verb-adjectives in the following passages. Name the use of each in accordance with the list of constructions in §§ 252-259.

1. Lord Marmion looked. At length his eye  
Unusual movement might descry  
Amid the shifting lines.  
The Scottish host drawn out appears.  
For, flashing on the hedge of spears,  
The Eastern sunbeam shines,  
The front now deepening now extending,  
Now drawing back and now descending.

SCOTT.

2. Year after year unto her feet,  
 She lying on her couch alone,  
 Across the crimson coverlet  
 The maiden's jet-black hair has grown. TENNYSON.

3. When the French came on to the assault, there stood on the grassy mound behind the English fort a figure clothed in sack-cloth—her long black locks streaming in the wind, her long white arms stretched crosswise towards heaven—chanting doom and defiance to the invaders. KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

4. Of old sat Freedom on the heights,  
 The thunders breaking at her feet. TENNYSON.

5. Fragments of her mighty voice  
 Came rolling on the wind. TENNYSON.

6. Let them talk of lakes and mountains, and romantic dales; give me a ramble by night, in the winter nights, in London, the lamps lit, the pavements of the motley Strand crowded with passengers, the shops all brilliant and stuffed with obliging customers and obliged tradesmen. CHARLES LAMB.

## II

Explain, giving examples, how the passive participle came to be used to form part of an active tense.

## III

Make up five sentences of your own containing examples of a verb-adjective used (1) as an epithet, (2) as a predicative adjective said of the subject, (3) as a predicative adjective said of the object; (4) in the nominative absolute construction, (5) in the formation of a perfect tense, active and passive.

## IV

Correct the following sentences:

1. Hoping for an early reply, Yours truly . . .
2. Thanking you in anticipation, Believe me, Yours truly . . .
3. Referring to your last letter, please note my new address.

## V

EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse I. 1 and 3, treating the nominative absolute construction as having a subject and a predicate of its own; see § 259, last four lines.

## USES OF THE INFINITIVE (§§ 260-268).

## I

Pick out the infinitives in the following passages, and state the use of each in accordance with the list of constructions in §§ 261-268.

- A. 1. There are two ways of facing an enemy—the one to stand off and say ‘Try that again and I’ll strike thee’; the other to strike him first and then ‘Try that at all and I’ll strike thee again.’ . . . I go forthwith down the coast to singe the King of Spain’s beard (so I termed it to her Majesty, she laughing), in which if I leave so much as a fishing boat afloat from the Groyne to Cadiz, it will not be with my good will. If he come this year, he shall come by swimming and not sailing.

KINGSLEY, *Letter of Sir Francis Drake in Westward Ho!*

2. For Scotland’s might, for Britain’s right  
We march to win the day.  
WILFRID LORRAINE ANCKORN, *The Hodden Grey*;  
*The Times*, 1914.
3. God gave all men all earth to love.  
KIPLING (on Sussex).
4. How vainly men themselves amaze  
To win the palm, the oak, the bays,  
While all the flowers and trees do close,  
To weave the garland of repose!  
MARVELL, *The Garden*.
5. Bring me pine logs hither,  
Thou and I will see him dine,  
When we bring them thither.  
*King Wenceslas*.
6. Here, in the place of my birth,  
I wait till ’tis time to die,  
To sleep and to take my rest.  
H. D. LOWRY, *Waiting*.
7. They fought to build Britain above the tide  
Of wars and windy fate.  
NEWBOLT, *Minora Sidera*.

3. To live in hearts we leave behind  
Is not to die. CAMPBELL, *Hallowed Ground*.
9. Be it granted me to behold you again in dying,  
Hills of home! R. L. STEVENSON, *Exiled*.
10. Afar in the desert I love to ride.  
T. PRINGLE, *Afar in the Desert*.
11. I sing a song of the West land,  
Though how should a song but fail  
To capture the blue horizons  
That swallow the prairie trail?  
H. H. BASHFORD, *A Song of the Settlement*.
12. He ordered Captain Farmer to chase the foreign foe.  
W. CORY, *Ballad for a Boy*.
13. King Philip had vaunted his claims;  
He had sworn for a year he would sack us;  
With an army of heathenish names  
He was coming to fagot and stack us;  
Like the thieves of the sea he would track us,  
And scatter our ships on the main;  
But we had bold Neptune to back us—  
And where are the galleons of Spain?  
AUSTIN DOBSON, *Ballad of the Armada*.
- B.
1. There is a house to let in this street.
  2. This is a book to read and to remember.
  3. This is a book to be read.
  4. The book was too long to be read.
  5. The verdict was that nobody was to blame.
  6. We imagined him to be a great statesman.
  7. Darwin considered himself to have suffered loss through excluding music and poetry from his life.
  8. *Robinson Crusoe* is sometimes declared to have been the earliest novel.
  9. It was impossible for me to come.
  10. They forbade this play to be acted in the city.
  11. This house has no windows to speak of.
  12. Music is said to be the speech of angels.

13. He had nothing to do.
14. What have you to say to that?
15. Those whom I believed to be friends were really enemies.
16. The report was received and ordered to be entered on the minutes.

## II

1. Make up six sentences of your own containing verb-nouns used (1) as objects, (2) adverbially, (3) adjectivally.
2. Explain the use of 'to' as a sign of the infinitive.
3. EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse I. A. 4 and 12; B. 6, 7, and 12. Treat the accusative with infinitive construction as having a subject and a predicate of its own; see § 267.

## THE GERUND (§§ 269-275).

## I

Pick out the gerunds in the following, and state how each is used in accordance with the list of constructions in §§ 269-275:

1.             The tumult and the shouting dies,  
                  The Captains and the Kings depart.  
  KIPLING, *Recessional*.
2.             And there was mounting in hot haste: the steed,  
                  The mustering squadron, and the clattering car  
                  Went pouring forward with impetuous speed  
                  And swiftly forming in the ranks of war.  
  BYRON, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.
3. Here is my fag. The only things with which I dare trust him are eggs, and then only with a strong warning that he is not fit to lift them out to see how they are getting on, as he is in the habit of doing, though how he thinks he can find out by looking at the shell, thereby running the risk of smashing them, I don't know. He is always burning toast and ruining muffins. The only thing he is fit for is foraging for me while I do the cooking.  
  *A Day at Eton*.
4. Children are able enough to see, but they have no great faculty for looking; they do not use their eyes for the pleasure of using them, but for by-ends of their own; and the things I call to mind seeing most vividly were not beautiful in themselves, but

merely interesting or enviable to me, as I thought they might be turned to practical account in play. Smell and hearing are perhaps more developed; I remember many scents, many voices, and a great deal of spring singing in the woods.

R. L. STEVENSON, *Child's Play*.

5. Let them cease that dismal knelling,  
 It is time enough to ring  
 When the fortress strength of Scotland  
 Stoops to ruin like its King.  
 Let the bells be kept for warning,  
 Not for terror or alarm.

AYTOUN, *Edinburgh after Flodden*.

6. It must not be imagined that a walking tour, as some would have us fancy, is merely a better or worse way of seeing the country.

R. L. STEVENSON, *Walking Tours*.

## II

Make up six sentences of your own containing examples of the various uses of the gerund. Where possible substitute an infinitive or a noun for the gerund.

## III

How would you parse 'swaying' in the following sentences? Give your reasons.

Have you seen the tall trees' swaying?

Have you seen the tall trees swaying?

## IV

Complete the following sentences, treating the forms in *-ing* (1) as participles, (2) as gerunds.

1. We agreed to — setting out at once.
2. The enemy reckoned on — being quickly beaten.
3. I am surprised at — doing this.
4. I insisted on — giving back the papers.
5. What reply did you make to — suggesting such a crime?
6. We attributed the mistake to — speaking so indistinctly.

## V

EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse I. 2; I. 5; I. 6.



## FORMS OF VERBS (§§ 276-281).

## I

Give the principal parts (see p. 89, bottom) of the verbs to which the tenses of the indicative and the verb-adjectives and verb-nouns in the following sentences belong.

- A. 1. The bubble burst quickly. 2. You see what I have written.  
3. The peasants wept as they reaped the corn. 4. The river flows quietly. 5. The bird flew away. 6. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. 7. The general told us to feed and clothe the prisoners. 8. He shoots well.

- B. 1. I heard a thousand blended notes,  
While in a grove I sat reclined.

WORDSWORTH.

2. There's a divinity that shapes our ends,  
Rough-hew them how we will.

SHAKESPEARE.

3. Sir Ralph the Rover tore his hair;  
He cursed himself in his despair;  
The waves rush in on every side,  
The ship is sinking beneath the tide.

SOUTHEY.

4. And now a severe skirmishing took place in which Macbeth fought with the extreme of rage and valour, cutting to pieces all who were opposed to him till he came to where Macduff was fighting. Seeing Macduff, he would have turned, but Macduff, who had been seeking him through the whole fight, opposed his turning, and a fierce contest ensued, Macduff giving him many reproaches for the murder of his wife and children.

LAMB, *Tales from Shakespeare*.

5. At Bastelica a large company attended me in the convent. They came in making an easy bow, placed themselves round the room where I was sitting, rested themselves on their muskets, and immediately entered into conversation with me. As one who finds himself among strangers in a distant country has no timidity, I harangued the men of Bastelica with great fluency.

BOSWELL, *A Tour in Corsica*.

6.           The Abbess was of noble blood,  
              But early took the veil and hood,  
              Ere upon life she cast a look,  
              Or knew the world that she forsook.

SCOTT, *Marmion*.

II

1. Give the principal parts of the following verbs : *cut, bear, beat, knit, drive, live, freeze, grind, kneel, reap, ask, owe, catch, work, thrust, hurt, lose, rend, burn, run, forget, fly, flow, cast, sing, go, make.*

2 EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse I. B. 2 ; I. B. 6.

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# A NEW ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BASED ON THE RECOMMENDATIONS  
OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON  
GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

BY

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ON GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

PART III

(A) STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES AND  
CLAUSES

(B) USES OF FORMS

WITH EXERCISES BY

EDITH ARCHIBALD, M.A. LONDON

HEAD MISTRESS OF THE  
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## PREFACE

THIS Grammar was begun in time of peace; it is issued during the progress of a great war—a time which is not propitious for the consideration of educational reforms. But I would have it regarded in the light of the problem which will face us when peace returns—the problem of national economy. All practical teachers who have given thought to the matter are agreed that the chaotic state of grammar teaching which has so long prevailed, and, in particular, the lack of coherence between English grammar, as ordinarily taught, and the grammars of other languages, involve a great waste of effort. It behoves us, then, as soon as may be, to put our grammatical house in order.

The work of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology has already achieved a considerable measure of success. Its recommendations have been adopted, in whole or in part, in many Grammars published since 1911 both in this country and in the Dominions; and it has been very gratifying to the members of the Committee to learn from Inspectors of Schools that some of the new terms approved in the Report (such as 'future in the past') are now current coin in many schools. But the country has still to draw the full deductions from the premisses which are embodied in that Report. Not till the reform has become universal and has been applied to the teaching of foreign languages as well as English will the problem be completely solved.

It is a mistake to suppose that the selection of a set of grammatical terms is a simple matter. It is not merely a question of choosing one rather than another of a number of non-significant labels, any one of which would serve the purpose equally well. Behind terminology lie concepts; and as to the real nature and relations of some grammatical concepts much disagreement unfortunately exists.<sup>1</sup> Even some of the elementary notions on which the analysis of sentences is based have been differently conceived by different grammarians. On all such points of grammatical theory the well-considered opinion of a Committee of experts ought to

<sup>1</sup> For example, what is a Case? See Preface to Part. II.

carry weight. No doubt the time will come, with the advance of grammatical science, when we shall see some things more clearly than is possible at present. But meanwhile it is well in grammar, as in other matters, to give effect to the best insight of our own time.

The three Parts of this book form three concentric courses ; that is, they have a common centre but a gradually extended circumference. The contents of Part I ought to be mastered before any foreign language is studied grammatically ; the study of Parts II and III ought to go on side by side with the study of the grammars of other languages, in which, of course, the terms employed should be consistent and, so far as possible, identical with those employed to describe the corresponding features of the mother tongue. If this method is pursued, teachers of foreign languages will find that a mind comes out to meet them at every point of their work. It is often said that English grammar is best learned through Latin grammar. But the advantage which Latin possesses as an introduction to general grammar owing to its wealth of forms is more than counterbalanced by the fact that it is, to the beginner, an unknown tongue. The first grammatical notions should, surely, be imbibed in connexion with the mother tongue. And the present work shows how English grammar, properly understood, may be made the basis on which the study of Latin grammar and of the grammars of other foreign languages may be erected.

The terms selected by the Committee for use in English grammar were expressly designed for use also in teaching the grammars of Latin, Greek, French, and German. The principle that the same terms should be used in all these cognate languages hardly needs defence ; but I may appeal to the fact that in France pupils are habitually taught English and German on the basis of French terminology. This principle is so obviously sound that one can only wonder that it has not been more extensively applied in this country. The reason is, no doubt, that whereas in France the teaching of English and German is mostly in the hands of Frenchmen, in England French and German were, until recently, generally taught by foreigners. There has also been a tendency among English grammarians to exaggerate the differences which separate English from its kin, and to minimize the features which it shares with them. It has been my aim, on the contrary, to bring out in full relief the features which

English shares with the other members of the Indo-European family, and at the same time to recognize the fact that in modern English a large part of the work done by cases, tenses, and moods in more highly inflected languages is done by compound expressions which serve as substitutes for inflected forms. Wherever there is a real difference between English and other languages of our family, the difference is explicitly recognized: e.g. by abolishing the term 'gender' as applied to Modern English. Where differences exist amid unity, the relation of English to other languages is indicated by the use of a *partially* coincident term: e.g. by the terms '*nominative* absolute' in English (as compared with '*ablative* absolute in Latin', '*genitive* absolute' in Greek, '*accusative* absolute' in German) and '*present* perfect' in English (as compared with 'perfect' in Latin, French, and German; the Greek perfect being a *present* perfect).

Much attention has been given to the English subjunctive. The general range of usage of that mood in Old English was the same as in Latin and German; and its functions survive to a great extent in English of the present day, though most of the old distinctions of form have disappeared. Here, as in the matter of cases, everything depends on getting at a proper definition of the term 'mood'. It must not be taken to involve a difference of inflexion. Such a definition would make havoc of the moods of any language.<sup>1</sup> The English subjunctive, properly understood, is an admirable clue to the uses of the mood in other languages. For example, the pupil who has mastered conditional sentences in English need only be told, when he comes to Latin or German, that these languages employ the same moods (and for the most part the same tenses also) as are employed in English.<sup>2</sup> Similarly in regard to the cases: the pupil who has mastered the uses of the English cases, as set forth in Part II (§§ 164-180), will have little new to learn when he comes to Latin,<sup>3</sup> except that Latin has an extra case—the ablative.

It is the duty of a grammarian of English, if he writes for

<sup>1</sup> For example, the Latin *regam* and *rexerit* and the German *liebte* may be either indicative or subjunctive; and the Latin forms in *-ere* may be either imperative or indicative or infinitive. 'Mood' is defined in Part II, § 210.

<sup>2</sup> See below, § 350 and notes on p. 37.

<sup>3</sup> See *Latin Grammar* §§ 368-427, and compare *French Grammar*, §§ 368-430.

the use of schools, to maintain a high standard of English speech, and to sit in judgement on 'English as she is spoke', in so far as the usages of the man in the street are at variance with those recognized by educated practice. Even great writers are not immune from occasional errors. But to treat all the varieties of speech as standing on a footing of equality would be an abdication on the part of a School Grammar. At the same time the grammarian is bound to recognize as correct all uses that have established themselves in educated speech, even though they may be difficult to justify from the point of view of grammatical theory. It is also part of the function of a School Grammar to offer to the pupil for imitation a selection of passages from literature which represent the best usage of his time; and it is hoped that the Exercises to this Grammar will be found to come up to this requirement. Many of the passages selected are taken from writers of the past; but the usages which these quotations represent belong equally to the present. For this is a Grammar of English as it is written and spoken by the educated at the present day. It may be added that in the opinion of so competent an observer as Dr. Henry Bradley the grammar of English is not likely to undergo any great changes in the future.<sup>1</sup> Be that as it may, it was my ambition in writing this book that it should be to the pupils who learn from it a 'well of English undefiled', and that it should inspire in them a loving pride in the great tradition of English speech, which is their inheritance, and a hatred of the tendencies which make for its abasement.

My best thanks are due to my colleagues Professor E. de Sélincourt, Mr. C. D. Chambers, and Dr. M. Macmillan, and to three other Birmingham friends, Mr. H. J. R. Murray, Mr. J. A. McMichael, and Dr. Rendel Harris, for their kindness in reading the proofs of Parts II and III; also to Professor Hugh Walker of Lampeter. To Mr. John Robertson of West Brunswick, Melbourne, Victoria, I am indebted for some suggestive letters on the uses of 'should' and 'would'.

My obligations to books are too numerous to be recorded; but I should like to mention that I have taken some of my examples from books published abroad, such as the *Modern English Syntaxes* of Professor Jespersen and Dr. G. Wendt.

E. A. S.

<sup>1</sup> *The Making of English*, 1904, pp. 78 ff.

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## (A) STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES AND CLAUSES

### THE FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCE.

282 Sentences are of the following kinds :

#### 1. Statements :

Hamelin Town is in Brunswick.

The Piper did not live at Hamelin.

#### 2. Questions :

(a) Questions which may be answered with 'Yes' or 'No':

Is Hamelin Town in Brunswick ?

Did the Piper live at Hamelin ?

Did not the Piper live somewhere else ?

You threaten us, fellow? (*P. P.* 189. This question differs from a statement only in the tone of the voice.)

(b) Questions which cannot be answered with 'Yes' or 'No'. These questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns, interrogative adjectives, or interrogative adverbs:

Who said so ?

What music is this ?

Where did the Piper live ?

How many children were living at Hamelin ?

3. Desires (including Commands, Requests, Entreaties, and Wishes):

Come in.

Rouse up, sirs.

O rats, rejoice.

Never surrender. Every man die at his post.

TENNYSON, *Defence of Lucknow.*

COMMANDS.

Let us keep our promise. REQUEST.

Forgive me. ENTREATY.

God save the King.

Long may he reign.

O King, live for ever.

} WISHES.

4. Exclamations, introduced by exclamatory pronouns, adjectives or adverbs :

What I have suffered !

What impudence this is !

How they run !

Obs. A note of admiration (!) is often used after other kinds of sentence than these : there are many examples in the *Pied Piper*. But the term 'exclamation' is limited in grammar to sentences introduced by an exclamatory word.

Order of words in questions, desires, and exclamations.

283 (1) In questions the order of the subject and the verb is inverted (that is, the subject is placed after the verb), except when the subject, or part of the subject, is an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, as in 'Who said so?', 'What music is sounding here?', 'How many people live here?'. The reason for this exception is that all interrogative words have to stand at the beginning of the sentence.

When the tense of the verb is compound, the verbal part of the compound is placed before the subject and the rest of the compound follows it. Thus we say '*Is the man going?*', '*Has he gone?*', '*Did he go?*', '*Will he go?*'. Questions formed with compound tenses have, therefore, only partial inversion of order.

(2) In desires and exclamations the order of the subject and the verb is sometimes inverted, or partially inverted, as in '*Rule Britannia*', '*Long live the King*', '*What a good boy am I!*', '*How happy could I be with either!*', '*How are the mighty fallen!*'.

## Moods in statements, questions, desires, and exclamations.

284 (1) Statements of fact and questions and exclamations as to a matter of fact take the indicative mood ; see the examples in § 282 (1, 2, 4). But when a statement or a question or an exclamation speaks of what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions, it takes the subjunctive mood (past or past perfect tense) or more commonly an equivalent of the subjunctive :

It *were* (*would be*) a pity to waste the money.

*Were* it not (*Would* it not *be*) well to save the money ?

What a shame it *would be* to throw the money away !

It *had been* (*would have been*) well to be silent.

Who *had believed* (*would have believed*) it ?

How we *should have laughed* !

Note that the subjunctive-equivalent in this construction has 'should' in the 1st person, 'would' in the 2nd and 3rd persons. [For other examples of the subjunctive, see § 435.]

(2) Desires take the imperative or the subjunctive mood, or an equivalent of one of these moods. The tense of the subjunctive generally used in desires is the present :

Clear *be* the sky o'erhead,

Light *be* the landing :

Not till the mark is sped

*Be* your disbanding.

C. W. BRODRIBB,

*Expeditional* (*The Times*).

See other examples in § 282. 3.

But the past and the past perfect subjunctive are used in wishing that something were or had been otherwise than it actually is or was :

Oh, *were* I there !

Oh, *had* we some bright little isle of our own !

THOMAS MOORE.

*Had* I but *been* there !

285 The above classification of sentences (§ 282) applies not only to simple sentences but also to **complex sentences**. Whether a complex sentence is a statement or a question or a desire or an exclamation is shown by the **main clause** :

1. Statements :

(a) Of fact :

*There came into many a burgher's pate  
A text which says that Heaven's Gate  
Opes to the rich at as easy rate  
As the needle's eye takes a camel in.*

(b) Of what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions (compare § 284. 1) :

*If the laws were in good order, all were well with us ;  
the rest would care for itself.  
Had Shakespeare died in his eighteenth year, the  
world had never heard of his existence.*

2. Questions :

(a) As to a matter of fact :

*If I can rid your town of rats,  
Will you give me a thousand guilders ?*

(b) As to what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions :

*Were it not well, if some of our friends held the same  
opinion ? KINGSLEY.*

*Who would have thought it possible, if it had not  
actually happened ?*

3. Desires :

*If we've promised them aught, let us keep our promise.  
Don't think that I'll bate a stiver.  
Had I but known then what I know now !*

## 4. Exclamations :

(a) As to a matter of fact :

*How the Mayor was on the rack,  
As the Piper turned from the High Street  
To where the Weser rolled its waters !*

(b) As to what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions :

*What a difference it would make to our happiness,  
if we did not allow ourselves to be troubled by  
little things !*

Had we known this fact some twenty years ago,  
*how many calamities and sorrows had been spared !*

R. L. STEVENSON.

## THE THREE KINDS OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.

286 Subordinate clauses are of three kinds—noun-clauses, adjective-clauses, and adverb-clauses.<sup>1</sup>

## I. NOUN-CLAUSES.

287 Noun-clauses are so called because they play the part of a noun in a complex sentence. Thus they may be used—  
either (a) as the subject :

*That the offer of 1,000 guilders was not binding* was asserted by the Mayor.

or (b) as the object :

The Mayor asserted *that the offer of 1,000 guilders was not binding.*

<sup>1</sup> Subordinate clauses have already been studied in Part I, §§ 43-50 and § 67. In what follows below (§§ 287-366) a knowledge of Part I is assumed, and the pupil's attention is directed to further points in the structure of subordinate clauses, especially to the uses of moods and to equivalent constructions. The chief uses of the subjunctive and the infinitive have already been indicated in Part II, §§ 214-219, 228-234, and 261-268.

or (c) predicatively :

The Mayor's assertion was *that the offer of 1,000 guilders was not binding*.

or (d) in apposition to a noun or pronoun :

The Mayor's assertion *that the offer of 1,000 guilders was not binding* was untrue.

The Mayor asserted this, *that the offer of 1,000 guilders was not binding*.

Nouns may be used in other ways, but noun-clauses only in these four ways.

It is very convenient to have a common name ('noun-clause') to describe the subordinate clauses in these four uses ; for it makes no difference to the structure of the clause in which of the four ways it is used.

**288** The best way to understand the nature of noun-clauses is to consider how they come into existence. All noun-clauses are the dependent forms of simple sentences ; that is to say, they are formed out of simple sentences by making them depend on a verb of a particular kind (for example, a verb of 'knowing' or 'saying') or on a noun which is formed from a verb of this kind or on a pronoun used as a substitute for such a noun. In the examples given above, the noun-clause is formed out of a statement ('The offer of 1,000 guilders was not binding') and it depends on a verb of 'saying' or on the noun 'assertion' or on the pronoun 'this' (= this assertion). Let us now form the noun-clause out of a question ('Who had made the promise?') and make it depend on the verb 'ask' and the noun 'question' : we then get sentences like '*Who had made the promise* was not asked', 'No one asked *who had made the promise*', 'They all knew the answer to the question *who had made the promise*'.

**289** Any simple sentence, whether a statement or a question or a desire or an exclamation, may be made dependent :

Simple sentences :	Complex sentences contain- ing dependent clauses :
1. Hamelin is in Brunswick. (Statement.)	Browning says <i>that Hamelin is in Brunswick.</i>
2. (a) Did the Piper ever return to Hamelin? (Question.)	I wonder <i>whether the Piper ever returned to Hamelin.</i>
(b) How many children were living at Hamelin? (Question.)	I ask you <i>how many children were living at Hamelin.</i>
3. Let promises be kept. (Desire.)	I advise <i>that promises be kept.</i>
4. How they run! (Exclamation.)	See <i>how they run.</i>

#### THE FOUR KINDS OF NOUN-CLAUSE.

290 Thus there are four kinds of noun-clause, corresponding to the four kinds of simple sentence, enumerated in § 282; and they are called by the names of the simple sentences out of which they are formed :

1. A noun-clause formed out of a statement is called a **dependent statement**.
2. A noun-clause formed out of a question is called a **dependent question**.
3. A noun-clause formed out of a desire is called a **dependent desire**.
4. A noun-clause formed out of an exclamation is called a **dependent exclamation**.

These four are the only kinds of noun-clause. But there are some constructions which are easily confused with noun-clauses. See §§ 292, 293, 305-309.

291 In the above examples (§ 289) some of the noun-clauses differ from the corresponding simple sentences in certain respects: in 1 and 3 the noun-clause is introduced by the

subordinating conjunction 'that', and in 2 (a) by the interrogative sentence-adverb 'whether'; in 2 (a) the noun-clause has the simple form of the past tense 'returned', whereas the simple sentence has the compound form 'did return', and the noun-clause has no inverted order of words, whereas the simple sentence has partial inversion (§ 283); in 3 the noun-clause has the subjunctive 'be kept' instead of the equivalent expression 'let . . . be kept'. But in 2 (b) and 4 the noun-clause has exactly the same form as the corresponding simple sentence.

292 In sentences like the following there is no noun-clause :

The dead, I think, cannot come to life.

His fingers, they noticed, were ever straying.

This is a thing which, it is hoped, will never happen.

For here 'I think', 'they noticed', 'it is hoped' are thrown in parenthetically, and are to be regarded as separate sentences.

It is sometimes difficult to say whether we have a sentence containing a parenthetical sentence or a complex sentence containing a noun-clause. For example :

There was danger ahead, he said.

If we substitute 'so he said' for 'he said', these words are clearly parenthetical. But, as the sentence stands, 'there was danger ahead' may be regarded as a noun-clause depending on 'he said'. In cases of doubt it does not matter which analysis is adopted.

293 A quoted sentence may be used as subject or object or predicatively or in apposition to a noun or pronoun :

They cried out 'Our Mayor is a noddy'.

Their exclamation was 'It is shocking'.

But quotations are not made part of the structure of the sentence in which they stand: this is shown in writing by putting them within inverted commas. They are like flies in amber: they are *in* the sentence but not *of* it. Thus in a sentence like *I did not say 'he' but 'she'* the quoted words are objects, but they do not stand in the accusative case; or



again in the sentence *The accusative of 'he' is 'him'*, if the quoted words were amalgamated with the sentence, we should get *The accusative of him is he*. Similarly a quoted sentence is not a noun-clause. Unlike a noun-clause, it is complete in itself; and the sentence in which it stands is not a complex sentence.

294 But a quoted sentence may be turned into a noun-clause by making certain changes in it; for example, the above sentences would become 'They cried out *that their Mayor was a noddy*', 'Their exclamation was *that it was shocking*'. These and other changes will be considered under Reported Speech.

295 Noun-clauses generally depend on verbs, and it has already been pointed out (§ 288) that the verbs on which they depend are verbs of a particular kind. Some of them denote an activity of the mind, such as 'perceiving', 'knowing', 'feeling', 'desiring'; others denote the expression of some thought or feeling, such as 'saying', 'asking', 'bidding', 'permitting'. In sentences like 'It is certain (It seems) that he will come', 'It is doubtful whether he will come', 'It is desirable (It is right, It is wrong) that he should come', the verb 'is' with an adjective is similar in meaning to one or other of the verbs mentioned above. Noun-clauses may also depend on verbs of 'happening' and the like: 'It happened that there was a full moon', 'It is a fact that there was a full moon', 'Whether I shall see the full moon depends on circumstances'.

296 In order to discover whether a noun-clause is a dependent statement or a dependent question or a dependent desire or a dependent exclamation, consider whether the simple sentence out of which it is formed is a statement, a question, a desire, or an exclamation.

The nature of the noun-clause cannot be discovered by looking at the main clause or the verb of the main clause, for the following reasons:

- (1) The main clause need not be of the same kind as the noun-clause. For example, the dependent statement 'that Hamelin is in Brunswick' may depend upon a

statement ('Browning says') or upon a question ('Who says?') or upon a desire ('Be it known to all') or upon an exclamation ('How often I have heard!').

- (2) The same kind of verb may take different kinds of noun-clause. For example, a verb of 'telling' may take either a dependent statement, as in 'Tell him *that he will be late*', or a dependent question, as in 'Tell him *what o'clock it is*', or a dependent desire, as in 'Tell him *that he should hurry up*', or a dependent exclamation, as in 'Tell him *how disappointed we shall be*'.

### General use of moods in noun-clauses.

- 297 The moods used in noun-clauses are generally the same as in the corresponding simple sentences (see § 284), except that the imperative cannot be used in a noun-clause.<sup>1</sup>

Examples:

- (a) With the indicative, denoting fact:

Browning says that Hamelin *is* in Brunswick.

See other examples in § 287.

- (b) With the past or the past perfect subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent, denoting what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions:

We think that it *were (would be)* a pity to waste the money.

I don't know whether it *were (would be)* well to spend so much.

They reflected what a shame it *would have been* to do otherwise.

- (c) With the present or the past or the past perfect subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent, denoting desire:

I advise that promises *be kept* (present subjunctive).

I wish I *were* (past subjunctive) a mile hence.

I would that I *had been* (past perf. subj.) there.

<sup>1</sup> This general statement is supplemented by further remarks under the several kinds of noun-clause; for example, in § 299.

## Structure of dependent statements (§ 290).

298 Dependent statements are generally introduced by the subordinating conjunction 'that'; but this conjunction is not necessary:

I believe *that he is guilty*. I believe *he is guilty*.

'Tis clear *our Mayor's a noddy*.

I thought [*that*] *he was guilty*.

It was hoped [*that*] *he would be proved innocent*.

Obs. The conjunction 'that' is only the pronoun 'that' used in a particular way. 'I believe that he is guilty' is a modification of 'I believe that: he is guilty'.

299 The subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent has four uses in dependent statements:

(1) It may denote what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions. See § 297 (b), and contrast the last example in § 298, where 'would be proved' is a future in the past of the indicative.

(2) It may denote what *should be* (*ought to be, is to be*; § 416):

It is right that he *be punished* (*should be punished*).

It is necessary that he *act* (*should act*) at once.

It is better that he *die* (*should die*).

'Tis time that I *were gone*. TENNYSON.

(3) In dependence on verbs of 'fearing' and equivalent expressions 'that' with the indicative is sometimes replaced by 'lest' with the subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent: 'I fear *lest he prove* (*may prove*) *guilty*', 'There is a danger *lest he should fail*'. The word 'lest' had originally a negative meaning, and its use after verbs of 'fearing' is similar to the use of a negative in the corresponding clauses of French and Latin.<sup>1</sup> [For the origin of this use of the subjunctive, see § 426.]

<sup>1</sup> See French Grammar, § 333; Latin Grammar, § 332.

(4) In dependence on verbs of 'rejoicing', 'grieving', 'wondering' and the like the indicative is sometimes replaced by 'should' with the infinitive: 'I am glad that he *should be* here', 'They were angry that the enemy *should be* able to face them', 'This I wonder at, that he *should be* in debt', 'It is a pity that you *should think* evil of us'. [For the origin of this use of 'should', see § 475.]

300 Instead of a *that*-clause an equivalent construction with the infinitive may be used (Part II, § 267):

I believe *him to be guilty*.

He avowed *himself to be Wilfred of Ivanhoe*. SCOTT.

This is called the construction of the **accusative with the infinitive**. The accusative goes with the infinitive to form the equivalent of a noun-clause. Thus the accusative may be spoken of as the subject of the infinitive.

Obs. This construction is very common in Latin, and it is also found in French. But the English accusative with the infinitive is not necessarily an imitation of the Latin or the French construction. It is found in Old English, and was probably a native English construction which sprang up in English just as it did in Latin. In modern English its use is limited; for it is used only in dependence on certain verbs. We may say 'They *believed (knew, thought, declared, reported, proved, showed)* him to be guilty', but not 'They *said (hoped)* him to be guilty'.

301 In the passive form of this construction the infinitive is retained; thus 'I believe *him to be guilty*' becomes in the passive form '*He is believed by me to be guilty*'. The accusative 'him' has become the nominative 'he'; and the infinitive 'to be' is a retained object, like the accusative in 'He was awarded *the prize*' (passive form of 'They awarded him *the prize*'; Part II, § 176). For in the construction of the accusative with the infinitive the infinitive was originally an object (see Part II, § 267).

The infinitive after the verbs 'seem' and 'appear' may be

explained as follows. 'I seem' is similar in meaning to the passive 'I am thought'; thus just as we say 'He *is thought* to be guilty', so we say 'He *seems* to be guilty'. Constructions are often extended in this way.

### Structure of dependent questions (§ 290).

302 Questions which are introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb (§ 282. 2 *b*) require no other word to introduce them when they are made into dependent questions:

What is best to rid us of our vermin?	They can't or won't determine <i>what is best to rid us of our vermin.</i>
What music is this?	I ask you <i>what music this is.</i>
Where is Hamelin?	Tell me <i>where Hamelin is.</i>
How or why did it happen?	<i>How or why it happened</i> they don't understand.

But questions which are not introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb (§ 282. 2 *a*) require the addition of an interrogative sentence-adverb ('whether' or 'if') when they are made into dependent questions:

Is Hamelin in Brunswick?	I ask you <i>whether Hamelin is in Brunswick.</i>
Did I say 'all'?	Tell me <i>if I said 'all'.</i>

Obs. The word 'whether' was originally an interrogative pronoun, meaning 'which of the two?', as in 'Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?' (ST. MATTHEW xxiii. 17); but it came to be used as a sentence-adverb, to mark the sentence as a question (Part II, § 138). It could be used in Old English to introduce non-dependent as well as dependent questions.

303 In double dependent questions 'whether' is sometimes

followed by 'or whether', but the second clause is generally shortened:

I do not know *whether* the Master be<sup>1</sup> a stranger to London *or whether* he is a man of odd notions.

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I don't know *whether* he is a stranger *or* a man of odd notions.

I don't know *whether* he is a stranger *or whether* he is not.

I don't know *whether* he is a stranger *or* not (no).

**304** Differences between dependent and non-dependent questions.—(a) The inverted order, which is used in most non-dependent questions (§ 283), is rarely employed in dependent questions. Thus dependent questions generally have the same order of words as dependent statements. See the examples in §§ 302, 303, and compare § 298.

(b) The compound forms with 'do' and 'did' (Part II, § 205), which are used in non-dependent questions, are replaced by simple forms of the present and the past tense when the question becomes dependent. See examples 4 and 6 in § 302.

**305** Differences between dependent questions and clauses which resemble them in form.—Dependent questions must be carefully distinguished from adjective-clauses introduced by a relative pronoun without an antecedent and from adverb-clauses introduced by a subordinating conjunction ('if' or 'whether').

**306** (i) In analysing adjective-clauses introduced by a relative

<sup>1</sup> This 'be' may be a form of the indicative; see Part II, § 225, Obs. But it may be a subjunctive used without any clear difference of meaning from an indicative. Such subjunctives are not unknown in dependent questions, though they are not common: 'Airy, fairy Lilian, when I ask her if she *love* me, claps her tiny hands above me. She'll not tell me if she *love* me, cruel little Lilian' (TENNYSON). Similarly we sometimes find 'I wondered whether it *were* (= was) true'. Such subjunctives (common in Old English) are entirely different from those mentioned in § 297. Cp. § 440

pronoun without an antecedent, an antecedent must be supplied (Part II, §§ 93, 94); for example, 'Who breaks pays' means 'He who breaks pays'. The subject of the main verb 'pays' is not the clause 'who breaks' but the antecedent 'he', which is understood. The clause 'who breaks' is, therefore, an adjective-clause, qualifying the subject 'he'. But in a sentence like 'I ask who broke it' it is impossible to supply an antecedent to 'who'. Here the object of the verb 'ask' is the clause 'who broke it'. In this clause 'who' is an interrogative pronoun and the clause which it introduces is a dependent question, not an adjective-clause. Similarly, clauses introduced by 'what' may be either adjective-clauses with the antecedent understood, as in 'What I have promised I will perform' (= What I have promised, *that* I will perform), 'Give me what you have bought' (= What you have bought, *that* give me, or Give me *that* which you have bought), or they may be dependent questions, as in 'I know what you have bought', 'Tell me what you have bought'. Here it would be impossible to supply an antecedent to 'what', because it is an interrogative pronoun introducing a dependent question. The object of the verbs 'know' and 'tell' is the whole subordinate clause.

307 When a dependent question depends on a verb of 'asking', we may supply the words 'the question' before it: for 'I ask who broke it' means 'I ask *the question* Who broke it?'. When the dependent question depends on a verb of 'knowing' or 'telling', we may supply 'the answer to the question': 'Tell me what you have bought' means 'Tell me *the answer to the question* What have you bought?'; in 'They wrote the story on a column to make the world acquainted how their children were stolen away' (*P. P.* 284-7) we may supply before the dependent question the words 'with the answer to the question'. But it would make nonsense to supply these or any similar words before an adjective-clause, for example in 'Who breaks pays', 'Whom the gods love die young', 'Give me what you have bought'.

- 308 **Test.** A good test as to whether a clause beginning with 'who', 'whose', 'whom' or 'what' is an adjective-clause or a dependent question is to try whether (a) an antecedent pronoun or (b) the words 'the question' or 'the answer to the question' can be supplied before the clause. It is not a good test to ask whether the clause is equivalent to a noun or not; for an adjective-clause *taken together with its antecedent* is equivalent to a noun: 'he who breaks' = the breaker, 'what you have bought' = the things bought by you.
- 309 (2) When the words 'whether' and 'if' introduce dependent questions they are interrogative sentence-adverbs (§ 302, Obs.); but when they introduce adverb-clauses they are subordinating conjunctions. The test to apply is to try whether the words 'the question' or 'the answer to the question' can be supplied before the clause; if they can, the clause is a dependent question; if not, it is an adverb-clause. Contrast the following sentences:

Tell me *whether you are going to call in a doctor or not*.  
(dependent question, object of 'tell')

*Whether you call in a doctor or not*, you will not recover.  
(adverb-clause, qualifying the main clause)

I ask you *whether (or if) you are going to call in a doctor*.  
(dependent question, object of 'ask')

*If you call in a doctor*, there is a chance of your recovering.  
(adverb-clause, qualifying the main clause)

Similarly the words 'when' and 'where' may be either interrogative adverbs, introducing questions (dependent or non-dependent) or subordinating conjunctions. In the following sentence 'when' may be either the one or the other:

Please tell me *when* you start.

OBS. When this sentence is *spoken*, the meaning is indicated by the stress of the voice; as an interrogative adverb 'when' is stressed, as a subordinating conjunction it is not stressed.

- 310 Note that dependent questions are never introduced by



a subordinating conjunction, but always by some interrogative word (pronoun, adjective, adverb, or sentence-adverb).

- 311 Dependent questions which speak of what *is to be done*, especially when they depend on verbs of 'knowing', 'telling', 'teaching', 'learning', are often shortened by the omission of the subject and a tense of the verb 'am':

I don't know *what to do* (= what I am to do).

They told me *what to do* (= what I was to do).

I taught him *how to swim* (= how he was to swim).

We are learning *how to swim* (= how we are to swim).

Similarly non-dependent questions are sometimes shortened: 'How to swim? That was the question.'

### Structure of dependent desires (§ 290).

- 312 Dependent desires, like dependent statements, are generally introduced by the subordinating conjunction 'that'; but the conjunction is not necessary:

Tell him  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{that he is to come at once.} \\ \textit{he is to come at once.} \end{array} \right.$

- 313 The idea of desire in the dependent clause is expressed either by the subjunctive mood or by an equivalent of the subjunctive ('shall', 'may', or 'am to' with the infinitive):

The order is that every man *die* (*shall die, is to die*) at his post. [Compare § 282. 3.]

We earnestly desire that peace *be not broken* (*may not be broken*).

It is requested that each candidate *write* (*shall write, may write*) legibly.

The people of Hamelin made a decree that lawyers *should date* their records from the year 1376. *P. P.* l. 270.

God grant he *prevail* (*may prevail*).

It is much to be desired that pupils *be taught* the truth from the beginning.

It were much to be desired that pupils *were* so *taught*.

This commandment have we from him, that he who loveth  
God *love* his brother also. (1ST EPISTLE OF ST. JOHN  
iv. 21. One translation has 'must love' for 'love'.)

I wish I *were* a mile hence. I wish I *had been* there.

- 314 A construction with the infinitive is a very common substitute for a *that*-clause, with the subjunctive :

I command you *to do* your duty.

Nor suffered they hostelry or tavern

*To shock* with mirth a street so solemn.

The first object may generally be taken with the infinitive so as to form the equivalent of a clause (§ 300): 'Order *the ships to be launched*'. In the following example the accusative with the infinitive may be regarded either as a dependent desire or as a dependent statement, according as the infinitive is understood to express desire or not :

England expects *every man to do his duty* (= either 'that every man *shall do* his duty' or 'that every man *will do* his duty'). SOUTHEY, *Life of Nelson*.

- 315 The indicative mood is sometimes found in dependent desires, chiefly in dependence on verbs meaning 'take care': 'Mind (Take care) *that you are not caught*'. Here the idea of desire is not clearly expressed; the indicative (the mood of fact) is used with the meaning of the subjunctive.

### Structure of dependent exclamations (§ 290).

- 316 Dependent exclamations have nearly always the same form as the corresponding non-dependent exclamations: they are introduced by the same exclamatory words (pronoun, adjective, or adverb), the mood is the same, and the order of words is generally the same :

How they run!

See *how they run*.

What he has suffered!

Think *what he has suffered*.

- What confidence they have in him !      It is strange *what confidence they have in him.*
- What a pleasure it would be to see him !      We all know *what a pleasure it would be to see him.*

II. ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES (§ 286).<sup>1</sup>

317 The relative pronoun is sometimes not expressed but only understood in adjective-clauses. In most instances the pronoun, if it were expressed, would be in the accusative case (see Part II, § 167 Obs. 1); but in some instances it would be in the nominative case :

There's not a man in England *could do it.*  
Let us try to become all *we can be.*

318 Similarly a relative adverb is sometimes understood in an adjective-clause :

At the time *these words were written*, we were abroad.  
The reason *I wrote* was that I was anxious.

319 The relative pronoun sometimes refers to an antecedent which is implied in a possessive adjective :

Reflect one moment on *his* truth  
*Who*, dying, thus persists to love thee.

MATTHEW PRIOR, *Answer to Chloe.*

(‘his’ = of him.)

320 The word ‘but’ is sometimes equivalent to a relative pronoun followed by ‘not’ :

There is not a man in the country *but* thought so (= *who* did *not* think so).

321 Two adjective-clauses may be connected by a co-ordinating conjunction (‘and’, ‘or’, ‘but’) :

Any man who possesses intelligence *and* who will take trouble can make his fortune.

<sup>1</sup> A knowledge of Part I, §§ 45-50, §§ 66, 67, and of Part II, §§ 90-96, §§ 115-117, §§ 130-134, is here assumed.

But it is an error to connect an adjective-clause with a preceding adjective by a co-ordinating conjunction, as in 'Any man possessing intelligence *and* who will take trouble can make a fortune'. This sentence would be still worse if we substituted 'intelligent man' for 'man possessing intelligence'.

- 322 'And' followed by a possessive adjective is sometimes substituted for 'and whose':<sup>1</sup>

He asked me about the various professors, with whom  
*and their* proficiency he seemed well acquainted.

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- 323 The accusative or the genitive or the dative of a relative pronoun may belong to a clause which is subordinate not to the clause containing the antecedent but to some other clause:

This is the person *whom* I think *that she saw in York*.

This is the person *whose father* I think *that she saw*.

This is the person *whom* I think *that she is most like*.

In each of these sentences the clause printed in italics is subordinate to the clause 'I think', and these two clauses taken together are adjectival to the antecedent 'person'.<sup>2</sup> By substituting a relative pronoun for a personal pronoun or a possessive adjective we are thus enabled to attach a complex sentence to an antecedent. For example, in the first sentence above the adjectival group comes from the complex sentence 'I think that she saw him in York'.

- 324 But it would be impossible to substitute the nominative 'who' for the subject 'she' in this sentence; we could not say 'This is the lady *who* I think that saw him in York' or 'This is the lady that *who* saw him in York I think'. We

<sup>1</sup> The similar construction with a personal pronoun for a relative pronoun is old-fashioned. 'One Almighty is, from whom all things proceed and up to *Him* return' (MILTON, *P. L.* v. 470).

<sup>2</sup> In analysis these two clauses must be taken together as a *complex adjective-clause*, subordinate to the clause which contains the antecedent ('This is the person'). The complex adjective-clause may be further analysed into two clauses (1. 'I think'; 2. 'that she saw whom in York').

might say 'This is the lady who, I think, saw him in York', but then 'I think' would be parenthetical; see § 328.

325 The following examples with conjunctions other than 'that' are grammatically correct; but such sentences are clumsy:

This is a thing *which if he doesn't do* I'll disown him.

This is a country *in which when you live* you get ill.

There are some torrents *to whose progress though you oppose an obstacle* they break through.

326 Observe that in all the above examples (§§ 323, 325) the subordinating conjunction *follows* the relative pronoun. But it is impossible to use this order of words when the subordinating conjunction is 'than' or 'as'. For example, when we want to attach the complex sentence 'I respect no one more than him [=than I respect him]' to an antecedent, we cannot say 'He is a person *whom* I respect no one more *than*'. We have to put the word 'than' *before* the relative pronoun: 'He is a person *than whom* I respect no one more'. But a subordinating conjunction cannot stand immediately before a relative pronoun: we cannot say 'This is a thing *if which* he doesn't do I'll disown him' (§ 325), 'He is a person *because whom* I love I must punish him'. Therefore when 'than' stands before the relative pronoun, it has to be treated as if it were a preposition (= in comparison with), and the relative pronoun has to stand in the accusative case, even when it is not an object:

He is a person *than whom* no one is a better judge.

. . . Howard, *than whom* knight

Was never dubbed more bold in fight. SCOTT.

327 Note that the nominative *who*, which seems at first sight to be the case required (compare §§ 362-3), would be wrong; for if we were to supply a verb ('than who *is*'), we should have a subordinating conjunction standing immediately before a relative pronoun.<sup>1</sup> Similarly 'He is a person *as who* I am not so rich' would be wrong.

<sup>1</sup> In Latin and Greek the corresponding construction has neither a con-

- 328 Adjective-clauses, like sentences (§ 292), may contain within them parenthetical sentences, which might be put in brackets :

This is the man *who*, *I believe*, was in London.

This is the man *whom*, *rumour says*, they put in prison.

The construction of the adjective-clause is quite independent of that of the parenthetical sentence. Thus sentences like the following are badly constructed : ' This is the man *whom* I believe was in London ', ' This is the man *whom* you say shot the dog ' : for the relative pronoun is not the object of the verbs ' believe ' and ' say ', but the subject of the verbs ' was ' and ' shot ', and should therefore be in the nominative case. We might say ' *whom* I believe *to have been* in London ' ; but here ' I believe ' is not parenthetical, but takes as its object the accusative with the infinitive construction (§ 300).

- 329 Adjective-clauses generally take the indicative mood, denoting fact ; but a subjunctive-equivalent (or sometimes a subjunctive) is used :

(1) To denote what *would be* or *would have been* under imagined conditions (compare § 284. 1) :

This is a step which he *would* gladly *take* (*would* gladly *have taken*).

This is a step which it *were* well to take.

- (2) To denote what *is to be done* or what is *desired* (§ 284. 2) :

Build me straight a goodly vessel

That *shall laugh* at all disaster. LONGFELLOW.

The Mayor sent out persons who *should offer* the Piper silver and gold.

Such clauses qualify the antecedent by telling what the person or thing is to do. They are adjective-clauses just as much as clauses which qualify the antecedent by stating a fact. But the meaning which they express

junction nor a preposition ; in these languages ' than whom ' is expressed by using a case of the relative pronoun—in Latin the ablative (Latin Gram. § 443), in Greek the genitive. French and German have no corresponding construction.

is one which may also be expressed by an adverb-clause of purpose (§ 340): 'He sent people out *in order that they might offer*', &c.

(3) To mark the clause as a *supposition*; the effect of the subjunctive or subjunctive-equivalent in this usage is to make the adjective-clause equivalent to a clause of condition:

The man who *said (should say)* that would be a monster.  
(Compare § 348.)

Whoever *took* enough trouble would make a fortune.

He would have laughed any one to scorn who *had doubted* his patriotism. SIDNEY WHITMAN.

He that *shall see* that day will be thrice blessed (§ 347).

Such sentences are equivalent to 'If any man said (should say) that, he would be a monster', 'If any one took enough trouble', 'If any one sees that day', &c.

330 The infinitive is often equivalent to an adjective-clause:

He had round his neck a scarf *to match*.

We'll give you some money *to put* in your poke.

Compare Part II, § 265.

### III. ADVERB-CLAUSES (§ 286).

#### I. Clauses of Time.

331 (1) Clauses of Time are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like 'when', 'whenever', 'while', 'as', 'after', 'since', 'before', 'till':

*When all were in to the very last,*

The door in the mountain-side shut fast.

The wretched Council's bosoms beat,

*As the Piper turned from the High Street.*

It's dull in our town *since my playmates left.*

*Ere he blew three notes,* there was a rustling.

You should have heard the Hamelin people

Ringling the bells *till they rocked the steeple.*

I learned Latin *when at school* (= when I was at school).

- 332 The words 'now', 'once', 'directly', 'immediately', which are generally adverbs, are sometimes used as subordinating conjunctions (= 'now that', 'when once', &c.):

*Now* war has broken out, we recognize its possibility.

*Directly* the effort is made, the spell is broken.

Similarly clauses of time may be introduced by 'the moment', 'the day', &c.

- 333 The subjunctive mood is sometimes used in clauses of time to mark the action as *in prospect* (compare Part II, § 219 c):

Till the good ship *sink*, her mids shall drink

To the King and the King's Highway.

HENRY NEWBOLT,

*The King's Highway* (*The Times*).

The tree will wither long before it *fall*. BYRON.

- 334 Subjunctive-equivalents are commoner in this sense, especially 'should' with the infinitive after a tense of past time in the main clause:

I waited till the day *should dawn*.

I resolved to persevere so long as there *should be* any hope.

[For 'should be' we might say *were*—a past subj.]

- 335 But commonest of all is the use of the present indicative with prospective meaning in clauses like the above: 'sinks', 'falls' (see § 393 Obs. For the past tense see § 420 and Obs.).

## 2. Clauses of Place.

- 336 Clauses of Place are introduced by words like 'where', 'wherever', 'whence', 'whither':

*Where the Piper went*, the children followed.

The Mayor sent East, West, North and South,

To offer the Piper by word of mouth,

*Wherever it was man's lot to find him*,

Silver and gold to his heart's content.

This book, *wherever found* (= wherever it is found), is to be restored to its owner.



- 337 The subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent is sometimes used to mark the clause as a *supposition* :

I will find it, wherever it *be* (*may be*).

I tried to find them, wherever they *might be*.

### 3. Clauses of Cause.

- 338 Clauses of Cause are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like 'because', 'since', 'as' :

You hope, *because you're old and obese*,

To find in the furry civic robe ease ?

*As (Since) he was not there*, I spoke to his brother.

- 339 'That' may introduce a clause of cause :

I am glad *that you have come*.

Cursed be I *that I did so*. SHAKESPEARE.

Her fears, not the less strong *that they were vague*,  
increased upon her. BULWER.

I will never consent, not *that your offer is a bad one*, but  
*because I do not trust you*.

### 4. Clauses of Purpose.

- 340 Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions 'that' ('in order that', 'so that'), 'lest'.

These clauses express what is *desired* and therefore take a subjunctive-equivalent ('may' or 'shall' with the infinitive), or a subjunctive :

Come, *that (in order that, so that) I may tell you a secret*.

I took away his knife, *lest he should cut himself*.

I dare not use this expression, *lest it mislead*.

G. H. LEWES.

Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,

*Lest we forget, lest we forget*. KIPLING, *Recessional*.

['forget' is shown to be a subjunctive by the meaning of the clause.]

Obs. The word 'lest' is derived from the comparative adverb 'less', and means 'whereby less'. Thus 'lest we forget' means 'whereby less we are to forget'.<sup>1</sup>

- 341 The subjunctive is common after 'lest', but rare after 'that', which generally takes a subjunctive-equivalent:

I shall know that your good is mine, ye shall feel that  
my strength is yours,

In the day of Armageddon, at the last great fight of all,  
That Our House *stand* together and the pillars *do not fall*.

KIPLING, *England's Answer*. (See Part II, § 219 b.)

- 342 Purpose is more commonly expressed by using an infinitive: 'The Mayor sent East, West, North, and South, *to offer* the Piper silver and gold'; 'The better in memory *to fix* the place of the children's last retreat, they called it the Pied Piper's Street.' Compare Part II, § 264.

### 5. Clauses of Result.

- 343 Clauses of Result are introduced by the subordinating conjunction 'that' (generally preceded by 'so' or 'such' in the main clause); but the conjunction is sometimes understood:

So great a storm arose *that the ships were wrecked*.

A great storm arose *so that the ships were wrecked*.

I spoke in such a way *that he understood me*.

It is so far off *I cannot see it*.

A subjunctive-equivalent may mark a result as *in prospect*:

Had I your tongues and eyes, I'd use them so

That heaven's vault *should crack*. SHAKESPEARE.

- 344 The infinitive is often used to express result:

He lived *to carry*

To Rat-land home his commentary.

Thus an infinitive (generally preceded by 'as') may be

<sup>1</sup> The Old English expression was *thý læs the*, literally *thereby less that*.  
In Middle English *thý* (thereby) was dropped, and *læs the* became *les te*, *les-t*

substituted for a clause or result introduced by 'that', but only when there is no change of subject in the subordinate clause: 'There arose so great a storm *as to wreck* (= that it wrecked) the ships.'

### 6. Clauses of Condition.

345 Clauses of Condition are generally introduced by subordinating conjunctions like 'if', 'unless', 'whether':

*If I make a promise*, I keep it.

*If I can rid your town of rats*,

Will you give me a thousand guilders?

*If I made a promise*, I kept it.

*If we've promised them aught*, let us keep our promise.

*Whether they pipe us free from rats or from mice*, let us keep our promise.

346 In the above instances the clauses of condition are open; that is to say, they contain no implication as to the condition being (or having been) fulfilled. 'If we have promised them aught' does not imply that we *have* promised them aught, or that we have not; it simply means 'If it be a fact that we have promised them aught'; the speaker does not imply that it is a fact or that it is not. In such clauses of condition a tense of the indicative mood is used. The tenses have their ordinary meanings, except that the present often refers to future time, as in the second example above: 'can' = shall be able. So, too, in 'If he *rids* the town of rats, he will receive a reward'.

347 Instead of a tense of the indicative the corresponding tense of the subjunctive is sometimes used to mark the clause as a *supposition*; and in some instances the subjunctive also marks the action as *in prospect*:

If the person who wrote the book *is* not wiser than you, you need not read it; if he *be*, he will think differently from you in many respects.

RUSKIN.

Who stands, if freedom *fall*?

Who dies, if England *live*?

KIPLING.

If he *be* alive, seek for him.

'Tis no matter how it be in tune, so it *make* noise enough.

(SHAKESPEARE. Here 'so' = if.)

If it *were* so, it was a grievous fault. SHAKESPEARE.

If the debt *were* small then, how much greater is it now!

In all the above instances the use of the subjunctive is optional; for the indicative might have been used without any important difference of meaning. The clause of condition is *open* (i. e. has no implication), as in § 345; and the main clause relates to a matter of fact or expresses desire, as in § 345.

- 348 But when the speaker means to imply that he does not vouch for the fulfilment of the condition or that it is contrary to fact, the past or the past perfect tense of the subjunctive *must* be used in the clause of condition. Compare the following examples with the first three in § 345, and note that in all of them the main clause of the sentence speaks of what *would be* or *would have been* (not of what is, was, or will be, nor of what is desired):

If I *made* a promise, I should keep it.

If I *could* rid your town of rats,

Would you give me a thousand guilders?

If I *had made* a promise, I should have kept it.

- 349 The compound formed with 'should' or 'would' in the main clause of such sentences is an equivalent of a past or a past perfect subjunctive; and sometimes the past or the past perfect subjunctive itself is used to express this meaning, as in 'It *were* well, if he were here', 'It *had been* better, if we had not waited so long'. See § 284. 1 and Part II, § 231. So that we may give the following rule:—

350 A conditional sentence whose main clause speaks of what *would be* or *would have been* takes the past or the past perfect subjunctive or an equivalent of one of these tenses in *both its clauses*.<sup>1</sup>

351 Past subjunctives (except 'were') and past perfect subjunctives do not differ in form from the corresponding tenses of the indicative; but when used in conditional sentences of this kind they are shown to be subjunctives by their meaning. In the *if*-clause they carry an implication which the corresponding tenses of the indicative do not carry, and they do not refer to the same times as the corresponding tenses of the indicative.<sup>2</sup> Note carefully that in *if*-clauses of this kind (with the above implication) the **past subjunctive refers to present or future time, and the past perfect subjunctive refers to past time or to completion in present time**. The time referred to is seen clearly when we supply what is implied in the clause: 'if I *made* a promise' implies that I *do not make* a promise, or that I do not vouch that I *shall make* a promise; 'if I *could* rid' implies that I *cannot* rid, or that I do not vouch that I *shall be able* to rid; 'if I *had made* a promise' implies that I *did not make* it, or that I *have not made* it. Similarly 'If I *were* you, I should act otherwise' implies that I *am not* you. Contrast the sentences with 'were' in § 347 (without implication, and referring to past time).

<sup>1</sup> By a 'conditional sentence' is meant a complex sentence which contains—

- (1) a clause of condition, which may be called the *if*-clause;
- (2) a main clause.

The clause of condition need not come first in the sentence.

The rule given above applies to German and Latin, as well as to English.

<sup>2</sup> The English past indicative **never** refers to present time in correct speech (cp. note on p. 38), though it does occasionally refer to the future from a past point of view (see § 420, Obs.). In German the tenses of the subjunctive are used with exactly the same meanings as in English. This is an additional proof that the English forms in question are really subjunctives. For English is closely akin to German.

- 352 Instead of a past subjunctive referring to future time, *were to* or *should* with the infinitive may be used :

If I *riddled* (*were to rid, should rid*) your town of rats, what would you give me ?

- 353 The above rules may be tested by the following examples of conditional sentences :

(i) With an indicative in the clause of condition, which is open :

If I rest, I rust. (Proverbial saying about a key.)

Unless you are deliberately kind to every creature, you will often be cruel to many. RUSKIN.

If I go and the Prince has the upper hand, it will be easy to make your peace with King James.

R. L. STEVENSON.

If it was true, it was a horrid fact in one so young ; and if false, it was a horrid calumny.

R. L. STEVENSON.

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.

SHAKESPEARE.

If you have done wrong, confess your fault.

If he had done wrong, he always confessed his fault.

(ii) With a past or past perfect subjunctive in the clause of condition, which contains an *implication* :

If the axe were to fall on your neck for it, you would still refuse, would you not ?

MEREDITH ('were to fall' = fell).

You would not believe, if I should tell you.

R. L. STEVENSON ('should tell' = told).

If you were in my shoes and knew what I know, what would you do ?<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> There is a story that, after hearing a speech by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain in which he had used the expression 'If I were you', a working man remarked 'I were, indeed! 'Tought to be *if I was*. Don't know 'is grammar'.

If the French language were written as it is pronounced,  
some words would look very funny.

How few quotations there would be in common English  
use, if Shakespeare had never written and the Bible  
had never been translated! EGO MET.

If this had been done in time, all would have been well.

354 In the following instances the condition is expressed by  
inversion of the subject and the verb, without any conjunction :

*Had I* the fabled herb  
That brought to life the dead,  
Whom would I dare disturb  
In his eternal bed?

WILLIAM WATSON,  
*The Battle of the Bight (The Times).*

Many people would miss their chief pleasure, *were their  
neighbours and dependents* void of blame.

ANTHONY HOPE.

*Were such a scheme to be forced* on a vanquished nation,  
then indeed it would be a degradation.

LORD ROBERTS.

What poetry would be left to the world, *did we delete*  
all that disagreed with the Puritan?

*Had the private conduct of Hampden afforded* the slightest  
pretence for censure, he would have been assailed with  
malevolence. MACAULAY.

355 **Clauses of condition introduced by relatives.**—A general-  
izing relative pronoun or relative adjective or relative adverb  
(Part II, §§ 96, 116, 134) without any antecedent, expressed  
or understood, introduces an adverb-clause of condition :

*Whatever you do*, be just. (= Whether you do this or  
do that, be just.)

*Whichever way he goes*, we shall be sure to catch him.

*However he acts*, he will not take us by surprise.

## 7. Clauses of Concession.

356 Clauses of Concession are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like 'although', 'though', 'even if', or by a generalizing relative without any antecedent, expressed or understood (compare § 355). 'As' may have concessive meaning, but only when it does not come at the beginning of its clause.

The main clause of a sentence containing a clause of concession is adversative in meaning :

*Although I told him not to do it, yet he did it.*

*Though (Even if) it blows or rains, we must start.*

*Poor piper as I am,*

In Tartary I freed the Cham

Last June from his huge swarms of gnats.

OBS. In clauses like 'Poor piper as I am' the conjunction 'as' was originally a relative pronoun, used predicatively : 'I, a poor piper, *which* I am, freed the Cham'.

357 The mood generally used in clauses of concession is the indicative, denoting fact ; but the subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent may be used to mark the clause as a *supposition*, especially when there is a reference to future time :

Though the ships *be assigned* (or *should be assigned*, or *may be assigned*) to another squadron, they will make a difference to the situation here.

Though all we knew *depart*,

The old commandments stand.

KIPLING, *For all we have and are.*

(*The Times*, Sept. 2, 1914)

*Whatever amount of trouble he took*, he would not make a fortune. (= Even if he took any amount of trouble ; 'took' is a past subjunctive, like 'ridded' in § 352.)

*However rich he may get*, he will not grow contented.



## 8. Clauses of Comparison.

358 Clauses of Comparison are of two kinds :

- (i) Those denoting **manner** are introduced by the subordinating conjunction or relative adverb 'as' :

It happened *as I told you*.

Do *as you like*.

The main clause often has a corresponding demonstrative word ('so') :

*As the tree falls*, so shall it lie.

359 The adverb 'like' followed by a dative (Part II, § 179) is often equivalent to a clause of comparison denoting manner :

*Like fowls* in a farm-yard when barley is scattering,  
Out came the children running.

But it is not good English to use 'like' as a subordinating conjunction (i. e. followed by a verb) : 'like fowls do', 'he acted like I did'. This construction is often heard, but it is a vulgarism. 'Like as' followed by a verb is, of course, quite correct, though old-fashioned : 'Like as a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him' (PSALM ciii. 13).

360 (ii) Those denoting **degree** are introduced by one of the subordinating conjunctions or relative adverbs 'as', 'the', 'than'.

'As' denoting degree is generally accompanied by a corresponding demonstrative word ('as' or 'so') in the main clause :

It is as long *as it is broad*.

Heaven's gate

Opes to the rich at as easy rate

*As the needle's eye takes a camel in*.

It is not so small *as it seems*.

'The' is always accompanied by a comparative adjective or adverb in the subordinate clause (Part II, §§ 130-3) :

*The sooner it is done*, the better.

- 361 'Than' is always accompanied by a comparative (adjective or adverb) or by words like 'other' in the main clause :

It is longer *than it is broad*.

He is older *than I am*.

No one is a better judge *than he is*.

No one can judge better *than he can*.

It was not other *than it seemed*.

Behave otherwise *than they behave*.

- 362 The verb of the clause of comparison (and sometimes more than the verb) is often not expressed but only understood :

No one is a better judge *than he* (= than he is).

He was no other *than the rightful lord*.

Sure *as fate* (= As surely as fate is sure) we'll send you packing.                      Red *as a rose* is she.

The sparrows were brighter *than peacocks here*.

('than peacocks here' = than peacocks are here. In the clause of comparison the *positive* of the adjective may be supplied : 'than peacocks are *bright* here'.)

- 363 The proper case of a personal pronoun in such a clause is shown by mentally completing the construction :

You love him more *than I* (= than I do), perhaps more *than me* (= than you love me).

It concerns you as much *as me* (= as it concerns me).

- 364 Constructions like 'He is older than *me*', 'She speaks as well as *him*' are incorrect, even though examples of the error may be found in good writers ; for example :

For thou art a girl as much brighter than *her*

As he was a poet sublimer than *me*.

MATTHEW PRIOR, *A better Answer*.

The general practice of good writers of recent times is to use the nominative in such cases ; see § 362. Thus, 'He had known none more vile or more false than *I*' (TROLLOPE), 'I have known much more highly-instructed persons than *he* make inferences quite as wide' (GEORGE ELIOT), 'We must have a mightier man than *he* for his successor' (TENNYSON),

‘I love and am loved by a better man than *he*’ (CONAN DOYLE), ‘What was the right of so miserable a creature as *she* to excite disturbances?’ (MEREDITH). In all these instances supply ‘am’ or ‘is’ or ‘was’.

365 ‘As if’, ‘than that’, &c.—A clause of comparison to which another clause is subordinated may have neither subject nor predicate expressed; we thus get two conjunctions side by side:

The Council stood

*As if they were changed into blocks of wood.*

(‘as if they were changed’ = as *they would have stood* if they had been changed; hence the use of the subjunctive ‘were’; see § 351. Avoid the present indicative after ‘as if’.

It’s *as my great-grandsire*

*Had walked this way from his painted tomb-stone.*

(Here ‘as’ = as if.)

He spoke *as it were* (= as if it were) *in jest*.

I desire nothing more *than that* (= than I desire that) *justice should be done.*

I am never more happy *than when* (= than I am when) *I am listening to music.*

In analysis the parts of the clause which are understood after ‘as’ must be supplied.

#### NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

366 The nominative absolute construction (Part II, § 259) is an equivalent of an adverb-clause:

*We sitting*, as I said, the cock crew loud. TENNYSON.

‘we sitting’ = while we were sitting—a clause of time.

*He being here*, there is no danger.

‘he being here’ = since he is here—a clause of cause.

*God willing*, we shall prevail.

‘God willing’ = if God wills it—a clause of condition.

*This done*, depart in peace.

‘this done’ = when (or if) this has been done.

## (B) USES OF FORMS

## I. AGREEMENT OF THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE WITH ONE ANOTHER.

367 The parts of a sentence are said to 'agree' when they are made like one another in certain respects. Agreement binds them together and shows that they form a unity.

In modern English there is not much opportunity for making the parts of a sentence alike, because the different forms of words are few. The following are the chief rules of agreement which are applicable to English of the present day.

## 368 I. Agreement of the verb.

The verb agrees with the subject in number and person :

I *see* ; thou *seest*, you *see*<sup>1</sup> ; he (she, it) *sees*.

Each of the boys *has* a bat. All the boys *have* bats.

Obs. Nouns which, though plural in form, are singular in meaning take a singular verb, as 'news', and nouns denoting sciences, such as 'mathematics', 'physics'. Nouns which, though singular in form, are plural in meaning take a plural verb, as 'dozen', 'score' (= 20).

PECULIARITIES. Some nouns which are properly singular have come to be regarded as plural, and therefore now take a plural verb ; for example, 'riches' (derived from the Old French *richesse*, singular), and 'alms' (derived from the Old English *almesse*,

<sup>1</sup> The form of the verb after the singular 'you' is always the same as after the plural 'you'. Hence 'you was' (singular) is wrong :

*Sergeant.* As you was ! *Young Officer.* 'As you were', you should say.

*Sergeant.* Excuse me, sir, I know my drill. 'As you was' for one man, 'as you were' for two, 'as you was' for a squad !

PUNCH, June 9, 1915.

singular). Thus we say 'His riches *are* great', 'His alms *were* liberal'. No such mistake has been made about the word 'summons' (derived from the Old French *semouse*, singular); thus we speak of 'a summons' 'two summonses'.

369 Errors are often made when a plural noun or pronoun comes between a singular subject and its verb, and when a singular noun or pronoun comes between a plural subject and its verb. Sentences like the following are erroneous :

The whole series of operations *were* very successful.

A large supply of guns, projectiles, gun-shields, marine articles, and other parts of ships *are* produced here.

Each (Every one) of the boys *were* punished.

Neither of these *are* very amiable motives.

All rights of voting in the election of members *was* abolished. J. R. GREEN.

Compare the following error : 'The irritability of his mind and body *were* increased by the rapidity with which he travelled.' MACAULAY.

370 The verb may come before the subject ; but this makes no difference to its agreement :

Now *fades* the glimmering landscape on the sight.

GRAY, *Elegy*, l. 5.

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,

And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,

*Awaits* alike the inevitable hour :

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.<sup>1</sup>

GRAY, *Elegy*, ll. 33-36.

What a monument of past greatness *are* the pyramids !

371 A singular noun denoting a **collection** of persons or things generally takes a singular verb, except when it is *necessary* to speak of the collection as composed of separate individuals :

<sup>1</sup> Often quoted with *await* (plural), which completely alters the sense.

## (i) With singular verb :

The Corporation of Hamelin *was* dishonest.

Parliament *is* sitting.

The committee *has* now come to a decision, but for some time it *was* divided in opinion.

An army *consists* of several divisions, and each division *contains* two or more regiments.

The nation *does* not know its own mind.

A people generally *gets* what it deserves.

The public *is* determined to protect its rights ; it *is* fully alive to the situation.

## (ii) With plural verb :

The public *are* admitted to the castle on presentation of their cards.

In this library there are nearly 100,000 volumes, the majority of which *bear* on history and geography.

A number of interesting papers *were* read.

The Council *stood* as if they *were* changed into blocks of wood. *P. P.* 209.

372 The above rule is often broken, chiefly because a difficulty is felt in referring to a collection of persons as 'it' (as in the last three examples under i); hence sentences like 'The public *are* determined to protect *their* rights; *they* are fully alive to the situation'. Such sentences may be defended. But the singular and the plural should never be mixed up in the same passage, as is often done, especially in 'official English': 'The Committee *has* now come to a decision, but for some time *they were* divided in opinion'; 'The Committee *adheres* to *their* opinion'.

373 A double or multiple subject formed with the conjunction 'and' or without any conjunction takes a plural verb :

My father and my mother *are* well.

He and I *are* friends.

Dickens, Thackeray, Trollope, George Eliot *were* novelists of the Victorian age.

A sentence with a double or multiple subject is regarded by some grammarians as consisting of two or more sentences (each with a verb of its own) rolled into one: 'My father is well and my mother is well'. But though this analysis expresses the meaning in most cases, it does not account for the form of the verb. The only explanation of the plural verb is that the subject is thought of as plural ( $1 + 1 = 2$ ). And in some cases the analysis into two or more sentences would not express the meaning intended; for example 'The Britons and the Gauls differed among themselves in manners and customs' does not mean 'The Britons differed among themselves in manners and customs, and the Gauls differed among themselves in manners and customs'. In some instances this analysis would not make any sense at all: 'David and Jonathan were two in body but one in soul.'

It is also incorrect to say that such sentences have two or more subjects. There cannot be more than one subject in any sentence; for every sentence consists of (1) the subject, (2) the predicate.<sup>1</sup>

**374** When the parts of a double or multiple subject are so closely connected that they express one idea, the verb may be (and sometimes must be) singular:

The tumult and the shouting *dies*.

KIPLING, *The Recessional*.

Increasing anxiety and dissatisfaction at present *pervades* all classes of society.

The Empire and its demands *is* a subject on which the House of Commons is always serious.

A horse and cart *was* seen in the distance.

**375** When two or more nouns in the singular number are connected by 'or' or 'nor' (with or without a preceding 'either' or 'neither'), the verb is properly singular, because it is said of each noun separately:

<sup>1</sup> See Part I, § 2. The terms 'double' and 'multiple' were explained in Part I, § 59.

The husband or the wife *is* extravagant.

Either the husband or the wife *is* extravagant.

Neither the husband nor the wife nor any one else in the household *is* extravagant.

But difficulties may arise in making one verb serve for two or more personal pronouns connected by 'or' or 'nor'. Sentences like the following are not good English:

Either he or I *am* at fault.

Either I or he *is* at fault.

This difficulty may be avoided:

(i) by using a double sentence (Part I, § 59):

Either he *is* at fault or I *am*.

Neither he *is* at fault nor *am* I.

*Is* he at fault or *am* I?

(ii) by making the verb plural in defiance of the above rule, when the sense would admit of 'and' being substituted for 'or', or 'and not' for 'nor'. The use of a plural verb is especially common after 'neither . . . nor . . .', because these conjunctions are often equivalent in meaning to 'both . . . and . . .' with a negative in the predicate:

Neither he nor I *are* (= Both he and I *are not*) at fault.<sup>1</sup>

Nor thou nor he *are* any sons of mine. SHAKESPEARE.

Neither he nor I *were* given to reading omens. RUSKIN.

This construction according to the sense is often found in good writers, and not only after personal pronouns but also after nouns: for example, Ruskin writes—

Without that labour, neither reason, art, nor peace *are* possible to man.

<sup>1</sup> In French the use of a plural verb after '*ni . . . ni . . .*' is the rule; see French Grammar, § 271 (*Ni vous ni moi ne le pouvons* = Both you and I *are* unable to do it).



## 2. Agreement of adjectives.

376 The demonstrative adjectives 'this' and 'that' agree in number with the nouns to which they belong :

*This (That) flower grows in Switzerland.*

*These (Those) flowers grow in Switzerland.*

Thus it is an error to say '*these* kind of things', '*those* sort of men'. On the other hand '*this* kind of things', '*that* sort of men' are felt to be awkward expressions. The difficulty may be avoided by saying either (i) '*this* kind of *thing*', '*that* sort of *man*' or (ii) '*things* of *this* kind', '*men* of *that* sort'. In the first of these constructions the forms '*thing*' and '*man*' may be regarded as unchanged plurals, like the plurals of '*deer*', '*sheep*', &c. (Part II, § 151).<sup>1</sup> There are many words in English which may assume a plural meaning without any change of form: we speak of '*a* fleet of thirty *sail*' = a fleet of thirty *sailing-vessels*; '*three* small *craft*' = three small *trading-vessels* (*craft* = trade); '*three* old British *cannon*'.

## 3. Agreement of nouns and pronouns in apposition.

377 A noun or pronoun which stands in apposition to a noun or pronoun agrees with it in case :

I, your *father*, forbid it. (Nominative.)

Do you dare to disobey me, your *father*? (Accusative.)

The *daughter* of a hundred Earls,

You are not one to be desired. (Nominative.)

TENNYSON.

I shall never see my mother again, *her* to whom I owe my being. (Accusative.)

Destroy them all—*him, her, and it*. (Accusative.)

Are we not brothers, *I and thou*? (Nominative.)

<sup>1</sup> This is the view of Jespersen (*Modern English Grammar*, II, p. 66).

Into the West they are marching! This is their longed-for day

When that which England gave them they may at last repay;

When for the faith she dealt them, *peasants* and *priests* and *lords*, (Dative)

When for the love they bear her they shall unsheathe their swords.

R. E. VERNÈDE, *The Indian Army* (*The Times*, Sept. 11, 1914).

- 378 But a genitive does not often stand in apposition to a genitive. Instead of 'I have read Mr. Asquith's, the Prime Minister's, speech' we generally treat the group of words 'Mr. Asquith the Prime Minister' as a noun, and put the 's' at the end of it (Part II, § 159, Obs.): 'I have read Mr. Asquith the Prime Minister's speech.'

OBS. A noun in the accusative often stands in apposition to an accusative which is governed by a preposition (§ 489):<sup>1</sup>

I have read the speech of Mr. Asquith, the Prime Minister.

I sent the correspondence to Sir Edward Grey, the Foreign Secretary.

#### 4. Agreement of predicative nouns and predicative pronouns.

- 379 A noun or pronoun used predicatively agrees in case with the noun or pronoun of which it is said.

(i) Examples with the nominative case :

It is *I*.

Say, could that lad be *I*? R. L. STEVENSON.<sup>2</sup>

Are you *he*? *Who* are you?

*Who* do they think that you are?

<sup>1</sup> French agrees with English in not repeating the preposition before the noun in apposition (French Grammar, § 437). *Songs of Travel*, xlii.

This is the *Happy Warrior*, this is *he*  
*That* every man in arms should wish to be.

WORDSWORTH.

(ii) Examples with the accusative case :

*What* do they call you ?

People call me the *Pied Piper*.

380 In the construction of the accusative with the infinitive (§ 300) the same rule holds ; the only difference is that the accusative with which the predicative word agrees is the subject of the infinitive :

I find the Englishman to be *him* of all men who stands  
 firmest in his shoes. EMERSON, *Manners*.

He is the man *whom* she believes me to be.

*Whom* do they declare me to be ?

In the Authorized Version of the New Testament there is an error which probably arose from confusing two constructions : '*Whom* say ye that I am ?' (ST. MATTHEW xvi. 15). '*Whom*' is corrected in the Revised Version to '*who*'.

381 The following sentences contain common errors :

*Whom* do they think that you are ?

Some persons think that I am *him*.

Some persons, I know not *whom*, think so. ('*Whom*' should be '*who*', because the meaning is '*I know not who they are*', in which '*who*' is used predicatively of the subject of a dependent question.)

Various guesses have been made as to *whom* the child really was. ('*Whom*' should be '*who*', because the last part of the sentence means '*as to the question who the child really was*'; compare § 308 and § 379. i. The mistake is due to thinking of the interrogative pronoun as if it were governed by the preposition '*to*'. In trying to avoid this mistake people sometimes fall into the mistake of using '*who*' for '*whom*' in sentences like '*There is some doubt as to whom to appoint*'.)

The second line of Wordsworth in § 379 (i) is sometimes wrongly quoted with 'whom' instead of 'that'. By using the relative 'that' the poet has avoided any difficulty that might be felt in saying '*Who* every man in arms should wish to be'.

- 382 In some expressions the form 'me' used predicatively for the nominative is not incorrect, though it is uncertain what the explanation of the usage is: for example, 'It's *me*', 'That's *me*', 'All that was *me* is gone' (R. L. STEVENSON, line 24 of the poem quoted in § 379. i). Perhaps the form 'me' may be due to the same reason as leads the French to use 'moi' in sentences like 'C'est *moi*'. Both the French 'moi' and the English 'me' were originally accusatives; but 'moi' has come to be used as a *special form* of the pronoun in various constructions, sometimes for the nominative, sometimes for the accusative, sometimes for the dative. And the same may be true of the English 'me'.<sup>1</sup>

#### 5. Agreement of the relative pronoun.

- 383 The relative pronoun is always to be regarded as of the same number and person as its antecedent; the number and person of the relative are shown by the verb of the adjective-clause, when the relative is the subject (compare § 368):

Listen to me, who *am* your friend.

I recognize all the persons who *are* here.

I, who *am* to blame, confess my fault.

I am the person that *is* to blame.

You, who *are* the culprit (culprits), should confess.

Not that I so affirm, though so it seem

To thee who *hast* thy dwelling here on earth.

MILTON.

<sup>1</sup> The corresponding construction with the forms 'him', 'her', 'us', 'them' is sometimes used in careless speech, but is generally regarded as incorrect: e. g. 'Regardless of grammar they all cried "That's *him*"' (*Jackdaw of Rheims*). [See Sweet, *New Engl. Gram.* § 1085, Onions, *Advanced Engl. Syntax*, § 25, Jespersen, *Progress in Language*, § 194, and the authorities there quoted.]

Pope, who *couldst* make immortals, art thou dead?

YOUNG.

- 384 Sentences like the following are erroneous; for the antecedent is the plural noun, not the singular pronoun 'one':

He is one of the boys who *was* kept in.

This is one of the gravest objections that *has* been made to the proposal.

- 385 The following construction is unusual in English, though it is the rule in Latin. The relative pronoun agrees not with its antecedent (which is a predicative noun) but with the subject of the main clause:

I am a man who *have* no wish on earth but your glory and happiness. SCOTT (abbreviated).

Thou art the God that *doest* wonders. PSALM lxxvii. 14.

(The Prayer Book version has *doeth*.)

- 386 The case of the relative pronoun depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands, just as the case of other pronouns depends on the part which they play as subject, object, &c., in the sentence or clause:

I know the man	{	<i>who</i> did it.
		<i>whom</i> you are seeking.
		to <i>whom</i> you wrote.
		<i>whose</i> letter was lost.

#### THE INDICATIVE MOOD AND ITS TENSES.<sup>1</sup>

- 387 The indicative mood relates to a matter of fact:

This is true.

STATEMENT OF FACT.

Is this true?

QUESTION AS TO A MATTER OF FACT.

How true this is!

EXCLAMATION AS TO A MATTER OF FACT.

<sup>1</sup> The meanings of the indicative and its tenses are briefly given in Part II, §§ 208-11. but without drawing distinctions which are here set forth.

- 388 The indicative mood is used not only in simple sentences and main clauses but also in subordinate clauses :

I *do not understand* what you *mean* when you *say* that this *is* true.

If this *is* true, then we are all at fault. (See § 346.)

- 389 The **present indicative** may denote—

either (1) what is *going on* at the time of speaking :

I'm sure my poor head *aches* again. *P. P.* 40.

You *threaten* us, fellow? *P. P.* 189.

or (2) what is *habitual* at the time of speaking :

I *draw* after me all creatures that *creep* or *swim* or *fly* or *run*, especially creatures that *do* people harm; and people *call* me the Pied Piper. See *P. P.* 72-79.

I *write* books.

He *talks* nonsense.

- 390 The first of the above meanings is especially common in verbs that express a state or condition, such as 'am', 'have', 'feel', 'love', 'hate', 'rejoice', 'grieve', 'fear', 'wonder', 'hope', 'desire', 'know', 'think', 'believe'. But it is also found in verbs that express an act: 'Here he *comes*', 'How it *rains*!', 'See how they *run*', 'Who *says* so?'.

- 391 But the present tense of verbs that express an act generally marks the act as habitual. When the speaker wishes to mark the act as going on, he generally uses the continuous form of the present (Part II, § 204): for example, *am drawing*, *are creeping*, *are swimming*, *are flying*, *are running*, *are doing*, *are calling*, *am writing*, *is talking* (§ 389. 2).

- 392 Some verbs may be used in two senses :

(a) to express a state or condition, as in 'I *have* a brother', 'I *love* my brother', 'I *see* a ship on the horizon'.

(b) to express an act, as in 'I *am having* (= am taking) my tea', 'She *is loving* (= is fondling) her cat', 'I *am seeing* the sights of London'.

393 The present indicative is also used—

(3) with reference to future time :

I *start* to-morrow.                      When *do* you *leave* England ?

Obs. In subordinate clauses the present indicative is often equivalent to a present subjunctive or subjunctive-equivalent in meaning, and may therefore refer to future time :

I will wait until he *comes* (= come, shall come) : § 335.

When he *comes* (= shall come), I shall see him.

If he *comes* (= come, shall come), I shall be glad : § 346.

Take care that you *are not caught* (= be not caught) : § 315.

Mind he *comes* (= Bear in mind that he is to come).

394 (4) in vivid narration of past events, to represent actions picturesquely, as if they were going on at the time of speaking. In this use the present tense is called the **historic present** :

The drums *are beating*. He *mounts* the scaffold, not without delay ; he *is* in a puce coat, breeches of gray, white stockings. He *strips* off the coat. The executioners *approach* to bind him ; he *spurns, resists*. The executioners *seize* the hapless Louis and *bind* him to the plank. The axe *clanks* down ; a King's life *is shorn* away. It *is* Monday the 21st of January, 1793.                      CARLYLE, *French Revolution* (III. 2. 8).

395 The **past indicative** has the chief meanings of the present indicative transferred to past time. Thus it may denote—

either (1) what was *going on* at some time in the past which the speaker has in mind or which is referred to in the context :

The Piper turned from the High Street  
To where the Weser *rolled* its waters. *P. P.* 216-7.  
( 'rolled' = was rolling)

or (2) what was *habitual* at some time in the past :

They *fought* the dogs, and *killed* the cats. *P. P.* 11.  
( 'fought' = used to fight ; 'killed' = used to kill)

- 396 The first of the above meanings is especially common in verbs that express a state or condition (see § 390); but it is also found in verbs that express an act, as in the above example ('rolled').
- 397 The past tense of verbs that express an act generally marks the act as habitual. When the speaker wishes to mark the act as going on, he uses the continuous form of the past (Part II, § 204):

*I was writing* a book.      *He was talking* nonsense.

- 398 Some verbs may be used in two senses (compare § 392):
- (a) to express a state or condition, as in 'I *had* a brother', 'I *loved* my brother'.
- (b) to express an act, as in 'I *was having* my tea', 'She *was loving* her cat'.

- 399 In addition to the two uses mentioned above (§ 395), the past indicative is very commonly used—

(3) as a **past historic**; that is, as a tense of past time which marks the action of the verb as having taken place before the time of speaking, without describing it as either going on or habitual in the past:

William the Conqueror landed in A. D. 1066.

- 400 This use of the past indicative is very common in recounting a number of past actions which took place *in succession* (one after the other). Here the past tense answers the question What happened next? An excellent passage to show this use is Stanza VII of the *Pied Piper* (lines 98-126): the Piper *stept* into the street; then he *wrinkled* his lips to blow his pipe, and you *heard* a muttering, and the muttering *grew* to a grumbling, and the grumbling *grew* to a rumbling, and the rats *came* tumbling out of the houses, and *followed* the Piper, until they *came* to the Weser, into which they all *plunged* and *perished* except one, who *swam* across and *carried* the news home.



Sometimes past tenses denoting what was going on at the time are intermingled with historic pasts, for example in Stanza V of the *Pied Piper*: the Mayor cried 'Come in', and in came a strange figure; his coat *was* half red, half yellow, and he himself *was* tall and thin, and nobody *could* enough admire the man and his attire. [So, too, *twinkled* in line 104.]

401 The **future indicative** marks an action as about to take place after the time of speaking:

We *shall see* our children stop. P. P. 225.

You (They) *will see* what *will happen*.

An additional way of expressing this meaning is to use 'I am (you are, he is)' followed by 'about to' or 'going to' with the infinitive (Part II, § 206):

We *are about to* (or *going to*) *see* our children stop.

402 The **future indicative** is sometimes used in a sense which differs little from that of a present indicative:

This *will be* New York, I suppose.

('will be' = is likely to be, probably is)

403 The **future in the past** of the indicative mood marks an action as future from a past point of view; that is, as about to take place after some point of time in the past which the speaker has in mind or which is referred to in the context.

The meaning of this tense is nearly the same as that of 'was sure to' with the infinitive in the following lines:

They called it the Pied Piper's Street,  
Where anyone playing on pipe or tabor  
*Was sure* for the future *to lose* his labour.

P. P. 278-280. ('was sure to lose' = would lose)

404 The **future in the past** is used—

(i) in simple sentences and main clauses:

There they were, four batteries in four strong lines stretching backward. Now they were moving left and right, and presently they *would deploy* (= were going to deploy).

EDGAR WALLACE.

The New World, considered as a boundless territory open to settlement, *would act* (= was sure to act) in two ways upon the natives of Europe. J. R. SEELEY.

Some of them were dragging ladders behind them through the grass. They *would soon be climbing* (continuous form) to the top of the wall. JAMES BALDWIN.

(ii) in subordinate clauses. This use is very common :

I knew that my lame foot <i>would be cured</i> .	} noun-clauses
I wondered when you <i>would return</i> .	
I told you that I <i>should succeed</i> .	

Thou sawest a glory growing on the night,	} adj.- clause
But not the shadows which that light <i>would cast</i> .	

TENNYSON, *Epitaph on Caxton*.

[For another and very important use of the future in the past, in which it is equivalent to a past subjunctive, see §§ 461 (ii), 476 (ii).]

405 The word 'perfect', which is used in the names of the four following tenses, means *already completed*.

406 The **present perfect indicative** marks an action as already completed at the time of speaking. Thus it is a tense of present time : I *have seen* = I *am* in the position of *having seen* :

They *have beaten* the enemy.

Our losses *have made* us thrifty. P. P. 172.

407 That the present perfect is a tense of present time is what might be expected from the form. For it is made up of the present tense 'have' and the past participle : thus it denotes completion in present time. A sentence like 'They *have beaten* the enemy' is merely 'They *have* the enemy *beaten*'

(= They have got the enemy beaten) with a change in the order of words. See Part II, § 255.

408 Contrast the meaning of the present perfect with that of the past historic (§ 399). We could not say 'William the Conqueror *has landed*', because that would mean 'William the Conqueror *is* (at the present moment) in the position of *having landed*'. He *was* once in that position; but that meaning would be expressed by the past perfect tense ('He *had landed*'). Nor could present perfects be substituted for pasts in § 400.

409 The present perfect active is sometimes formed with 'am' instead of 'have' (see Part II, § 258), and the present perfect passive with 'am' instead of 'have been':

The world *is grown* to one vast dry-saltery. *P. P.* 138.

We *are* not yet *beaten*.

I'm *bereft* of all those pleasant sights. *P. P.* 237.

410 The **past perfect indicative** marks an action as already completed at some point of time in the past which the speaker has in mind or which is referred to in the context. Thus it is a tense of past time: 'I *had seen*' = I *was* in the position of *having seen* (see Part II, § 256):

Honey-bees *had lost* their stings. *P. P.* 247.

411 The past perfect active is sometimes formed with 'was' instead of 'had', and the past perfect passive with 'was' instead of 'had been':

Piper and dancers *were gone* for ever. *P. P.* 268.

By that time the mischief *was done*.

412 The **future perfect indicative** marks an action as already completed at some point of time in the future which the speaker has in mind or which is referred to in the context. Thus it is a tense of future time: 'I *shall have seen*' = I *shall be* in the position of *having seen*:

Before this time to-morrow I *shall have gained* a peerage or Westminster Abbey. *SOUTHEY, Life of Nelson.*

413 The future perfect in the past of the indicative mood marks a completed action as future from a past point of view. Thus it is a tense of past time : ' I *should have seen* ' = I *was about to be* in the position of *having seen*.

414 This tense is used in the same ways as the future in the past. Thus in § 404 we might substitute—

(i) Presently they *would have deployed*.

(ii) I knew that my lame foot *would have been cured* within a short time.—I wondered by what hour you *would have returned*.—I told you that I *should have succeeded* before I had done. [For another use see §§ 461 (ii), 476 (ii).]

#### THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND THE IMPERATIVE.

415 The uses of the subjunctive and the imperative have already been mentioned in dealing with the different kinds of sentence and clause (§§ 284, 297, 299, 313, 329, 333, 334, 337, 340, 341, 347-357). In the present chapter an attempt will be made to consider how the different uses of the subjunctive are connected together, and how they are related to those of the imperative. These questions are not quite easy to answer, nor are grammarians agreed as to what the correct answer is : so that the whole of the present discussion (§§ 415-440) may be omitted by those readers who are not prepared to make a little effort to get a better understanding of a rather difficult subject.

The problem to be solved may be stated as follows. The subjunctive mood is used in a number of ways which are at first sight quite different from one another. Is there any common meaning underlying these uses whereby they may be *explained*? Again, there is clearly a connexion between the subjunctive and the imperative mood ; for they may both be used to express what is desired (see § 284. 2). What is the difference between the subjunctive and the imperative, or have they both the same meaning?

416 (A). Let us start with a use of the subjunctive which is found in Old English and is also in vogue at the present

day; and let us consider how far the meaning which is there expressed will provide an explanation of other uses of the mood :

It will then seem right that ye *cease* from your error.

It is time that thou *feast* with thy brothers at my banquet.<sup>1</sup>

Here the subjunctive expresses what is *proper*, what *ought to be*. The same meaning is found in Modern English sentences like the following :

The order of the day is that every man *take* care of himself.

The law of the land is that no man *be put* to death without a trial.

It is of great importance that the preacher firmly *believe* in the truth of what he preaches.

It is better that he *die* than that justice *depart* out of the world.

CARLYLE.

It is necessary (right) that this *be done*.

417 The root-meaning expressed in all these noun-clauses is that of *obligation*. The subjunctive denotes what *is to be* (*is to happen* or *is to be done*); it is akin in meaning to the future indicative, but differs from this tense in the same way as 'shall' in the 2nd and 3rd persons differs from 'will': it marks the future action as *obligatory*. Noun-clauses of this kind might be described as dependent statements of obligation.

418 The past subjunctive might naturally be expected to have the same meaning in past time, that is, to express past obligation—what *was to be* (*was to happen* or *was to be done*); and this meaning is akin to one of the actual uses of the tense (see § 420). But in most uses the past subjunctive loses its reference to past time. In dependent statements of obligation it comes to have the same meaning as the present subjunctive :

<sup>1</sup> The Old English form of these sentences is given in Sweet's *Anglo-Saxon Reader*, Grammatical Introduction, p. lxxxiii (7th ed., 1904).

It is time that the man in the street *were consulted* about this matter.

It were better that he *killed* his wife than that she *fell* into the hands of the enemy.

Obs. The change of meaning whereby the past subjunctive loses its reference to past time is found in some other languages of our family, for example in German and in Latin. In some constructions the past subjunctive ceases to refer to past time without being equivalent to a present subjunctive; see §§ 431, 434.

- 419 **Prospective subjunctives.**—Obligation necessarily refers to the future. Hence the subjunctive may be used to denote an action which is *in prospect*, whether it is thought of as inevitable or not (§ 333):

Let us wait until the clock *strike* twelve.

Therefore they shall do my will,  
To-day, while I am master still,  
Before this fire of sense *decay*,  
This smoke of thought *blow* clean away.

A. E. HOUSMAN.

To have and to hold from this day forward, for better or worse, for richer or poorer, in sickness and in health, to love and to cherish till death us *do part*. ('do part' is a compound present subjunctive, corresponding to the compound present indicative 'does part': II, § 205.)

- 420 In the following examples a past tense expresses what *was to happen*; thus it has a meaning which is akin to that of the future in the past of the indicative mood, differing from it as 'should' in the 2nd and 3rd persons differs from 'would':

He urged that before any action *were taken* the whole matter should be reconsidered.

I resolved to wait until the clock *struck* twelve.

She intended to look before she *leaped*.

Mr. Bonar Law stated that the Dominion Governments were to have a voice in the peace negotiations, when the time *came*. [Compare 'did appear', *P. P.* l. 272.]

Obs. All such past tenses may be regarded as past subjunctives, corresponding to the present subjunctives in § 419, except when the form 'was' is used, as in 'I resolved to wait until the work *was* done' (past indicative, corresponding to the present indicative in § 393, Obs.).

421 **Subjunctives of desire** (§§ 284, 2, 313, 340, 341). An expression of obligation may naturally be used as a means of expressing the desire of the speaker or of somebody else. For example, when we say 'Britannia *rule* the waves', we mean that what is to be done by the subject of the sentence (*Britannia*) is what we desire. Thus the subjunctive often comes to be an expression of command or request or entreaty or wish :

<i>Deny</i> it who can.	}	COMMANDS.
Every man <i>take</i> care of himself.		
Somebody <i>call</i> a policeman.		

<i>Make</i> we our sword-arm doubly strong	}	REQUEST.
And <i>lift</i> on high our gaze. (Part II, § 218)		

God <i>defend</i> the right.	}	WISHES as to the future.
Thanks <i>be</i> to God.		
Thy will <i>be done</i> .		
Thy silver <i>perish</i> with thee.		
Britannia <i>rule</i> the waves.		

422 The same meanings are expressed by the imperative in sentences like the following :

<i>Deny</i> it if you can.	}	COMMANDS.
<i>Take</i> care of yourself.		
O King, <i>live</i> for ever.	}	WISHES as to the future.
<i>Farewell</i> .		

The difference is that the imperative is used only in the

2nd person (singular and plural), whereas the subjunctive is used in all three persons of the singular and the plural.<sup>1</sup> The original form of 'Rule Britannia'<sup>2</sup> contained two imperatives and a vocative :

*Rule, Britannia, rule the waves.*

- 423 Desire is expressed by the subjunctive (present tense) in some noun-clauses which are otherwise indistinguishable from dependent statements of obligation (§§ 416, 417):

See to it that you *be* ready. } § 313.  
Pray that God *defend* the right. }

- 424 Desire is expressed by the subjunctive (present tense) in clauses of purpose :

Remind him every day, lest he *forget*. } §§ 340-1.  
Take heed he *hear* us not. SHAKESPEARE. }

- 425 In many instances the subjunctive denotes what is desired not by the speaker but by the person denoted by the subject of the main clause :

He will see to it that all *be* ready.  
He will take heed lest he *fall*.

- 426 'Lest' with the subjunctive in noun-clauses depending on a word denoting 'fear' (§ 299. 3) originally expressed a desire that something may not happen :

There is a danger lest he *die* = There is a danger : may he not die ! In this construction 'lest' was equivalent to 'not'<sup>3</sup>; compare § 299. 3, § 340, Obs. and note.

- 427 The past subjunctive is used in wishes as to the present, and the past perfect subjunctive in wishes as to the past (§ 284. 2):

<sup>1</sup> In the 2nd person the subjunctive is indistinguishable from an imperative.

<sup>2</sup> In the Masque of Alfred (1740).

<sup>3</sup> The corresponding construction in French and Latin has a negative (*French Gram* § 333, *Latin Gram.* § 332).



Oh, *had* we some bright little isle of our own  
In a blue summer ocean far off and alone!

THOMAS MOORE.

*Had* we but *known* in time!

This use is commoner in dependent wishes (§ 313):

I wish I *were* a mile hence. (= I have a wish. Were I a mile hence!)

428 **Subjunctives of supposition** (§§ 329. 3, 337, 347, 348, 352, 353. ii, 354, 357).

Expressions of supposition arise very simply out of expressions of command or wish:

*Be* it ever so humble, there's no place like home.

*Do* what he may, he will not succeed.

In such sentences the clause with the subjunctive or the imperative is a command used in a special sense; it denotes something which is demanded for the sake of argument: 'be it' = supposing it to be; 'do' = supposing him to do. Similar examples of this kind are:

*Come* what may, I have been bless'd. BYRON.

*Please* God, we shall succeed. (See note I on § 429.)

He refuseth to hear the voice of the charmer, *charm* he never so wisely. ('Never so' in suppositions = ever so.)

*Kill* or *be killed*, *live* or *die*, they shall know we are soldiers and men. TENNYSON.

The following lines, if they stood alone, might be taken for an expression of wish:

Wert thou all that I wish thee, great, glorious and free,  
First flower of the earth and first gem of the sea—

But the next two lines show that they express a supposition ('wert thou' = 'supposing thee to be', with an implication that the supposition is contrary to fact):

I might hail thee with prouder, with happier brow,  
But oh! could I love thee more deeply than now?

THOMAS MOORE, *Remember Thee*.

- 429 The addition of a subordinating conjunction to clauses like the above, in which the idea of supposition is expressed by the subjunctive alone, makes no difference to the meaning of the subjunctive (present or past tense):

*If* it be ever so humble, there's no place like home.

*If* please God,<sup>1</sup> we shall succeed.

*If* thou wert all that I wish thee, could I love thee more deeply than I do?

The word 'if' is only the dative case of a noun meaning 'condition'<sup>2</sup>: thus 'if it be' means simply 'on condition it be'; 'if thou wert' = 'on condition thou wert'.

- 430 The present subjunctive of supposition is used in *open conditions* (§ 347), referring to present or more commonly to future time, and not accompanied by a clause denoting conditioned futurity (§ 434):

It is a fault if the ball in service *fall* short or in the wrong court, or if it *pitch* on the top of or above the side or back walls. The server is out and the service passes to his opponent, if the ball *strike* the net (even should it go over), or if he *serve* two faults or cuts in succession. (Rules of the game of *Sticché*.)

Naught shall make us rue,

If England to itself *do rest* but true.

SHAKESPEARE (compound present subjunctive).

OBS. The perfect subjunctive (rare) differs from the present subjunctive only in marking the action as completed:

It is a fault if the ball *have fallen* short.

<sup>1</sup> In this construction 'please' takes the dative: 'if *you* please' = if it be pleasing *to you*. But the dative has come to be regarded as a nominative, and so we say 'if *God* pleases', 'if *I* please'.

<sup>2</sup> This noun is found in Old German; and its dative case (*ibu*) meant 'on condition'.—'So' and 'so that' are sometimes used in this sense (= *if*).

431 The past subjunctive of supposition has two uses :

(1) in *conditions with an implication* (§ 348), referring to present or future time,<sup>1</sup> and accompanied by a clause denoting conditioned futurity (§§ 434-435 and §§ 461. ii, 476. ii) :

If it *were* so, I should be sorry. }  
 If I *called* him, he would come. } §§ 348-352.

*Had* we wings like birds, we should not need aeroplanes.  
 (§ 354)

(2) in *open conditions* (§ 347), referring to past time, and not accompanied by a clause denoting conditioned futurity :

If it *were* so, it was a grievous fault. SHAKESPEARE.

He spoke, *were* it well, *were* it ill, as though a message  
 he bore. WILLIAM MORRIS, *The Pilgrim of Hope*.

432 The past perfect subjunctive is used in conditions with an implication (§ 348), referring to past time, and accompanied by a clause denoting conditioned futurity (§ 437 and §§ 461. ii, 476. ii) :

If it *had been* so, I should have been sorry.

If I *had called* him, he would have come.

Your sympathy, *had it been* timely, had been kind.

J. M. LLOYD THOMAS (*The Inquirer*, Jan. 22, 1916).

433 A past subjunctive of supposition, referring to present or future time (as in § 431. 1), may stand in an adjective-clause :

A government which *had* a strong police force at its disposal would be able to quell the disorder.

<sup>1</sup> Note that the past subjunctive here loses its reference to past time, and the same change of meaning is also found in German and Latin (*wenn es wäre, si esset*). But in Old English and Old Latin the past subjunctive sometimes refers to past time in this construction (*wære* = 'had been'; for example in the Old English version of St. John xi. 21 : *Gif þū wære hēr, nære mīn brōðor dēad*, 'if thou *hadst been* here, my brother were not dead').

Such adjective-clauses arise out of clauses of condition without 'if' ('a government *which had*' = a government, *had it*). Similarly we might convert 'People would miss their chief pleasure in life, *were their* neighbours void of blame' into 'People *whose* neighbours *were* void of blame would miss their chief pleasure in life'.

So, too, with the past perfect subjunctive. Compare 'Had *he been forewarned*, he would have been forearmed' with 'A man *who had been forewarned* would have been forearmed'.

All the above subjunctives (§§ 416-433) may be grouped together and called Subjunctives of Class *A*, denoting what *is to be* or *was to be*, or having a sense which can be easily traced to the meaning of obligation.

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(B). Subjunctives of likelihood or conditioned futurity.

434 These subjunctives denote what *would be* (would happen or would be done) or *would have been* (would have happened or would have been done) under imagined conditions.

The meaning of obligation has here undergone a considerable change: the subjunctive denotes *likelihood* or *conditioned futurity* (= futurity subject to a condition) rather than obligation—what is likely to happen instead of what must or ought to happen. This weakening of meaning is, however, easily intelligible.<sup>1</sup> There is also another change. The only tenses of the subjunctive used to denote conditioned futurity are the past and the past perfect. But the past subjunctive has come to denote what *is* likely, not what *was* likely; what *was* likely is expressed by the past perfect subjunctive. This change may, perhaps, be explained as follows. To say that a thing *was* likely to happen without adding that it is still likely to do so, is a natural way of suggesting that the likelihood of its happening has diminished. For example, if I am asked 'Is he

<sup>1</sup> The same change has taken place in the word 'should' in instances like 'In the course of justice none of us *should* see salvation' (Shakespeare, *Merch. of Ven.* iv. i. 200). See also *French Gram.* § 137, note on p. 56.

coming?' and I reply 'Well, he *was* coming', I suggest that there is some doubt about his coming—that his coming will take place *only if circumstances permit*.<sup>1</sup>

435 The only past subjunctives which are used at the present day to denote conditioned futurity in simple sentences and main clauses<sup>2</sup> are 'were', 'had', 'could', 'might', 'should', and 'would':

To underrate the dangers *were* foolish, but it *were* well not to overrate them. ('were' = would be; § 284. I)

You *had* better be careful.<sup>3</sup>

I *could*, if I would. ('could' = should be able)

I *might* succeed, if I tried. ('might' = should possibly)

One *should* not lend money to beggars. (cp. 'ought', § 477)

I *would* sell my ermine gown for a guilder. ('would' = should be willing)

436 Instead of the past subjunctive of other verbs in expressions of conditioned futurity, a subjunctive-equivalent ('should' or 'would' with the infinitive, §§ 461. ii, 476. ii) is used:

I *should regret* to hear it. (not 'I regretted')

If he knew, he *would tell*. (not 'he told')

But no such equivalents can be formed for the past subjunctive of 'can', 'may', 'shall', and 'will'; for these verbs have no infinitive (Part II, § 237). The only way of avoiding their past subjunctives in any construction is by substituting a different verb: for example, instead of 'I *could*, if I *would*', we may say 'I *should be able*, if I *were willing*'.

<sup>1</sup> In German and Latin also the past subjunctive generally loses its reference to past time in expressions of conditioned futurity.

<sup>2</sup> In subordinate clauses the past subjunctive of other verbs may be used to denote conditioned futurity; see § 438 (fourth example).

<sup>3</sup> 'You had better' = You *would have* better. The verb 'have' is here used in a special sense. The original form of this construction was 'It *were* better for you'; and then 'you had' was substituted for 'it were for you'. The two expressions are equivalent in meaning. Similarly 'I *had* rather die' = It *were* preferable for me to die.

- 437 The past perfect subjunctive of any verb may be used to denote conditioned futurity in past time :

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.

If thou hadst been here, my brother *had* not *died*.

ST. JOHN xi. 21.

If he had killed me, he *had done* a kinder deed.

SHELLEY.

Obs. The defective verbs 'can', 'may', 'will', 'shall', 'must', 'ought' cannot form past perfect subjunctives, because they have no past participles. For the way in which conditioned futurity in the past is expressed with one of these verbs, see §§ 444, 452, 460, 474, 480 (b).

- 438 Examples of subjunctives of conditioned futurity in subordinate clauses :

This is a luxury which few *could* afford.

He is so rich that he *might* afford it.

Do you doubt that we *would* die for such a cause ?

They might desire better terms than they *deserved*.  
 ('deserved' = would deserve)

They might have desired better terms than they *had*  
*deserved*. ('had deserved' = would have deserved)

- 439 Subjunctives of classes *A* and *B* may always be recognized as subjunctives by their *meaning* (sometimes also by their form). Very often the time referred to shows the mood to which the tense belongs: thus when a past tense does not refer to past time, it is generally a past subjunctive, not a past indicative. And whenever a form which belongs both to the indicative and to the subjunctive moods expresses a meaning which might have been expressed by 'shall', 'should', 'would', 'may', 'might', or 'let' with an object-infinitive, that form is a subjunctive, not an indicative.

It will be seen that the use of the above subjunctives is not arbitrary, but is due to the need of expressing a certain *meaning*, which the mood is capable of expressing. But it must be remembered that these meanings are more often expressed in Modern English by subjunctive-equivalents ('may', 'might', 'would', 'should', 'shall', and 'let' with the infinitive; §§ 453, 461. ii, 467-469. 476. ii, 482).

440 (C). **Subjunctives with weakened meaning**, equivalent to indicatives of the corresponding tense (present subjunctive = present indicative, past subjunctive = past indicative).

Such subjunctives are occasionally used in dependent questions as to a matter of fact (compare § 303, note):<sup>1</sup>

I wonder whether it *be* true. ('be' = is)

I wondered if it *were* true. ('were' = was)

Be she fairer than the day

Or the flowery meads in May,

If she be not so to me,

What care I how fair she *be*?

GEORGE WITHER. ('be' = is)

Even those who had often seen him were at first in doubt whether this *were* truly the brilliant and graceful Monmouth.

MACAULAY. ('were' = was)

OBS. This use of the subjunctive must be carefully distinguished from that mentioned in § 430 and § 431 (2), in which the present and the past subjunctive follow a non-interrogative 'if', and in which the subjunctive differs from an indicative in expressing the idea of *supposition*. To this latter class belongs the subjunctive 'be' in lines 1 and 3 of the above quotation from Wither.

<sup>1</sup> This use may be derived from an Old English use of the subjunctive in which it denoted the words or thoughts of another person: 'I wondered whether it *were* true' = 'I wondered whether it *was* (as somebody said) true.' Compare the corresponding construction in Latin (*Lat. Gram.*, §§ 363, 364).

THE DEFECTIVE VERBS.<sup>1</sup>

## 1. The verb 'can'.

441 The verb 'can' originally meant 'know'; hence 'cunning'. This helps us to see how 'can' came to be used with an object-infinitive: 'I can speak' = I understand speaking; hence 'I am able to speak'. Knowledge is power.

442 The **past tense** 'could' is either a past indicative or a past subjunctive:

(1) a past indicative, referring to past time:

Nobody <i>could</i> enough admire	} 'could' =	
The tall man and his quaint attire.		} was able.
He did all that he <i>could</i> .		

443 (2) a past subjunctive, referring to present or future time:

<i>Could</i> I but know!	} § 427.
I wish I <i>could</i> know.	

Oh <i>could</i> I fly, I'd fly with thee.	} § 431 (1): 'could' =	
J. LOGAN. <i>To the Cuckoo</i> .		} were able.
He would, if he <i>could</i> .		

He <i>could</i> , if he would.	} §§ 435, 438: 'could' =
This is a luxury which few <i>could</i> afford.	

444 'Could have' with a past participle expresses what *would have been possible* in the past (§ 437 Obs.):

He *could have done* it. (= It would have been possible for him to do it, He would have been able to do it.)

## 2. The verb 'may'.

445 The verb 'may' denotes permission or ability or possibility.

446 The **present tense** 'may' is either a present indicative or a present subjunctive:

<sup>1</sup> The forms of these verbs and their use with an object-infinitive have been studied in Part II, §§ 237-241.



(1) a present indicative :

'Please sir', said the boy, '*may* you ride a bicycle on this path?'—'Yes, *I may*', replied the Headmaster, 'but *you mayn't*'.

It *may* not be. ('may not' = cannot)

It *may* be so. ('may be' = is possibly)

Folks who put me in a passion

*May* find me pipe to another fashion.

('may' = will possibly)

447 (2) a present subjunctive :

Now let us sing, Long live the King!

And Gilpin, Long live he!

And when he next doth ride abroad,

*May* I be there to see!

COWPER.

I pray that I *may* be there to see.

In these instances 'may' = be permitted (cp. §§ 421, 423).

448 In clauses of purpose the present subjunctive 'may' = be able, shall be able (cp. § 424) :

We maintain a strong fleet, that (so that, in order that) it *may* protect our shores.

449 The **past tense 'might'** is either a past indicative or more commonly a past subjunctive :

(1) a past indicative, referring to past time :

I *might* not ride my bicycle on the path.

And he was rich and she was poor

And so it *might* not be.

J. G. SAXE.

His reign was drawing to its end, and the proud minister *might* perceive the signs of his approaching disgrace.

GIBBON. ('might' = could, was able)

450 (2) a past subjunctive, referring to present or future time :

*Might* I but see that day! (§ 427: 'might I' = were I permitted)

I should be glad, if I *might* speak to you. (§ 43I. I: 'I might' = I were permitted)

I *might* do it, if I liked. ('I might' = I should be able)

Men *might* be better, if we better deemed of them.

P. J. BAILEY. ('might' = would possibly)

*Might* I ask you a favour? ('might I?' = should I be permitted?)

} § 435.

451 In clauses of purpose the past subjunctive 'might' = should be able, denoting a purpose of the past (compare § 448):

They battled that we *might* be free.

LAURENCE BINYON.

452 'Might have' with a past participle expresses what *would have been possible* in the past (§ 437 Obs.):

He *might have done* it. (= It would have been possible for him to do it.)

453 'May' and 'might' forming subjunctive-equivalents.—

The present and the past subjunctive of 'may', taken together with the object-infinitive, are often equivalent in meaning to the present and the past subjunctive of the verb from which the infinitive (verb-noun) comes: thus '*may* Britannia *rule*' = *rule* Britannia; '*may* it *be* so' = *be* it so. And these equivalents are more often used than the corresponding subjunctives themselves, especially in clauses of purpose. Thus 'may protect' in § 448 and 'might be' in § 451 may be parsed as standing for the pres. subj. 'protect' and the past subj. 'were'.

### 3. The verb 'will'.

454 The root-meaning of the verb 'will' is willingness; but from this root-meaning other meanings have sprung. When 'will' and its past tense 'would' are used in a sense akin to willingness, they are said to be used with a *full meaning*; when this sense has been entirely lost, they are said to be used as *auxiliary* verbs.

455 'Will' and 'would' with a full meaning are used in all the three persons of the singular and the plural. The auxiliaries 'will' and 'would' are used only in the 2nd and 3rd persons, singular and plural.

56 The present tense 'will' is used—

(A) with a full meaning:

(a) denoting willingness:

He that *will* not when he may,  
When he *will*, he shall have nay.

When you *will*, they won't (= *will* not); when you won't, they *will*.

We'll send you packing. P. P. 32.

(b) denoting habit:

Cats *will* steal.—Valour *will* come and go. SHERIDAN.

(In these instances the 'will' is stressed.)

Care *will* kill a cat. (Here the 'will' is not stressed.)

They'll stand waiting for hours in long queues.

457 (B) as an auxiliary (2nd and 3rd persons only) in the tenses called future and future perfect (§§ 401, 412):

You *will see* what you *will see*.

They *will have seen* the day before they die.

Obs. The future perfect tense may be regarded as formed by combining the future of 'have' with a past participle, as in French: *ils* (they) *auront* (will-have) *vu* (seen).

458 The past tense 'would' is used—

(A) with a full meaning. In this use 'would' is either a past indicative or a past subjunctive:

(1) a past indicative, referring to past time:

(a) denoting past willingness:

He that *would* not when he might  
Could not, when he willed aright.

I could not and *would* not do what he wanted.

And in after years, if you *would* blame  
His sadness, he was used to say—

(*P. P.* 234; 'would' = were inclined)

(*b*) denoting past habit<sup>1</sup>:

Often when we were at work and she was sitting by,  
I *would* see her pausing. DICKENS.

459 (2) a past subjunctive, referring to present or future time :

He could, if he *would*. ('would' = were willing, § 431. 1.  
So too in *P. P.* 265, 'if he'd only return'.)

I *would* sell my ermine gown for a guilder.  
( 'would' = should be willing)

I *would*, if I could.

What thou *wouldst* highly,  
That *wouldst* thou holily; *wouldst* not play false,  
And yet *wouldst* wrongly win. SHAKESPEARE.

} § 435.

OBS. When 'would' is a subjunctive of conditioned futurity (§ 435), it often differs little in meaning from the present indicative 'will'; thus 'wouldst' in the above passage of Shakespeare is similar in meaning to 'wilt' or 'desirest'; and in sentences like 'Would (I would) that I were dead!' there is not much difference between 'I would' and 'I desire'. The translators of the New Testament perhaps intended 'ye would' to mean 'ye will' or 'ye desire' in their translation of the Golden Rule: 'Whatsoever ye *would* that men should

<sup>1</sup> In older forms of English 'should' was sometimes used in this sense: for example by Bunyan in *Grace Abounding* (Section 30): 'These commandments I did strive to keep, and then I *should* have comfort; yet now and then I *should* break one and so afflict my conscience: but then I *should* repent'. This use of 'should' comes from the meaning 'was bound', 'was sure'. The use of 'would' to denote past habit comes from the meaning of willingness or readiness.

do unto you, even so do ye also unto them' (ST. MATTHEW vii. 12).<sup>1</sup>

60 'Would have' with a past participle sometimes expresses what *would have been willed* in the past (§ 437, Obs.):

I *would have done* it (= I should have been willing to do it). Here 'would' has a full meaning; contrast § 461.

461 (B) as an auxiliary (2nd and 3rd persons only) in the tenses called future in the past and future perfect in the past. These tenses are used in two ways:

(i) as tenses of the indicative mood, referring to the future from a past point of view (§§ 403, 404; 413, 414):

I said that he *would come*.

I knew that you *would have finished* the work by 10 o'clock.

(ii) as equivalent to tenses of the subjunctive mood, denoting *likelihood* or *conditioned futurity*:

It *would be* foolish to underrate the danger.

('would be' = *were*, a past subjunctive, § 435; cp. § 436)

If he had killed me, he *would have done* a kinder deed.

('would have done' = *had done*, the past perfect subjunctive as used by Shelley, § 437)

Obs. 1. The close connexion between these two uses is shown by an instance in the *Pied Piper* (ll. 159, 160): 'Half the money *would replenish* their cellar's biggest butt with Rhenish.' Apart from the context this sentence might have either of the two meanings. But it is shown to denote conditioned futurity by the implied supposition ('if they spent the money on buying wine').

Obs. 2. The use of 'would' in the 1st person as an auxiliary is incorrect; but mistakes are often made, as in 'We must

<sup>1</sup> The literal translation of the Greek is 'Whatsoever you *will* (or *desire*)' &c. Compare St. Luke vi. 31 ('As you *will*'). In neither passage does the Greek mean 'would be willing'. See *The Hibbert Journal*, July 1915.

reconcile what we *would like* to do with what we can do'. Compare § 476 (ii).

Obs. 3. The future perfect in the past may be regarded as formed by combining the future in the past of 'have' with a past participle, as in French: *il* (he) *aurait* (would-have) *écrit* (written). Compare the German *er* (he) *hätte* (would-have) *geschrieben* (written).

#### 4. The verb 'shall'.

- 462 The root-meaning of the verb 'shall' is dueness or obligation. In Old English 'I shall' is sometimes used in the sense of 'I owe', with a noun as its object (for instance 'money' or 'allegiance'). And in Modern English, though the verb can no longer be used in this way, it is often used in senses which are closely connected with the sense of 'owe', the object-infinitive denoting what is due from the subject of the sentence or clause. For example 'you shall pay' is similar in meaning to 'you owe to pay', 'you owe payment'.
- 463 When 'shall' and its past tense 'should' have a meaning which is akin to that of obligation, they are said to be used with a *full meaning*. When the meaning of obligation has been entirely lost, the verb is said to be used as an *auxiliary*.
- 464 'Shall' and 'should' with a full meaning are used in all the three persons of the singular and the plural. The auxiliary 'shall' and 'should' are used only in the 1st person of the singular and the plural.
- 465 The root-meaning of 'shall' is the same as that of the subjunctive mood (§ 417). Hence it necessarily follows that 'shall' and 'should' when used with a full meaning may form with the object-infinitive equivalents of the subjunctive; that is, the 'shall' or 'should' *taken together with the object-infinitive* may be equivalent in meaning to a present or a past subjunctive of the verb from which the object-infinitive comes. Where this is the case a reference to the corresponding use of the subjunctive is given in square brackets (§§ 467-9, 472-6).

56 The present tense 'shall' is used—

(A) with a full meaning, denoting that something *is bound to happen* or *is to be done* in the future; the thing that is to be done is denoted by the object-infinitive:

Fear not, isle of blowing woodland, isle of silvery  
parapets!

Tho' the Roman eagle shadow thee, tho' the gathering  
enemy narrow thee,

Thou *shalt* wax and he *shall* dwindle, thou *shalt* be the  
mighty one yet. TENNYSON, *Boadicea*.

('shalt wax' = art to wax, art bound to wax)

*Shall* I, wasting in despair,  
Die because a woman's fair? GEORGE WITHER.

('shall I die?' = am I to die?)

He *shall* receive the money which is due to him.

67 Examples in subordinate clauses:

I will wait till the clock *shall* strike  
twelve.

The lads you leave will mind you,  
Till Ludlow tower *shall* fall.

A. E. HOUSMAN.

Pray St. Etheldreda to be with us when  
the day *shall* come.

KINGSLEY, *Hereward*.

[= subjunctive, § 419]

In such clauses the future action is sometimes thought of as inevitable; hence the use of 'shall'. Contrast the use of 'will' in clauses which express nothing more than the idea of future time: 'You will regret this some day, when it *will* be too late.' But in many instances the use of 'shall' does little more than mark an action as *in prospect*.

68 Sometimes the thing that is to be done by the person or persons spoken of (denoted by the subject of the sentence or clause) is *desired* by the speaker or by some one else:

Thou *shalt* love thy neighbour as thyself. [= imp. § 422]

Every man *shall* take care of himself. [= subj. § 421]

The order of the day is that every man *shall* take care of himself. [= subj. § 423]

*Shall* I tell you a secret? ('shall I tell?' = am I to tell?; here = is it your desire that I tell?)

- 469 From its use in commands and wishes, 'shall' comes to be used to express *supposition* (in clauses of condition and concession); compare § 428:

If you *shall* fail to understand  
What England is, and what her all-in-all,  
On you will come the curse of all the land.

TENNYSON, *The Fleet*. [= subjunctive § 430]

He that *shall* live this day and see old-age  
Will yearly on the vigil feast his neighbours  
And say 'To-morrow is Saint Crispian'.

SHAKESPEARE, *Henry V*, IV. 3. 44-46.

What though the storm *shall* burst? [= subj. § 357]

- 470 (B) as an auxiliary (1st person only, singular and plural) in the future and the future perfect tenses of the indicative mood (§§ 401, 412); compare § 457 and Obs.:

I *shall see* the day.

We *shall see* what we *shall see*.

I *shall have seen* the day, before I die.

- 471 EXCEPTION. Questions in the 2nd person take an auxiliary 'shall' when a 'shall' is expected in the answer: 'Shall you catch your train? I am afraid that you will miss it.' (Answer expected: 'I shall catch it' or 'I shall not catch it'). Contrast 'Will you give me a thousand guilders?' (Answer expected: 'We will' or 'We will not.')

- 472 The past tense 'should' is used—

(A) with a full meaning:

(i) denoting that something *was to be done* in the past.



This is the natural meaning for the past tense of 'shall' to have :

Where was Sweyn? Whither *should* they go till he came?  
KINGSLEY, *Hercward*.

('should they go' = were they to go)

Just as he said this, what *should* hap  
At the chamber door but a gentle tap?

('should' = was to, was destined to. Compare sentences like 'As I was walking down New Street, whom *should* I meet but Jones?')

They made a decree that lawyers *should* date their records from the year 1376. ('should' = were to, forming a subjunctive-equivalent in a noun-clause; cp. § 313)

He resolved to retire until the tolling of the castle-bell *should* announce the arrival of Elizabeth.  
SCOTT.

We proceeded to knock the balls about until the shower *should* cease.  
W. BLACK.

} cp. 'shall', § 467  
[ || subj. § 420 ]

473 (ii) denoting that something *is to be done* in present or future time. In this use 'should' does not differ, so far as its time is concerned, from 'shall'.<sup>1</sup>

(a) in sentences and clauses in which 'should' = ought:

You *should* keep your promise. ('you should keep' literally = it would be right for you to keep; § 435)  
*Should* auld acquaintance be forgot? BURNS.

The good old rule  
Sufficeth them—the simple plan  
That they *should* take who have the power  
And they *should* keep who can.

WORDSWORTH, *Rob Roy's Grave*.

What is there that he *should* fear?

<sup>1</sup> The explanation of this usage is that 'should' is here a past *subjunctive*, like 'could' in § 443, 'might' in § 450, and 'would' in § 459.

(b) in various kinds of subordinate clause :

Let him take heed, lest he *should* fall. [= subj. § 424]

On you will come the curse of all the land,  
*Should* this old England fall.

TENNYSON, *The Flect.* [= subj. § 430]

A man who *should* translate this book would deserve well  
of his country. [= subj. § 433]

It is right that you *should* be punished. [= subj. § 416]

474 'Should have' with a past participle expresses what *would have been right* (or sometimes what the speaker would have wished) in the past; see § 437 Obs. :

He *should have done* it. (= He ought to have done it,  
§ 480 b.)

You *should have heard* the Hamelin people  
Ringing the bells till they rocked the steeple.

475 In some dependent clauses 'should' (1st, 2nd, or 3rd person) is used without any of the meanings indicated above, so that 'should' with an infinitive or 'should have' with a past participle is almost equivalent to a tense of the indicative mood<sup>1</sup> :

This I wonder at, that he *should be* in debt.

SHAKESPEARE.

He was glad that I *should be* there.

It is (*or* was) remarkable that you *should have said* nothing  
about this.

<sup>1</sup> In this construction French and Latin employ the subjunctive mood; see *French Grammar*, § 362; *Latin Grammar*, § 364, Obs. 2. In earlier English and in some English dialects of the present day there is a use of 'should' to denote the words or thoughts of another person: 'He goes about saying that I *should be* a thief'; 'I heard a strange thing reported . . . of a raven that *should build* in a ship of the King's' (Ben Jonson); so, too, in Shakespeare, *As You Like It*, III. ii. 182. From this use of 'should' in Reported Speech the modern English usage referred to in § 475 and § 299 (4) has grown. Compare § 440, note.

76 (B) as an auxiliary (1st person only, singular and plural) in the tenses called future in the past and future perfect in the past.

These tenses are used in two ways :

(i) as tenses of the indicative mood, referring to the future from a past point of view (§§ 403, 404; 413, 414) :

I knew that I *should* never see their faces again.

I thought that I *should* never have finished.

(ii) as equivalent to tenses of the subjunctive mood, denoting *likelihood* or *conditioned futurity* :

I *should* like to do so.

If I knew, I *should* tell you. } for past subjunctive, § 436

I *should* have liked to do so. } = past perf. subj.

If I had known, I *should* have told you. } § 437

### 5. The verbs 'must' and 'ought'.

77 'Must' and 'ought' were originally past tenses (indicative and subjunctive). But from their use as past subjunctives denoting conditioned futurity they have come to refer to present time; and in most constructions they are used as present indicatives ('I must' = 'I should be obliged', hence 'I am obliged'; 'I ought' = 'I should be bound', hence 'I am bound'). Compare § 459 Obs. on the connexion between the past subjunctive 'would' and the present indicative 'will'.

So nigh is grandeur to our dust,

So near is God to man,

When duty whispers low 'Thou *must*,

The youth replies 'I can'. EMERSON.

As long as we remain, we *must* speak free,

Tho' all the storm of Europe on us break.

TENNYSON.

We do not what we *ought*,

What we *ought* not we do. MATTHEW ARNOLD.

('we ought' = we are bound to do, it is our duty to do)

- 478 'Must' sometimes expresses the same meaning as 'shall':

*Must* their ever-ravening eagle's beak and talon annihilate  
us?  
TENNYSON, *Boadicea*.

But sometimes 'must' and 'shall' express different meanings:

Old year, you *must* not die;  
You came to us so readily,  
You lived with us so steadily,  
Old year, you *shall* not die.

TENNYSON, *The Death of the Old Year*.

- 479 'Must' sometimes denotes what *is necessarily* the case:

God *must* know, and surely He  
Will explain it all one day!

H. REX FRESTON, *God knows*.

- 480 'Must' and 'ought' are used as past tenses in two constructions:

(a) in dependence on a tense of past time:

He knew that he *must* die. }  
He knew that he *ought* to go. } = was bound (to)

(b) followed by 'have' and a past participle:

You *must have caught* your train, if you had hurried.  
(= You *would necessarily have caught* your train, if . . .)  
I *ought to have done* it. (= I *should have been bound to do*  
it, or It *was my duty to do* it; literally 'I owed to have  
it done'.)

These expressions refer to past time, like the corresponding expressions with 'could' (§ 444), 'might' (§ 452), 'would' (§ 460), 'should' (§ 474).

#### THE VERB 'LET'.

- 481 The verb 'let' in the sense of 'allow' or 'cause' takes an accusative and an object-infinitive (Part II, § 262):

He will let *the piping drop*.  
Be so good as to let *me know*.

182 But a sentence containing the imperative of 'let' with an accusative and an infinitive is often equivalent in meaning to a sentence containing a subjunctive of desire (§ 421) with its subject in the nominative case; for example, '*let us sing*' = sing we, '*let them be prepared*' = be they prepared, '*let the King live long!*' = long live the King!

*Let every man take care of himself.*

*Let anyone deny it who can.*

*Let somebody call a policeman.*

*Let Britannia rule the waves.*

*Let us make our sword-arm doubly strong.*

*Let AB be equal to CD.* (a command equivalent to a supposition, compare § 428)

} Compare the subjunctives in § 421.

183 The mistake is sometimes made of using the nominative for the accusative in this construction :

*Let he who made thee answer that.*

BYRON.

*Let you and I cry quits.*

HUGHES, *Tom Brown's School Days*.

This error is the result of mingling two different constructions, which are equivalent in meaning. For example, '*Let us make our sword-arm doubly strong*' and '*Make we our sword-arm doubly strong*' are both correct, and they mean the same thing; but it is incorrect to transfer the nominative 'we' from the subjunctive to 'let' with the infinitive. Browning has the correct construction (*P. P.* 300):

So, Willy, *let me and you be wipers*

Of scores out with all men—especially pipers.

For which we might substitute a subjunctive and a nominative (*Be I and you*), but not the nominative after 'let' (*Let I and you be*).

CASES AND PREPOSITIONS.<sup>1</sup>

Two kinds of direct object.

484 A direct object generally denotes the person or thing on which the action of the verb is performed, as in 'Poke out *the nests*, block up *the holes*'. But some objects stand in a different relation to the verb; they denote the *result* of the action, as in 'Birds build *nests*', 'Rats make *holes*'. For the nests do not exist until the birds build them, or the holes until the rats make them.

485 This kind of object is found in instances like the following :

He smiled *a little smile*. P. P. 99.

They slept *a long sleep*.

They fought *a good fight*.

Joseph dreamed *a dream*.

In these instances the object contains a noun which is akin in form and meaning to the verb. In the following instances the noun is akin to the verb in meaning though not in form :

They fought *a battle*.

They ran *a race*.

They went *a walk*.

And in 'Birds build nests' the same thing is true; for a nest is a kind of building.

486 Such objects stand in the accusative case, like other objects. And, like other objects, they may be made into subjects by changing the verb from the active into the passive voice: '*Nests* are built by birds', 'A *dream* was dreamed by Joseph', '*Races* are run daily'. This shows that in the active construction such accusatives are really objects; and if we

<sup>1</sup> The meanings of the cases (nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, and dative) are given in Part II, §§ 164-80. The use of prepositions in forming adverb-phrases and adjective-phrases is given in Part I, §§ 34, 35; and in Part II, §§ 181-9, it is shown that phrases formed with prepositions are often equivalent to cases (the genitive, the dative, and the accusative). In Part I, § 36 prepositions are distinguished from adverbs.

compare 'They slept a long *sleep*' with 'They slept a long *while*', we see that there is a real difference between an object denoting the result of an action and an adverbial accusative, which cannot be made into a subject by changing the active into the passive construction.

### Sentences containing two direct objects.

487 In most sentences containing two direct objects one is an infinitive (Part II, §§ 262, 267):

We saw the vermin *sink*.

England expects every man *to do* his duty.

But the verb 'ask' may take a noun as second direct object in the accusative case (denoting the result of the action):

He asked me *a question* (or *a favour*).

488 The verb 'teach' may also be regarded as taking two accusatives in sentences like the following:

He taught *me a lesson*.

He taught *me French*.

But as we may also say 'He taught French *to me and my brother*', the verb 'teach' may be regarded as taking an accusative and a dative (direct and indirect object; Part II, § 173).

OBS. In Old English there were two verbs meaning 'teach'. One of them took two accusatives, and the other a dative and an accusative. In Modern English the dative never differs from the accusative in *form*; so that it is impossible to say with certainty whether one of the cases after the verb 'teach' is a dative or an accusative. But the Modern English 'teach' is etymologically the same as the Old English verb which took dat. and accus.<sup>1</sup>

### The case taken by prepositions.

489 All prepositions take the accusative in Modern English (Part II, § 169). In Old English some prepositions took the dative, for example the preposition meaning 'with' (*mid*); but a change passed over the language, so that in late Old

<sup>1</sup> *Tēcan* took dat. and accus.; *lǣran* took two accusatives.

English there was a strong tendency to use the accusative after all prepositions.<sup>1</sup> Thus though we cannot distinguish accusatives from datives by their *form* in modern English, yet there is good reason for thinking that the case used after all prepositions at the present day is the accusative.

**Order of words in sentences containing prepositions.**

- 490 A preposition is often separated from the noun or pronoun which it governs, and placed later in the sentence. This order of words is quite good English, though it is unknown in other languages.
- 491 The separation of the preposition from its noun or pronoun is found :

- (i) in simple sentences when the speaker desires to make the noun or pronoun prominent by putting it (together with its epithets, if any) at the beginning of the sentence :

*Two things* I cannot live *without*—Truth and Love.

J. S. BLACKIE.

*Him* I will live *for* and die *for*.

*This* I insist *on*.

- (ii) in questions :

*Whom* are you talking *to* ?

*Which house* do you live *in* ?

- (iii) in adjective-clauses :

This is *what* poets dream *of*, deep-hearted men hope *for*, none quite believe *in*.                      GEORGE MEREDITH.

I visited the house *which* he used to live *in*

When the relative pronoun is 'that', the preposition *never* precedes it: I visited the house *that* he used to live *in*.

- 492 When the relative pronoun is not expressed (§ 317), we get sentences like 'I visited the house he lived *in*' ; and when an

<sup>1</sup> The same thing happened in late Latin and late Greek.



infinitive is used as a substitute for an adjective-clause (§ 330), we get sentences like 'This is not a good house *to live in*' (= in which people should live).

493 Instances like the following do not contain prepositions separated from their nouns or pronouns, but adverbs: 'Call the hounds *off*', 'Call *off* the hounds'; 'He put his coat *on*', 'He put *on* his coat' (Part I, § 36).

494 An accusative governed by a preposition may be turned into the subject of a passive construction; it then stands in the nominative case, the preposition being retained as an adverb (immediately after the verb, as a general rule):

*He* was laughed *at* by everybody. (passive form of  
'Everybody laughed *at him*')

*Such a result* cannot be wondered *at* by any one who knows the facts.

*The matter* was much talked *about* by us.

*The doctor* was sent *for*.

*The Picts* were never heard *of* again.

*All this* should be done away *with*.

*This nonsense* should be put an end *to* (made an end *of*).

495 This construction is often found in adjective-clauses:

This is not a house *which* should be lived *in* by any self-respecting family.

When an infinitive is used as a substitute for an adjective-clause (§ 330), we get sentences like 'This is not a house *to be lived in* by any self-respecting family'.

496 Note that many passive constructions become intelligible in the light of the active construction from which they come. See § 301 (on the retained infinitive) and Part II, § 176 (on the retained accusative).

## THE WORDS 'BUT', 'EXCEPT', 'SAVE'.

497 The word 'but' has five chief uses :

(1) as a co-ordinating conjunction :

(a) connecting two sentences, or two parts of a double sentence, or two clauses :

Nor suffered they hostelry or tavern

To shock with mirth a street so solemn :

*But* opposite the place of the cavern

They wrote the story on a column. *P. P.* 281-4.

When the sun rises, *but* before he is high in the sky, we will ascend the mountain.

(b) connecting two words or phrases :

The Piper had no beard or moustache *but* smiling lips.

He inflicted a heavy *but* well-deserved punishment on the town of Hamelin. He acted with severity *but* with justice.

498 (2) as an adverb (= 'only'):

He is *but* a child. I can *but* try.

499 (3) as a preposition with the accusative (= 'except'):

Just as he said this what should hap

At the chamber door *but* a gentle tap? *P. P.* 44.

There was no one left *but* me. R. L. STEVENSON.

No one had the least control over him *but* her.

W. BLACK.

500 (4) as a subordinating conjunction :

(a) = 'if not', 'unless', 'other than' :

Away went Gilpin, who *but* he? COWPER.

('who *but* he?' = who if not he? ; who went away, if he did not go away?)

None *but* they have a right to rule.

DR. ARNOLD.

It never rains *but* it pours.

('but it pours' = unless it pours ; without pouring)

The boy stood on the burning deck

Whence all *but* he had fled. MRS. HEMANS.

(The meaning might have been better expressed by using 'but' as a preposition with the accusative, and the line is sometimes quoted with 'but him'. This, however, is not what Mrs. Hemans wrote.)

It is anything *but* right. ('but right' = other than right)  
I cannot *but* think so. (= I cannot do anything other than think so)

(b) = 'that . . . not':

Never fear *but* I'll go.

('but I'll go' = that I will not go)

501 (5) as a relative pronoun (= who . . . not, which . . . not ; § 320):

There was hardly one of the Frenchmen *but* looked on Hereward as a barbarian Englishman. KINGSLEY.

('but looked' = who did not look)

There 's not the smallest orb which thou behold'st

*But* in his motion like an angel sings. SHAKESPEARE.

502 The word 'except' was originally a past participle (= 'excepted'), used in the nominative absolute construction (§ 366):

*Richard except*, those whom we fight against

Had rather have us win than him they follow.

SHAKESPEARE.

Compare the absolute construction with 'excepted':

I certainly had no assistance whatever, *the making of my clothes excepted*. DICKENS.

503 But 'except' has come to be used—

(1) as a preposition with the accusative:

No one exactly understands him *except me*.

MRS. BROWNING.

- 504 (2) as a subordinating conjunction (= 'if not', 'unless'). This use is often found before a preposition or another subordinating conjunction:

Bread was not to be had *except by ticket*. CARLYLE.

Nor do I know how to prevent the course of justice *except by paying* the money myself. GOLDSMITH.

It is never to be found *except in the wrong place*.

He is never cross, *except when he is ill*.

- 505 With a verb (indicative or subjunctive, as after 'if') the use of 'except' as a subordinating conjunction is old-fashioned:

Do not trouble yourself about writing to me, *except you are* quite in the humour for it. KEBLE.

Thou couldst have no power against me, *except it were given* thee from above. ST. JOHN XIX. 11; cp. iii. 2, 5.

- 506 The word 'save' in the following uses originally meant 'saved' (= not included) in an absolute construction, like 'except' (§ 502). It is derived through the French *sauf* from the Latin *salvō* (the ablative case of the adjective *salvus*, 'saved').

- 507 But it has come to be used (chiefly in poets):

(1) as a preposition with the accusative:

Who should be King *save him* who makes us free?  
TENNYSON.

Wherein all plunged and perished  
*Save one*. P. P. 123. (= except one)

- 508 (2) as a subordinating conjunction (= 'if not', 'unless'):

In me there dwells  
No greatness, *save it be* some far-off touch  
Of greatness to know well I am not great.

TENNYSON.

*Save* he who reigns above, none can resist. MILTON.  
( 'save he' = unless he can)

Who shall weep above your universal grave *save* I?

BYRON.

Where was the sin . . . *save* in wealth?      WARREN.

No noise is heard,

*Save* when the rugged bear and the gaunt wolf

Howl in the upper region.      ROGERS.

### ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND ADVERBS.

509 Adjectives, either preceded by 'the' or without 'the', may be used as nouns :

(i) singular in meaning :

To pay this sum to a wandering fellow

With a gipsy coat of *red* and *yellow*.      P. P. 161-2.

He has come at *last*.

In *short*, we were greatly disappointed.

Things went from *bad* to *worse*.

He has gone to *the bad*. He took a turn for *the better*.

This is *the utmost* he can do.

Place that rose a little more to *the left*.

*The Norman-French* became the language of the upper classes, while *Saxon* was spoken by the peasantry.

(ii) plural in meaning :

*Rich* and *poor* suffered alike.

Heaven's gate does not open easily to *the rich*.

None but *the brave* deserve *the fair*.

510 Verb-adjectives preceded by 'the' are often used as nouns :

He stood between *the living* and the dead.<sup>1</sup>

He healeth *the broken* in heart.      PSALM cxlvii. 3.

511 Expressions like the following, which consist of a pronoun denoting number or amount (Part II, § 97) preceded by an

<sup>1</sup> 'Dead' is not a verb-adjective; the past participle of 'die' is 'died' (active: Part II, §§ 258, 247; see also § 251). Compare 'died of wounds' (past participle active) with 'killed in action' (past participle passive).

adjective and followed by a noun, may be explained by supplying the preposition 'of' before the noun: 'a few ships' (= a small number *of* ships), 'the few survivors', 'a little wine' (= a small quantity *of* wine), 'a great many men' (= a large multitude *of* men), 'two hundred men', 'three score eggs', 'a dozen eggs'. On pronouns qualified by adjectives, see Part I, § 27, Obs. 2.

- 512 Adverbs denoting time or place are sometimes used like adjectives, as epithets of nouns :

the *then* parliament—the *above* remarks—the remarks *below*—the *far-off* isles.

This use is especially common when the noun is akin in meaning to a verb :

my *arrival there*—his *departure hence*—his *life abroad*—his *homeward journey*.

- 513 Adverbs are sometimes used as nouns, and may thus be governed by a preposition :

our *hereafter*—for *ever*—for *once*—till *now*—since *then*—after *to-day*—before *to-morrow*—from *here*—in *there*.

#### REPORTED SPEECH.

- 514 A speech may be either (i) quoted in the words used by the speaker, or (ii) reported from the point of view of some one else.

- 515 Sometimes a report merely summarizes the contents of the speech :

The Minister of Munitions described three methods of organizing workshops for the manufacture of shell : the setting up of national factories, as had been done in Yorkshire ; the adaptation of existing workshops, which was the method preferred in Lancashire ; and a combination of the two.

- 516 But a report may be put in a form which more closely resembles what was said, without being a quotation of the

words actually used. The original speech may be thrown into dependence on a verb of 'saying' (expressed or understood), called the **leading verb**: simple sentences and main clauses will then become noun-clauses (dependent statements, dependent questions, dependent desires, or dependent exclamations); subordinate clauses will remain subordinate:

The Minister of Munitions **says that** there *are* three methods whereby workshops *may* be organized for the manufacture of shell; national factories *may* be set up, as *has been done* in Yorkshire; existing workshops *may* be adapted, which *is* the method preferred in Lancashire; and these two methods *may* be combined; but he *hopes* that whatever *is done will be done* quickly.

517 It is more usual to put the leading verb into the past tense; when this is done, all present and future tenses of the original speech are adjusted to the past point of view; that is, they are changed into the corresponding tenses of past time:

The Minister of Munitions **said that** there *were* three methods whereby workshops *might* be organized for the manufacture of shells; national factories *might* be set up, as *had been done* in Yorkshire; existing workshops *might* be adapted, which *was* the method preferred in Lancashire; and these two methods *might* be combined; but he *hoped* that whatever *was done*<sup>1</sup> *would be done* quickly.

518 Tenses of past time in the original speech are unchanged in the report; except that a past tense is often changed into a past perfect in dependence on a leading verb in the past tense:

<sup>1</sup> Note that here the past indicative refers to the future from the past point of view, just as the present indicative refers to the future from the present point of view in the corresponding sentence in § 516. Cp. § 420 Obs

## ORIGINAL SPEECH.

In France the private workshops, which *were* making motor-cars, have been turned on to do nothing but produce shells. In the last attack the French *fired* hundreds of thousands of these shells into the German trenches. With what result? That by the time the French *marched* up, the German trenches *had been destroyed*, and they *marched* through the first line with very little loss of life, and *captured* it.

REPORT (depending on a leading verb in the past tense).

In France the private workshops, which *had been* making motor-cars, had been turned on to do nothing but produce shells. In the last attack the French *had fired* hundreds of thousands of those shells into the German trenches. With what result? That by the time the French *marched* up, the German trenches *had been destroyed*, and they *marched* through the first line with very little loss of life, and *captured* it.

- 519 But quotations in the original speech may be retained without change of tense:

I have heard it said by business men, 'Time *means* money'. Time here means lives.

He had heard it said by business men that Time *means* money. Time here meant lives.

- 520 The above rules (§§ 517, 518) apply to subjunctives and subjunctive-equivalents, except subjunctives of desire (see § 521):

If this *be* so, there is no time to be lost; each man must do his best, in order that a decisive result *may be achieved* as soon as possible.

[He said that] if this *were* so, there was no time to be lost; each man must (§ 480 a) do his best, in order that a decisive result *might be achieved* as soon as possible.

If any other remedy *were adopted*, it *would be* worse than the disease.

If any other remedy *were adopted*, it *would be* worse than the disease.



521 Imperatives and subjunctives of desire (§§ 421, 422) are reported by using 'let' with the infinitive (§ 482), that is, without any change of tense; vocative cases are omitted:

*Give* all the help you can,  
*gentlemen*, to the men at the  
front.

*Let* them *give* all the help  
they could to the men at the  
front.

*Deny* it who can.

*Let* who could *deny* it.

Britannia *rule* the waves.

*Let* Britain *rule* the waves.

522 When the leading verb is of the 3rd person,<sup>1</sup> pronouns and possessive adjectives referring to the subject of the leading verb, or denoting a person addressed by the subject of the leading verb, are thrown into the 3rd person in reported speech: also the pronoun and adjective 'this' is generally turned into 'that', and the adverbs 'here' and 'now' into 'there' and 'then', except when these changes would make the meaning obscure:

The only thing *I* would say  
to *you* is that, whatever *you*  
do, *I* hope *you* will do it  
quickly. *You* are business  
men, and *you* know the value  
of time—always valuable,  
never more valuable than it  
is *now*.

That is *my* appeal. *I* am  
*here* asking *you* to plant the  
flag on *your* workshops. Con-  
vert *your* lathes into batta-  
lions. Believe *me*, that if  
Britain turns back on *this*

The only thing *he* would say  
to *them* was that, whatever  
*they* did, *he* hoped *they* would  
do it quickly. *They* were  
business men, and *they* knew  
the value of time—always  
valuable, never more valuable  
than it was *then*.

That was *his* appeal. *He*  
was *there* asking *them* to plant  
the flag on *their* workshops.  
Let them convert *their* lathes  
into battalions. Let them  
believe *him*, if Britain turned

<sup>1</sup> The leading verb is not necessarily of the 3rd person; for the reporter may report a speech of his own or a speech of the person whom he is addressing. He will then begin, 'I said that' or 'You said that'.

journey and on *this* task, she will become nothing but a 'dead sea' among nations.

back on *that* journey and on *that* task, she would become nothing but a 'dead sea' among nations.

- 523 This use of the third person often leads to ambiguity as to who is meant ; so that it is sometimes necessary to insert the name in brackets, for the sake of clearness :

Think of the position of the man who has not done his duty. When some one asks him in the days to come 'What did *you* do, when the government asked *you* to do *your* best?', *I* should like to know whether he could say 'I refused, because *I* was not going to damage *my* trade'. *I* defy any man to say that in the years to come without a blush on his face.

Let them think of the position of the man who had not done his duty. When some one asked him in the days to come what *he* had done when the government asked *him* to do *his* best, *he* should like to know whether he could say that *he* refused, because *he* was not going to damage *his* trade. *He* defied any man to say that in the years to come without a blush on his face.

- 524 In the future and the future in the past, the auxiliary of the 3rd person, if its subject denotes the same person as the subject of the leading verb, is 'shall' and 'should' ; but 'will' and 'would' are used when they correspond to 'I will' or 'we will' in the original speech :

I *shall* vote for the motion.

He said that he *should* vote for the motion.

I *will* explain briefly the ground on which I *shall* give my vote.

He said that he *would* explain briefly the ground on which he *should* give his vote.

Obs. The above is the correct usage ; but in every-day speech 'will' and 'would' are often substituted for 'shall' and 'should' in this construction.

## APPENDICES

### I. What is Grammar?

Grammar is the study of the laws of language; it shows how words and sentences are formed. But the laws of languages are different in some respects from the laws of the state or the rules of a school. The laws of the state and the rules of a school are laid down by authority, because they are considered to be right. The laws of language are like the laws of physical science; they are not commands, but *statements* as to the facts of language or of some particular language. They do not rest on authority, but are discovered by observation. In order to discover a law of language it is necessary to examine a great many facts or instances; and it then becomes possible to make a general statement as to these facts. Such general statements are called 'laws' of language.

But grammar does something more than make general statements as to the facts of language. It also calls attention to the usages of the *best* writers and speakers, and directs pupils to imitate them. In so far as grammar does this, the laws of grammar are like the laws of the state. These laws of language are rules which ought to be obeyed, because they are considered to be right. It is not always easy to decide which are the best usages of a language; for all languages change, and what is best at one time is not necessarily best at another. But grammar can generally say which are the best usages of a particular time; for example, which usages of English are approved by educated people at the present day.

The reason why we study English Grammar is, therefore, twofold. First, we study it as we study a physical science, say botany; we dissect our speech in order to find out how words are formed and how sentences are built up. Secondly, we study grammar with a view to finding out which usages best deserve to be

imitated. For, although we can all speak and write English, we do not always speak or write it correctly. The second object with which we study English Grammar is, therefore, a practical one. The first object is mainly a scientific one.

But even the scientific study of English has also a practical use. For English is akin to all the other languages that we study at school—German, Latin, French, and Greek. They have all the same parts of speech, and the ways in which sentences are built up in them are in the main the same. So that to understand the structure of the English language carries us a good way towards understanding the structure of these foreign languages. In so far as it does this the scientific study of English is practically useful. In studying English Grammar we are really studying not only the grammar of English but the grammar of all the languages which belong to the family of which English is a member.

## II. The relation of English to other Languages.

English is a Germanic language: it is descended from a language which was once spoken in Germany, but which is now extinct. The separate existence of the English language begins with the emigration of tribes (commonly called Anglo-Saxons) from the Continent to Britain about the middle of the fifth century A.D.

Modern German, Dutch, and Flemish are also descendants of the same extinct language, and therefore closely related to English. But the relation of English to Dutch and Flemish is closer than its relation to Modern German; for Modern German is 'High German', whereas English, Dutch, and Flemish belong to the 'Low German' group of Germanic languages. The names 'high' and 'low' denoted originally the geographical situation of the peoples who spoke these dialects; 'High German' was spoken in the southern highlands, 'Low German' in the northern lowlands.

There are other Germanic languages besides those mentioned above. The languages now spoken in Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland) all belong to the Germanic family, being descended from a common Germanic or Teutonic ancestor.

That English is a Germanic language is proved chiefly by its grammar. All the inflexions of Old English are Germanic. But though the grammatical structure of English is akin to that of its sisters and cousins, the *vocabulary* of English has come from many different sources. All languages contain some admixture of foreign

words; but the vocabulary of English has a larger number of foreign words in it than any other language that has ever been spoken in Europe. The commonest English words are, it is true, of Germanic origin—the pronouns, the numerals, most of the prepositions and conjunctions, and some of the commonest nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. But, if we were to count the total of English words, we should find that the large majority of them are of foreign origin, coming chiefly from French, Latin, and Greek. Some of these foreign words are rarely used; but many of them form part of the stock of words used in everyday conversation.

In what relation do these foreign languages (French, Latin, and Greek) stand to the Germanic or Teutonic group mentioned above? French is a modified form of Latin, like Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese; and Latin was a member of a group of ancient dialects which were once spoken in Italy. But these Italic dialects were not unrelated to the Germanic group. They were descended from an Italic ancestor, which was akin to the Teutonic ancestor spoken of above. This is proved by the fact that many words and inflexions which are rightly described as Germanic are merely modifications of words and inflexions which are found in the Italic group; for example, the words which denote 'father', 'mother', 'brother', 'sister' (Latin *pater, māter, frāter, soror*; German *vāter, mutter, brūder, schwester*), the numerals 'one', 'two', 'three', &c. (Latin *ūnus, duo, trēs, &c.*; German *ein, zwei, drei, &c.*), the inflexion of the 3rd person singular of the present tense of verbs (compare English *bear-eth*<sup>1</sup> with Latin *fer-t*), and the inflexion of the genitive singular of nouns (compare English *father-s* with Latin *patr-is*).

The Teutonic ancestor of the Germanic languages and the Italic ancestor of Latin and its kin were not the only members of that early family of languages. There were four other ancient languages which stood in the relation of sisters to them. One of these was ancient Greek. Another was the ancestor of certain languages now spoken in India and Persia; this may be called the Indo-Iranian sister. Another sister was the ancestor of the Celtic languages (Welsh, Irish, Gaelic, &c.), one of which was spoken by the ancient Britons. Another sister was the ancestor of Russian, Polish, Bulgarian, Lettish, and other Slavonic lan-

<sup>1</sup> The Modern form, *bear-s*, is later.

guages; this may be called the Letto-Slavonic sister. All these sisters were descended from the same remote ancestor, which is called Aryan or Indo-European.

The fact that all the languages studied in our schools are members of one great family of languages is of great importance. It shows that though English has come under the influence of other languages, the languages from which it has borrowed are akin to itself. Almost everything in English is Aryan. For what English owes to languages belonging to other families (such as Hebrew or Turkish or Chinese) is of small importance.<sup>1</sup>

The English language may be compared to a building in which part is Saxon, part Norman, part Early English, and part Perpendicular in style, yet which is felt to be harmonious, because these different styles are merely varieties of the same style and blend very well together.

The most important periods at which foreign words were introduced into English are as follows: <sup>2</sup>

(1) The Danish invasions and settlements in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries introduced many Scandinavian words (at first only in the North of England), for example, the verbs 'hit' and 'take'; and the forms of English words were also modified by Scandinavian influence, many of the old terminations of words being dropped.

(2) During the centuries which followed the Norman Conquest in A. D. 1066, a great many Norman-French words were taken over into English, for example, the nouns 'beef', 'mutton', 'pork'; and also the forms of English words and the constructions of English sentences were modified by Norman-French influence. Thus the process of dropping the terminations of words, which had begun in the North under Danish influence, was carried further.

(3) Latin words have come into English at various periods in the history of the language. The Anglo-Saxon invaders brought with them a few Latin words which had been already naturalized

<sup>1</sup> From Turkish we have got a few words, for instance *coffee*; China has given us the word *tea* and the names of various kinds of tea; from Japan comes the word *rickshaw*; from America we have got a number of words, including *squaw*, *wigwam*, *tobacco*, *potato*.

<sup>2</sup> For fuller details on this subject see Dr. H. Bradley's *The Making of English* (ch. iii, pp. 80-110). Strange as it may seem, Old English contains very few words taken from the language of the Celtic Britons.

in their language before the invasion of Britain; for instance, the words 'street' [Latin *strāta*, 'a paved road'], 'wine' [Latin *vīnum*], 'cheese' [Latin *cāseus*], 'mile' [Latin *mīlia*, the plural of *mille*, 'a thousand'; i. e. a thousand paces].

A few Latin words were picked up from the Romanized inhabitants of Britain by the Anglo-Saxon conquerors; for example, they used the Latin *castra*, 'a camp', as a place-name in *Chester*, *Winchester*, *Doncaster*, &c. On the conversion of the English to Christianity after the landing of St. Augustine in A. D. 597, many Latin words connected with the church were introduced; for instance, 'altar' [Latin *altāre*], 'creed' [Latin *crēdō*, 'I believe'], 'cup' [Latin *cūpa*, 'vessel'], 'font' [Latin *fons*, 'fountain'], 'mass' [Low Latin *missa*, 'dismissal'].

But the great mass of Latin words have come into English since the Norman Conquest. In the Middle Ages Latin was the language employed by the clergy and by educated persons generally for the purpose of writing books; and many Latin words found their way (generally in a changed form) into English. And throughout modern times English has been enriched by the introduction of words of Latin origin, which were first employed in some modified form by writers familiar with Latin literature, and afterwards became part of the current coin of the language. Examples of common words derived direct from Latin (as distinct from Latin words which have come through Norman-French) are 'captive', 'circle', 'conduct', 'connect', 'cultivate', 'educate', 'exit', 'fact', 'reflect', 'tenet'.

(4) Greek words have also come into English at various periods. Some Greek words were introduced in a latinized form at the introduction of Christianity; for instance, 'priest' [Greek *presbuteros*, 'elder', Latin *presbyter*], 'monk' [Greek *monakhos*, 'solitary', 'a dweller alone', Latin *monachus*], 'bishop' [Greek *episkopos*, 'overseer', Latin *episcopus*]. In the sixteenth century, after the Revival of Greek learning in Western Europe, a large number of Greek words were introduced by writers familiar with the Greek language. Most of these came through the French, the Italian, or the Latin. And in modern times many words of Greek origin have been coined, mainly as scientific terms: for instance, 'oxygen' [employed in the sense of 'acid-producing'], 'photography' [literally 'light-writing'], 'telegram' [lit. 'written at a distance'].

### III. Periods of the English Language.

The history of the English language falls into the following periods:

1. Anglo-Saxon, or Old English, down to about A. D. 1150—the period in which the old terminations of words were preserved.
2. Middle English, from about A. D. 1150 to about 1450—the period in which most of the terminations were levelled to an unaccented *e*, and the language was re-fashioned under Norman-French influence.
3. Modern English, from about A. D. 1450 to the present day—the period in which the unaccented termination *e* has become silent.



# EXERCISES

## KINDS OF SENTENCE (§§ 282-284).

### I

Classify the following sentences as (1) Statements, (2) Questions, (3) Desires, or (4) Exclamations; and supply the proper punctuation at the end of each. Say also whether the sentence contains an indicative, an imperative, a subjunctive, or a subjunctive-equivalent (§ 284).

- A.
1. Have you heard the news
  2. It seems scarcely credible
  3. How strange it is
  4. Do not trouble to answer this letter
  5. Why are you so keen about the matter
  6. May I ask you to help me
  7. I may perhaps be able to help you
  8. May I be there to see (COWPER, *John Gilpin*)
  9. Long live Claude Melnotte (BULWER)
  10. The lady doth protest too much (SHAKESPEARE)
  11. Ring out the false, ring in the true (TENNYSON)
  12. What a fall was there, my countrymen (SHAKESPEARE)
  13. What care I
  14. What can ail thee, Knight-at-arms (KEATS)
  15. Waft me from the harbour mouth,  
Wild wind (TENNYSON)
  16. Some heavenly power guide us out of this fearful country  
(SHAKESPEARE)
  17. It were a shame to let this land by lease (SHAKESPEARE)
  18. Would it not be a shame to let this land by lease

19. What a shame it would be to let this land by lease
20. Who would have thought of seeing you here

## II

1. Make up six sentences of your own (two Statements, two Questions, and two Exclamations), and let one of each kind contain a subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent.

2. Make up three sentences containing the verb 'may' (*a*) in a Statement, (*b*) in a Question, (*c*) in a Desire.

## III

Distinguish the following Desires as (1) Commands, or (2) Wishes.

1. Do as you would be done by.
2. Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves.
3. So help me God.
4. Friend, too old to be so young, depart. TENNYSON.
5. Sister, farewell for ever. TENNYSON.
6. Speak, and let the topic die. TENNYSON.

## KINDS OF SENTENCE, CONTINUED (§ 285).

## I

Classify the following sentences, as in the preceding exercise (I), supplying punctuation; and say whether the Main Clause of each contains an indicative, an imperative, a subjunctive, or a subjunctive-equivalent:

1. 'Twere something still to tell  
That no Scottish foot went backward,  
When the Royal Lion fell  
(AYTOUN, *Edinburgh after Flodden*)
2. Breathes there the man with soul so dead  
Who never to himself hath said  
This is my own, my native land  
(SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*)
3. What are the wild waves saying,  
Sister, the whole day long,  
That ever amid our playing  
I hear but their low, lone song

(J. E. CARPENTER)

4. Where the moon-silver'd inlets  
 Send far their light voice  
 Up the still vale of Thisbe,  
 O speed and rejoice  
 (MATTHEW ARNOLD, *Callicles' Song*)

5. It may be, in yon smoke concealed.  
 Your comrades chase e'en now the fliers,  
 And, but for you, possess the field  
 (A. H. CLOUGH, *Say not the struggle naught availeth*)

6. If you have tears, prepare to shed them now  
 (SHAKESPEARE)

7. How great is the authority of these writers may be judged from the fact that several cabinet ministers are included among them

8. Whether he will come or not depends on circumstances

9. What he would have done in other circumstances who can tell

10. What I want you to note is what an extraordinary state of affairs this reveals

11. Who steals my purse steals trash (SHAKESPEARE)

12. If we've promised them aught, let us keep our promise  
 (BROWNING)

13. What a world this would be, if every one of us had an iron will

14. As he spoke, how the old truths came home with a meaning which they had never had before

15. If you were in my shoes, would you forgive him  
 (R. L. STEVENSON)

## II

Make up eight examples of complex sentences (two of each of the four kinds mentioned in § 285).

## NOUN-CLAUSES (§ 287).

## I

Pick out the noun-clauses in the following passages, and say whether they are used as subject or as object or predicatively or in apposition.

1. Now I saw in my dream that Christian went not forth alone; for there was one whose name was Hopeful, who joined himself unto him and told him that he would be his companion. This Hopeful also told Christian that there were many more of the men in the fair that would take their time and follow after.

BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

2. Tell those bold traitors of London's proud town  
That the spears of the North have encircled the crown.

SCOTT.

3. The flowers in a spring garden know, as old friends, that they are welcome. Let us imagine that the winter is past and that we survey their bright charms once more.

DEAN HOLE, *About the Garden*.

4. How the English navy came to hold so extraordinary a position is worth reflecting on. How it grew, why after a sleep of so many hundred years the genius of our Scandinavian forefathers suddenly sprang again into life—of this we are left without explanation.

FROUDE, *English Seamen*.

5. That the British infantry soldier is more robust than the soldier of any other nation can scarcely be doubted by those who in 1815 observed his powerful frame, distinguished amidst the united armies of Europe. NAPIER, *History of the Peninsular War*.

6. I beg to remind you of the old musty saw that meat and mass never hindered man.

R. L. STEVENSON, *Catrina*.

7. Gilbert of Ghent, keeping Lincoln Castle or the Conqueror, was perplexed in mind. For Hereward sent him a message that forasmuch as he had forgotten his warning in Bruges Street and put a rascal cook in his mother's manor he should ride Odin's horse on the highest ash in the Brunswold.

KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

8. The old gentleman then cried out that I must be the lad with the silver button. 'Well then,' said he, 'I have a word for you that you are to follow your friend to his country.' He then asked me how I fared, and I told him my tale.

R. L. STEVENSON, *Kidnapped*.

9. The characteristic peculiarity of the Pilgrim's Progress is that it is the only work of its kind which possesses a strong human interest.

MACAULAY.

10. It is right that a false Latin quantity should excite a smile in the House of Commons; but it is wrong that a false English meaning should not excite a frown there.

RUSKIN.

## II

EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS. Analyse I. 2 and 9.

## III

Write a short story of your own, illustrating the proverb 'Too many cooks spoil the broth'. Introduce examples of noun-clauses, and underline them.

### KINDS OF NOUN-CLAUSE (§§ 288-291).

#### I

Pick out the noun-clauses in the following passages, and describe each of them as either (i) a Dependent Statement, or (ii) a Dependent Question, or (iii) a Dependent Desire, or (iv) a Dependent Exclamation.

1. [The passages numbered 1, 2, 3, 4 in the exercise on noun-clauses, § 287.]

2. Tell me where is fancy bred.

SHAKESPEARE, *Merchant of Venice*.

3. See what a rent the envious Casca made.

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Caesar*.

4. A chill came over them when Hereward told them that he must return at once.

KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

5. Then William Ramsay started up and said that he should do well enough.

SCOTT, *Tales of a Grandfather*.

6. Tell me, tell me, speak again,  
 Thy soft response renewing,  
 What makes that ship drive on so fast,  
 What is the ocean doing.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

7. His Majesty resolves that Regensburg be purified from the enemy ere Easter.

COLERIDGE.

8. Tidings were soon heard that the government troops were in motion to put down the insurrection.

SCOTT, *Tales of a Grandfather*.

9. See that a guard be ready at my call.

ROWE.

10. O I wish  
 That I were some great princess.

TENNYSON.

## II

What is the relation of the clause introduced by 'that' to the main clause in the following sentences?

1. One of Ascham's chief merits lies in this, that, deserting the learned languages, he chose to discuss 'an English matter in the English tongue and for English men'.

DOBSON.

2. The formation of this Club is justified by the fact that it represents a particular school of thought.

3. I was fortunate in that foreign travel formed part of my education.

## PARENTHETICAL SENTENCES AND QUOTATIONS (§§ 292-294).

### I

Find in the following passages (i) dependent noun-clauses, (ii) parenthetical sentences, (iii) quotations.

1. Then Hereward swore a great oath, by oak and ash and thorn, that he would neither eat bread nor drink water, while there was a Norman left in Bourne. 'Saddle, lads, saddle and go with him' shouted the old man. But Hereward sent them back. He did not know yet, he said, what he would do: it was better that they should gather their forces and see what men they could afford him in case of open battle.

KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

2. Thus, my friends, we lived on the Wall, waiting for the men that Maximus never sent. It happened one morning that we rode to the East shore, and found on the beach a fair-haired man, half-frozen, bound to some broken planks. We saw by his belt-buckle that he was a Goth of an Eastern legion. Suddenly he opened his eyes and cried loudly, 'He is dead! The letters were with me, but the Winged Hats sank the ship.' We asked not who was dead. We knew! We raced before the driving snow to Hunno, thinking that perhaps Allo might be there. We found him; and he saw by our faces what we had heard. 'What do you do?' said Allo. 'I bring an order for the Winged Hats that you join them with your men and march south to plunder Britain. I always promised the Winged Hats that you would rise when Maximus fell. I—I did not think he could fall.'

KIPLING, *Puck of Pook's Hill*.

## II

1. Rewrite I. 1 (Then Hereward . . . open battle), substituting quotations in inverted commas for the dependent clauses, and a dependent clause for the words in inverted commas.

2. Turn the sentences containing quotations in I. 2 (Thus, my friends . . . fall) into sentences containing dependent clauses.

### VERBS ON WHICH NOUN-CLAUSES DEPEND (§ 295).

Make up twelve sentences of your own, each containing an example of a noun-clause depending upon one of the verbs mentioned in § 295.

### DEPENDENT STATEMENTS (§§ 298, 299).

#### I

Turn the Dependent Statements in the following passages into quotations in inverted commas, like those in the Exercises on §§ 292-294 and in the Grammar § 293.

1. On which Gilbert of Ghent made answer: that he, Gilbert, had not put his cook into Bourne, nor otherwise harmed Hereward or his; that Bourne had been seized by the King himself, together with Earl Morcar's lands in these parts, as all men knew; that the said cook so pleased the King with a dish of stewed eel-pout which he served up to him at Cambridge, and which the King had

never eaten before, that the King begged the said cook of him, Gilbert, and took him away; and that after that, so he heard, the said cook had begged the said manor of Bourne of the King, without the knowledge or consent of him, Gilbert. That he therefore knew nothing of the matter. That if Hereward meant to keep the King's peace, he might live in Bourne till Doomsday, for aught he, Gilbert, cared: but that if he and his men meant to break the King's peace, and attack Lincoln city, he, Gilbert, would nail their skins to the doors of Lincoln Cathedral, as they used to do by the heathen Danes in old time. And that, therefore, they now understood each other.      KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

2. Then Hereward rose again and spoke so nobly and so well that all ears were charmed: that they were Englishmen, and would rather die in their own merry England than win new kingdoms in the cold north-east; they were sworn, the leaders of them, to die or conquer fighting the Frenchmen; they were bound to defend against Frenchmen the saints of England whom they despised, whose servants they cast out, thrust into prison and murdered, that they might bring in Frenchmen from Normandy. Sweyn Ulfsson spoke as became him, as a prudent and generous prince; and they thanked him, but said they would live and die as Englishmen.      KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

3. The Netherlands said that if Elizabeth refused they must either submit to Spain or become provinces of France; the Netherlands, whether Spanish or French, would be equally dangerous to England; the Netherlands once brought back under Spain, England's turn would come next, while to accept the proposal meant instant and desperate war, both with France and Spain too; for France would never allow England again to gain a foot on the Continent.      FROUDE, *English Seamen*.

## II

Say what mood<sup>1</sup> is used in the Dependent Statements in the following passages.

1. Douglas heard an English soldier, who lay stretched out by the fire, say to his comrade—'I cannot tell what is to happen to

<sup>1</sup> In stating the mood say whether the clause contains an indicative or a subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent.



us in this place; but for my part I fear lest the Black Douglas play us some trick.'  
SCOTT, *Tales of a Grandfather*.

2. At last the thieves, hearing that some were upon the road, and fearing lest it be one Great-Grace that dwells in the city of Good-Confidence, betook themselves to their heels.

BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

3. This policy is defended on the ground that our case would be hopeless, if our Navy were to lose its supremacy at sea.

4. It is certain that we should be exposed to great danger in those circumstances.

5. Somebody says that there would be few quotations in common English use, if Shakespeare had never written and the Bible had never been translated.

### III

Make up six sentences of your own, showing the uses of the subjunctive and subjunctive-equivalents in dependent statements.

#### ACCUSATIVE WITH INFINITIVE (§§ 300, 301).

##### I

In the following passage pick out (i) noun-clauses introduced by 'that', (ii) accusatives with infinitives. Then convert (i) into (ii), and (ii) into (i).

The traveller believed the inn to be haunted. He decided, however, to sleep there for one night; for he did not dread the appearance of a ghost. Waking up suddenly, the traveller felt that he had been touched lightly here and there. He believed this to have been done by the ghost; and in spite of a strong wish to meet a ghost, he fainted. In the morning he found that the bed was covered with knives and forks. He considered the inn-keeper to be an honest man; so he called him in, and cross-questioned him. The innkeeper acknowledged himself to be a sleepwalker, and declared that he had often laid tables in his sleep. So the traveller supposed the innkeeper to have mistaken his bed for a table.

##### II

Convert the following sentences containing a passive verb and an infinitive into sentences containing an active verb and an infinitive.

1. They are believed by many persons to have seen ghosts.

2. Damascus was considered by the ancients to be the oldest city in the world.
3. This story was imagined by all the sailors to be true.
4. For the sake of argument this is admitted by the speaker to be true.
5. That poet was held to be mad by most of his contemporaries.
6. The Spanish nobles were declared to have been envious of Columbus.
7. Darnley was supposed to have been murdered by a band of conspirators.
8. Robert Bruce was universally acknowledged to be one of the wisest and bravest of kings.

## DEPENDENT QUESTIONS (§§ 302-311).

## I

Find in the following passages (i) Dependent Questions, (ii) Adjective-clauses, (iii) Adverb-clauses.

1. I know not where His islands lift  
Their froned palms in air. WHITTIER.

2. 'Mr. Quatermain,' said Sir Henry, 'your motives for undertaking an enterprise which you believe can only end in disaster reflect a great deal of credit on you. Whether or not you are right, time and the event alone can show. But whether you are right or wrong, I may as well tell you at once that I am going through with it to the end, sweet or bitter. If we are going to be knocked on the head, all I have to say is that I hope we shall get a little shooting first.' RIDER HAGGARD, *King Solomon's Mines*.

3. We are fighting side by side with our Allies in a great cause, by what we know to be worthy means, with clean hands and with a clear conscience. MR. ASQUITH, *Speech* (April 10, 1916).

4. Hither, page, and stand by me,  
If thou knowst it, telling,  
Yonder peasant who is he,  
Where and what his dwelling.

*Christmas Carol.*

5. There are who ask not if thine eye  
 Be on them, who, in love and truth,  
 Where no misgiving is, rely  
 Upon the genial sense of youth.  
 WORDSWORTH, *Ode to Duty*.

6. I wonder if thou haunt'st their shy retreats.  
 MATTHEW ARNOLD, *The Scholar Gipsy*.

7. We shall know at last, by a certain token,  
 How they fought and fell in the fight.  
 EDWIN ARNOLD, *Obscure Martyrs*.

8. Hereward was riding through the Brunswold, and there met him a knight. Who he was and what his business was in the Brunswold Hereward thought that he had a right to ask.

'Tell me who thou art who askest, before I tell thee who I am who am asked, riding here on common land', quoth the knight surlily enough.

'I am Hereward, without whose leave no man has ridden the Brunswold for many a day.' KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

9. Twenty bridges from Tower to Kew  
 Wanted to know what the River knew;  
 For they were young and the Thames was old.  
 RUDYARD KIPLING, *The River's Tale*.

10. Can they hear us tell  
 How peace was won by the men that fell?  
 LAURENCE HOUSMAN, *The Winners*.

## II

Explain the construction of the Dependent Questions in the following sentences by supplying some suitable words before the interrogative word (see § 307). Why cannot these clauses be regarded as Adjective-clauses? See § 309 Obs.

1. There is no doubt as to who did it.
2. I am not thinking about what I ought to do, but only about when I am to do it.
3. I should like to know which of these poets you admire most.

## III

Supply a subject and a verb after the interrogative word in the following sentences.

1. I have no idea when to start.
2. I wish you would tell me where to go.
3. We are at a loss how to act.
4. They consulted me as to whether to go or not.

## DEPENDENT DESIRES (§§ 312-315).

## I

In the following passages pick out Dependent Desires, and say what mood is used in each of the clauses of each sentence,<sup>1</sup> giving your reasons.

1. Ho! Gallant nobles of the League, look that your arms  
be bright. MACAULAY, *Ivry*.
2. Rifleman, true is your heart, but be sure that your hand  
be as true. TENNYSON, *Defence of Lucknow*.
3. Saint Mary grant that cave or spring  
May back to peace my bosom bring,  
Or bid it throb no more. SCOTT, *Marmion*.
4. Lord Auckland had just decreed from Calcutta that no more  
subsidies should be paid from the Indian Treasury for the free  
passage of merchants through the Ahilzai country.  
TROTTER, *Life of John Nicholson*.
5. 'God forbid', answered the noble James of Douglas, 'that  
I should take advantage of the bravest knight out of not a few who  
have found me work in battle.' SCOTT, *Castle Dangerous*.
6. Oft in the tranquil hours of night,  
When stars illumine the sky,  
I gaze upon each orb of light,  
And wish that thou wert by. LINLEY, *A Song*.

<sup>1</sup> In this and the following exercises, when you are asked to say what 'mood' is used in a sentence or clause, say whether the sentence or clause contains (1) an indicative or (2) an imperative or (3) a subjunctive or (4) a subjunctive-equivalent.

7. Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet, if God wills that it continue, 'the judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether'.  
ABRAHAM LINCOLN (1865).

8. Justice, the safety of the whole Republic, the dignity of the elective franchise—all alike demand that the still remaining bonds of ignorance shall be unloosed and broken, and the minds as well as the bodies of the emancipated go free.

R. C. WINTHROP (1881).

9. It is requested that ticket-holders be in their seats before the commencement of the play.

10. Oh that the desert were my dwelling place! BYRON.

11. O God, that I had loved a smaller man!  
I should have found in him a greater heart.

TENNYSON.

12. We wish that this column may contribute also to produce in all minds a pious feeling of dependence and gratitude. We wish that the last object to the sight of him who leaves his native shore and the first to gladden his who revisits it may be something which shall remind him of the liberty and the glory of his country.

DANIEL WEBSTER, *Address on laying the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill Monument* (1825).

## II

Find in the following passages examples of the accusative with the infinitive, used as equivalent to a Dependent Desire. Replace each by a subordinate clause with the subjunctive or a subjunctive-equivalent.

1. Now let another take my sword. Command me not to go.  
KIPLING, *The Roman Centurion ordered to leave Britain*.

2. Herminius! Aulus greets thee;  
He bids thee come with speed  
To help our central battle.  
MACAULAY, *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

3. I pray you to consider what I say.  
TROTTER, *Life of John Nicholson*.

4. 'I advise thee', said the minstrel, 'to beware how thou dost insist in thy present purpose.'  
SCOTT, *Castle Dangerous*.

5. Don Quixote desired them to leave him a little, because he found himself inclined to rest.

CERVANTES, *Don Quixote* (translation).

6. Bid Gloster's Earl the fight begin.

SCOTT, *The Lord of the Isles*.

7. He his guide requested,  
Over-tired, to let him lean awhile,  
With both his arms on those two massy pillars.

MILTON, *Samson Agonistes*.

8. Permit the stranger to be called to me. COLERIDGE.

9. He suffered the absolution to be pronounced over him.

MACAULAY.

10. Thou hast caused printing to be used.

SHAKESPEARE.

### III

How do constructions like the following arise?

1. We are commanded to march to-morrow.
2. He was expected to do his duty.
3. He was allowed to escape.
4. The report was received and ordered to be entered on the minutes.

### DEPENDENT EXCLAMATIONS (§ 316).

#### I

In the following passages find Dependent Exclamations or Dependent Questions, testing each example by asking whether the dependent clause would be an Exclamation or a Question, if it were turned into a separate sentence.

1. See how calm he looks and stately,  
Like a warrior on his shield.

AYTOUN, *The Burial March of Dundee*.

2. When his messenger returned,  
Judge how De Wilton's fury burned.

SCOTT, *Marmion*.

3. Behold how good and joyful a thing it is, brethren, to dwell together in unity !  
PSALM CXXXiii.

4. 'Twere long and needless here to tell  
How to my hand these papers fell. SCOTT.

5. Just think what a splendid thing that would be.

6. It is marvellous what a thrill the bagpipes send through a Scottish regiment.

7. 'And now, sir, may I return your question and ask who and what are you?'—'I was prefect of a legion this morning. What I am now you know as well as I.'  
KINGSLEY, *Hypatia*.

8. How it all came into John Bull's hands nobody knows properly.  
GODLEY, *The Difficulties of Mr. Bull*.

9. Virginius passed in safety unto his woeful home  
And there took horse to tell the camp what deeds are done in Rome.

MACAULAY, *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

10. Let the thick curtain fall ;  
I better know than all  
How little I have gained,  
How vast the unattained.

WHITTIER, *My Triumph*.

## II

Which are the exclamatory words that are used to introduce Exclamations and Dependent Exclamations?

## III

In which kinds of Noun-clause may the Accusative with the Infinitive be employed, and in which kinds is this construction impossible?

## ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES (§§ 317-322).

## I

Pick out the Adjective-clauses in the following passages; and wherever the clause is introduced by a Relative Pronoun, expressed or understood, say what is the Case of that Pronoun.

Wherever the Antecedent of a Relative Pronoun is not expressed, supply that Antecedent.

- A. 1. We would not die in that man's company  
That fears his fellowship to die with us.  
He that outlives this day and comes safe home  
Will stand a tip-toe when this day is named.  
SHAKESPEARE, *Henry V.*
2. Who checks at me to death is dight.  
SCOTT, *Marmion* ('dight' = doomed).
3. 'Whom the gods love die young' was said of yore.  
BYRON, *Don Juan.*
4. It must not be. There is no power in Venice  
Can alter a decree established.  
SHAKESPEARE, *Merchant of Venice.*
5. There is a book who runs may read  
Which heavenly truth imparts. KEBLE.
6. A life on the ocean wave!  
A home on the rolling deep  
Where the scattered waters rave  
And the winds their revels keep!  
EPES SARGENT.
7. Mighty Seaman, this is he  
Was great by land as tñou by sea.  
TENNYSON, *Ode on the Duke of Wellington.*
8. He left on whom he taught the trace  
Of kinship with the deathless dead  
And faith in all the Island race.  
NEWBOLT, *Ionicus.*
9. Handsome is that handsome does.  
GOLDSMITH, *Vicar of Wakefield.* (Often quoted  
in the form 'Handsome is as handsome does'.)



10. Who spills the foremost foeman's life  
That party conquers in the strife.  
SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

11. No sound is breathed so potent to coerce  
And to conciliate as their names who dare  
For that sweet mother-land which gave them birth  
Nobly to do, nobly to die. TENNYSON, *Tiresias*.

12. The labour we delight in physics pain.  
SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth*.

B. 1. 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view  
And robes the mountain in its azure hue.  
CAMPBELL, *Pleasures of Hope*.

2. What I aspired to be  
And was not, comforts me.  
BROWNING, *Rabbi Ben Ezra*.

3. Who gives himself with his alms feeds three—  
Himself, his hungering neighbour, and me. LOWELL.

4. He turned him to his little band  
Oh! few, I ween, were they,  
The relics of the noblest force  
That ever fought in fray;  
No man of all that company  
But bore a gentle name,  
Not one whose fathers had not stood  
On Scotland's fields of fame.  
AYTOUN, *The Island of the Scot*.

5. They also serve who only stand and wait.  
MILTON, *On his blindness*.

6. There is no heroic poem in the world but is at bottom a biography, the life of a man; also it may be said, there is no life of a man, faithfully recorded, but is an heroic poem of its sort, rhymed or unrhymed. CARLYLE.

7. Poets are all who love, who feel great truths  
And tell them; and the truth of truths is love.  
P. J. BAILEY.

8. For all we have and are  
For all our children's fate  
Stand up and meet the war.  
The Hun is at the gate!  
KIPLING, *For all we have and are*  
(*The Times*, Sept. 2, 1914).
9. Touch her whoever dare. SHAKESPEARE.
10. For forms of government let fools contest;  
Whate'er is best administered is best. POPE.
11. How hard is our fate who serve in the state!  
ADDISON.
12. Whoso shrinks or falters now  
Brand the craven on his brow. WHITTIER.

## II

Write out a conversation between Sir Francis Drake and Lord Nelson. Underline the Adjective-clauses, and state what Antecedent each clause qualifies.

## III

Explain the construction in the last line of the following passage, by re-writing it in such a way as to show what you understand to be the meaning:

How happy is he born and taught  
That serveth not another's will,  
Whose armour is his honest thought,  
And simple truth his utmost skill!

SIR HENRY WOTTON.

## ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES CONTINUED (§§ 323-328).

## I

Write a note on the Case of the Relative Pronouns in the following passage:

The tale concerns De Aquila, than whom there never was bolder, nor craftier, nor more hardy knight born. We bore the gold to Pevensey up to the north chamber above the great Hall where De Aquila lay in winter. Jehan the Crab, an old sour man-at-arms, guarded the stairway. It was Jehan whom De Aquila had sent to us with the horses. KIPLING, *Puck of Pook's Hill*.

## II

Show by means of sentences of your own the difference in construction after (1) 'than' followed by a Relative Pronoun, (2) 'than' followed by a Personal Pronoun. What is the reason for the difference?

## III

Correct, giving your reasons, the following sentences.

1. This is the work of a writer whom the editor says is greater than Wordsworth or Keats.
2. I know the lady whom we hear has been so cruelly treated.
3. He was accompanied by a friend who we are told he called his bottle-washer.
4. I have sent your sermon on to Dr. Harris, whom I thought would be interested in it.

## IV

What is the Case of the Relative Pronoun in the following passages, and why? Say also whether the Relative Pronoun introduces an Adjective-clause or a Co-ordinate Clause (Part I, § 66).

1. By labour and intent study, which I take to be my portion in this life, I might perhaps leave something so written to after times as (= that) they should not willingly let it die.

MILTON, *Reason of Church Government*.

2. This was the reason why our sage and serious poet Spenser, whom I dare be known to think a better teacher than Scotus or Aquinas, describing true temperance under the person of Guion, brings him in with his palmer through the cave of Mammon.

MILTON, *Areopagitica*.

3. He adhered to the sister Church, whose system of government he believed to be the fairest copy of the primitive polity.

LOCKHART, *Life of Scott*.

## V

Analyse the following sentences by drawing up a Sentence-picture and a table of Subjects and Predicates, according to the following model (with which compare the note on § 323).<sup>1</sup> Note that sentences 1-5 are clumsy, and not to be imitated.

<sup>1</sup> The model here given is the same as that given in Part I, § 55.

'This is the person whom I think that she saw in York.'

**Sentence-picture.**

This is the person  
whom I think that she saw in York (complex adjective-  
clause qualifying 'person').

**Table of Subjects and Predicates.**

<i>SUBJECTS</i>		<i>PREDICATES</i>			
		VERBS	OBJECTS	PRED. ADJ. <sup>s</sup> , NOUNS, PRON. <sup>s</sup>	ADV. QUALIFI- CATIONS
	This	is		the person	
that	she I	saw think	whom		in York

1. I do not know the person whom she says that she met there.
2. This is a thing which if he doesn't do I'll disown him.
3. This is a piece of work which when I contemplate I am filled with admiration.
4. We have found that the offer from the Colonies, which if we neglected we should lose those Colonies, was a delusion.  
LORD ROSEBERY.
5. These essays illustrate what we should be fortunate if we could see more frequently illustrated.
6. This is the man whom I believe to have been in London when the conspiracy was set on foot.<sup>1</sup>

MOODS IN ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES (§ 329).

I

In the following passages say whether the Adjective-clauses contain (i) an indicative or (ii) a subjunctive or subjunctive-

<sup>1</sup> The accusative with the infinitive in such sentences may be analysed in the same way as the clause to which it is equivalent (that is, as containing a Subject and a Predicate).

equivalent. Name the tenses of the indicatives and show the meanings of the subjunctives and subjunctive-equivalents.<sup>1</sup>

- A. 1. Where's the coward that would not dare  
To fight for such a land? SCOTT, *Marmion*.
2. He looked for his little playmates  
Who would return no more.  
LONGFELLOW, *The Open Window*.
3. Reviewers are usually people who would have been poets,  
historians, biographers, if they could. They have failed; therefore  
they turn critics. COLERIDGE, *Lectures*.
4. And you may gather garlands there  
Would grace a summer's queen. SCOTT, *Rokeby*.
5. Darkness which would daunt,  
Save that it shows—what Day concealed—the stars.  
EDWIN ARNOLD, *The Light of the World* (part of a sentence  
which is too long to be quoted in full).
6. And one was safe and asleep in his bed  
Who at the bridge would be first to fall,  
Who that day would be lying dead,  
Pierced by a British musket-ball.  
LONGFELLOW, *Paul Revere's Ride*.
7. We have enjoyed what almost every other nation in the world  
would have considered an ample measure of civil and religious  
freedom. MACAULAY.
8. On by Newmarket Heath he went; past barrows where slept  
the heroes of old times, Briton, Roman, Saxon, Dane; aye—that  
was the place for a hero to sleep in; out under the free sky where  
he would come up out of his barrow on moonlight nights, and stare  
at the flying clouds. KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.
- B. 1. Sing, then, no songs upon the sweet-voiced lyre,  
But choose some nobler instrument whose shrill  
Nerve-bracing notes my doubting heart shall fill  
With a new courage that will never tire.  
H. REX FRESTON, *On going into action*  
(*The Times*, Feb. 3, 1916).

<sup>1</sup> Remember that 'should' or 'would' with the infinitive is sometimes a tense of the indicative (Part II, pp. 60, 61).

2. It may be glorious to write  
Thoughts that shall glad the two or three  
High souls, like those far stars that come in sight  
Once in a century. LOWELL.

3. We wish that this monument may be something which shall remind the visitor of the liberty and the glory of his country.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

4. They took up a position from which they might the more conveniently observe the enemy.

5. He set to work to amass a fortune which should render him for ever independent.

6. He said that he had withdrawn himself until parliament had agreed upon such propositions as should be fit for him to consent to; and he would then appear and willingly consent to anything that should be for the peace and happiness of the kingdom.

CLARENDON.

- C. 1. Whoever shall now compare the country round Rome with the country round Edinburgh will be able to form some judgement as to the tendency of Papal dominion. MACAULAY.

2. Thus saith the Land! 'He who shall bear  
Victoria's cross upon his breast  
For the dear sake of her who gives  
And the high deeds of him who wears  
Shall high or low all honour have  
From all through all his years.' EDWIN ARNOLD.

3. He that shall live this day and see old age  
Will yearly on the vigil feast his neighbours  
And say 'To-morrow is Saint Crispian'.

SHAKESPEARE, *Henry V.*

4. No one who ventured to say that would be believed.

5. Anybody who had expressed the same opinion at the same moment would have produced the same effect.

J. S. MILL, *Autobiography.*

6. Rameshur bowed his head, as who should say 'Yes, yes'.

SHERER, *At Home and in India.*

## II

Make up six sentences of your own showing how the meaning of an Adjective-clause is affected by the mood of the verb.

## ADVERB-CLAUSES OF TIME, PLACE AND CAUSE (§§ 331-339).

## I

Pick out and name the Adverb-clauses of Time, Place or Cause in the following passages and say which of them contain subjunctives or subjunctive-equivalents. Supply punctuation where needed.

1. Where the bee sucks there suck I:  
In a cowslip's bell I lie:  
There I couch when owls do cry. SHAKESPEARE.
2. My heart's in the Highlands wherever I go. BURNS.
3. The Puritan hated bear-baiting not because it gave pain to the bear but because it gave pleasure to the spectators.  
MACAULAY.
4. Then Denmark blessed our chief  
That he gave her wounds repose.  
CAMPBELL, *The Battle of the Baltic*.
5. The sun a backward course shall take  
Ere aught thy manly courage shake. BURNS.
6. The meteor flag of England  
Shall yet terrific burn  
Till danger's troubled night depart  
And the star of peace return.  
CAMPBELL, *Ye Mariners of England*.
7. The tongue may change, the soil, the sky,  
But where your British brothers lie  
The lonely cairn, the nameless grave  
Still fringe the flowing Saxon wave.  
A. CONAN DOYLE, *The Frontier Line*.
8. When they had passed by this place they came upon the border of the shadow of Death; but these women and children went the better through it because they had daylight.  
BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.
9. Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note  
As his corse to the rampart we hurried.  
WOLFE, *Burial of Sir John Moore*.

10. Thanks to the kindly dark faces who fought with us,  
faithful and few,  
That ever upon the topmost roof our banner in India blew!  
TENNYSON, *Defence of Lucknow*.
11. Before man made us citizens great Nature made us men.  
LOWELL, *On the capture of fugitive slaves*.
12. I thought that the nation was already prepared for a favourable reception of the scheme when it should be made public.
13. Then to side with Truth is noble when we share her  
wretched crust  
Ere her cause bring fame and profit and 'tis prosperous  
to be just. LOWELL, *An Indian-Summer Reverie*.
14. Thou knowest how her image haunted me  
Long after we returned to Alcalá. LONGFELLOW.
15. Just as he said this what should hap  
At the chamber door but a gentle tap? BROWNING.
16. A hundred and sixty years have now elapsed since the  
English people have by force subverted a government.  
MACAULAY.
17. Since these men could not be convinced it was determined  
that they should be persecuted. MACAULAY.
18. While stands the Coliseum Rome shall stand;  
When falls the Coliseum Rome shall fall;  
And when Rome falls—the world.  
BYRON, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.
19. I pardon thee thy life before thou ask it.  
SHAKESPEARE.
20. Equal-born? O yes, if yonder hill be level with the flat.  
Charm us, Orator, till the Lion look no larger than the Cat.  
TENNYSON.

## II

Show by means of examples of your own how the use of a subjunctive or subjunctive-equivalent affects the meaning in Adverb-clauses of Time.



## III

Make up six sentences of your own containing adverbs used as subordinating conjunctions (§ 332).

## ADVERB-CLAUSES OF PURPOSE AND RESULT (§§ 340-344).

## I

Pick out Clauses of Purpose or Result and name the moods.

1. Some people are so fond of ill luck that they run half-way to meet it. DOUGLAS JERROLD, *Meeting troubles half-way*.

2. Through teeth and skull and helmet  
So fierce a thrust he sped,  
The good sword stood a hand's breadth out  
Behind the Tuscan's head.  
MACAULAY, *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

3. Teach us to rule ourselves always  
Controlled and cleanly night and day,  
That we may bring, if need arise,  
No maimed or worthless sacrifice.  
KIPLING, *Puck of Pook's Hill*.

4. Spare us the inexpressible wrong, the unutterable shame  
That turns the coward's heart to steel, the sluggard's blood  
to flame,  
Lest when our latest hope is fled ye taste of our despair  
And learn by proof in some wild hour how much the  
wretched dare. MACAULAY, *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

5. The old order changeth, yielding place to new,  
And God fulfils Himself in many ways,  
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.  
TENNYSON, *The Passing of Arthur*.

6. Constantius had separated his forces that he might divide the  
attention and resistance of the enemy. GIBBON.

7. I see amid the fields of Ayr  
A ploughman who, in foul or fair,  
Sings at his task  
So clear we know not if it is  
The laverock's song we hear or his.  
Nor care to ask. LONGFELLOW, *Burns*.

8. I will not waste my sorrow,  
Lest the Campbell women say  
That the daughters of Clanranald  
Are as frail and weak as they.

AYTOUN, *The Widow of Glencoe*.

9. Heaven has bounteously lengthened out your lives in order  
that you might behold this joyous day.

DANIEL WEBSTER, *An Address* (1825).

10. Oh that the desert were my dwelling-place,  
That I might all forget the human race.

BYRON, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.

## II

Show by means of examples of your own how the use of  
a subjunctive or subjunctive-equivalent affects the meaning in  
Adverb-clauses introduced by 'that'.

## III

When may an infinitive be used as the equivalent of an Adverb-  
clause? Make up six sentences containing examples. Expand the  
infinitives into clauses, naming each.

## IV

Expand the infinitives in the following into Adverb-clauses.  
Name each clause.

1. We conquer but to save. CAMPBELL, *Battle of the Baltic*.

2. I will not use many words but enough, I hope, to convince  
you that I meant no irony in my last.

HORACE WALPOLE, *Letters*.

3. If I live to be a man,  
My father's death revenged shall be.

SCOTT, *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

4. They made a molten image  
And set it up on high,  
And there it stands unto this day  
To witness if I lie.

MACAULAY, *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

5. How vainly men themselves amaze  
To win the oak, the palm, the bays!  
MARVELL, *The Garden*.
6. I see Napoleon on the heights intent  
To arrest that one brief unit of loose time  
Which hands high Victory's thread.  
ARTHUR HUGH CLOUGH, *Dipsychus*.
7. All, to reflourish, fades.      YOUNG, *Night Thoughts*.
8. Your glorious standard launch again  
To match another foe.  
CAMPBELL, *Ye Mariners of England*.

## ADVERB-CLAUSES OF CONDITION AND CONCESSION (§§ 345-357).

## I

Pick out the Clauses of Condition in the following passages. Distinguish them as 'open' or 'with implication', and state the mood and tense of the verb in each. Supply punctuation.

1. If in truth it were only for the sake of wages that men emigrate how many thousands would regret the bargain!

R. L. STEVENSON.

2. Now, Richard Musgrave, liest thou there!  
I ween my deadly enemy;  
For if I slew thy brother dear  
Thou slewest a sister's son to me;  
And, Musgrave, could our fight be tried  
And thou wert now alive as I  
No mortal man should us divide.

SCOTT, *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

3. You would think it strange if I called Burns the most gifted British soul we had in all that century of his.

CARLYLE.

4. Ah, my prince, it were well  
Hadst thou to the Gods been dear  
To have fallen where Keppoch fell  
With the war-pipe loud in thine ear.

ANDREW LANG.

5. 'So much the worse for us,' said another: 'If we had gone ashore among these Frieslanders we should have been only knocked on the head outright; but if we fall among the Frenchmen we shall be clapt in prison and tortured unless we find ransom'. 'I don't see that,' said Martin: 'We can be drowned if we like, I suppose.' 'Drowned we need not be if we be men,' said the old sailing-master to Hereward: 'The tide is full high, and that gives us more chance for our lives.' 'Axemen and bowmen, put on your harness and be ready; but neither strike nor shoot unless I give the word. We must land peaceably if we can; if not we will die fighting.' So said Hereward, and took the rudder.

KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

6. My friend, if thou hadst all the artillery of Woolwich trundling at thy back in support of an unjust thing and infinite bonfires visibly waiting ahead of thee to blaze centuries long for thy victory on behalf of it I should advise thee to call halt. If the thing is unjust thou hast not succeeded; no, though bonfires blazed from north to south and editors wrote leading articles and the just thing lay trampled out of sight.

CARLYLE.

7. Had I been there with sword in hand  
And fifty Camerons by  
That day through high Dunedin's streets  
Had pealed the slogan cry. AYTOUN, *Montrose*.

8. Had the vision  
Come to him in beggar's clothing  
Come a mendicant imploring  
Would he then have knelt adoring?

LONGFELLOW, *The Legend Beautiful*.

9. Son of the Mist, be free as thy forefathers; let the deer of the mountain be thy flocks and herds; if these fail thee prey upon the goods of our oppressors. Remember those who have done kindness to our race. If a MacIan shall come to thee with the head of the king's son in his hand shelter him though the avenging army of the father were behind him.

SCOTT, *Legend of Montrose*.

10. 'Indeed,' cries Amelia, 'if you knew all my reasons you would say they are very strong ones.'

FIELDING, *Amelia*.

11. 'Nothing', replied the artist, 'will ever be attempted if all possible objections must first be overcome. If you will favour my

project I will try the first flight at my own hazard. But I will work only on this condition, that the art shall not be divulged. If all men were virtuous I should with great alacrity teach them to fly. But what would be the security of the good if the bad could at pleasure invade them from the sky?'      JOHNSON, *Rasselas*.

12.      I would live if I had my will  
           In an old stone grange on a Yorkshire hill;  
           .      .      .      .      .  
           Thus leisure sweet my days should fill  
           Had I my will.      A. C. BENSON, *My Will*.

## II

Pick out the Clauses of Concession in the following passages. State the mood and tense of the verb in each. Supply commas.

1.          Though German steel be keen and strong  
               Is ours not stout and true?  
    AYTOUN, *The Island of the Scots*.
2.          When maidens such as Hester die  
               Their place ye may not well supply  
               Though ye among a thousand try  
               With vain endeavour.      CHARLES LAMB, *Hester*.
3.          Though the glens are white with winter  
               Place me there and set me free.  
    AYTOUN, *Charles Edward at Versailles*.
4. [The passage numbered I. 6 above.]
5. [The passage numbered I. 9 above.]
6.          Though all the rest were all my share  
               With equal soul I'd see  
               Her nine and twenty sisters fair  
               Yet none more fair than she.      KIPLING, *Sussex*.
7.          Handful of men as we were we were English in heart  
               and in limb.      TENNYSON, *Defence of Lucknow*.
8.          Howe'er it be it seems to me  
               'Tis only noble to be good.  
    TENNYSON, *Lady Clara Vere de Vere*.

## III

Write out (i) four sentences containing Clauses of Condition, (ii) four sentences containing Clauses of Concession. Show how the meaning is affected by the mood (subjunctive or indicative) of the verb in the subordinate clause.

## IV

Are the following sentences correct? Give your reasons.

1. It must remain fixed for the latter end of April, unless any very bad weather should set in, or that you can fix with agreeable travelling company.  
*Life of George Grote.*

2. If the cavern into which they entered were of artificial construction, considerable pains had been taken to make it look natural.  
W. BLACK, *A Daughter of Heth.*

## ADVERB-CLAUSES OF COMPARISON (§§ 358-364).

Find Clauses of Comparison in the following passages, and say what each denotes. Where the construction is incomplete, supply the words which are understood.

1. I cannot say how the truth may be ;  
I tell the tale as 'twas told to me.  
*SCOTT, Lay of the Last Minstrel.*
2. Come as the winds come when  
Forests are rended ;  
Come as the waves come when  
Navies are stranded.  
*SCOTT, Pibroch of Donald Dhu.*
3. Come one, come all! This rock shall fly  
From its firm base as soon as I.  
*SCOTT, Lady of the Lake.*
4. And all went merry as a marriage bell.  
*BYRON, Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.*
5. And he joyed to see the cheerful light  
And he said Ave Mary as well as he might.  
*SCOTT, Lay of the Last Minstrel.*
6. This quiet sail is as a noiseless wing. *BYRON.*
7. There is nothing so powerful as truth, and often nothing so strange.  
*DANIEL WEBSTER.*

8. 'Tis strange, but true ; for truth is always strange,  
Stranger than fiction. BYRON, *Don Juan*.
9. And those who live as models for the mass  
Are singly of more value than they all.  
BROWNING, *Luria*.
10. —Save one who, stout as Julius Caesar,  
Swam across and lived to carry  
(As he the manuscript he cherished)  
To Rat-land home his commentary.  
BROWNING, *Pied Piper*, 123-6.

## ADVERB-CLAUSES OF COMPARISON CONTINUED (including § 365).

## I

In the following passages find (i) Clauses of Comparison, (ii) Clauses introduced by 'if', 'though', 'when', or 'that' subordinate to an incomplete Clause of Comparison. In all cases supply any words which are understood.

- A. 1. William saw beneath him a labyrinth of islands, meres, and fens, with the Cam spreading far deeper and broader than now between Barroway and Thetford in the Isle. So he determined to try that terrible half-mile with the courage and wit of a general to whom human lives were as those of the gnats under the hedge. Soon they made a floating sow and thrust it out before them as they worked across the stream. At last the bridge was finished and the sow thrust in as far as it would float among the reeds on the high tide. At last the army was in motion. The mass became more and more crowded as they came on in thousands. 'They are numberless,' said Torfrida. 'Would they were,' said Hereward: 'Let them come on thick and threefold. The more their numbers the fatter will the fish be before to-morrow morning.'  
KINGSLEY, *Hereward the Wake*.

2. I have rarely approached anything with more unaffected terror than Our Lady of the Snows. Every Sunday of my childhood I used to study the Hermits of Marco Sadeler—enchancing prints full of wood and field and mediaeval landscapes as large as a county ; and here sure enough was one of Marco Sadeler's heroes. He was robed in white like any spectre, and the hood falling back disclosed a pate as bald and yellow as a skull. I took heart of grace and went forward to the gate as far as Modestine would permit. In all these silent journeyings to and fro many

silent fathers and brethren tell in our way. Usually they paid no more regard to our passage than if we had been a cloud.

R. L. STEVENSON, *Travels with a Donkey in the Cevennes*.

3. Then welcome Fate's discourtesy,  
Whereby it shall appear  
How in all time of our distress  
As in our triumph too  
The game is more than the player of the game  
And the ship is more than the crew.

RUDYARD KIPLING, *The Fringes of the Fleet*.

4. Nowhere beats the heart so kindly  
As beneath the tartan plaid.

AYTOUN, *Charles Edward at Versailles*.

5. We heard within  
Noise, other than the sound of dance or song.

MILTON, *Paradise Lost*.

6. Ambition

Is like the sea-wave, which the more you drink  
The more you thirst; yea, drink too much, as men  
Have done on rafts of wreck, it drives you mad.

TENNYSON, *The Cup*.

- B. 1. The harp that once through Tara's halls  
The soul of music shed  
Now hangs as mute on Tara's walls  
As if that soul were fled.

MOORE, *The harp that once through Tara's halls*.

2. They lift their raptured looks on high  
As though it were a joy to die. BYRON, *Mazeppa*.

3. Even now you look on me  
As you were not my friend, and as if you  
Discovered that I thought so. SHELLEY, *Cenci*.

4. Here will I lie while these long branches sway  
And you fair stars that crown a happy day  
Go out and in as if at merry play,  
Who am no more so all forlorn  
As when it seemed far better to be born  
To labour and the mattock-hardened hand  
Than nursed at ease. TENNYSON, *Maud*.



5. Each of us fought as if hope for the garrison hung but  
on him. Tennyson, *Defence of Lucknow*.
6. Nor was his ear less peal'd  
With noises loud than when Bellona storms,  
. . . or less than if this frame  
Of heaven were falling and these elements  
In mutiny had from her axle torn  
The steadfast earth. Milton, *Paradise Lost*.
7. We are contented rather to take the whole in their present,  
though imperfect, state than that the least doubt should be thrown  
upon them. Scott.
8. Thither, winged with speed,  
A numerous brigade hasten'd, as when bands  
Of pioneers, with spade and pickaxe armed,  
Forerun the royal camp, to trench a field.  
Milton, *Paradise Lost*.
9. What is more necessary than that justice should be done ?  
10. What is so necessary as that justice should be done ?

## II

Pick out the subjunctives and subjunctive-equivalents in I (A and B). Name the tense of each and show its meaning by referring to a section of the grammar.

## III

Analyse I. A. 6 (Ambition . . . mad), as in the Exercise on Adjective-clauses, §§ 323-328, treating the relative adverb as equivalent to a subordinating conjunction (see § 360 note).

## IV

What part of speech is 'as' in the following sentences ?

1. Treat me as a friend.
2. While I nodded, nearly napping, suddenly there came  
a tapping  
As of some one gently rapping. Poe, *The Raven*.
3. I heard a sound as of scraping tripe. Browning, *P. P.* 123.

4. Time writes no wrinkle on thine azure brow :  
Such as creation's dawn beheld thou rollest now.

BYRON, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.

5. After the day of the month and year the following words had to be put in as well.

P. P. 272.

### V

What does 'though' mean in I. B. 2 (*as though . . . to die*)?

### VI

What is the peculiarity in the following sentence ?

May our name rather perish than that ancient and loyal symbol should be blended with the dishonoured insignia of a traitorous Roundhead.

SCOTT, *Waverley*.

### NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE (§ 366).

#### I

Pick out the Nominative Absolutes in the following passages, and supply punctuation. Substitute an Adverb-clause in each case, and say what that clause denotes.

1. Thinkst thou the heart could feel a moment's joy  
Thou being absent? LONGFELLOW.
2. I grant that men continuing what they are  
Fierce, avaricious, proud there must be war. COWPER.
3. My task accomplished and the long day done  
My wages taken and in my heart  
Some late lark singing  
Let me be gathered to the quiet West. W. E. HENLEY.
4. The families once housed, we men carried the second car by  
simultaneous assault. R. L. STEVENSON.
5. Conscience her first law broken wounded lies. YOUNG.
6. Nor was Adams himself suffered to go home it being  
a stormy night. FIELDING.
7. Their heads all stooping low their points all in a row  
Our cuirassiers have burst on the ranks of the accurst.  
MACAULAY.

8. There were his young barbarians all at play,  
There was their Dacian mother—he, their sire,  
Butchered to make a Roman holiday.                      BYRON.

## II

In what respects do the following instances of the Nominative Absolute construction differ from the instances in I?

1. He advanced, knife in hand.
2. Birkie escaped during the night and took the entire flock back to his own master. Fancy him trotting across the moor with them, they as willing as he.                      DR. JOHN BROWN, *Our Dogs*.
3. The phantom knight, his glory fled,  
Mourns o'er the field he heaped with dead.                      SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*.
4. They are always telling us that the Normans conquered Ireland. I have heard that the Normans conquered England too, the only difference being that, while the conquest of Ireland was partial, that of England was complete.                      DISRAELI.
5. Our guest offering his assistance, he was accepted among the number.                      GOLDSMITH, *Vicar of Wakefield*.
6. Why should he then protect our sovereign,  
He being of age to govern of himself?                      SHAKESPEARE, *2nd Part of Henry IV*.
7. Neither could he suspect that he had missed his way, it being so broad and plain.                      FIELDING, *Joseph Andrews*.

## III

In what respect do the following sentences differ from sentences containing absolute clauses?

1. In which effort, not being a man of strong imagination, he failed.                      DICKENS, *Christmas Carol*.
2. MacIan, while putting on his clothes and calling to his servants to bring some refreshment for his visitors, was shot through the head.                      MACAULAY.
3. The neighbours, hearing what was going forward, came flocking about us.                      GOLDSMITH, *Vicar of Wakefield*.

4. A Deity believed is joy begun,  
A Deity adored is joy advanced,  
A Deity beloved is joy matured.

YOUNG, *Night Thoughts*.

5. Broken down in his power by this signal defeat, yet faithful to his ally, he rejected all overtures of peace.

IRVING, *Sketch Book*.

6. Planned merely, 'tis a common felony,  
Accomplished, an immortal undertaking.

COLERIDGE.

7. Being a long-headed gentlewoman, I am apt to imagine she has some further designs than you have yet penetrated.

*Spectator* (1711).

8. Now is the appointed time, which, being let slip, will pass us by for ever.

THE RIGHT HON. W. M. HUGHES (1916).

#### AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH THE SUBJECT.

##### I (§§ 368-370)

A. Make up sentences of your own with the following Subjects, using verbs in the Present Tense: *each of you, every one of the soldiers, neither of them, none of them, the greatest of English poets, the news, riches, the innings, the remains, the scissors, measles, the summons, mathematics, politics, our eleven.*

B. Examine the syntax of the following passages, and if you think it wrong correct it, giving your reasons.

1. The door of one [cell] is open, and within stands two cloaked figures, one of whom we know. KINGSLEY, *Westward Ho*. xxii.

2. Cowper's tears are always wrung from him by intense anguish of soul, and never, as is occasionally the case with Rousseau, suggests that the weeper is proud of his excessive tenderness.

LESLIE STEPHEN, *Hours in a Library*.

3. Nothing but dreary dykes, muddy and straight, guarded by the ghosts of suicidal pollards and by rows of dreary and desolate mills, occur to break the blank grey monotony of the landscape.

FARRAR.

4. The game was played out, and the end was come, as the end of such matters generally come, by gradual decay, petty disaster, and mistake.                   KINGSLEY, *Westward Ho*, cxxxı (end).

5. That night every man of the boat's crew, save Amyas, were down with raging fever.                   KINGSLEY, *Westward Ho*, xx.

6. The wages of sin is death.                   *Epistle to Romans*, vi. 23.

7. The end was good, but the means were bad.

8. The odds against us are too great.

9. Great pains have been taken to secure secrecy.

10. All these things—poet, Samaritan, preacher—was Herbert George.

11. What the Revolution preached was the Rights of Man.

12. These tidings were received last Monday.

13. While there's leaves in the forest and foam on the river, Macgregor, despite them, shall flourish for ever. SCOTT.

14. Two-thirds of the Cape to Cairo line has been built.

15. Last year, out of a total output of coal amounting to 253,000,000 tons, 43,500,000 tons was exported, of which 23,000,000 was shipped to Allies, and 17,000,000 to neutrals; but the quantity exported was falling off in the latter part of the year.

16. For thy three thousand ducats here is six. SHAKESPEARE.

17. Each lived their own life on amicable terms, but somewhat apart from each other.                   M. CHOLMONDELEY.

18. When Johnson laughed, everybody thought themselves warranted to roar.                   GOLDSMITH.

19. Neither of these prelates were very high churchmen.

LECKY.

20. How little have either of these felt Byron's influence!

M. ARNOLD.

## II (§§ 371, 372—Collective Nouns)

- A. Make up sentences of your own with the following Subjects, and a verb in the Present Tense: *a regiment of soldiers, the Senate, a company, the assembly, the War Office, the Board of Trade, the Government, the Cabinet, a majority, the minority, the United States, Parliament, a number of horses, a collection of coins, the jury.*

- B. Make up two sentences of your own to show different constructions with the following words as the Subject or part of the Subject : *people, public, enemy*.
- C. Correct or justify the syntax of the following sentences.
1. Since the Revolution the population of Norwich has more than doubled. MACAULAY.
  2. In the last resort a nation retains the right of self-defence. J. R. GREEN.
  3. People are slow to appreciate an abstract theory.
  4. The English people never knows when it is beaten.
  5. The congregation was free to go their way. TROLLOPE.
  6. Now, as in former times, the Navy is our best defence.
  7. Our rendezvous was Skyros, and we were nearly there, when we picked up a wireless message saying that enemy torpedo-craft was about. *Six Months in the Dardanelles*  
[Blackwood's Magazine, February 1916].
  8. A couple of hand-grenades are thrown into any dug-out which has not yet surrendered. A sharp order passes along the line; every one scrambles out of the trench; and the troupe makes its way back, before the enemy in the adjacent trenches have really wakened up, to the place from which it came.  
‘Carry On!’ *The Continued Chronicle of K. (1)*. [Ibid.]

### III (§§ 373-375 : Double or Multiple Subject)

- A. Make up sentences of your own with the following Subjects, using a verb in the Present Tense : *both Willie and his sister; Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John; you and I; neither you nor I*.
- B. Make up four sentences with *either . . . or*.
- C. Correct or justify the syntax of the following sentences.
1. Neither the Ministers nor the House are in a mood to prolong the session.
  2. He with some other University men were taking a party of boys up the river.
  3. On the right, close to the Garry, were the Macleans. Nearest to them were Cannon and his Irish foot. Still further to the left were the cavalry. Beyond them was Lochiel with his Camerons. MACAULAY.

4. When we got into Skyros harbour, there was the *Canopus* and several others within ten miles of the affair.

*Six Months in the Dardanelles*

[Blackwood's Magazine, Feb. 1916].

5. The fire which glows in Macaulay's history, the intense patriotic feeling, the love of certain moral qualities, is not altogether of the highest kind.

LESLIE STEPHEN.

6. The courage of the soldier and the citizen are essentially different.

HAZLITT.

7. The chief and father of the clan has fallen.

8. The mind and spirit remains invisible.

MILTON.

9. Lo, yonder stands a monument on which is engraven this battle and Christian's victory.

BUNYAN.

10. As he intends to push this with all his interest, neither he nor I have any doubt of his success.

FIELDING.

11. Surely none of our readers are so unfortunate as not to know some man or woman who carry this atmosphere of peace and good will about with them.

HENRY KINGSLEY.

12. No action or institution can be salutary and stable which are not based on reason and the will of God.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

13. The excommunication of the Stock Exchange is far more terrible than the interdict of the pope or the bar of the Empire ever were.

PROFESSOR ROGERS.

14. On the character of the population depends the prosperity, the peace, the very existence of society.

MACAULAY.

15. The Empire and its demands is a subject on which we are always serious.

16. The glory and terror of the sea is the iceberg.

#### AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES (§ 376).

Correct or justify the constructions in the following passages.

1. I always delight in overthrowing those kind of schemes, and cheating a person of their premeditated contempt. JANE AUSTEN.

2. Would it not be better to keep some memorandum of these sort of engagements?

SYDNEY SMITH.

3. These kind of books fill up the long tapestry of history with little bits of detail which give human interest to it. HANNAY.
4. These cannon were used by our soldiers in that war.
5. Those craft were seen at the river's mouth.
6. These fish are never found in fresh-water lakes, but those wild fowl are often shot in the neighbourhood.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS IN APPPOSITION, AND OF PREDICATIVE NOUNS AND PREDICATIVE PRONOUNS (§§ 377-382).

In the following passages pick out the nouns and pronouns which are in apposition and those which are predicative. Arrange them in two lists, and state the case of each. Correct any errors of construction which you find.

1. Thou art the man. *Bible*, 2 Sam. xii. 7.
2. In arms they stood  
Of golden panoply, refulgent host. MILTON.
3. We, the Verdun Municipals, see no resistance possible.  
CARLYLE.
4. There were gentlemen and there were seamen in the navy of Charles II. But the seamen were not gentlemen, and the gentlemen were not seamen. MACAULAY.
5. That orbèd maiden with white fire laden,  
Whom mortals call the moon,  
Glides glimmering o'er my fleece-like floor.  
By the midnight breezes strewn. SHELLEY.
6. On him, their second Providence, they hung. POPE.
7. Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation!  
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just;  
And this be our motto—'In God is our trust'.  
F. S. KEY.
8. If there is any one embarrassed, it will not be me, and it will not be she. W. BLACK.
9. Tell me who is the culprit. Is it him or is it you?
10. The inhabitants of the villages ceased; they ceased in Israel, until that I Deborah arose, a mother in Israel. *Bible*, Judges v. 7.



11. He makes a solitude, and calls it Peace. BYRON.
12. A sadder and a wiser man  
He rose the morrow morn. COLERIDGE.
13. I was born an American; I will live an American; I shall die an American. DANIEL WEBSTER.
14. We believed him to be a spy.
15. This is the man whom we believed to be a spy.
16. He was thought to be a spy, but he was not really one.
17. Have you seen the letters which passed between Woodrow Wilson, the President of the United States, and us?
18. He travels far from other skies,  
A fairy prince, with joyful eyes. TENNYSON.
19. Shadow-maker, shadow-slayer, arrowing light from clime to clime,  
Hear thy myriad laureates hail thee monarch in their woodland rhyme. TENNYSON.
20. Behold  
Where on the Aegean shore a city stands,  
Built nobly, pure the air and light the soil,  
Athens, the eye of Greece, mother of arts. MILTON.

#### AGREEMENT OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS (§§ 383-385).

Correct or justify the syntax of the clauses introduced by Relative Pronouns in the following passages.

1. You who are my friend know me better.
2. Are you the gentleman that is named here? WARREN.
3. Give me again all that was there. R. L. STEVENSON.
4. He is the greatest artist who has embodied in the sum of his works the greatest number of the greatest ideas. RUSKIN.
5. They only the victory win  
Who have dared for a high cause to suffer, resist, fight—  
if need be to die. W. W. STORY.
6. Locke declared that we have no ideas except what come by sensation or by reflexion on previously gained sensations.

7. I cannot blame thee,  
Who am myself attacked with weariness.  
SHAKESPEARE.

8. I, who have battled with the common foe,  
And broke for years the bread of bitterness,  
Who never yet abandoned or betrayed  
The trust vouchsafed me, nor have ceased to bless,  
Am left alone to wither in the shade. AYTOUN.

9. 'Hylas', the celebrated thirteenth idyl of Theocritus, is one of the most perfect which have come down to our time.

STEDMAN.

10. This is one of the most important cases which has been settled by arbitration for a considerable period.

OLIVER WENDEL HOLMES.

11. Fielding is supposed to be simply taking one side in one of those perpetual controversies which has occupied many generations.

LESLIE STEPHEN.

12. I confess that I am one of those who am unable to refuse my assent to the conclusions of those philosophers.

SHELLEY.

13. It will break my heart, Mr. Francis, that have been toiling more like a dog than a man. [Compare § 319.]

SCOTT.

14. You are the first who has ever said so.

15. You are the first who have ever said so.

### CASES OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS (§ 386).

#### I

Correct or justify the case of the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Whom the gods love die young.

2. Honour to whom honour is due!

3. To whomsoever came he gave freely all that they desired.

4. I offer a prize of six pairs of gloves to whomsoever will tell me what idea in this second part is mine.

DICKENS.



5. I do not love thee, Doctor Fell,  
The reason why I cannot tell;  
But this alone I know full well,  
I do not love thee, Doctor Fell.  
TOM BROWN (1663-1704).
6. True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,  
As those move easiest who have learned to dance.  
POPE.
7. I fear no foe in shining armour.
8. Men fear death, as children fear to go in the dark. BACON.
9. Now you talk sense.
10. What do you say to that?
11. He reads French easily, but he does not speak it.
12. I understand what you mean.
13. I do not play for money.
14. Ay, knave, because thou strikest as a knight,  
Being but knave, I hate thee all the more.

TENNYSON.

## II

Make up sentences containing the Continuous Form of the Present Indicative, and side by side with them sentences containing the Present Indicative, using the following verbs: *laugh, break, tell, lie, burn, sink, strike, write, win, sleep, have, demand*. Where the meaning of the two tenses differs, say what the difference is.

## III

Arrange the Present Indicatives of the following sentences in four classes: (1) those which denote what is going on, (2) those which denote what is habitual, (3) those which refer to future time, (4) those which refer to past time ('historic presents').

1. Now on each side the leaders  
Give signal for the charge;  
And on each side the footmen  
Stroke on with lance and targe. MACAULAY.
2. 'How goes the day?' said Dundee. 'Well for King James', answered Johnstone: 'but I am sorry for Your Lordship'. 'If it is well for him', answered the dying man, 'it matters the less for me'.  
MACAULAY.

3. He that outlives this day and comes safe home  
Will yearly on the vigil feast his neighbours  
And say, 'To-morrow is Saint Crispian'.

SHAKESPEARE.

4. The city of Cawnpore lies on the south bank of the river Ganges; the stream measures two thousand yards from shore to shore. And yet the river has still a thousand miles of his course to run before he loses himself in the waters of the Bay of Bengal. But tow-ropes and punt-poles are now things of the past, and the traveller from Calcutta arrives at the end of his journey in little more than thirty hours.

TREVELYAN.

5. And may there be no moaning of the bar,  
When I put out to sea;  
But such a tide as moving seems asleep,  
Too full for sound and foam,  
When that which drew from out the boundless deep  
Turns again home.

TENNYSON.

6. With his white hair unbonneted, the stout old sheriff comes;  
Behind him march the halberdiers; before him sound the drums;  
His yeomen round the market-cross make clear an ample space;  
For there behoves him to set up the standard of Her Grace.  
And haughtily the trumpets peal, and gaily dance the bells;  
As slow upon the labouring wind the royal blazon swells.

MACAULAY.

#### IV

Construct sentences with verbs of your own choice to show the four meanings of the Present Indicative mentioned under III above.

#### V

How would you describe the meaning of the Present Indicative in the Subordinate Clauses of the following sentences? Make up four similar sentences of your own.

1. If he gives us this promise, I shall be confident of our success.
2. See that everything is ready for our start.
3. Take care that you are not too late for the train.
4. I will remain here until you are prepared to give me a reply.

## 2. THE PAST (§§ 395-400).

## I

What do the Past and the Past Continuous denote in the following passages? Arrange the instances in three classes: (1) denoting what was going on, (2) denoting what was habitual, (3) used with historic meaning (§ 399).

1. Your words were not very clear ; but I knew what you meant.
2. I never spoke in public when I was a young man.
3. I came, I saw, I overcame. SHAKESPEARE.
4. In the year 1880 Carlyle lived in Cheyne Walk.
5. Did he smoke? Yes, he smoked a great deal.
6. A hundred years ago it took a week to travel from Edinburgh to London.
7. And many a man has fought because  
He feared to run away. RICHARD HOVEY.
8. As yet a child, nor yet a fool to fame,  
I lisped in numbers, for the numbers came. POPE.
9. The wind was rising easterly, the morning sky was blue,  
The straits before us opened wide and free ;  
We looked towards the Admiral, where high the Peter flew,  
And all our hearts were dancing like the sea.  
NEWBOLT.
10. Then bugle's note and cannon's roar the deathlike silence  
broke,  
And with one start and with one cry the royal city woke.  
At once on all her stately gates arose the answering fires ;  
At once the wild alarum clashed from all her reeling spires.  
MACAULAY.
11. The sun was shining outside the walls when we re-entered  
Semur ; but the first step we took was into a gloom as black as  
night, which did not re-assure us, it is unnecessary to say. A chill  
was in the air of night and mist. We shivered. MRS. OLIPHANT.
12. It was noontide ringing,  
When the ship her way was winging,  
And the gunner's lads were singing  
As they loaded every gun. NEWBOLT.

## II

Make examples of your own to illustrate the three meanings of the Past Indicative (§§ 395, 399).

## 3. THE FUTURE AND THE FUTURE IN THE PAST (§§ 401-404).

## I

Pick out in the following passages (1) Futures, (2) Futures in the Past, (3) Presents referring to future time.

1. On the day that William is king of all England, Hereward will come, and put his hands between his and be his man.

KINGSLEY.

2. When her frenzy collapsed, she moaned secretly of ruin and defeat hereafter to themselves. But she would be bold; she would play her part; she would encourage the heroes who looked to her as one inspired.

KINGSLEY.

3. 'But what will you do!'

'Live in the greenwood.'

'But what will be the end of it all?'

'We shall live till we die.'

'But William is master of all England.'

'What is that to us? He is not our master.'

'But he must be some day. You will grow fewer and fewer. His government will grow stronger and stronger.'

'What is that to us? When we are dead, there will be brave yeomen in plenty to take our place.'

KINGSLEY.

4. And now a few flakes of snow fluttered round me, and I held on hopelessly, thinking that surely I should come to some place that would give me a lee of rock that I could creep under. Then I was sure that I heard voices calling after me, and I ran, not rightly knowing where to go, but judging that the coast line would bring me to some fishers' village in the end.

WHISTLER.

5. She knew the life-long martyrdom,

The weariness, the endless pain

Of waiting for some one to come

Who nevermore would come again. LONGFELLOW.

6. And so he'll die; and, rising so again,

When I shall meet him in the court of heaven,

I shall not know him.

SHAKESPEARE.

7. If you tarry longer, I shall give you worse payment.

SHAKESPEARE.

8. He believed that his ancestral home would, if not a ruin, be held by his foes, or at best by the rival branch of the family, whose welcome of the outlawed heir would probably be to a dungeon, if not a halter.

C. M. YONGE.

## II

Make up sentences of your own containing (1) Futures, (2) Futures in the Past of the following verbs: *wish, tell, am, run, fight, sing, rejoice, write, advise, bring*. In some of the sentences use the 1st person, in some the 2nd, and in some the 3rd. Put some of the Futures in the Past in clauses introduced by 'that', and others in clauses introduced by a Relative Pronoun.

4. THE PRESENT PERFECT, THE PAST PERFECT, THE FUTURE PERFECT, AND THE FUTURE PERFECT IN THE PAST (§§ 405-414).

### I

How do the tenses named above differ in meaning from (1) the Present, (2) the Past, (3) the Future, (4) the Future in the Past?

### II

Pick out 'perfect' tenses in the following passages. Name each instance.

1. The same atrocities which had attended the victory of the Saxon over the Celt were now, after the lapse of ages, suffered by the Saxon at the hand of the Dane.

MACAULAY.

2. What I have written, I have written.

ST. JOHN XIX. 22.

3. Hereward had never been so cheerful, so confident. 'Play the man this day every one of you, and ere nightfall you will have taught the Frenchmen the lesson of York.'

KINGSLEY.

4. I wondered if Owen knew yet that I was lost, or if my men sought me still. Then my mind went to Evan the chapman outlaw, and I thought that by this time he would have given me up.

WHISTLER.

5. She is won; we are gone over bank, bush and scar.

SCOTT.



6. Clive was in consequence accused by his enemies, and has been accused by historians, of disobeying his instructions.

MACAULAY.

7. It has been already said that the two French agents who were then resident in London had divided the English court between them.

MACAULAY.

8.           Again that light has fired his eye,  
              Again his form swells bold and high,  
              The broken voice of age is gone.                 SCOTT.

9. But happily the energies of our country have been directed to better objects.

MACAULAY.

10. Mr. Disraeli has up to this point made a very poor Premier, but then he has had great difficulties to contend with.

LORD SALISBURY (in the Saturday Review).

### III

Make up three sentences illustrating the difference in meaning between the Present Perfect and the Past Historic (§ 408).

### IV

Try to find an explanation of the difficulty which arises as to the use of the Present Perfect in the following sentences.

1. In life Dickens was the more prosperous; but Thackeray has had the better fortune after death.

2. An Englishman does not require any extraneous incentives to emotion, when, leaning against the beams of that archway, he recalls who have thereby gone in and out. Between those door-posts have walked Peel, and Havelock, and gentle Outram, and stout Sir Colin—heroes who no longer tread the earth.

G. TREVELYAN.

## CORRESPONDENCE OF TENSES.

### I

Draw up a table of the eight tenses of the indicative in two parallel columns, showing which corresponds to which (see §§ 389, 395; 401, 403; 406, 410; 412, 413); and make examples of your own to show the correspondences of meaning in each pair of tenses.

## II

Explain the differences of tense in the subordinate clauses of the following examples :

1. { (a) He has no idea what twice two is.  
(b) He had no idea what twice two was.
2. { (a) Let us ask the station-master when the train will start.  
(b) We asked the station-master when the train would start.
3. { (a) Our guide will point out to us the field where the old cottage stands.  
(b) Our guide pointed out to us the field where the old cottage stood.
4. { (a) He says that he does not know what has happened.  
(b) He said that he did not know what had happened.

## III

Turn the Subordinate Clauses in the following sentences into Simple Sentences, changing the tenses of past time into the corresponding tenses of present time.

1. He prophesied that the enemy would not resist.
2. I knew when this would happen.
3. It was clear that we should soon be outflanked.
4. Everybody was asking why the attack on Verdun had been made.
5. I was afraid you had already lost your way.
6. It seemed likely that we should not have finished in time.
7. There was no doubt that he was mistaken.
8. Did you know what he was doing ?

## IV

Turn the following sentences into Subordinate Clauses by making them depend upon a Main Clause containing a tense of past time (such as ' I said ', ' You asked ', ' He knew ').

1. They will arrive in time.
2. We shall have been waiting for three hours.
3. How can it be known what will happen when we get there ?

4. In a few days they will have received our telegram and will be spreading the news abroad.
5. He is at home and is working hard.
6. They are trying to find out what is the best thing to do.
7. How glad our friends will be when they hear that we have been successful!
8. Have they decided whom they are going to elect?

THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND THE IMPERATIVE (§§ 415-433).

I

In the following passages find Subjunctives and Imperatives, and classify the Subjunctives under the following heads: (1) Prospective Subjunctives, (2) Subjunctives of Desire, (3) Subjunctives of Supposition, naming the tense of each. Disregard all Subjunctives and Subjunctive-equivalents which do not fall under one of these three heads.

A. *Passages illustrating common usages of the present day.*<sup>1</sup>

1. Do as you like, but don't throw the responsibility on me.
2. Never surrender. Every man stick to his post.
3. God punish England.
4. The City Council decrees that all lights be extinguished on notice being given of the approach of hostile air-craft.
5. It is requested that every householder provide blinds to darken the lights in his house every night between an hour after sunset and an hour before sunrise.
6. Reports of Company Meetings are inserted as advertisements, but care is taken to ensure that they be correct. *The Times.*
7. Do what he may, and strive as he may, the enemy will never advance again under such favourable conditions.
8. I wish I had a larger house.
9. If life were a thing that money could buy,  
The poor could not live and the rich would not die.  
*Epitaph in Elgin churchyard.*
10. If the necessity arose, volunteers in plenty would flock to the standard.

<sup>1</sup> These passages illustrate only the three usages referred to above.

11. If the mass of the people read as many novels or saw as many pictures or sat through as many plays as I do, they would be as much delighted as I am by anything unusual or unexpected.

12. Did they but know the truth, they would never make such accusations.

13. They do not know the truth ; I wish they did.

14. I wish I had had an opportunity of making the truth known.

15. If we had known then what we know now, we should have acted otherwise.

16. Would that we had been forewarned !

17. A boy who did not know what to do with himself during the holidays would be a poor creature.

18. Anyone who had not tried it would have thought it an impossible task.

19. It is about time that some decisive action were taken.

20. They decided to wait until the necessity for action arose.

B. *Passages from literature.*<sup>1</sup>

1.                 Now learn, love, have, do, be the best ;  
                    Each in his turn excel the rest.

ROBERT BRIDGES, *Founder's Day, Eton.*

2.   Nor love thy life, nor hate ; but what thou liv'st  
      Live well ; how long or short, permit to Heaven.

MILTON.

3. 'Courage, my brave friends,' said the Chevalier, 'and each one  
   put himself instantly at the head of his command.'                 SCOTT.

4.   God send Rome one such other sight, and send me there  
      to see.   MACAULAY.

5.         Breathes there the man with soul so dead  
       Who never to himself hath said,  
           This is my own, my native land ?  
       If such there breathe, go, mark him well :  
       For him no minstrel raptures swell.                 SCOTT.

<sup>1</sup> Some of these passages contain usages of the Subjunctive which are now rarely or never found in the *spoken* language. But none of these usages are out of date in the *literary* language (prose or verse) of the present day, though some of the authors quoted belong to the past

6. Be it hoarse as Corrievreckan  
 Spouting when the storm is high,  
 Give me but one hour of Scotland,  
 Let me see it ere I die. AYTOUN.

7. Perish wealth and power and pride,  
 Mortal boons by mortals given. SCOTT.

8. Sing we, sing we joyously. *Old Carol.*

9. In this poor gown my dear lord found me first  
 And loved me serving in my father's hall,  
 And this poor gown I will not cast aside,  
 Until himself arise a living man  
 And bid me cast it. TENNYSON.

10. If any man passes me, see that he pass not thee. KINGSLEY.

11. If that be so—and I think it is so—what are we to say from  
 that point of view? A. J. BALFOUR.

12. O happy, so their state but give  
 A clue by which a man can live. A. H. CLOUGH.

13. Had I your tongues and eyes, I'd use them so  
 That heaven's vault should crack. SHAKESPEARE.

14. Oh, that he  
 Were once more the landscape painter  
 Which did win my heart from me! TENNYSON.

15. 'Were I the one last Englishman  
 Drawing the breath of life,  
 And you the master-rebel of all  
 That stir this land to strife—  
 Were I', he said, 'but a corporal,  
 And you a Rajput King,  
 So long as the soul was in my body  
 You should not do this thing.' NEWBOLT.

16. *Guiderius.* No exorciser harm thee!  
*Arviragus.* Nor no withcraft charm thee!  
*Guid.* Ghost unlaid forbear thee!  
*Arv.* Nothing ill come near thee!  
*Both.* Quiet consummation have;  
 And renowned be thy grave! SHAKESPEARE.

17. Loyalty is still the same  
 Whether it win or lose the game. BUTLER.

18. 'I will make my boats sweep their fens clear of every head.'  
—'Take care, my lord king, lest never a boat come back from that errand.'  
KINGSLEY.

19. 'Laugh those that can, weep those that may';  
Thus did the fiery monarch say. SCOTT.

20. O Statesmen, guard us, guard the eye, the soul  
Of Europe, keep our noble England whole,  
And save the one true seed of freedom sown  
Betwixt a people and their ancient throne.  
For, saving that, ye help to save mankind  
Till public wrong be crumbled into dust,  
And drill the raw world for the march of mind  
Till crowds at length be sane and crowns be just.  
But wink no more in slothful overtrust.

TENNYSON, *Ode on the Duke of Wellington*.

21. God grant to us the old Armada weather,  
The winds that rip, the heavens that stoop and lour—  
Not till the Sea and England sink together,  
Shall they be master! Let them boast that hour.

R. S. VERNÈDE.

22. If it were theatre night, perhaps they met at the theatre; if  
it were assembly night, they met at the rooms. DICKENS.

23. Effected it will be, unless it were a Demon that made this  
universe. CARLYLE.

24. We should not have been there at all, if we had not been  
hypocrites. DICKENS.

25. Had the private conduct of Hampden afforded the slightest  
pretence for censure, he would have been assailed. MACAULAY.

## II

Such deeds of uncalculating daring make our blood tingle within us, and there is not one person whom I am now addressing who would not infinitely prefer a man who calculates too little and dares too much, to a man who dares too little and calculates too much.

A. J. BALFOUR, *on the late Admiral Cradock* (June 16, 1916).

What would be the effect of substituting past subjunctives for the present indicatives 'calculates' and 'dares'?

## III

What tense of the Subjunctive is used in the following sentences, and what is its force?

1. It ought to weigh heavily on a man's conscience, if he have been the cause of another's deviating from sincerity. W. J. Fox.

I do entreat you, not a man depart,  
Save I alone, till Anthony have spoke. SHAKESPEARE.

## IV

1. Explain in your own words how the idea of 'desire' is connected with the idea of 'obligation'.

2. How may expressions of supposition arise out of expressions of command or wish?

3. Show by means of sentences of your own the difference between the use of the Subjunctive and that of the Imperative in expressing desire.

4. Break up the Complex Sentences given in § 416 and in § 423 into two Simple Sentences, taking as your model the following: *I wish I were a mile hence = Were I a mile hence! I wish it* (§ 427).

5. In questions like the following the words in italics are generally regarded as Infinitives (like the French Infinitive in *Moi, faire cela!*; see French Grammar § 476). Is there any other way in which they might possibly be regarded?

(a) He *ask* my pardon?

(b) She *marry* a foreigner?

(c) WARWICK. For shame! Leave Henry, and call Edward king.

OXFORD. *Call* him my king? No, Warwick, no.

SHAKESPEARE.

6. Correct the error in the following sentences (cp. § 365):

(a) He speaks as if he knows.

(b) He loves me as if he is my brother.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE, CONTINUED (§§ 434-439).

## I

What is meant by Conditioned Futurity? Which tenses of the Subjunctive mood are used to express it?

## II

In the following passages find (1) Subjunctives of Conditioned Futurity, like those in §§ 435, 437, and 438, (2) Subjunctive-equivalents formed by 'should' (1st person) or 'would' (2nd or 3rd person) and the infinitive, like those in § 436; and show what each instance denotes by substituting, wherever possible, a Subjunctive-equivalent for a Subjunctive and a Subjunctive for a Subjunctive-equivalent. Disregard all Subjunctives and Subjunctive-equivalents which do not denote Conditioned Futurity.

A. *Passages illustrating common usages of the present day.*<sup>1</sup>

1. He could do it, if only he tried.
2. If the wind were to blow hard, this house might fall down.
3. Anyone might see that it is not safe.
4. You should go and see for yourself.
5. I would, if I could.
6. You had better do so at once.

B. *Passages from literature.*

1. Thou art so full of misery,  
Were it not better not to be? TENNYSON.
2. It would not need much to set the tide of war rolling west-  
ward again. WHISTLER.
3. Should he meet us in the glen,  
My blood would stain the heather. CAMPBELL.
4. I should count myself the coward, If I left them, my Lord  
Howard,  
To these Inquisition dogs and the devildoms of Spain. TENNYSON.
5. 'Our Borders sacked by many a raid,  
Our peaceful liegemen robbed,' he said,  
'Unworthy were we here to reign,  
Should these for vengeance cry in vain.' SCOTT.
6. Had I been there with sword in hand  
And twenty Camerons by,  
That day through high Dunedin's streets  
Had pealed the slogan-cry. AYTOUN.

<sup>1</sup> Other common usages of the Subjunctive are given in the Exercises on §§ 415-433 (p. 155).



7. Had I but served my God with half the zeal  
I served my king, he would not in mine age  
Have left me naked to mine enemies. SHAKESPEARE.

8. We came to a unanimous resolution of being drawn together,  
in one large historical family piece. This would be cheaper, since  
one frame would serve for all. GOLDSMITH.

9. Where's the coward that would not dare  
To fight for such a land? SCOTT.

10. He goes to do what I had done  
Had Douglas' daughter been his son. SCOTT.

11. 'If all men were virtuous,' returned the artist, 'I should with  
great alacrity teach them all to fly. But what would be the  
security of the good, if the bad could at pleasure invade them from  
the sky? Against an army sailing through the clouds, neither  
walls, nor mountains, nor seas could afford any security. A flight  
of northern savages might hover in the wind, and light at once  
with irresistible violence upon the capital of a fruitful region that  
was rolling under them. Even this valley, the retreat of princes,  
the abode of happiness, might be violated by the sudden descent  
of some of the naked nations that swarm on the coast of the  
southern sea.'

JOHNSON, *Rasselas*.

12. I would not, if I could, repeat  
A life which still is good and sweet. WHITTIER.

13. Strike, England, quickly, make an end  
Of him who seeks a deal with thee;  
If he would bargain for thy friend,  
What would he trade for Liberty?  
MAURICE HEWLETT.

14. I could not love thee, dear, so much,  
Loved I not honour more. RICHARD LOVELACE.

15. Very peace were now a nameless wrong.  
JOHN DRINKWATER.

16. It would be well if the more narrow-minded portion would  
consider whether the books which they are banishing from the  
hands of youth were not instruments of national education.

JOHN STUART MILL

## SUBJUNCTIVES AND INDICATIVES (§ 440).

## I

Parse the forms in italics in the following sentences, and say what meanings they express. State also the nature of the clauses in which they stand.

1. See whether it *be* well with thy brethren. *Genesis xxxvii. 14.*
2. I wonder if Titania *be awaked*.  
SHAKESPEARE, *Midsummer Night's Dream* III. ii. 1.
3. Oh, *wast* thou with me, dearest, then,  
While I rose up against my doom,  
And yearned to burst the folded gloom,  
To bare the eternal heavens again,  
  
If thou *wert* with me, and the grave  
*Divide* us not, be with me now.  
TENNYSON, *In Memoriam* cxxii.

4. And you will also see for yourselves, wherever you go, how unanimous is the resolution of the people of these islands, without distinction of race or class or political party, to prosecute this war until that measure of aggression which has long darkened the sky of Europe and threatened the prospects of peaceful progress all over the world *has* been finally removed.

*Speech of King George to French Deputies (April 10, 1916).*

## II

1. Is 'were' correct in the following sentence?

If the number employed by the enemy in this assault had been from 200,000 to 300,000 men, I should believe that a new attempt *were* being made.  
*Daily Paper.*

2. Make up four sentences of your own in which either a Subjunctive or an Indicative might be used without any important difference of meaning, and say which mood you yourself would prefer in each case.

## THE DEFECTIVE VERB 'CAN' (§§ 441-444).

## I

Parse the forms of the verb 'can' in the following passages (that is, state the *person*, *number*, *tense*, and *mood* of each); and show what each instance denotes by expressing the meaning in other words.

1. Can I give you back your honour?

Though I forgave, would any man forget?

G. K. CHESTERTON.

2. You will see for yourselves how strenuous are the efforts that are being made to provide the navy and the army with all they can need. *Speech of King George to French Deputies* (April 10, 1916).

3. Oh, could I flow like thee, and make thy stream

My great example, as it is my theme!

SIR JOHN DENHAM.

4. In the old days a general of genius could outflank his foe by a forced march, or lay some ingenious trap or ambush. IAN HAY.

5. Oh would I were a boy again,

When life seemed formed of sunny years.

Oh would that I could know again

The happy visions of my youth! MARK LEMON.

6. I would not, if I could, repeat

A life which still is good and sweet. WHITTIER.

7. Pope, who couldst make immortals, art thou dead?

YOUNG.

8. Who that hath ever been

Could bear to be no more?

Yet who would tread again the scene

He trod through life before? JAMES MONTGOMERY.

9. Demigods could not have done what they had failed to do.

KINGLAKE.

10. We could not imitate them if we would, and we would not if we could.

11. A small bush, growing just outside the barbed wire, rises suddenly to its feet. Next moment it tumbles over into the trench.

Willing hands extracted M. Snape from his arboreal envelope. He could probably have got home quite well without it, but once a Boy Scout, always a Boy Scout.

IAN HAY.

12. A boy who could not find something to do in the holidays would be a poor creature.

## II

Is the use of 'can' correct in the following sentence? Substitute some other expression.

The war should not last longer than 1917; but for this it is necessary that all the belligerents can count upon sufficient resources.

*Daily Paper*

(*Interview with a Portuguese Minister*, March 30, 1916).

## THE DEFECTIVE VERB 'MAY' (§§ 445-453).

### I

Parse the forms of the verb 'may' in the following passages, and show what each instance denotes by expressing the meaning in other words. Wherever 'may' or 'might' with the object-infinitive is a Subjunctive-equivalent, say so; and state the tense of the Subjunctive to which it corresponds (see § 453).

1. It may be we shall touch the Happy Isles  
And see the great Achilles whom we knew.

TENNYSON.

2. Our country! In her intercourse with foreign nations may she always be in the right; but our country, right or wrong!

STEPHEN DECATUR (American naval commander: 1779-1820).

3. In those days no stranger might abide in any place save a borough.

J. R. GREEN.

4. Yes, dear departed cherished days,  
Could Memory's hand restore  
Your morning light, your evening rays  
From Time's grey urn once more,  
Then might this restless heart be still,  
This straining eye might close,  
And Hope her fainting pinions fold,  
While the fair phantoms rose. WENDELL HOLMES.

5. If any man may, you may as soon as any. SHAKESPEARE.
6. Now we are at work. Our buttons may occasionally lack lustre; we may cherish unorthodox notions as to the correct method of presenting arms—but we can dig. IAN HAY.
7. 'Any casualties?' asked Blaikie.  
'None here,' replied Wagstaffe: 'There may be some back in the support trenches.'  
'We might telephone and inquire.'  
'No good at present. The wires are all cut.' IAN HAY.
8. I judge people by what they might be—not are, nor will be. BROWNING.
9. Would we might see the crocus blow  
Where Evenlode and Windrush flow!  
I would the time were come again  
When we might watch the falling rain.  
ETHEL CLIFFORD.
10. For of all sad words of tongue or pen  
The saddest are these: 'It might have been'. WHITTIER.
11. May he rest in peace!
12. I have indulged in these general reflexions in order that we may understand what our Empire is. J. R. SEELEY.
13. May the men of our race be so stirred in spirit by the witness of the memorials of famous men, that they may give themselves afresh to the high task of handing on to those who shall follow after them their great inheritance of liberty, honour, and truth!
14. An aged clergyman was once discovered on the hearth-rug, wrestling with the difficulties of the Italian subjunctive, in order that he might the better understand Macaulay's comparison of Milton to Dante.
15. Immense sums have been expended on works which, if a rebellion broke out, might perish in a few hours. MACAULAY.
16. They apprehended that he might have been carried off by gipsies. SOUTHEY.
17. Had he God's word in Welsh, he might be kindlier. TENNYSON.
18. You might just send me a line, to say that you have arrived safely.

## II

What meanings are expressed in the following sentences ?

1. You may have caught a salmon.
2. You might have caught a salmon.
3. You might have just sent me a line on your arrival.

THE DEFECTIVE VERB 'WILL' (§§ 454-461).

## I

When are 'will' and 'would' auxiliaries? Give examples of your own, and also contrasting examples in which they are not auxiliaries.

## II

Parse 'will' and 'would' in those of the following passages in which they are *not* auxiliaries. In those in which they are auxiliaries, name the compound tense which is formed by 'will' or 'would' with the object-infinitive; and where this compound tense is equivalent to a Subjunctive, name the tense of the Subjunctive to which it is equivalent. In some of these instances a tense of the Subjunctive itself might be used in English of the present day instead of the compound tense; where this is the case, say what that Subjunctive would be.

- A. 1. I'll be your servant,  
Whether you will or no. SHAKESPEARE.
2. Several other of the old knight's peculiarities break out upon these occasions. Sometimes he will be lengthening out a verse in the singing Psalms half a minute after the rest of the congregation have done with it; sometimes when he is pleased with the manner of his devotion, he will pronounce Amen three or four times to the same prayer. ADDISON.
3. We would not die in that man's company  
That fears his fellowship to die with us. SHAKESPEARE.
4. 'Every man die at his post!' and there hailed on our  
houses and halls  
Death from their rifle-bullets and death from their cannon-  
balls;  
Bullets would sing by our foreheads and bullets would  
rain at our feet. TENNYSON.

5. The body's gravity will be gradually diminished, till we shall arrive at a region where the man will float in the air without any tendency to fall.  
JOHNSON, *Rasselas*.

6. Now ask thy gallant company  
If they will follow thee. AYTOUN.

7. The good that I would I do not : but the evil that I would not, that I do.  
*Epistle to Romans*, vii. 19.

8. She persuaded, if not Hereward, at least Torfrida, that he was the man destined to free England once more, and that an earldom would be the sure reward of his assistance.  
KINGSLEY.

9. Would we might see the crocus blow  
Where Evenlode and Windrush flow!  
ETHEL CLIFFORD.

10. Before Clive lay a river over which, if things went ill, not one of his little band would ever return. He called a council of war. Long afterwards he said that he had never called but one council of war, and that if he had taken the advice of that council, the British would never have been masters of Bengal. MACAULAY.

11. A justice of the peace was defined in Parliament to be an animal who, for half a dozen chickens, would dispense with a dozen laws.  
LINGARD.

12. Lord Durham was bitterly attacked from all sides. I had followed the Canadian events from the beginning ; his policy was almost exactly what mine would have been, and I was in a position to defend it.  
J. S. MILL.

B. *Difficult passages.*

1. If thou wouldst view fair Melrose aright,  
Go visit it by the pale moonlight. SCOTT.

2. Ah, happy years! once more who would not be a boy?  
BYRON.

3. Hereditary bondsmen! know ye not,  
Who would be free themselves must strike the blow.  
BYRON.

4. We begged that the enemy would hold his hand from those monuments of the past which it would be sacrilege to destroy.

5. The true situation is quite other than Berlin would believe.
6. If it would be a mistake to do this at the present time, why was it not a mistake then?
7. Marry! would the word 'farewell' have lengthened hours,  
He should have had a volume of farewells. SHAKESPEARE.
8. The Man of Leisure is to-day hardly what one would call a type. His attitudes, his occupations, are not distinctive and exclusive. He will insist upon mingling with the throng on the pavement and trying to seem one of them. It is no good telling him he is getting in the way. He will do it. He likes to be one of the world's workers. *The Times*, May 12, 1914.
9. The Spirit is everywhere for each man to partake of according to his gifts, will he but ask. M. CÉCILE MATHESON.
10. They could tell him, would he but believe. M. CÉCILE MATHESON.

## III

The following sentences contain a common error. Point out what it is, and substitute the correct expression.

1. I would like to see you to-morrow at 10 o'clock.
2. We would hope to come, if possible.
3. I am sure that we would have perished, if you had not come.
4. We can scarcely imagine what we in England would be like if the English language were to die out among us.

## THE DEFECTIVE VERB 'SHALL'.

## I. PRESENT TENSE (§§ 462-471).

## I

When is 'shall' an auxiliary? Give examples of your own, and also contrasting examples in which it is not an auxiliary.

## II

In the following passages pick out the instances of 'shall' in which it is *not* an auxiliary, and express the meaning of each of them in some other way. Where 'shall' is an auxiliary, name the compound tense which it forms with the object-infinitive.

1. Never shall we know again  
A heart so stout and true. AYTOUN.



2. Six years shalt thou sow thy land. *Exodus* xxiii. 10.
3. Who now shall lead thy scattered children forth?  
BYRON.
4. What! Shall an African, shall Juba's heir  
Reproach great Cato's son? ADDISON.
5. If the ox shall push a man-servant, he shall give thirty shekels  
of silver. *Exodus* xxi. 32.
6. And, father cardinal, I have heard you say  
That we shall see and know our friends in heaven:  
If that be true, I shall see my boy again.  
SHAKESPEARE.
7. King James's men shall understand  
What Cornish lads can do. R. S. HAWKER.
8. 'By right of Oak, Ash, and Thorn are you free,' began Puck  
in a sing-song voice, 'where I shall show or best you please. You  
shall see what you shall see, and you shall hear what you shall  
hear, though it shall have happened three thousand year; and  
you shall know neither Doubt nor Fear.' KIPLING.
9. While stands the Coliseum, Rome shall stand;  
When falls the Coliseum, Rome shall fall;  
And when Rome falls—the world. BYRON.
10. That lamp shall burn unquenchably  
Until the eternal doom shall be. SCOTT.
11. This crossed, they come to Minor Canon Corner: of which  
the greater part lies in shadow until the moon shall rise higher in  
the sky. DICKENS.
12. Build me straight a goodly vessel  
Which shall laugh at all disaster. LONGFELLOW.
13. If you are unable to raise the £100 yourselves, I will advance  
it and you shall repay me at your leisure. GOLDSMITH.
14. The picture of Valentine and Ursine is as pretty a piece of  
landscape as you shall find in any printed book.  
*Westminster Gazette* (May 30, 1908).
15. Shall you know him when you see him? I am not sure that  
you will.

16. 'Seer, in thine eyes is wisdom, and in thy silvered beard. How shall I give that which hath been given?' 'My son, I read the riddle. "How shalt thou paint the picture and give eyes to see?" This is the answer. Hold thy heart in thy hand, and let thy words keep time to the beat of memory. Thus shall the written page be possessed of an enduring spirit and a pervading light.'

ANONYMOUS, *Home*.

### III

Correct errors in the following sentences.

1. I will be drowned and nobody shall come to my assistance.
2. Will I not be drowned, if nobody comes to my assistance?
3. What will we do next?
4. I am waiting till he will come.
5. If we remember the attempt that was made at Gallipoli, we will appreciate how serious the situation is. *Daily Paper*.

### IV

What differences of meaning are expressed by 'shall' and 'will' in the following passages?

1. How, then, shall you recognize the Man of Leisure? Perhaps best by the strange hours he keeps. He is, noticeably, to be seen at afternoon parties—at teas. Now, your Business Man, have he never so much time on his hands, will always use his business as an excuse for evading teas. You shall not see your City merchant treading on toes in doorways leading into rooms whence a sound of singing and expert piano-playing emerges. The difficulty is to get men for these functions. A hostess will always tell you that for every ten women there will be one man, or perhaps only a schoolboy, at afternoon parties. *The Times*, May 12, 1914.

2. { (a) No person will be allowed to obtain any book in this library without signing a Reader's ticket.
2. { (b) No person shall be allowed to obtain any book in this library without signing a Reader's ticket.
3. { (a) When Rome shall fall, the world will fall.
3. { (b) The time will come when Rome will fall.
4. { (a) I am empowered to pay all salaries which shall fall due.
4. { (b) I am empowered to pay you your salaries, which will fall due next week.

5. I beg to be counted among those earnestly urging the adoption of a course which will leave no doubt of our Government's willingness to continue negotiations with Germany until an amicable understanding shall be reached. Some nation must lead the world out of the black night of war into the light of day, when swords shall be beaten into ploughshares. Why not make the honour ours?  
W. J. BRYAN, June, 1915.

2. PAST TENSE OF 'SHALL' (§§ 472-476).

I

When is 'should' an auxiliary? Give examples of your own, and also contrasting examples in which it is not an auxiliary.

II

In the following passages pick out the instances of 'should' in which it is *not* an auxiliary, and express the meaning of each of them in some other way. Where 'should' is an auxiliary, name the compound tense which it forms with the object-infinitive, and say in which of the two senses indicated in § 476 it is used.

1. Whether their fame centuries long should ring,  
They cared not over much. NEWBOLT.
2. His proposal was that the rates of postage should be diminished to the minimum, and that at the same time the speed of conveyance should be increased. JUSTIN McCARTHY.
3. It was resolved that we should have our pictures done too. GOLDSMITH.
4. I should very imperfectly execute the task which I have undertaken, if I were merely to treat of battles and sieges. MACAULAY.
5. Poets shouldn't have work to do. E. E. BOWEN.
6. And wherefore should these good news make me sick  
\* \* \* \* \*  
I should rejoice now at this happy news,  
And now my sight fails and my brain is giddy. SHAKESPEARE.

7. It was necessary for her, she said, to take some sustenance, lest a failure of her bodily strength should depress her spirits on the morrow. HUME.

8. I waited till the day should dawn.

9. 'Our border sacked by many a raid,  
Our peaceful liegemen robb'd,' he said,  
'Unworthy were we here to reign,  
Should these for vengeance cry in vain.' SCOTT.

10. That we would do,  
We should do when we would. SHAKESPEARE.

11. O God! that bread should be so dear,  
And flesh and blood so cheap! THOMAS HOOD.

12. And bid the merry bells ring to thine ear  
That thou art crowned, not that I am dead.  
Let all the tears that should bedew my hearse  
Be drops of balm to sanctify thy head.  
SHAKESPEARE. *Speech of Henry IV to his son*  
(*Henry the Fourth*, Part II, iv. 4. 110 ff.).

13. I should not be surprised to hear it.

14. Should you desire an interview, I shall be glad to meet you.

15. Mind yourself, lest, when the roof falls, you should be crushed under the ruins. R. L. STEVENSON.

16. What would be thought of a painter who should mix August and January in one landscape, and should introduce a frozen river into a harvest scene? MACAULAY.

17. The law provided that the Archbishop should confirm the nominee of the Crown after eighteen days, and might do so at any earlier date.

18. Why should you suspect me? FIELDING.

19. I, that did never weep, now melt with woe  
That winter should cut off our spring-time so.  
SHAKESPEARE.

20. 'Were I,' he said, 'but a Corporal,  
And you a Rajput King,  
So long as the soul was in my body  
You should not do this thing.' NEWBOLT.

## III

1. Compare No. 15 above with No. 7, and No. 14 with No. 9; and write a note on two usages of the past tense 'should' in subordinate clauses.

2. Make up sentences of your own containing—

- (1) 'should' denoting what *is to be done* in present or future time;
- (2) 'should' in an expression of conditioned futurity;
- (3) 'should' in an expression of past futurity;
- (4) 'should' with the infinitive expressing a meaning which is nearly the same as that of a tense of the indicative.

3. Are both of the sentences in the following pairs correct?

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| { | (a) He asked that his guide should let him rest awhile. |
| { | (b) He asked that his guide would let him rest awhile.  |
| { | (a) I should do so, if I could.                         |
| { | (b) I would do so, if I could.                          |

## IV

Classify the following usages of 'should have' with a past participle, and, where possible, express the meaning in some other way. Where it is not possible, try to find out why this is the case.

1. I should not have thought it a yoke, had you not told me.  
GOLDSMITH.
2. He should have been an eminent statesman, and would have been, had he not devoted himself to the life of a scholar.
3. If Sir Ernest Shackleton has succeeded in crossing the Pole, the *Endurance* should have left her winter quarters in the Weddell Sea last February.  
*Daily Paper*, May, 1916.
4. I should have known what fruit would spring from such a seed. BYRON, *Childe Harold* (Canto iv, Stanza 10).  
(What two meanings might this sentence, apart from the context, bear?)
5. How strange it is that nobody should have thought of this before!
6. We expected that we should have left Rome before your arrival.

## V

What meanings are expressed in the following sentences? Three of them contain an error. Point out what it is.

1. I should have liked to stay longer in that beautiful place.
2. I should like to have stayed longer in that beautiful place.
3. I should have liked to have stayed longer in that beautiful place.
4. One could have wished to have been able to have read fuller accounts of what happened.
5. The post goes out in half an hour, and I had thought ere its departure to have described to you Constantinople.  
THACKERAY, *Punch in the East*, iii.
6. He might have wished to have done so.

## SUBJUNCTIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

1. Make a list of the Subjunctive-equivalents which are formed by Defective Verbs with an Object-infinitive; and make up sentences of your own to illustrate these constructions. In each case name the tense of the Subjunctive represented by the Subjunctive-equivalent; and wherever the Subjunctive itself might be used in English of the present day, say what that Subjunctive would be.

2. Substitute Subjunctive-equivalents for Subjunctives in the examples in §§ 416, 419, 420, 424, 426, 430.

3. Quote examples from the sections dealing with the Subjunctive (§§ 416-439) in which Subjunctive-equivalents could not be substituted for Subjunctives, or could only be substituted if some other verb were used instead of the verb standing in the Subjunctive.

4. In the examples in the following sections change the tense of the verb in the Main Clause, and make the tense of the Defective Verb in the Subordinate Clause correspond: §§ 448, 451, 467, 469.

5. Quote examples in which the tense of the verb in the Main Clause makes no difference to the tense of the Defective Verb in the Subordinate Clause.

## THE DEFECTIVE VERBS 'MUST' AND 'OUGHT' (§§ 477-480).

## I

Explain how 'must' and 'ought', although originally past tenses, came to be used of present time.

## II

What is the meaning of 'must' in the following passages? Answer this question by expressing the meaning in other words.

1. First and foremost you must know that I am descended from the great O'Brien Borru. MARRYAT.

2. He must reach us before he can rack us. AUSTIN DOBSON.

3. He who died quick with his face to the foe,  
In the heart of a friend must needs die slow.

LAURENCE HOUSMAN.

4. You must not say such things.

5. You must have known.

Compare the meaning of 'must' and 'shall' in the following passage:

Our principle is that international questions must be settled by free negotiation between free peoples, and that this settlement shall not be hampered by the dictation of a military caste.

*From a Speech by Mr. Asquith, April 10, 1916 (abbreviated).*

## III

What are the exact meanings of 'ought' in the following sentences?

1. This triangle ought to be equilateral.

2. According to my calculation the distance ought to be about six miles.

3. If this were true, he ought to be punished. But it is not true.

4. If this had been true, he ought to have been punished. But it was not true.

## IV

Distinguish the meanings of 'ought to have' with a past participle in the following sentences.

1. If that is what he meant, he ought to have said so.

2. An' I niver knaw'd what a meän'd, but I thowt a 'ad summat to saäy,

An' I thowt a said what a owt to 'a said an' I coom'd awaäy.

TENNYSON, *Northern Farmer*, v.

## THE VERB 'LET' (§§ 481-483).

## I

1. Parse every word in the following sentences, and account for the uses of the Cases.

- (1)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (a) \text{ Long live Britannia! Long let her rule the waves!} \\ (b) \text{ Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves!} \end{array} \right.$
- (2)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (a) \text{ Let us be trusty and strong!} \\ (b) \text{ Be we trusty and strong!} \end{array} \right.$

2. Make up examples of 'let' followed by an Accusative and an Infinitive, in which it would not be possible to express the meaning by using a Subjunctive.

## II

What does 'let' mean in the following sentences?

1. Let me alone.
2. Let me in.
3. Let go the rope.
4. They let us down gently.
5. Do not let the gun off.
6. At what price is this house let?

## III

1. In what respect does the equivalent which is formed with 'let' (§ 482) differ from the Subjunctive-equivalents which are formed with Defective Verbs?

2. Substitute the equivalent formed with 'let' for the Subjunctives in the examples in § 421.

3. Make up four sentences of your own like those contained in § 482, but with the pronoun of the 1st person singular after the word 'let'.

## IV

1. Correct or justify the following sentences:

(a) Let you and I look at these; for they say that there are none such in the world. HENRY KINGSLEY, *Mademoiselle Mathilde*.

(b) Let they who raise the spell beware the Fiend.

BULWER LYTTON.

(c) Let you and me decide to take no part in the struggle.



2. Try to discover an answer to the following questions:

(a) Why is it that, though sentences with 'you and ——' (like the one quoted from Browning in § 483) are correct, it would be impossible to form corresponding sentences with 'you' alone (like 'Let *you* decide to take no part in the struggle')?

(b) Why is it that the error contained in the sentence quoted from Hughes in § 483 is more common than the same error when the order of the pronouns is reversed (1st person before 2nd person)?

### CASES AND PREPOSITIONS (§§ 484-496).

#### I

Which are the two kinds of Direct Object? Make up examples of your own.

#### II

Make up six sentences containing two Direct Objects, varying them as much as you can, and six others containing a Direct Object and an Indirect Object (like those given in Part II, § 173). Then rewrite all your sentences, substituting the passive for the active construction wherever the passive construction is possible.

#### III

Correct or justify the Cases of the Pronouns in the following sentences:

1. It is in this particular that the great difference lies between the labourer who moves to Yorkshire and he who moves to Canada.  
*Westminster Review*, July, 1879.

2. He went to the offices of Mr. Donkin, the oldest and most respected attorney in Monkshaven—he who had been employed to draw up the law papers.  
MRS. GASKELL.

3. Who do you want to see?

4. Who do you take me to be?

5. She was sitting between you and I.

6. Let us never forget that, you and I.

7. Which when Beëlzebub perceiv'd, than whom,  
Satan except, none higher sat, with grave  
Aspect he rose.

MILTON.

8. The seat  
Of deity supreme, us dispossess'd,  
He trusted to have seized, and into fraud  
Drew many, whom their place knows here no more.  
MILTON (see Part II, note on p. 83).

9. Whom the gods love die young.

10. Who steals my purse steals trash. SHAKESPEARE.

11. These are the boys whom he teaches French.

12. There are plenty of people whom we know quite well are innocent of this crime.

13. Tell me who you are looking for.

14. Last week George and me paid them a visit.

15. This is the Happy Warrior, this is he  
Whom every man in arms should wish to be.

16. The Englishman was declared by Emerson to be him of all men who stands firmest in his shoes.

17. There is some doubt as to whom he was.

18. Do you know the persons who he was living with?

#### IV

In what kinds of sentence and clause may a preposition be separated from its noun or pronoun? Give examples.

#### V

Rewrite the following passages with the preposition in a different place.

1. It is a persuasion which we all smile at in one another and justify in ourselves. MISS MARTINEAU.

2. This rich fair town  
We make him lord of. SHAKESPEARE.

3. Logic I made no account of. SMOLLETT.

4. Washes of all kinds I had a natural antipathy to.  
GOLDSMITH.

5. This house I no more show my face in. GOLDSMITH.

6. To him will I give the land that he hath trodden upon.  
*Deuteronomy, i. 36.*
7. Birth is a thing that I care nothing about. MACAULAY.
8. What happier natures shrink at with affright  
The hard inhabitant contends is right. POPE.
9. You have forgot the will I told you of. SHAKESPEARE.
10. I have reached the point I meant to leave off with.  
DICKENS.
11. You are a greater blockhead than I took you for. SCOTT.
12. What I had learned and thought and delighted in, and raised  
my fancy and my emulation up by, was passing away from me.  
FORSTER, *Life of Charles Dickens.*

## ‘BUT’ (§§ 497-501).

## I

What part of speech is the word ‘but’ in the following passages?  
Express the meaning in some other way, wherever possible.

1. So there was no one left but me. R. L. STEVENSON.
2. Do you know the Poulterer’s, in the next street but one, at  
the corner? DICKENS.
3. Oaths are but words, and words but wind. BUTLER.
4. When we made this suggestion, they did nothing but laugh  
at us.
5. Scotland was at length united to England not merely by legal  
bonds, but by indissoluble ties of interest and affection.

MACAULAY.

6. Content with the croft and the hill were we,  
As all our fathers;  
\* \* \* \* \*  
No father here but would give a son  
For the old country. DR. WALTER C. SMITH.
7. Thieves are not judged but they are by to hear,  
Although apparent guilt be seen in them.  
SHAKESPEARE.
8. None but he could have done it.

9. He never played a game but he lost it.

10. The proudest royal houses are but of yesterday compared with the line of the Supreme Pontiffs. MACAULAY.

11. At every jest you laughed aloud,  
As now you would have done by me,  
But that I barr'd your raillery. BUTLER.

12. Had they been bold enough then, who can tell but the traitors had won? TENNYSON.

13. Such is the aspect of this shore;  
'Tis Greece, but living Greece no more. BYRON.

14. Ah, surely nothing dies but something mourns. BYRON.

15. Slavery is but half abolished while millions of freemen are left without education. R. C. WINTHROP.

16. Who knows but on their sleep may rise  
Such light as never heaven let through  
To lighten earth from Paradise? SWINBURNE.

17 and 18. [The passages numbered B. 4 and 6, in the Exercises on Adjective-clauses, §§ 317-322, p. 121.]

## II

Illustrate the five uses of 'but' by means of sentences of your own.

'EXCEPT' AND 'SAVE' (§§ 502-508).

What parts of speech are 'except' and 'save' in the following sentences?

1. No one ever knew of this night's episode, except us three. MISS MULOCK.

2. Except the clothes which I wear and the horse I ride on, I have no property. SCOTT.

3. But yesterday you never opened lip,  
Except, indeed, to drink. TENNYSON.

4. No one was ever yet made utterly miserable, except by himself. LORD AVEBURY.
5. Eternal summer gilds them yet,  
But all except their sun is set. BYRON.
6. Who professeth peace  
More than I do—except I be provoked?  
SHAKESPEARE.
7. Perhaps everyone except he guessed why. KINGSLEY.
8. All were gone save him who now kept guard. ROGERS.
9. None saw him save one unlucky groom-boy. KINGSLEY.
10. Oh who can tell, save he whose heart has tried?  
BYRON.
11. I swore to bury his Mighty Book,  
That never mortal might therein look;  
And never to tell where it was hid,  
Save at his chief of Branksome's need. SCOTT.
12. For of the race of gods is no one there,  
Save me alone. MATTHEW ARNOLD.
13. I do entreat you, not a man depart  
Save I alone, till Antony have spoke.  
SHAKESPEARE.
14. Dark was the vaulted room . . .  
Save that before a mirror, huge and high,  
A hallow'd taper shed a glimmering light. SCOTT.

## ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND ADVERBS (§§ 509-513).

## I

Parse the words in italics in the following passages, and say whether those of them which are Adjectives or Verb-adjectives are used with singular or with plural meaning.

1. Drown'd in yonder living *blue*  
The lark becomes a sightless song. TENNYSON.
2. Act, act in the living *present*. LONGFELLOW.
3. After *dark* things were fairly quiet. IAN HAY.
4. *Young, old, high, low*, at once the same diversions share.  
BYRON.

5. No troops could live in it for *long*. IAN HAY.
6. Not as the *flying* come,  
 In silence and in fear,  
 They shook the depths of the desert's gloom  
 With their hymn of lofty cheer.  
 Amidst the storms they sang,  
 And the stars heard and the sea!  
 And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang  
 To the anthem of the *free*. MRS. HEMANS.
7. There was little time to attend to the *wounded*. IAN HAY.
8. Mr. Jarvie took the advantage of his stopping after quoting the *above* proverb to give him the requisite instructions. SCOTT.
9. I have just seized the happy opportunity of my friend's visit *here*, to get admittance into the family. GOLDSMITH.
10. What will ye more of your guest and *sometime* friend?  
 NEWBOLT.
11. 'To-morrow well may bring', we said,  
 'As fair a fight, as clear a sun.'  
 Dear lad, before the word was sped,  
 For *evermore* thy goal was won. NEWBOLT.
12. And have they fixed the *where* and *when*?  
 And shall Trelawney die? R. S. HAWKER.

## II

Construct sentences with examples of the following: (1) Adjectives used as Nouns; (2) Adverbs used as Nouns; (3) Adverbs used as Adjectives.

## REPORTED SPEECH (§§ 514-524).

## I

Replace the quotations in the following passages by clauses depending on a verb in the past tense, 3rd person singular. Where necessary to make the sense clear, insert (in brackets) the names of the persons (or the nouns denoting the persons) indicated by the Pronouns in the Subordinate Clauses.

1. *Speech of Dundee before Killiecrankie.*

'As I am absolutely convinced and have had repeated proofs of your zeal for the King's service and of your affection to me as his general and your friend, so I am fully sensible that my engaging personally this day may be of some loss, if I shall chance to be killed. I beg leave of you, however, to allow me to give one harvest-day's work to the King, that I may have an opportunity of convincing the brave clans that I can hazard my life in that service as freely as the meanest of them. Ye know the temper of those clans; if they do not think I have personal courage, they will not esteem me hereafter, nor obey my commands with cheerfulness.'

DRUMMOND.

2. *A Message to Parnesius and Pertinax, the Captains of the Wall, from Maximus, once Emperor of Gaul and Britain, a prisoner waiting death.*

'I have joyfully done much evil in my life to those who have wished me evil, but if ever I did any evil to you two, I repent, and I ask your forgiveness. The three mules which I strove to drive have torn me in pieces, as your father prophesied. The naked swords wait at the tent door to give me the death I gave to Gratian. Therefore I, your General and your Emperor, send you free and honourable dismissal from my service, which you entered, not for money or for office, but, as it makes me warm to believe, because you loved me. You gave me the time for which I asked. If I have failed to use it, do not lament. We have gambled very splendidly against the gods, but they hold weighted dice and I must pay the forfeit. Remember, I have been; but Rome is; and Rome will be. Tell Pertinax his mother is in safety at Nicaea, and her monies are in charge of the Prefect at Antipolis. Make my remembrances to your father and to your mother, whose friendship was great gain to me. Give also to my little Picts and to the Winged Hats such messages as their thick heads can understand. I would have sent you three legions this very day, if all had gone aright. Do not forget me. We have worked together.'

KIPLING.

3. *A speech of Michael de la Pole to Edward III.*

'My Lord, what are you thinking of? Do you intend to follow the plan your uncles have devised? Know that if you do so, you

will never return; for the Duke of Lancaster wishes for nothing more earnestly than for your death, in order that he may be king. How could he dare advise your entering such a country in the winter? I would recommend you not to cross the Cumberland mountains, where are thirty passes so narrow, that if once you be enclosed within them you will run into the greatest danger from the Scots. Never engage in such a perilous expedition, whatever they may say to you; and if the Duke of Lancaster be so desirous to go thither, let him with that division of the army under his command: for, never with my consent, shall you undertake it. You have done enough for one time: neither your father, nor your grandfather Edward have been so far in Scotland as you have now been.'

FROISSART.

4. *Passages from speeches in Parliament.*

(a) 'For myself, I shall certainly vote for the amendment and shall support it with all the power I can command. So also will the other suffrage members of the Cabinet. Had it not been that we know that Mr. Asquith is a man of his word, and that when he pledges his honour he will stand by it even to his own hurt, it would have been exceedingly difficult for Sir Edward Grey and myself and other members of the Cabinet to give the support we have given to the cause of women's suffrage, because it might have brought us into conflict with the dictates of personal loyalty. What we have now to do is to use our influence so that every supporter of the cause shall be present to give his vote when the occasion arises.—Personally I have always been in favour of what is called the Norwegian amendment. I should deplore the extension of the franchise on the basis proposed in the Conciliation Bill. We have now a majority, if we are united; but if we divide our forces, we shall be badly beaten.'

MR. LLOYD GEORGE, Dec. 3, 1912.

(b) 'In what position do we stand? Here we have a great evil, as it seems to me—a growing evil. But if we strike at it, we shall necessarily inflict a wound upon the institution of property. What was the recommendation of the Duke of Wellington on this very subject? What would be the effect, if this bill should be carried through the House of Commons and lost in the House of Lords? If this resolution be adopted and acted upon by the House, how



will the government be carried on? Is this, I would ask, an impossible, nay, an improbable state of things?

MACAULAY, *Extracted from speech on the Ballot Act.*

5. *From a speech by the late Sir James Murray.*

'When I was young, teetotalism was a despised doctrine; but those who were abstainers then had perhaps greater hopes and greater buoyancy about them than they have now—hopes which were based upon a greater faith in human nature than they would encourage now. Those were the days when we used to sing "There's a good time coming", and when we believed that before the year 1900 the millennium or something like it would have arrived. I claim myself to be a monument of the power of Total Abstinence; and at the age of seventy I feel that I have a right to speak of what Total Abstinence has enabled me to do. Only six weeks ago I was lying in a very serious condition from pneumonia, and people generally said that I should not be good for anything for some months; but here I am, having been at work for nearly a month since that time, and I now feel as well as ever.'

II

In the following passages replace the dependent clauses by quotations in inverted commas, containing the words which the speaker would have used.

1. Hereward told them that he must at once return to Flanders. He had promised his good lord and sovereign, Baldwin of Flanders, and his word of honour he must keep. Two visits he must pay ere he went; and then to sea. But within three years, if he were alive, he would return, it might be, with Sweyn and all the power of Denmark. Only let them hold their own until the Danes should come, and all would be well. So would they show that they were free Englishmen, able to hold England against Frenchmen and all strangers. And whenever he came back, he would set a light to Toft, Manthorpe, and Witham-on-the-hill. They were his own farms, or should have been; and better they should burn than Frenchmen hold them. They could be seen far and wide over the Brunswold and over all the fen; and then all men might know for sure that the Wake was come again.

KINGSLEY.

2. Thanks to God there were but few of his ancestors who had died in chambers or in their beds. He bade them, therefore, revenge his death ; for he had but little hope of living, as his heart was becoming every moment more faint. Let Walter and Sir John Sinclair raise up his banner, for certainly it was on the ground. But let them not tell friend or foe whether he was in their company or not ; for should the enemy know the truth, they would be greatly rejoiced. *(Adapted from Froissart.)*

## III

Rewrite the conversation reported in the following passage, using the exact words of the speakers, and omitting the parts which contain the leading verbs.

He nodded back and cheerfully addressed me. Was I going to the monastery? Who was I? An Englishman? Ah, an Irishman then? A Scotsman? Ah, he had never seen a Scotsman before. I could not be received at Our Lady of the Snows ; I might get a meal perhaps, but that was all. I must be sure to ask for the Father Prior and state my case to him in full. On second thoughts he determined to go down with me himself ; he thought he could manage for me better. Might he say that I was a geographer? No ; I thought, in the interests of truth, he positively might not.

R. L. STEVENSON.

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