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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

DR. R. MORRIS

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.
Armistead Rust.

BY THE

REV. RICHARD MORRIS, M.A., LL.D.,

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PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

Relation of English to other Languages.

§ 1. EVERY language has a history of its own, and it may be made to tell us its own *life*, so to speak, if we set the right way to work about it.

There are *two* ways of getting at this history. The first mode is by *comparing* one language with others that are well known to us. The second is by studying the literature of a language in order of time, or chronologically, beginning with the very oldest written books, and coming down to the latest and newest.

The first or *comparative* method is one that you have no doubt tried yourselves upon a small scale, when you have noticed how closely our word *house* resembles the German *haus*, or English *thou hast* the German *du hast*. You may have asked yourselves, too, whether this *likeness* in words and in grammar proves that one of the languages is borrowed from the

other, as some have innocently supposed, or whether both have come from one parent, and are, so to speak, *brothers* or *sisters*.

But the English are quite as ancient a people as the Germans, and their language is as old if not older than German, so that it would be decidedly wrong to infer that the one language came from or was borrowed from the other. So we are obliged to admit that English and German are *akin*, or related to each other, by having descended from a common parent.

§ 2. Scholars have carried out this comparison with a large number of languages, and have shown us that English is related, not only to German, but more closely to *Dutch*, *Danish*, and more remotely to *Welsh*, *Latin*, *Greek*, *Russian*, *Persian*, *Hindî*, &c.

They have called these kindred tongues the **Indo-European** family of languages.

They have grouped together, too, those languages that most resemble one another.

The chief groups in Europe are—

- (1) **Keltic**, containing the Welsh, Irish, Gaelic, Manx, and Armorican languages.
- (2) **Romantic** or **Italic**, containing *Latin* and the dialects sprung from Latin, called the *Romance* languages (Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, &c.).
- (3) **Hellenic** or **Grecian**, containing Ancient and Modern Greek.
- (4) **Slavonic**, containing the Russian, Polish, and Bohemian languages.

- (5) Teutonic, containing (a) English, Dutch, Flemish.
(b) Icelandic, Swedish, Danish,
Norwegian.
(c) Modern German.

§ 3. They have proved—

- (1) That our language belongs to a group called Teutonic.
- (2) That English is most like *Dutch*, *Frisian*, and *Flemish*. These, including English, are called Low-German languages, because they were spoken originally along the low-lying shores of the German Ocean and Baltic Sea.
- (3) That our language closely resembles *Icelandic*, *Danish*, *Norwegian*, and *Swedish*, called Scandinavian languages.
- (4) That it is also, as we have seen, much like the modern German language which was at first spoken only in the highlands of Central and Southern Germany, and hence called High-German.

§ 4. History confirms the story told us by those who have studied languages in the way we have spoken of, for we know that the first Englishmen, the *Angles*, came from the land of the Low Germans on the continent, and settled in Britain during the fifth century. *England* means "the land of the Angles." We know, too, that there were other *Low-German* tribes that came along with them, and spoke

the same language. The *Saxons* were the most important of these, and have left their names in their old settlements of *Sussex*, *Wessex*, *Essex*, and *Middlesex*.

§ 5. The second mode of arriving at the history of a language by means of its literature is called the *historical* method. We have a very long and complete series of English works, written at different periods, and going as far back as the ninth century (to the time of Alfred). From these written documents of the language we learn—

- (1) How English has changed from time to time, and how many important events in the history of the English people are bound up with the changes that have taken place in the English language.
- (2) That we have *gradually* lost a large number of grammatical endings or *inflexions*, which we have replaced by using distinct words for them, instead of adopting new endings.

At one time we could translate Lat. “*bib-ere*” by “*drinc-an*,” but now by *to drink*.

- (3) That though we have lost very many of our old English words, and have replaced them by others of foreign origin, yet all the most common and useful words, as well as *all* our grammar, is thoroughly English, and is not borrowed.

(4) That we have greatly added to our stock of words from various sources, of which the following are the most important :—

1. Keltic words. We have a few words (*crag, glen, pool, mattock, &c.*) which the old English settlers took from the Keltic inhabitants of Britain, just as our countrymen in America still retain a *few* words borrowed from the native Indian tribes that once peopled that continent.

2. Scandinavian words. The *Danish Invasion* introduced some few *Scandinavian* words, as *busk, dairy, fellow, fro, gait, ill, same, till, are, &c.*

3. Latin words. The bulk of our borrowed words are, however, of Latin origin, and came into the language at different times :—

i. The old English invaders adopted the names which the Romans had left behind in Britain for a fortified station (*castra*), a paved road (*strata*), and a rampart (*vallum*), which we still retain in *Man-chester, Don-caster, &c.* ; *street* and *wall*.

ii. The Roman priests and monks, who brought Christianity to our forefathers in the sixth century, introduced some Latin words belonging to religion, worship, &c., as *bishop, priest, monk, mass, minister, &c.*, as well as the names of a few things they brought with them :—*butter, cheese, pease, pepper, &c.*

- iii. The *Norman Conquest* in 1066 was the means, through French, of introducing fresh Latin words much altered from their original form, as *caitiff*, *frail*, *feat* (*cp. captive, fragile, fact*).
- iv. Through the *Revival of Learning*,* the Latin language became familiar to educated men, and English writers introduced into the language very many Latin words with very little change of form. Hence we are able to distinguish between the French Latin and the later Latin words : thus *poor*, *poison*, come through Norman-French, while *pauper*, *potion*, come straight from the Latin, and are due to English writers.

4. Greek words. We have also borrowed many scientific and philosophical words from the Greek language, as *archæology*, *botany*, *physics*, *ethics*, *music*, &c.

5. Miscellaneous words. There are miscellaneous words from numerous other languages. Our word *tea* is Chinese ; *canoe* is American-Indian ; *yacht* is Dutch ; and *cypher* is Arabic, &c.

* This took place in the sixteenth century.

GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS.

§ 6. Language is made up of words.

Grammar tells us about the words that make up a language :—

- i. If we examine a word as we *hear* it, we find that it consists of one or more *sounds*. These sounds are represented to the eye by written signs called *letters*.
- ii. Words may be put into classes, or *classified* according to their distinctive uses. Words sometimes undergo change when combined with other words, or when they have something added to them to form new words.
- iii. Words are combined according to certain laws.

Hence *Grammar* deals with the following subjects :

- (1) Sounds and Letters : (Orthography.)
- (2) Classification, inflexion, and derivation : (Etymology.)
- (3) The relation of words in a sentence, and the relation of sentences to each other : (Syntax.)

ORTHOGRAPHY.

I. Sounds and Letters.

§ 7. All sounds are not produced exactly in the same way. Some sounds are produced by means of the tongue and cavity of the mouth, which modify the breath before it passes into the air, as *a* in *father*, *i* in *machine*, *oo* in *fool*, &c. These simple sounds are called vowels.

Vowels were so called because they made distinct *voices* or utterances and formed syllables by themselves. (Fr. *voyelle*, Lat. *vocalis*.) Two vowels sometimes unite to form a *Diphthong*, as *oi* in *boil*, *ai* in *aisle*, &c.

§ 8. Other sounds are produced by the direct means of the *lips*, *teeth*, &c., which are called the organs of speech. These sounds are called **consonants**, as *b*, *d*, &c.

Lip-sounds are called *Labials*; *teeth*-sounds *Dentals*; *throat*-sounds *Gutturals*; *hissing*-sounds *Sibilants*.

Consonants (Lat. *consonare*, to sound along with) were so called because they could not make a distinct syllable without being *sounded along with* a vowel.

Some consonant sounds seem to have a little breath attached to them and may be prolonged. Such sounds are called **spirants** (Lat. *spirare*, to breathe), as *f*, *th*, &c.

The other consonants, in sounding which the breath seems stopped, are called **mutes** or *dumb* sounds.

Of the mutes and spirants some seem to have a flat sound, and others a sharp sound, as:—

b (flat) p (sharp): z (flat) s (sharp)

I.—CONSONANT SOUNDS.

MUTES.				SPIRANTS.		
	Flat	Sharp.	Nasal.	Flat.	Sharp.	Trilled
Gutturals	G hard	K	NG	...	H	...
Palatals .	J	Ch (soft)	Y	...
Palatal . Sibilants	}	Zh (azure)	Sh (sure)	R
Dental . Sibilants	}	Z (prize)	S (mouse)	L
Dentals .	D	T	N	Dh (bathe)	Th (bath)	...
Labials .	B	P	M	V W(witch)	F Wh(which)	...

II.—Vowel Sounds.

a in gnat.
a in pair.
a in fame.
a in all.
a in want.
e in met.
e in meet.

i in knit.
o in not.
o in note.
oo in fool, rude.
oo in wood, put.
u in nut.

III.—Diphthongs.

i in high.
ai in aisle.
oi in boil.

ou in how, bound.
ew in mew.

The pupil must not confound the *sound* with the name of the letter; “*be*” is only the *name* of the sign *b*, not the sound it represents.

The Alphabet.

§ 9. An Alphabet is a collection of written signs called letters.

The word Alphabet is derived from *Alpha*, *Beta*, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet. An old name for our collection of letters was **ABC**.

There ought to be as many *letters* in a perfect alphabet as there are *sounds* in the language. We have forty-three sounds, which ought to be represented by forty-three letters. Our alphabet is very imperfect, for it consists of only twenty-six letters. Three of these (*c*, *q*, *x*) are not wanted, so that we have really only twenty-three useful letters.

(1) One letter has to stand for more than one sound, as *s* in *seas*; *ch* in *church*, *machine*, *chemistry*; *g* in *girl* and *gin*. (see a, p. 9.)

(2) The same sound is represented by different signs; as *o* in *note*, *boat*, *toe*, *crow*, &c.

(3) There are many silent letters, as in *psalm*, *gnat*, *know*, *calf*.

(4) *c*, *q*, *x*, are called redundant letters: **c** may be represented by *s* or *k*, **q** by *kw*, and **x** by *ks*.

 § 10. OCCASIONAL CHANGE OF SOUND IN ENGLISH.

Consonants are sometimes combined. If they are unlike, one of them *assimilates*, or becomes like the other. Thus, if the first is a *sharp* sound, the second, if *flat*, will become *sharp*; as *weep**ed*, *wept*.

A *flat* consonant must be followed by a flat consonant, and a *sharp* consonant by a *sharp* one; as,

- I.—(1) *slabs*, pronounced *slabz*.
 (2) *bathes* „ *bathz*.
 (3) *hugged* „ *hugd*.
 lagged „ *lagd*.

- II.—(1) *slap-s*.
 (2) *bath-s* (gives a bath).
 (3) *sleep**ed* pronounced *slept*.
 *lack**ed* „ *lackt*.

The original sound of *s* was sharp, as in *mouse*.

(See Plurals of Nouns, § 22, p. 21.)

CHAPTER II.

ETYMOLOGY.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ II. WORDS ARE ARRANGED IN DIFFERENT CLASSES, ACCORDING TO THEIR USE IN A SENTENCE.

1. Words used as *names* are called **Nouns**; as, *Fohn* saw a *snake* in the garden.

2. Words used *for Nouns* are called **Pronouns**; as, *I* told John the snake would not hurt *him* or *me*, if *he* left *it* alone, to go *its* own way.

3. Words used *with Nouns* to distinguish or describe the thing named are called **Adjectives**; as, *The* humble-bees are known by their *large* size and *hairy* bodies, often of a *black* colour with *orange* bands.

Adjectives serve to modify the meaning of the noun to which they relate. They may easily be found out by asking, "*Of what sort?*" "*How many?*" "*Which?*"

4. Words used for stating what anything *does* or *is done to*, are called **Verbs**; as, One day John *saw* a rat *come* out of a hole; he found it *was hurt* and *could* not *run* fast.

5. Words used with *Verbs* to mark the *when*, *where*, and *how* of what is done, are called **Adverbs**; as, The lark soars *aloft*, and *always* sings *sweetly*.

Adverbs may be used with **Adjectives** and other **Adverbs** to mark how, how much, how often, &c.; as, My father is *quite* well; he is *very seldom* ill; he does not like to take *too* much medicine.

6. Words used with *Nouns* (or *Pronouns*) to join them to *verbs*, *adjectives*, and other *nouns*, are called **Prepositions**; as, *On* Monday last, early *in* the morning, as John was walking *along* the side *of* the river, he saw a snake *of* a large size, which he killed *by* striking it *with* his whip.

Prepositions join words together to show their bearing to one another; as, side—river; side *of* the river.

The *noun* or *pronoun* with the *preposition* depends upon the word to which it is joined; as, in “a man *of* wisdom,” “*of* wisdom” depends on “*man*.”

The preposition with its noun is mostly of the same value as an *adjective* or an *adverb*. Thus: “a man *of* wisdom” = “a *wise* man” (adj.); “he came *on* shore” = “he came *ashore*” (adv.).

Some *prepositions* cannot well be separated from the words which they come before; as, *a-loft*, *in vain*, *at last*, *in deed*. We must parse these compounds as *adverbs*. (See 5 above.)

7. Words used to join *sentences* together are called **Conjunctions**; as, Birds fly *and* fish swim, *but* worms creep along the ground, *for* they have no power to do otherwise *or* else they would.

8. Words used to express a sudden feeling are called **Interjections**. They might be called **Exclamations**; as, *Oh!* *Alas!*

There are, as we have seen, eight Parts of Speech :—

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. Noun. | 5. Adverb. |
| 2. Pronoun. | 6. Preposition. |
| 3. Adjective. | 7. Conjunction. |
| 4. Verb. | 8. Interjection. |

On Parsing.

§ 12. When we tell to what class or *part* of speech a word belongs, we are said to *parse* it.

We must bear in mind that we cannot do this off-hand, by merely looking at a word. We must ask ourselves *what duty it is doing in the sentence* to which it belongs, before we can parse it accurately.

The same word may be a *noun* in one part of a sentence, an *adjective* in another, a *verb* in a third, and so on ; as, John exchanged his *silver* watch for a lump of *silver*, with which he meant to *silver* some metal coins. The first “silver” is an *adjective*, the second a *noun*, and the third a *verb*.

Cp. “I cannot *second* you in trying to get the *second* place on the list without thinking a *second* or two about it.”

“I learnt all my lessons *but* one, *but* that was very hard ; had I had *but* more time I could have learnt it very well.”

The first *but* = *except*, is a *preposition* ; the second joins two sentences, and is therefore a *conjunction* : the third = *only*, is an *adverb*.

The word *that* may be an *adjective*, a *pronoun*, or a *conjunction*. “John said *that that* word *that* he had just parsed was a pronoun.”

As may be an *adverb*, a *conjunction*, or a *pronoun*. "I am *as* wise *as* my elder brother, who has had the same teaching *as* I have had."

It must be recollected that some *pronouns* can be used as adjectives ; as, "*That's* the boy that took *that* splendid book of yours off your table."

Many words that are often used as *adverbs* may be used as *conjunctions*. "*Now* all is ready, come *now*, and don't delay a moment." "John was *so* naughty yesterday, he would climb about, *so* he fell down."

On Changes that Words undergo.

§ 13. Some words alter their form to express a change of meaning ; thus, *child* becomes (1) *children*, to show that more than one is meant ; (2) *child's*, to show that something is possessed by a child.

"We *sleep*," becomes "we *slept*," to show that the action of *sleeping* is not now going on, but took place in some time gone by or past.

All the Parts of Speech do not undergo a change of form, only the Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, and some few Adverbs.

These changes, called *inflexions*, are mostly brought about by putting some additional letter or syllable to the end of a word. These additions are often spoken of as endings or suffixes.

1. The addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word often causes a change in the word itself ; as, *sleep-ed* becomes (1) *sleep-d*, (2) *slēp-t* ; cp. *gold* and *gild-en*, *nātion* and *nātional*, *goose* and *gōsling*.

2. The ending has sometimes disappeared altogether, and the internal change does duty for an inflexion. Thus, the word *men* (for *mannis*) has really lost the ending that brought about the change ; cp. *lead*, *led* (once *ledde*) ; *feed*, *fed* (once *fedde*).

3. The loss of a letter in the middle of a word causes change ; cp. *ēer* for *ēver*. It is this change that explains *made* from *maked* ; *stile* from *stigel*, &c.

§ 14. English has lost very many endings, but it is not any the worse off on that account. It supplies their place by what we may call *relational* words (or words that carry us to some other word in the same sentence). Thus : instead of saying “a *bat's* wing,” we can say “a wing *of a bat*.” Here *of* does duty for the ending *'s*.

We say “a *lion-ess*” to show that we are naming the *female*. We might say “a *she-lion*,” just as we do always speak of “a *she-bear*.” The word *she* does exactly the same duty, and marks the same notion, as the ending *-ess*.

In fact, these endings, which now mean little by themselves, but modify greatly the words to which they are added, were once independent words ; as, *ly* in *god-ly* is only a corruption of the word *like* in *god-like*.

CHAPTER III.

NOUNS.

I.—DEFINITION.

§ 15. A Noun is a word used as a name.

The word *Noun* comes from Fr. *nom*, Lat. *nomen*, a name, that by which anything is known.

II.—CLASSIFICATION.

§ 16. There are two kinds of nouns :—

1. Proper.
2. Common.

A Proper Noun is the name of only one person or thing in the same sense ; as, *Henry, London, Jupiter.*

Proper means “belonging to oneself,” not possessed by another, peculiar to one thing.

A Common Noun is the name of each individual in the same class or sort of things ; as, *man, girl, city, tree.*

Common Nouns include what are called Collective Nouns and Abstract Nouns.

- (1) When a noun stands for a number (or *collection*) of persons or things considered as *one* it is called a Collective Noun ; as, “a jury.”

- (2) When a noun is the name of a *quality, property, or action*, it is called an **Abstract Noun**; as, *whiteness, honesty, love, reading*. The word *abstract* means drawn off. **Abstract** nouns are so called because they are the names of qualities or states considered apart from the objects to which they belong. We see and speak of a *white flower*, but we may *think and speak* of the *whiteness* alone.

The form of the verb with *to* before it is used as an *abstract* noun; as. *to play* cricket is pleasanter than *to learn* grammar.

III.—INFLEXIONS.

§ 17. Nouns and Pronouns have inflexions to mark Gender, Number, and Case.

Gender of Nouns.

§ 18. Gender is that form of the noun which shows whether we are speaking of living beings (males or females), or lifeless things. The names of males are called **Masculine** nouns. The names of females are called **Feminine** nouns.

The word *gender* (Fr. *genre*, Lat. *genus*) means *kind* or *class*. It belongs only to words: thus the person *man* is of the male sex, but the word *man* is *masculine* or of the *masculine* gender.

The names of things without life are called **Neuter** nouns, because they are of *neither* gender.

A noun that is *either* masculine or feminine is said to be of the **Common** gender; as *parent* (father or mother), *child* (boy or girl).

When the masculine and feminine have each a

distinct ending, then we have what is strictly termed grammatical *gender*, as—

Masc.		Fem.
murder-er	and	murder-ess.
sorcer-er	,,	sorcer-ess.

But such words are *now* very few, and the masculine noun occurs most often without any ending to mark gender, as—

Masc.		Fem.
giant	and	giant-ess.
peer	,,	peer-ess.

We then have chiefly to consider the endings of feminine nouns.

The feminine is formed from the masculine by the suffix -ess.

Masc.		Fem.
heir		heir-ess.
founder		foundr-ess.
actor		actr-ess.
cater-er		cater-ess.

This suffix comes to us from the Norman-French -esse (Lat. *-issa*). It is not found in the language before the twelfth century. It is now the only common mode of forming the feminine. Its use is now restricted ; it cannot be put to *every* masculine noun.

In some few borrowed words we have feminine endings of foreign origin, as—

Masc.		Fem.
executor	and	execu-trix.
hero	,,	hero-ine.
sultan	,,	sultan-a.

§ 19. REMAINS OF OLDER MODES OF MARKING THE
FEMININE.

1. By the suffix *-ster*.

Spin-ster, the name of an unmarried woman, once signified a female spinner.

In O. E. many masculines in *-er* had a corresponding feminine in *-ster*: as,

	Masc.	Fem.
O. E.	<i>bæc-ere</i> =baker,	<i>bæc-estre</i> =baxter.
	<i>sang-ere</i> =sing-er,	<i>sang-estre</i> =song-stress.

In the 14th century the N. Fr. *-ess* took the place of the older *-ster* as a feminine ending. After a time, *-ster* merely marked the agent, as in *songster* and *sempster*; then, to mark the feminine, *-ess* was tacked on to *-ster*, as in *song-str-ess*, and *semp-str-ess*.

2. By the suffix *-en*.

Vix-en, the old feminine of *fox* (once pronounced *vox* in some parts of England).

IRREGULAR FORMS.

Bridegroom (= the bride's man) is formed from the feminine *bride*. The word *groom* once meant *man*.

Gander is formed from an old root, *gans*, a goose.

Drake (= duck-king) is formed from the old roots, *end*, a duck, and *rake*, a king.

Lady is the feminine of *lord*.

Lass (= lad-ess) is the feminine of *lad*.

Woman is a compound of *wife* and *man*.

§ 20. As a substitute for suffixes of gender we can make a compound term by putting a masculine or feminine word to a noun of the common gender ; as,

<i>he-goat,</i>	<i>she-goat.</i>
<i>man-servant,</i>	<i>maid-servant.</i>

We have many distinct words for the masculine and the feminine, the use of which does not belong to grammar.

Number.

§ 21. **Number** is that form of the noun *or* pronoun which marks whether we are speaking of one thing or more than one.

When a noun *or* pronoun signifies one thing, it is said to be of the **Singular number**.

When a noun *or* pronoun denotes more than one of the same kind, it is said to be of the **Plural number**.

§ 22. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL OF NOUNS.

General Rule.—The plural is formed by adding **-s** to the singular ; as, book-*s*, bag-*s*, boy-*s*.

The letter *s* stands for two distinct sounds : (1) for the sharp sound in book-*s*, and (2) for the flat sound *z* in bag-*s*, boy-*s*. (See § 10, p. 11.)

Our plural **s** is a shortened form of O.E. **as**. Thus the plural of *smith* was first *smith-as*, then *smith-es*, and finally *smiths*.

Modifications of the General Rule.

1. Singular Nouns ending in *s*, *z*, *x*, *sh*, soft *ch*, *j* (all containing an *s* sound), form the plural by the syllable *es* (pronounced *ez*); as *gas-es*, *box-es*, *brush-es*, *church-es*, *judg-es*.

2. Nouns of English origin ending in *f*, *fe*, having *l* or any long vowel (except *oo*) before *f*, *fe*, change *f* into *v* when adding the sign of the plural.

Singular.	Plural.
loaf,	loaves.
wife,	wives.
wolf,	wolves.

The words *life*, *wife*, were once written without the final *e*, and the plural *es* made a distinct syllable.

3. Words ending in *y* (not preceded by a vowel) form the plural by changing *y* into *i* and adding *es*; as,

Singular.	Plural.
lady,	ladies.
fly,	flies.

§ 23. REMAINS OF OLDER MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL.

1. By change of vowel.

Singular.	Plural.
man	men.
foot	feet.
tooth	teeth.
mouse	mice.

2. By the ending *-en*.

(a) *ox-en*, *hos-en*, *shoo-n* (shoes).

(b) *ki-ne*, *childr-en*, *brethr-en*.

Ki-ne has two marks of the plural, change of vowel and the suffix *-en*.

Childr-*e-n* and brethr-*e-n* are also double plurals.

3. Some nouns have one form for the singular and plural; as, *sheep, deer, swine*.

§ 24. (1) Some words have two plural forms, one of which is older than the other. They have different meanings.

Older form.		Modern form.
brethren	and	brothers.
pennies	,,	pence.
clothes	,,	cloths.

(2) Some words are used only in the *singular*.

(a) Proper names, (b) abstract nouns, (c) collective nouns, (d) names of metals, materials, &c.: *Milton, temperance, cavalry, gold, leather, &c.*

(3) Others are used only in the *plural*.

(a) Parts of the body, (b) articles of dress, (c) tools, (d) masses of things, *lights, bowels, drawers, tongs, shears, ashes, &c.*

§ 25. Foreign words, if naturalised, form their plural regularly by adding *s* to the singular: *indexes, focuses, funguses, &c.*

All nouns treated as foreign words retain their foreign plurals, as

Singular.	Plural.
formula	formulæ.
datum	data.
phenomenon	phenomena.

Case.

§ 26. Case is that form of the noun (*or* pronoun) which shows its bearing *or* relation to some other word in the sentence. (See § 14, p. 16.)

The Teacher must first explain the Subject, Predicate, and Object of a Sentence, before attempting to discuss cases. (See § 118, p. 101.)

§ 27. When a noun (*or* pronoun) is the subject of a sentence it is said to be in the **Nominative** case, as *John* sings, *I* like to listen.

It is called the *Nominative* because it *names* the person or thing that does or suffers the action stated by the verb.

To find the Nominative, ask a question by putting *who* or *what* before the verb, and the answer will be the Nominative. Thus, in the example above, if we ask "Who sings?" "Who likes?" The answers will be *John* and *I*, which are the Nominatives.

§ 28. When a noun stands for the person spoken to or addressed, it is said to be in the **Vocative** case. It has the same form as the Nominative, and is sometimes called the *Nominative of Address*; as, *Father* come and look here! O *Sir*, do not be angry.

§ 29. When a noun stands for the object of an action it is said to be in the **Objective** case; as, John killed a *rat*.

The *Objective* case of nouns is now like the *Nominative*, but it was not always so, and is not now so of *pronouns*. The *Objective* in English includes—

- (1) The direct object after a transitive verb ; as, "He struck *James*." "He hurt his *foot*." To find the *direct* object, ask a question with *whom* or *what* before the verb, and the answer will give it, e.g. "Whom did he strike?" "What did he hurt?" *James*, *foot*, which are the direct objects.

In Latin we should call the direct object the *Accusative* case.

- (2) The indirect object, which is equivalent to a noun with the preposition *to* or *for* before it ; as, "Give *John* his book." "He bears *William* a grudge." "Build *me* a house." *William* = to William, *John* = to John, *me* = for me.

The indirect object answers to the *Dative* in Latin and other languages. In O.E. there was a suffix to distinguish this case (in the singular and plural) from the direct object (*or* accusative).

The form of the verb with *to* before it, when it denotes purpose, is an indirect object. "What went ye out *to see*?" *to see* = *for seeing*.

- (3) A noun after a preposition ; as, "He put his foot on the *ground*." "He came from *London*," &c.

It must be recollected, that in English the *preposition* along with a following noun is equal to a *case form* in Latin.

§ 30. When a noun by its form denotes the possessor, it is said to be in the *Possessive* case ; as, "the *boy's* book," "the *cat's* tail," "the *sun's* rays."

- (a) The *Possessive* case is the only form of the noun that expresses a relation by means of an *ending* or *suffix*. The difference between the *Nominative* and *Objective* must be thought out, the sense and position being our guides in determining which is used.

- (b) We use the *Possessive* case simply to mark possession. It is chiefly used with reference to *living* things. The preposition *of* is used instead of the inflexion in other instances ; as, "The roof of the house ;" not, as we could once say, "The *house's* roof."

In old English this case corresponded to the *Genitive* in German, Latin, &c. Nouns of time still keep it ; as, "a *week's* supply" ; "a *day's* journey."

§ 31. FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

The *Possessive* case is formed by adding 's to the *Nominative*.

Singular	man-'s
Plural	men-'s

Exception.—Nouns forming their plural by s take the apostrophe only.

Singular	boy-'s	sweep-'s
Plural	boys'	sweeps'

In the spoken language the possessive singular does not differ from the possessive plural, *boy's* and *boys'* being pronounced alike.

- (a) The apostrophe is really a mere written device for distinguishing the possessive case from the plural number of the noun. It came into use about the 17th century. *Apostrophe* means "turned away," and is so called because it shows that something has been omitted, cp. *e'en* = *even*. The real omission is the letter *e* ; *lord's* and *lords'* were once written and pronounced *lord-ēs*.

(b) At one time it was supposed that 's meant *his*, and we actually find some writers using such expressions as "the king *his* crown."

The apostrophe is sometimes used to mark the loss of the possessive sign in the singular, as "*Moses*' law," "for *justice*' sake." The sign ' is no real case form.

§ 32. DECLENSION OF A NOUN.

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative and Vocative	man	men	child	children
Possessive	man's	men's	child's	children's
Objective	man	men	child	children

	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural
Nominative and Vocative	boy	boys	fox	foxes	thief	thieves
Possessive	boy's	boys'	fox's	foxes'	thief's	thieves'
Objective	boy	boys	fox	foxes	thief	thieves

CHAPTER IV.

ADJECTIVES.

I.—DEFINITION.

§ 33. The Adjective is a word used with a noun to distinguish or describe the thing named or spoken of.

Adjective (Lat. *adjectivum*) means “added to.”

II.—CLASSIFICATION.

§ 34. Some Adjectives express *quality*; as, *large, tall, rich*; others denote *quantity* or *number*; as, *much, little, few, one, both*; a third kind point out and limit the thing spoken of; as, “*a* book,” “*the* man.” Hence there are three kinds of Adjectives:—

1. Adjectives of Quantity.
2. „ „ Quality.
3. Demonstrative Adjectives.

Many of the pronouns are used as adjectives; as, *this, that, each, every, &c.*

§ 35. The Adjectives *an, a, and the* are sometimes called Articles.

An or *a* is called the *Indefinite Article*, and *the* the *Definite Article*.

An or *a* is used before a noun to show that *any one* thing is spoken of; as “*an* apple” = any apple.

An drops *n* and becomes *a* before a consonant ; as, “*a* book,” “*a* history,” “*a* yew-tree.”

An is another form of the word *one*. Cp., “all of *a* size = all of *one* size.”

No, meaning *not one*, is used for “*not a* ;” as, “he is *no* dunce.”

The is used before a noun to show that some particular person or thing is spoken of ; as, “*the* man,” “*the* boy.”

Parse the *a* as an adverb in “so much *the* more,” “*the* more *the* merrier :” here *the* = *by that*.

III.—INFLEXIONS.

§ 36. The Adjective once had inflexions to mark *gender*, *number*, and *case*. It now only changes its form to mark comparison.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 37. The Adjective has three forms to express *Degrees of Comparison*, the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

The Positive is the adjective in its simple form ; as, “*a small* boat,” “*a tall* man.”

The Comparative is formed by adding *-er* to the Positive ; as, “*a small-er* boat,” “*a tall-er* man.”

It is used when *two* things or two sets of things are compared, to show that one of them possesses the quality in a greater or less degree than the other.

The Superlative is formed by adding *-est* to the Positive; as, "the small-*est* boat," "the tall-*est* man."

It is used when one thing is compared with all others of the same kind; as, "John is the tall-*est* boy in his class."

- (a) When the Positive ends in a silent *e*, *-r* and *-st* only are added; as, large, large-*r*, large-*st*.
- (b) When the Positive ends in *y* (not preceded by a vowel), *y* is changed into *i* before the endings; as, happy, happi-*er*, happi-*est*.

Words of more than two syllables, and most words of two syllables, are compared by the adverbs *more* and *most*; as, "*more* valiant," "*most* valiant."

The words that are compared by the inflexions (*er* and *est*) are mostly pure English words.

§ 38. IRREGULAR COMPARISONS.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
1. late,	latter, later,	last, latest.
nigh,	nigher (near),	nighest, next.
near,	nearer,	nearest.
old,	elder, older,	eldest, oldest.
2. good,	better,	best.
bad, } ill, } evil, }	worse,	worst.
little,	less,	least.
much, } many, }	more,	most.

- (1) Late has two comparatives and superlatives; of these,

latter and *last* (the ones most changed) are the oldest, cp., *near*, *next*; *elder*, *eldest*.

Last is a contraction of an old form *lat-st* = *lat-est*.

Next is a contraction of *nighest* (cp., O. E. *nêh-st*, in which the *h* was a sharp guttural, sounded as *ch* in *loch*).

Near was once *comparative*.

Elder, *eldest* have *vowel change*, as well as *inflexion*.

(2) The comparatives and superlatives in group (2) are all formed from *positives* no longer in use.

Better comes from a root, *bat* = good (cp., our "to *boot*"), with change of vowel, as in *elder*.

Best = *bet-st* = *bet-est*, cp. *last*.

Wor-se comes from a root, *weor* = bad. The suffix *-se* is another form of the comparative ending *-er*. *Wor-st* is shortened from *worrest*.

Less is formed from a root, *las*, meaning weak, infirm. The suffix *-s* (= *-se*) is another form of the comparative *-r*.

Much once meant *large*, *great*.

The *mo* in *mo-re* and *mo-st* also meant *great*.

3. *Farther* and *farthest* are slightly irregular, a *th* having crept in through a confusion with *further* (the comparative of the adverb *forth*.)

Rather is now an adverb; it was once an adjective. Its positive was *rathe*, meaning *early*.

Former is a corruption of an old *formë*, meaning *first* (superlative of *fore*). The *m* is an old superlative ending, still found in *for-m-ost*.

Most superlatives ending in *-most* contain two superlative suffixes, *-m* and *-ost* (= *-est*).

First is a superlative of *fore* = front; cp., *fore leg*, *forehead*.

O-ther contains the numeral *one* (from which the *n* has gone), and a comparative ending *-ther*.

Other once meant *second*; cp., every *other* day.

CHAPTER V.

PRONOUNS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 39. The Pronoun is a word used for a noun.

A Pronoun can stand for an "equivalent to a noun," whether it be a phrase or sentence: "*It* mattered not to him whether it were night or day." "*It*" here stands for "*whether it were night or day.*"

As the Pronoun stands for the noun, it always refers to something which has been named.

Many Pronouns are used as adjectives: (1) the Possessive cases; (2) some Demonstratives; (3) some Relative and Interrogative Pronouns; (4) some Indefinite Pronouns.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

§ 40. There are five kinds of Pronouns:—

1. Personal Pronouns.
2. Demonstrative Pronouns.
3. Interrogative Pronouns.
4. Relative Pronouns.
5. Indefinite Pronouns.

1. Personal Pronouns.

§ 41. The Personal Pronouns are so called because they name the *person* speaking, spoken to, or spoken of. There are then three Persons:—

1. The First, which denotes the person *speaking*; as *I, we, &c.*

2. The Second, which denotes the person *spoken to*; as, *thou, ye, you, &c.*

3. The Third, which relates to the person or thing *spoken of*; as, *he, she, it, that, one.*

Strictly speaking, the pronouns of the third person are not personal pronouns; thus *he* is demonstrative and has *gender*. For convenience sake we may call it the pronoun of the third person, *not* a personal pronoun; *one* is an indefinite pronoun.

Declension of Personal Pronouns.

§ 42. Pronouns have more inflexions than nouns for number and case.

THE FIRST PERSON.

Singular.		Plural.
Nominative	I	we
Possessive	mine, my	our, ours
Objective (direct)	me	us
Objective (indirect)	me	us

THE SECOND PERSON.

Nom. and } Vocative }	thou	ye, you.
Possessive	thine, thy	your, yours.
Objective (direct)	thee	you.
Objective (indirect)	thee	you.

For the explanation of indirect object see § 29, p. 25.

- (1.) I was once written *ic* and *ich*.
- (2.) Mine and thine (O. E. *mīn* and *thīn*) were once the only possessives of the first and second person in use. The loss of the letter *n* brought *my* and *thy* into use. The older forms are now only used when no noun follows. In poetry they are sometimes used before words beginning with a vowel or silent *h*. Cp. the double forms *an* and *a*.
- (3.) The second person singular has gone out of common use.
- (4.) You, once only *objective*, has taken the place of the old nominative *ye*.

THE THIRD PERSON.

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.	
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Possessive	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Objective (direct)	him	her	it	them
Objective (indirect)	him	her	it	them

I. The Pronouns contain endings marking :—

- (1) Case : *s* in *hi-s*; *n* in *mi-ne*, *thi-ne* (all genitive); *m* in *hi-m*; *r* in *he-r* (both dative); *r* in *thei-r* (gen. pl.); *m* in *the-m* (dat. pl.). *Our-s*, *you-r-s*, &c., are double genitives.

(2) Gender: *t* in *i-t* (O.E. *hi-t*), once marked the neuter, as in *wha-t* and *tha-t*. She was once the feminine of the definite article. The Old English for *she* was *he-o*, from which *he-r* is formed.

Its is quite a modern form. The O.E. was *hi-s*, which we find in the authorised version of the Scriptures. (A.D. 1611.)

They (with its cases) was once the plural of *the*, and meant *the* and *those*.

§ 43. The Possessive cases of the Pronouns of the three persons are now used as adjectives :

Singular: my, mine; thy, thine; his, hers, its.

Plural: our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs.

(1) Notice the use of *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, without a following noun; as, It is *mine*, not *yours*.

(2) Notice that *my* = Latin *meus*, not *mei* which must be expressed by *of me*.

§ 44. Self is added to the pronouns of the three persons (1) to form Reflexive Pronouns; (2) to express *emphasis*.

Singular: myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself.

Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

(1) The Reflexives are used when a person does something to himself; as, "I laid *myself* down," "he hurt *himself*." In some old expressions the objective case of the simple pronoun is used; as, "I laid *me* down and slept," "he sat *him* down."

(2) The compounds of *self* are emphatic in "I saw it *myself*;" "he *himself* has done it, &c."

Formerly the *dative* was always joined to *self*; as *himself*, not the possessive, as in *myself*, which used to be *meself*.

(3) *Self* is sometimes a noun; as, "your *innocent self*;" "he thinks much of *self*."

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 45. The Demonstratives are used in speaking definitely of the thing named: as, "*this* is the book I want, but I should like *that* which is on *yonder* table, if it is not the *same*. I have never seen *such* books as *these*."

§ 46. The Demonstrative Pronouns are *this*, *that*, (with their plurals, *these* and *those*), *same*, *such*, *yon*, *self-same*.

That was originally the neuter of *the*.

Such means "so-like:" *l* has been lost.

Yon has now become a mere adjective. The Scotch use *yon* as a pronoun; as, "*yon's* a grand house."

Self-same: *self* once meant *same*.

When *such* (= *so*), comes before an adjective, followed by the conjunction *that*, it is used as an adverb. He has *such great* confidence *that* he will be sure to succeed. = He has confidence *so* great that he will, &c. The use of *such* in this way is a late usage.

3. Interrogative Pronouns.

§ 47. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions:—*Who*? *which*? *what*?

Who is thus declined :—

Nom.	who	} Masc. and Fem. Sing. and Plural.
Poss.	whose	
Obj. (direct)	whom	
„ (indirect)	whom	

Who relates to *persons*; which to *things*; what always refers to things, unless it is used as an adjective: *What* book do you want? *What* boy has got my book?

For the *s* in *whose* and the *m* in *whom*, see p. 34.

Which is made up of *who* and *like*, meaning *who-like*, or *what-like*. It once related to persons; as, “Our Father, *which* art in Heaven.” It is also used for the old word *whether*, which of two.

Wha-t was originally the neuter of *who*. See p. 35.

Who-se is the possessive of *what* as well as of *who*; cp., *his* once the possessive of *he* and *it*.

§ 48. Compound Relatives are formed by adding *-ever*; as, *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*.

4. Relative Pronouns.

§ 49. The Relative Pronoun is so called because it relates or carries us back to some noun or pronoun going before (and already stated), called the *antecedent*. This is the *house* that I have built. Happy is the *man* that findeth wisdom, and the *man* who getteth understanding.

The Relative Pronouns are *who*, *what*, *which*, *that*, *as*.

Who refers to *persons*; which to *animals* and *lifeless things*; that to *person* and *things*.

What is used when the antecedent is omitted. It means *that which* (or *the thing which*). "What I have you are welcome to."

Do not call *what* a compound pronoun.

Who could be used for *he who*. "Who steals my purse steals trash."

§ 50. As is used as a relative after *same* and *such*; as, "This is the *same* as that;" "These apples are very good, you may eat *such* as are ripe."

That was sometimes equivalent to *that which*; as "We speak *that* we do know."

That never follows the preposition that governs it; as, "I know the person *that* you speak of."

§ 51. Compound Relatives are formed by adding *-ever* and *-soever* to *who*, *what*, and *which*; as, *whosoever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*.

Some adverbs (originally cases of pronouns) can be combined with a preposition to do duty for *relatives*, though they are not usually called such:

where-of	=	of which, of what.
where-to	=	to which, to what.
where-by	=	by which, by what.
there-of	=	of that.
&c.,		&c.

§ 52. The Relatives, with the exception of *that* and *as*, were once Interrogatives only.

They are strictly so in all *indirect* questions: as, "Tell me *who* has hurt you." "Ask him *what* is going on."

§ 53. The Relative *who* is declined like the Interrogative *who*, see p. 37.

5. Indefinite Pronouns.

§ 54. The Indefinite Pronouns do not point out and particularize like the Demonstratives. To this class belong *one*, *none*, *any*, *some*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *other*, *another* (all of which may be used as adjectives); *aught*, *naught*, *somebody*, *something*, *nothing*, *anything*.

One is the same word as the numeral *one*. The Fr. *on* is the Latin *homo*.

None is made up of *no* = *not*, and *one*.

Any contains the original form of *one*, seen in the article *an*.

Some once meant *one*, *a*.

Ea-ch originally meant *any one like* (of two or more things.) The *-ch* stands for *-lich* = *like*; cp., *which*, *such*.

Ever-y is a corruption of *ever each*, that is, "each and all" (of two or more things).

Ei-ther means *any one of two*. It can be used as a *conjunction*. *Neither* is the negative of *either*.

For the meaning of *-ther* see § 38, p. 31.

O-ther, one of two, see § 38, p. 31.

Aught means *any whit* or *any wight*. (*Wight* = person, thing; cp. "an unlucky *wight*.")

Naught, *nought* is the negative of *aught* = *no whit*.

The adverb *not* is a worn-down form of *nought* or *naught*.

Else in *what else* and *something else* is an indefinite pronoun, being the genitive of an old root *el*, meaning *other*.

When *else* means *otherwise* it is a conjunction.

Something (= *somewhat*); *anything* (= at all); *nothing* (= not at all), are used as adverbs.

Certain and *several* are sometimes used as pronouns.

CHAPTER VI.

VERBS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 55. The Verb is a word that states or asserts what a thing *does* or *is done to*; as, "the fire *burns*," "the child *sleeps*," "John *is beaten*."

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 56. Verbs are classified, according to their *meaning*, into Transitive and Intransitive.

Transitive Verbs state an action that is not confined to the doer; as, "he *locks* the gate."

Intransitive Verbs express an action that does not go beyond the doer; as, "the child *sleeps*," "he *behaves* well."

Transitive means *passing over* (Lat. *trans-it-us*), because in a sentence containing a transitive verb the sense is not complete unless the object to which the action passes over is stated; as, "the boy *tore* his coat."

When a verb that is usually transitive takes no *object*, it is used intransitively; as, "the fire *burns* brightly."

Some intransitive verbs may be made transitive by means of

a *preposition*; as, "he *laughs*," "he *laughs-at* me;" "the river *flows*," "the river *flows over* the land," = "the river *overflows* the land."

All verbs containing the idea of *to cause*, or *to make* an action take place, are called *Causative* verbs, and require an object: "he *fells* the tree" = "he *caused* the tree *to fall*;" "he *flies* his kite" = "he *causes* his kite *to fly*."

Some transitive verbs are used reflexively; as, "he *turned* aside" = "he *turned himself* aside."

Transitive verbs used in a passive sense become *Intransitive*; as "the vessel *broke* in two" = "the vessel *was broken* in two,"

§ 57. Verbs used in the third person only are called *Impersonal Verbs*; as, *me-thinks* = it appears to me; *it seems* good; *it rains*, &c.

III. INFLEXION.

§ 58. Verbs have *Voice*, *Mood*, *Tense*, *Number*, and *Person*.

1. *Voice*.

§ 59. Transitive Verbs have two *voices*; the *Active Voice* and the *Passive Voice*.

A verb is in the *Active Voice* when the subject of the verb stands for the doer or agent of the action; as,

(1) "The boy *struck* the table."

A verb is in the *Passive Voice* when the subject of the verb stands for the real object of the action; as,

(2) "The table *was struck* by the boy."

The sentences quoted above show that the voice is determined by the subject. If it is *active*, as in (1), the verb is active; if it is *passive*, *i.e.*, suffers the action, as in (2), the verb is passive.

In some languages this is shown by the form of the verb; as, Lat. *amatur*, he is loved.

In English the forms of the verb in *-en* and *-ed* are a remnant of the passive voice, and are always used along with the verb *be* to form the passive voice; as, "the cup which *was broken* has *been mended*."

We have other roundabout ways of expressing the Passive; as, "the house *is being built*," or by the old phrase, "the house *is a-building*;" *a-building* = *on building*.

2. Mood.

§ 60. Mood is that form or modification of the verb which marks the *mode* in which an action is viewed or stated.

§ 61. There are three principal *moods*: (1) Indicative, (2) Subjunctive, (3) Imperative.

When a verb is in any of these moods it requires a subject, and is said to be a *finite* verb, *i.e.* limited by the conditions of *time*, *person*, &c.

These are the only moods in English that have distinct forms or are inflexional.

§ 62. The Indicative Mood is that form of the verb that *indicates* or makes a direct assertion, or asks some direct question; as, He *talks*. Who *talks*?

§ 63. The Subjunctive Mood expresses *possibility*, *doubt*, *dependency*; as, "If he but *blench* I know

my course." "For murder, though it *have* no tongue, will speak."

This mood is called *Subjunctive*, because of its use in a *subjoined* or *dependent* sentence, as, "Love not sleep, lest it *bring* thee to poverty." "If thou *keep* promise, I shall end this strife."

Here we see that *bring* and *keep* in the dependent sentences are distinguished from the Indicative *brings* and *keepes* by their *want* of inflexion. But the subjunctive once had its own endings, as in Latin. The subjunctive form of the verb is now seldom employed. Its place is sometimes supplied by the use of the verb *should* or *would*.

The conjunctions which were formerly followed by the subjunctive enable us to express doubt, condition, &c., without employing the old inflexional form of the verb. These Conjunctions are *if, whether, provided, though, that, so that, lest, until, till, ere, unless, except*, which, however, are no parts of the subjunctive mood.

The verb *to be* has very distinct forms for the subjunctive. See p. 65.

§ 64. The Imperative Mood is that form of the verb that expresses a command or entreaty. "Call him back." "Pardon my fault."

The Imperative contains the simplest form or root of the verb.

The *plural* imperative once had the suffix *th* to distinguish it from the singular; as, *loveth* = love ye.

The Imperative is only used in the second person.

In such expressions as "let me sing," "let him sing," parse *let* as an independent verb, in the imperative mood. Do not parse *let sing* as one verb.

§ 65. Other forms, *not finite* (see p. 43), are sometimes called Moods. These are—

1. The form of the verb with *to* before it, called the **Infinitive** ; as, *to sing*.

The **Infinitive** once had no *to* before it, but was expressed by the suffix *-an* ; as, *drinc-an*, to drink. The Infinitive without *to* comes after the verbs, *may, can, shall, will, dare, must, &c.* ; as, "he may *be*," "he will *be*," &c.

The **Simple Infinitive** is a noun in the nominative or objective (direct) case : " *to see is to believe*," "he wants *to see*."

There is another kind of Infinitive called the *dative infinitive*, because it was originally the *dative* of the simple infinitive.

It is now an indirect object. A house *to let* = a house *for letting* ; easy *to find* = easy *for finding* ; the cup I have *to drink* (= *for drinking*). It often marks purpose ; as, he came *to see me* = he came for the purpose of seeing me.

2. The forms of the verb in **-ed, -en, -ing**, are called **Participles**, and they are also used as *adjectives*.

" Then rode Geraint into the castle court,
His charger *trampling* many a prickly star
Of *sprouted* thistle on the *broken* stones.
He look'd, and saw that all was ruinous.
Here stood a *shatter'd* archway *plumed* with fern,
And here had *fall'n* a great part of a tower."

These forms in *-ed, -en, -ing*, were called participles because they participate of the nature of *adjectives* (in qualifying a noun) and of verbs (in governing an objective case). The participle in *-ing* once ended in *-end, -and, or -inde*.

Be careful to distinguish a noun in *-ing* from a participle in *-ing* : this is a fine *building* (noun) ; he is *building* a house (participle).

The form in *-ing* (O. E. *-ung*) is a noun in the following passages : The house is *building* = the house is *a-building* ;

he is fond of *building* (= of the building of) houses; he talked of your *coming* here to-day; he took to *hunting*. See Syntax, p. 92.

The form in *-ing* is called the *Present* participle; the forms in *-ed* and *-en* are called *Passive* participles.

3. Tense.

§ 66. The form or modification of the verb used to indicate *time* is called *Tense* (Fr. *temps*, Lat. *tempus*).

Time may be considered as

1. Present.
2. Past.
3. Future.

There are three Tenses.

- | | |
|------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Present | I <i> speak</i> . |
| 2. Past | I <i> spoke</i> . |
| 3. Future | I <i> shall speak</i> . |
| | He <i> will speak</i> . |

The *state* of the action may be considered as

- (1) Indefinite; as, I *write*.
- (2) Progressive; as, I *am writing*.
- (3) Completed or perfect; as, I *have written*.

The words *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, which *help* to form *tenses*, are called *auxiliary* verbs.

Each tense then has three forms, according to the following scheme.

TABLE OF TENSES.

Tense.	Indefinite.	Imperfect and Progressive.	Perfect.	Perfect and Progressive.
Present .	(1) I praise (2) I am praised	(1) I am praising (2) I am being praised	(1) I have praised (2) I have been praised	(1) I have been praising
Past . .	(1) I praised (2) I was praised	(1) I was praising (2) I was being praised	(1) I had praised (2) I had been praised	(1) I had been praising
Future .	(1) I shall praise (2) I shall be praised	(1) I shall be praising	(1) I shall have praised (2) I shall have been praised	(1) I shall have been praising

(1) Active Voice.

(2) Passive Voice.

Notice that only the present and past tenses of the active voice, indicative mood, are inflected tenses.

§ 67. An emphatic form of the present and past tenses may be made by using *do*.

Present	<i>I do love.</i>
Past	<i>I did love.</i>

But it is *not* emphatic when used in interrogative and negative sentences.

Do you hear? Did you listen? I do not hear. I did not listen. (See notes on *Do*, p. 72.)

4. Person and Number.

§ 68. The verb is **Singular** when it agrees with a subject in the singular number, and **Plural** when it agrees with a subject in the plural ; as,

Singular :	“ he <i>writes.</i> ”
Plural :	“ they <i>write.</i> ”

There are three persons (as in the pronouns, see § 41, p. 33), the first, the second, and the third.

The plural has no endings to mark person. We know the person by looking to the *subject* ; as, “ *We speak,*” “ *you speak,*” “ *the boys speak,*” or “ *they speak.*”

The first person singular has no ending ; as, “ *I talk.*”

The second person, which is seldom used, has *-est* (*-st*) ; as, “ *thou talk-est.*”

The third person (present) has *-s*, with the old form *-eth* ; as, "he talk-*s*," or "talk-*eth*."

These endings belong only to the indicative mood.

The subjunctive has no person-endings.

We might do without any endings, because the personal pronoun marks the person.

These endings were once pronouns themselves. Cp. *a-m*, *ar-t*, &c.

5. Conjugation.

§ 69. Verbs may be divided into two classes :

(1) Those that make their past tense by *-d* or *-t* ; as,

Present, I love. *Past*, I love-*d*.

I sleep. I slep-*t*.

(2) Those that make their past tense by changing the vowel of the present ; as,

Present, I write. *Past*, I wrote.

Verbs of the first class are called **Weak**, and those of the second **Strong** verbs.

Be careful to notice that a **strong** verb adds nothing to the past tense. Thus *got*, the past tense of *get*, is a strong verb ; but *tol-d*, the past tense of *tell*, is a weak verb.

The change of vowel in the past tense of strong verbs, as *fall*, *fell*, &c., must not be confounded with the shortening of the vowel, as in *feed* and *fed* (once *fed-de*).

The **Passive** Participles of all *strong* verbs once ended in *-en* ; but this suffix has fallen away in many verbs ; as, *drunk* = drunken, &c. Passive participles of *weak* verbs end in *-ed* (*-d*, *-t*) ; those of strong verbs never had this ending, and when they take it they become weak ; as, he was *tol-d* (weak) ; he has *mown* (strong) ; he has *mowed* (weak).

§ 70. Classification of Strong Verbs.

Strong verbs are classified according to the changes of their central vowels.

CLASS I.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
a, o.	e.	a.
fall	fell	fallen
hold	held	held, holden*
blow	blew	blown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
crow	crew	crown*
hang	hung	hung
beat	beat	beaten

Forms marked thus * are archaic.

Mow, sow, hew, once belonged to this class. Their strong participles, *mown, sown, hewn*, are sometimes used.

Hang once made a past tense *heng*.

Go or *gang* has borrowed its past tense *went* from *wend*, to go.

Gone is a strong past participle.

CLASS II.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
i.	a, u, ou	u, ou
begin	began	begun
cling	clung, clang*	clung
drink	drank	drunk
run	ran	run
swim	swam	swum
spin	spun, span*	spun
sing	sang	sung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sink	sank	sunk
fling	flung, flang*	flung
sling	slung, slang*	slung
ring	rang	rung
slink	slunk	slung
spring	sprang	sprung
sting	stung, stang*	stung
swing	swung, swang*	swung
wring	wrung, wrang*	wrung
win	won, wan*	won
bind	bound	bound, bounden*
find	found	found
fight	fought	fought
grind	ground	ground
wind	wound	wound
e	o	o
help	holp*	holpen
melt	molt*	molten
swell	...	swollen
burst	burst	burst

* Archaic.

Help, melt, swell, have now the weak form for past tense and passive participle.

CLASS III.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
i	a	i.
(1) bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
give	gave	given
lie	lay	lien, lain*
sit	sat	sat
ea, (ee), e	a, (o)	ea, (ee,) o.
(2) eat	ate	eaten
get	got, gat*	gotten, got*
tread	trod	trodden, trod
see	saw	seen
weave	wove	woven
...	quoth	...
...	was	...

Words marked thus * are archaic.

CLASS IV.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
a	o, oo, e	a (o)
awake	awoke	awoke
forsake	forsook	forsaken
lade	...	laden
grave	...	graven
stand	stood	stood
shave	...	shaven
shake	shook	shaken
swear	swore	sworn
take	took	taken
draw	drew	drawn
slay	slew	slain

Lade, grave, and shave have weak forms for the past tense and passive participle.

CLASS V.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
i (long).	o	i (short)
a-bide	abode	abode, abiden*
bite	bit	bitten
drive	drove	driven
chide	chid, chode*	chidden, chid
ride	rode, rid*	ridden, rid
rise	rose	risen
rive	rove	riven
shine	shone	shone
shrive	shrove	shriven
slide	slid	slidden, slid
smite	smote, smit*	smitten
stride	strode	stridden
thrive	throve	thriven
write	wrote, writ*	written
strike	struck	struck, stricken
strive	strove	striven

* Archaic.

Chide, rive, slide have also weak forms in the past tense and passive participle.

VI.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
ee, oo	o	o.
freeze	froze	frozen
seethe	sod*	sodden, sod*
cleave	clove	cloven
choose	chose	chosen
lose	...	lorn*
shoot	shot	shot, shotten*
fly	flew	flown

Seethe, cleave, lose, have weak forms in the past tense and passive participle.

§ 71. Classification of Weak Verbs.

We may divide the weak verbs roughly into two classes.

1. Those that have *-ed*, *-d*, or *-t* in the past tense and passive participle.

2. Those that have *lost* the *-d* or *-t* in the past tense and passive participle.

Class I.

We often write *-ed*, but we only sound it when the verb ends in *-d* or *-t*, as *mend-ed*, *lift-ed*.

In all other cases it is pronounced *-d* or *-t*, as

dragged = dragd.

locked = lockt.

(1) This *-ed* was once a separate verb and meant *did*. *I loved* = *I love-did*.

(2) *-d* becomes *-t* after a sharp mute (for reason see p. 11) and sometimes after *l*, *m*, *n*, as *slept*, *felt*, *burnt*, *dreamt*.

(3) Some verbs shorten the long vowel in the past tense and passive participle; as, *hear*, *heard*; *flee*, *fled*; *sleep*, *slept* (see § 13, p. 15.)

(4) A few have not the same vowel in the present as in the past.

(a) tell, tol-d, tol-d.

buy, bought, bought.

(b) teach, taught, taught.

work, wrought, wrought.

(5) Some have lost an internal letter; as, *made* = *maked*; *had* = *haved*.

Class II.

1. Some verbs of this class shorten their vowel in the past tense and passive participle, and look like strong verbs.

feed, fed, fed.

&c., &c., &c.

2. Others ending in *ld* or *nd* change the *d* into *t* in the past tense and past participle.

build, built, built.

send, sent, sent.

&c., &c., &c.

3. A third kind ending in *d* or *t* have the three forms (present, past, and passive participle) alike.

rid, rid, rid.

set, set, set.

&c., &c., &c.

All verbs of Class II. had an inflexion in Old English, *e.g.*

Past Tense.	Pass. Part.
fêd-de	fêd-ed = fed.
sende [= send-de]	send-ed = sent.
set-te	sett-ed = set.

As the verb in both conjugations is inflected only in the present and past indefinite tenses, the forms of the English verb are easily mastered.

§ 72. I. STRONG CONJUGATION.

To smite.

PRESENT, smite. PAST, smote. PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, smiten.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
1. I smite	1. I smite
2. Thou smit-est	2. Thou smite
3. He smite-s, smite-th	3. He smite

Plural.

1. We smite	1. We smite
2. Ye, you smite	2. Ye, you smite
3. They smite	3. They smite

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I smote	1. I smote
2. Thou smot-est	2. Thou smote
3. He smote	3. He smote

Plural.

1. We smote	1. We smote
2. Ye, you smote	2. Ye, you smote
3. They smote	3. They smote

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Smite (thou). *Plural*—Smite (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, to smite. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, smit-ing.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, smit-en.

§ 73. II. WEAK CONJUGATION.

To Lift.

PRES., lift. PAST, lift-*ed*. PASS. PART., lift-*ed*.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1. I lift
2. Thou lift-*est*
3. He lift-*s* (-*th*)

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. I lift
2. Thou lift
3. He lift

Plural.

1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I lift-*ed*
2. Thou lift-*ed-st*
3. He lift-*ed*

1. I lift-*ed*
2. Thou lift-*ed*
3. He lift-*ed*

Plural.

1. We lift-*ed*
2. Ye, you lift-*ed*
3. They lift-*ed*

1. We lift-*ed*
2. Ye, you lift-*ed*
3. They lift-*ed*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—lift (thou). *Plural*—lift (ye, you).INFINITIVE, *to lift*. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, lift-*ing*.PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, lift-*ed*.

§ 74. ALPHABETICAL LIST OF STRONG VERBS.

* The forms in italics are *weak*. Those marked thus * are *archaic*.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoke
	<i>awaked*</i>	<i>awaked</i>
bake	...	baken
	<i>baked</i>	<i>baked</i>
bear (bring forth)	bore, bare*	born
bear (carry)	bore, bare*	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beholden, beheld
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bounden, * bound
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke, brake*	broken
burst	burst	burst, bursten*
chide	chode, * chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose, chase*	chosen
cleave (split)	clove	cloven
	clave*	...
	<i>cleft</i>	<i>cleft</i>
cling	clung	clung
climb	clomb	...
	<i>climbed</i>	<i>climbed</i>
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	crew	crown
	<i>crowed</i>	<i>crowed</i>
do	did	done

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove, drave*	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	foughten,* fought
find	found	found
fling	flung, flang*	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
	forgat*	forgot*
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
	...	frozn, froze*
get	got, gat*	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	graven
en-grave	...	en-graven*
	engraved	engraved
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
	hanged	hanged
heave	hove	...
	heaved	heaved
help	...	holpen
	helped	helped
hew	...	hewn
	hewed	hewed
hold	held	held, holden
know	knew	known
lade	...	laden, loaden
	laded	laded
lie	lay	lain, lien*

Pres.	Part.	Pass. Part.
lose	... <i>lost</i>	lorn, forlorn <i>lost</i>
melt	... <i>melted</i>	molten <i>melted</i>
mow	.. <i>mowed</i>	mown <i>mowed</i>
ride	rode, rid*	ridden, rid*
ring	rang, rung*	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	... <i>rived</i>	riven <i>rived</i>
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	sod . <i>seethed</i>	sodden, sod* <i>seethed</i>
shake	shook	shaken
shave	<i>shaved</i>	shaven, <i>shaved</i>
shear	<i>sheared</i> , shore*	shorn, <i>sheared</i>
shine	shone <i>shined</i>	shone shined*
shoot	shot	shot, shotten*
shrink	shrank shrunk*	shrunk shrunken
sing	sang, sung*	sung
sink	sank	sunk, sunken
sit	sat	sat, sitten•
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid, slidden
sling	slung, slang*	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote, smit*	smitten, smit*
sow	... <i>sowed</i>	sown <i>sowed</i>
speak	spoke, spake •	spoken
spin	spun, span*	spun
spring	sprung, sprang*	sprung

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole, stole*	stolen
sting	stung, stang*	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode, strid*	stridden
strike	struck	struck stricken
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore sware*	sworn
swell	<i>swelled</i>	swollen, <i>swelled</i>
swim	swam, swum*	swam
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore, tare	torn
thrive	throve <i>thrived</i>	thriven <i>thrived</i>
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke <i>waked</i>	<i>waked</i>
weave	wove	woven
win	won, wan*	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung, wrang*	wrung
write	wrote, writ*	written

§ 75. ALPHABETICAL LIST OF WEAK VERBS
APPARENTLY IRREGULAR.

CLASS I.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
bereave	bereft bereaved*	bereft bereaved*
beseech	besought	besought
bring	brought	brought
burn	burnt	burnt
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
cleave	cleft	cleft
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dream	dreamt dreamed	dreamt dreamed
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
feel	feel	felt
flee	fled	fled
have	had	had
hide	hid	hid, hidden
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
lay	laid	laid
lean	leant leaned	leant leaned
learn	learnt learned	learnt learned
leap	leapt	leapt
leave	left	left
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
pay	paid	paid

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
pen	pent penned	pent penned
rap (to transport)	rapt	rapt
rot	rotted	rotten rotted
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
shoe	shod	shod
sleep	slept	slept
spell	spelt	spelt
spill	spilt	spilt
stay	staid	staid
sweep	swept	swept
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
weep	wept	wept
work	wrought worked	wrought worked

CLASS II.

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.
bend	bent	bent bended
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
build	built	built
cast	cast	cast
clothe	clad clothed	clad clothed
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.
feed	fed	fed
gild	gilt	gilt
	gilded	gilded
gird	girt	girt
[wend]	went	see p. 50.
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
knit	knit	knit
lead	led	led
let	let	let
light	lit	lit
	lighted	lighted
meet	met	met
put	put	put
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shred	shred	shred
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spit	spit, spat	spit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
sweat	sweat	sweat
thrust	thrust	thrust
wet	wet	wet
	wetted	wetted
whet	whet	whet
	whetted	whetted

§ 76. ANOMALOUS VERBS.

To Be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I a-m	1. We are
2. Thou ar-t	2. Ye, you are
3. He is	3. They are

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was	1. We were
2. Thou was-t	2. Ye, you were
3. He was	3. They were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I be	1. We be
2. Thou be	2. Ye, you be
3. He be	3. They be

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I were	1. We were
2. Thou were,* wer-t	2. Ye, you were
3. He were	3. They were

* Archaic.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—be (thou). *Plural*—be (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, to be. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, be-*ing*.
PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, be-*n*.

Can.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I can	1. We can
2. Thou can-st	2. Ye, you can
3. He can	3. They can

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I cou- <i>l-d</i>	1. We cou- <i>l-d</i>
2. Thou cou- <i>l-d-st</i>	2. Ye, you cou- <i>l-d</i>
3. He cou- <i>l-d</i>	3. They cou- <i>l-d</i>

Shall.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall	1. We shall
2. Thou shal- <i>t</i>	2. Ye, you shall
3. He shall.	3. They shall

Past.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shoul- <i>d</i>	1. We shoul- <i>d</i>
2. Thou shoul- <i>d</i>	2. Ye, you shoul- <i>d</i>
3. He shoul- <i>d</i>	3. They shoul- <i>d</i>

Will.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I will	1. We will
2. Thou wil-t	2. Ye, you will
3. He will	3. They will

Past.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I woul- <i>d</i>	1. We woul- <i>d</i>
2. Thou woul- <i>d</i>	2. Ye, you woul- <i>d</i>
3. He woul- <i>d</i>	3. They woul- <i>d</i>

May.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may	1. We may
2. Thou may-est, may-st	2. Ye, you may
3. He may	3. They may

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I migh- <i>t</i>	1. We migh- <i>t</i>
2. Thou migh- <i>t</i> -est, migh- <i>t</i> -st	2. Ye, you migh- <i>t</i>
3. He migh- <i>t</i>	3. They migh- <i>t</i>

Owe.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I owe	1. We owe
2. Thou owe-st	2. Ye, you owe
3. He owe-s	3. They owe

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I ough- <i>t</i>	1. We ough- <i>t</i>
2. Thou ough- <i>t</i> -est	2. Ye, you ough- <i>t</i>
3. He ough- <i>t</i>	3. They ough- <i>t</i>

Dare.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I dare	1. We dare
2. Thou dar-est, dar-st	2. Ye, you dare
3. He dare, dare-s	3. They dare

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I durs- <i>t</i>	1. We durs- <i>t</i>
2. Thou durs- <i>t</i>	2. Ye, you durs- <i>t</i>
3. He durs- <i>t</i>	3. They durs- <i>t</i>

Have.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have	1. We have
2. Thou ha-st	2. Ye, you have
3. He ha-s, ha-th	3. They have

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I ha- <i>d</i>	1. We ha- <i>d</i>
2. Thou ha- <i>d</i> -st	2. Ye, you ha- <i>d</i>
3. He ha- <i>d</i>	3. They ha- <i>d</i>

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—have (thou). *Plural*—have (ye, you)

INFINITIVE, *to have*. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, *hav-ing*.
PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, *ha-d*.

Do.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I do	1. We do
2. Thou do-st, do-est	2. Ye, you do
3. Hedoe-s, do-th, do-eth	3. They do

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I did	1. We did
2. Thou did-st didd-est	2. Ye, you did
3. He did	3. They did

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—do (thou). *Plural*—do (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *to do*. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, *do-ing*.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, *do-ne*.

§ 77. Remarks on Anomalous Verbs.

1. Be.

1. Am, art, is, are, are formed from an obsolete root **as** to be. The **m** in **am** is identical with the pronoun **me**.

2. Was is the past tense of the old strong verb *wes-an*, to be. The **r** in *were* represents an older **s**.

3. Bee-n shows that the old verb *be* was a strong verb.

4. We sometimes find, as late as the 17th century, the verb **be** conjugated fully in the *Present Indicative*.

Singular.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1. I be | |
| 2. Thou bee-st, be'st | |
| 3. He be [be-th, be-eth] | |

Plural.

- | |
|------------------------|
| 1. We be-n, bi-n, be |
| 2. Ye be-n, bi-n, be |
| 3. They be-n, bi-n, be |

5. When the verb **is** = *exists, lives*, it is not to be parsed as an auxiliary verb (see § 66, p. 46).

2. Can.

This verb once signified “to know,” “to be able,” cp. to *con, cunning, uncouth*.

Could. This form is *weak*. The **l** has crept in from false analogy to *should* and *would*.

3. Shall.

1. “I shall” once meant “I owe,” “I am bound to,” “I ought,” “I must.” It still has this sense in the second and third persons. It is seen more plainly in such expressions as, “you *should* be kind to one another.”

2. **Shall** is only an auxiliary of the future in the first person, and in interrogative sentences in the second person; as, “*shall you go.*” It is an independent verb in the second and third persons.

3. **Should** is a weak past form. When it means *ought* it must be parsed as an independent verb. It sometimes has a present tense. In such expressions as “*should you see him*” (= if you see him) = “if you *shall* see him,” *should* must be parsed as subjunctive past, used with the force of a present tense.

4. Will.

Will once meant “to *desire*,” “*wish*.”

It is used as a sign of the future in the second and third persons. It is an independent verb in the first person, and expresses determination or purpose.

Won't = *wol not* contains the Middle English form of *will*.

Would is a weak past tense, like *should*.

When **will** means to *desire*, *exercise the will*, it is conjugated regularly. *Wilt* in this sense is often found for *willest*.

5. May.

May once meant “to be able” (cp., “Do what I *may*, I cannot please him”). It expresses also *permission*.

It must be parsed as an independent and not as an auxiliary verb.

In such expressions as “*may they be happy*,” “teach me that I *may* be able to learn,” *may* is in the subjunctive mood.

Might is a weak past tense. It preserves the *g* of *may*, O.E. *mæg*.

6. Must.

Must is the past tense of an old verb, *mot* “to be able,” “be obliged.” It expresses *necessity*, and is now used with a present and future tense.

7. Ought.

Ought is the past tense of the verb *owe*. It has now a present as well as a past meaning when used to express *duty*, *obligation*.

Owe originally meant "to *have*," "to *own*," hence "to *have as a duty*."

When *owe* means "to *have to pay*," "to *be in debt*," it is conjugated regularly: as, (1) *owe*, (2) *owest*, (3) *owes*; past tense, *owed*.

8. Durst.

Durst is the old past tense of *dare*. When *dare* means *to challenge*, it is conjugated regularly, and has *dared* for its past tense and passive participle.

9. Wit.

The old verb *to wit*, "to know," makes its present tense *wot*; its past tense is *wist*. These forms are used in the English Bible. *To wit* is the old dative infinitive, now used as an *adverb*.

10. Have.

Hast = *hav'st* = *havesst*.

Hath = *hav'th* = *haveth*.

Has = *hav's* = *haves*.

Had = *hav'd* = *haved*.

11. Do.

Did is not a weak form, like *had*, but a strong verb, being originally the reduplicated perfect tense of *do*, cp. Lat. *dedi*.

It is used as (1) a tense auxiliary in negative and interrogative sentences; as, "*I do not believe it*;" "*Do you believe it*?" (2) To express emphasis: "*I do believe that he did do it*."

12. GO.

GO has lost its true past tense. We supply its loss by the verb *went*, the old past tense of *wend*, "to turn."

Gone shows that *go* was originally a strong verb, cp. *done*.

13. *Let*, in "let me go," is the imperative mood of the verb *let*, *to allow*, *permit*.

14. The subjunctive mood of anomalous verbs, with the exception of the verb "*to be*," has no suffixes to mark person.

Auxiliary Verbs.

§ 78. The auxiliary verbs used for forming *tenses* are *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *do*. The verb *to be* is used for forming the passive voice. To conjugate the verb in all its parts, see tables, p. 47 and pp. 56, 57.

CHAPTER VII.

ADVERBS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 79. An Adverb is a word that modifies the meaning of a *verb*, *adjective*, or other *adverb*. (See page 13.)

II. CLASSIFICATION.

Adverbs may be divided into the following classes :

1. Adverbs of time. *When? Then, now, often, soon, &c.*

2. Adverbs of place. *Where? Here, there, whither, &c.*

3. Adverbs of manner. *How? (1) Well, ill, badly. Degree, quality; (2) little, much, quite, very. Affirmation, negation; (3) yes, indeed, no, not.*

4. Adverbs of cause and effect. *Why? therefore, thence, wherefore, whence, &c.*

III. INFLEXIONS.

§ 80. Comparison of Adverbs.

well	better	best
ill	worse	worst
much	more	most
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
late	later	last
[rathe]	rather	rathest

See Adjectives, § 38, p. 30.

§ 81. Adverbs are formed from other parts of speech.

1. Nouns and Adjectives :—

need-s (of necessity); *noway-s*, *alway-s*, *unaware-s*, *on-ce*, *whil-s-t*. This *s* is an old genitive suffix. *Whil-om* and *seld-om* contain an old dative ending.

2. Pronouns :—

where, *when*—, *whence*; *why*, *there*, *then*, &c., *here*, &c.

3. Nouns or Adjectives compounded with a preposition :—

an-on (*at once*), *a-bed*, *a-broad*, *of kin*, *of late*, *of old*, *to-day*, *be-times*, or *by turns*.

CHAPTER VIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 82. Prepositions join words to mark certain relations. See p. 13.

By means of prepositions we are able to express the relation of things to other things, or the relation of things to their actions or attributes. The most common relations expressed by prepositions are *place, time, manner, cause*.

A preposition joins a *noun* (or *pronoun*)

(1) to another *noun* (or *pronoun*); There is a book *on* the table.

(2) to an *adjective*; He is fond *of* his book.

(3) to a *verb*; John goes *to* school in time.

II. CLASSIFICATION.

83. Prepositions are either *simple* or *compound*.

1. Simple :—

at, by, for, in, of, off, out, to, up, with.

2. Compound :—

(1) *af-ter, ov-er, un-der, throu-gh, b-ut, a-b-out, a-b-ove, un-to, in-to, be-hind, with-in, out of, fro-m, for-th.*

(2) *a-mong, a-gain, a-head, be-side, in spite of, a-thwart, be-twixt, a-round.*

(3) From verbs (participles) : *owing to, notwith-standing, except, save.*

Nigh, near, nearer, next, are sometimes used as prepositions.

Past, the passive participle of the verb *pass,* is a preposition in "I went *past* the church."

CHAPTER IX.

CONJUNCTIONS.

I. DEFINITION.

§ 84. Conjunctions join sentences. See p. 13.

Sometimes they join two *independent* words together; as, “*three and three make six.*”

II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 85. Conjunctions are of two kinds:—

1. Co-ordinate Conjunctions, which join two independent sentences: *and, either, or, neither, nor, but.*

2. Subordinate Conjunctions, which join a principal sentence to another that depends upon it for its full meaning: *for, because, since, as, if, unless, lest, that.*

Some conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called *correlatives*: *both—and, what—and, as well—as, either—or, &c.*

We use many compound expressions as conjunctions:

like wise, in order that, to the end that, so that, how be it, although, albeit, nevertheless.

See Analysis of Sentences, p. 101.

CHAPTER X.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 86. Interjections, being mere exclamations, do not stand in grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence. Oh! Alas!

Many interjections are phrases cut short; as, *good-bye!* = *God be with you*; *marry!* = *the Virgin Mary*; *wassail* = *was (be) hale (healthy)*; cp., *hail!* *all hail!* *welcome!* *adieu!*

Many *adverbs*, *prepositions*, and even *verbs*, are used as interjections: *how!* *well!* *out!* *look!* *behold!*

CHAPTER XI.

WORD-MAKING.

§ 87. A word that cannot be reduced to a simpler form is called a **root** ; as, *man*, *good*, *drink*.

§ 88. Particles added to the end of the root are called **suffixes** ; as, *man-ly*, *good-ness*, *drink-ing*.

Suffixes are said to form derivatives ; as, *man-ly*, is derived from *man*.

§ 89. Particles placed before the root are called **prefixes** ; as, *un-man-ly*, *mis-deed*, &c.

Prefixes are used to form compounds ; as, *for-bid*, *gain-say*, &c.

Prefixes were once independent words. Many of them are still so used : cp., *mis-take* = take *a-miss* ; *fore-know*, know *before*, *under-stand*, &c.

§ 90. **Compounds** are also formed by putting two words together ; as, *black-bird*, *ink-stand*.

§ 91. Besides English suffixes we have very many others that we have borrowed from *French*, *Latin*, and *Greek*.

§ 92. These suffixes mark different notions and relations. Some denote the doer or agent ; others form abstract nouns ; a few express diminution or augmentation.

English Suffixes.

§ 93. I. NOUNS.

1. The Agent :

-er (-ar, -or) ; bak-*er*, do-*er*, begg-*ar*, li-*ar*,
sail-*or*, cloth-*i-er*, law-*y-er*.

-en ; (fem.) vix-*en*.

-ster ; (fem.) spin-*ster*. It merely marks the
agent in song-*ster*, malt-*ster*.

2. Abstract Nouns, marking *state, action, condition, being, &c.* :

-dom ; wis-*dom*, king-*dom*.

-hood, -head ; god-*head*, man-*hood*.

-ing ; learn-*ing*, writ-*ing*.

-ness ; good-*ness*, dark-*ness*.

-red ; hat-*red*, kind-*red*.

-ship ; friend-*ship*, lord-*ship*.

-th, -t ; heal-*th*, steal-*th*, bread-*th*, dep-*th*,
wid-*th*, heigh-*t*, drif-*t*, sigh-*t*.

3. Diminutives :

-en ; chick-*en*.

-ing ; farth-*ing*, tith-*ing*, shill-*ing*, whit-*ing*,
wild-*ing*.

-ling ; duck-*ling*, gos-*ling*.

-kin ; lamb-*kin*, nap-*kin*.

§ 94. II. ADJECTIVES.

-ed (like *having*) : wretch-*ed*, boot-*ed*, letter-*ed*.

-en (*made of*) : gold-*en*, wood-*en*.

- ful (*full of*): truth-ful, fear-ful.
- ish (*somewhat like*): girl-ish, whit-ish.
- ly (like): god-ly, good-ly, love-ly.
- like: god-like, war-like.
- less (without): shame-less, house-less.
- y (*pertaining to, abounding in*): hill-y, storm-y.
- some (full of): game-some, win-some.
- ward (turning to): fro-ward, south-ward.
- teen, -ty (*ten*); nine-teen, twen-ty.
- th (*order*): six-th, seven-th.
- fold (folded): two-fold, many-fold.
- ern (direction to): east-ern, north-ern.

§ 95. III. ADVERBS.

- ly (like): god-ly, bad-ly, on-ly.
- ling, -long (= -wise, -ways); flat-ling, head-long, side-long.
- meal (division): limb-meal, piece-meal.
- ward, -wards (turning to): hither-ward, up-wards.
- wise (manner, mode): other-wise, no-wise, like-wise.
- way, -ways: al-ways, straight-way.
- s, -ce, -st: need-s, twi-ce, beside-s, whil-st.
- n: whe-n, the-n, the-n-ce, he-n-ce.
- om: seld-om, whil-om.
- re: whe-re, the-re, he-re.
- ther: whi-ther, thi-ther, hi-ther.

(See p. 75.)

§ 96. IV. VERBS.

1. *Frequentative* :-k : tal-*k*, har-*k*, stal-*k*.-le, -l : dibb-*le*, spark-*le*, start-*le*, knee-*l*.-er : ling-*er*, flitt-*er*, falt-*er*.2. *Causative (making)* :-en, -n : fatt-*en*, short-*en*, length-*en*, lear-*n*

Some few Causative Verbs are formed from *Intransitive* Verbs by vowel-change :

Intransitive.

fall,

sit,

rise,

&c.

Transitive.

fell,

set,

raise,

&c.

§ 97. Compounds.

Two words may be joined together to make a new word, as *rail-road*, *steam-boat*, &c.

The accent of the true compound is on the first syllable ; e.g., A crow is a *black bird* but not a *blackbird*.

The hyphen is used in writing to mark a compound ; as, *passer-by*, *coast-line*.

I. NOUN COMPOUNDS.

1. Adjective + Noun : *black-bird*, *blue-bell*.2. Noun or Pronoun + Noun : *noon-tide*, *shoe-maker*, *hearts-ease*, *he-goat*.3. Noun + verb : *tell-tale*, *scare-crow*, *dare-devil*.

II. ADJECTIVE COMPOUNDS

1. Noun + Adjective : *sky-blue, blood-red, foot-sore, sea-sick, heart-rending, heart-broken.*
2. Adjective + Noun : *bare-foot.*
3. Adjective Adjective : *blue-green, red-hot, new-made, fair-haired, six-sided.*

III. VERB COMPOUNDS.

1. Noun + Verb : *back-bite, way-lay.*
2. Adjective + Verb : *white-wash, rough-hew.*
3. Verb + Adverb : *doff* (-do off), *don*, (-do on).

For Adverb Compounds see p. 75.

§ 98. English Prefixes.

A- (on, in) : *a-bed, a-shore, a-b-out.*

A- (out of, from) : *a-rise, a-wake, a-go.*

A- (of, off) : *a-kin, a-new, a-down.*

After- (following) : *after-noon, after-ward.*

Al- (all) : *al-one, lone, al-most, al-so.*

At- (to) : *at-one, at-onement.*

Be- (by) : (1) It forms transitive and intransitive verbs : *be-speak, be-think, be-dew, be-smear.*

(2) It forms a part of some nouns, adverbs, and prepositions : *be-half, be-quest, be-low, be-neath, be-sides, b-ut.*

For- (through, thorough) : *for-swear, for-get, for-bear.*

Fore- (before) : *fore-cast, fore-tell.*

Forth- : *forth-coming, for-ward.*

Gain- (against) : *gain-say* (cp., *contra-dict*).

In- : *in-come, in-land, in-lay, in-to.*

Mis- (amiss) : *mis-deed, mis-lead, mis-take.*

Of- (= off, from) : *of-fal, off-spring.*

On- : *on-set, on-ward.*

Out- : *out-cast, out-let, out-side, out-landish.*

Over- (above, beyond, too) : *over-eating, over-flow, over-hear, over-coat.*

To- (to, for) : *to-day, to-night, to-gether, to-ward, un-to-ward.*

Un- (not) : *un-true, un-truth, un-wise.*

Un- (back) : *un-do, un-bolt, un-tie.*

Under- : *under-go, under-mine, under-hand, under-ling, under-neath.*

Up- : *up-hold, up-shot, up-right, up-ward, up-on.*

With- (against, back) : *with-draw, with-hold.*

§ 99. Latin and French Suffixes.

I. NOUNS.

i. Agent :

-ain, -an : *librari-an, vill-ain, artis-an.*

-ard : *drunk-ard, dull-ard, wiz-ard.*

-ee : *trust-ee, devot-ee.*

-eer, -ier : *engin-eer, brigad-ier.*

-our, -er

-or

-tor

-sor

} *emper-or, govern-our, preach-er,*
 } *robb-er, act-or, doct-or.*

- trix (fem.) : execu-*trix*, testa-*trix*.
- ess : (fem.) : lion-*ess*, song-str-*ess*.
- ive : capt-*ive*, fugit-*ive*.
- iff : cat-*iff*, plaint-*iff*.
- ant, -ent : merch-*ant*, gi-*ant*, stud-*ent*.
- ist : evangel-*ist*, novel-*ist*.
- ite, -it : Israel-*ite*, Jesu-*it*.

2. Abstract Nouns (see p. 81) :

- age : cour-*age*, hom-*age*, marri-*age*.
- ance, -ence : endur-*ance*, obeis-*ance*, obedi-*ence*, purvey-*ance*, ridd-*ance*.
- ancy, -ency : brilli-*ancy*, excell-*ency*.
- ess, ice, ise : larg-*ess*, rich-*es*, prow-*ess*, merchand-*ise*, just-*ice*.
- son : beni-*son*, poi-*son*, ran-*som*.
- tion : benedic-*tion*, po-*tion*, redemp-*tion*.
- sion : conver-*sion*, occa-*sion*, proces-*sion*.
- lence : pesti-*lence*, vio-*lence*.
- ment : command-*ment*, enchant-*ment*, nourish-*ment*.
- mony : matri-*mony*, testi-*mony*.
- our : col-*our*, fav-*our*, hon-*our*.
- eur : grand-*eur*, liqu-*eur*.
- ry, ery : chival-*ry*, jewel-*ry*, poet-*ry*, surg-*ery*, witch-*ery*.
- tude : longi-*tude*, multi-*tude*.
- ty : boun-*ty*, cruel-*ty*, frail-*ty*.
- ure : creat-*ure*, vest-*ure*, forfeit-*ure*.
- y : felon-*y*, victor-*y*, miser-*y*.

3. Diminutives :—

- aster : poet-*aster*.
- el, le : parc-*el*, dams-*el*, cast-*le*.
- icle, cule : art-*icle*, part-*icle*, animal-*cule*.
- ule : glob-*ule*.
- et, let : hatch-*et*, lanc-*et*, pock-*et*, brace-*let*, stream-*let*.
- ette : etiqu-*ette*, coqu-*ette*.

II. ADJECTIVES.

- al : loy-*al*, roy-*al*, equ-*al*.
- an, -ain : cert-*ain*, hum-*an*.
- ane : hum-*ane*.
- ant, ent : en-*ant*, ramp-*ant*, pati-*ent*.
- ary : contr-*ary*, necess-*ary*, honor-*ary*.
- ate : consider-*ate*, desol-*ate*, priv-*ate*.
- ble, -able : sta-*ble*, fee-*ble*, mov-*able*, favour-*able*, laugh-*able*, eatable (edi-*ble*).
- ese : Chin-*ese*, Malt-*ese*.
- esque : burl-*esque*, pictur-*esque*.
- ile : serv-*ile*, frag-*ile*.
- il, -le : civ-*il*, fra-*il*, gent-*le*.
- ine : div-*ine*, infant-*ine*.
- ian : Austral-*ian*, Christ-*ian*.
- ive : act-*ive*, coerc-*ive*, sport-*ive*, talk-at-*ive*.
- ose : verb-*ose*, joc-*ose*.
- ous : danger-*ous*, glori-*ous*, lepr-*ous*.
- ble : dou-*ble*, tre-*ble*.
- ple : tri-*ple*, sim-*ple*.

III. VERBS.

- ate : alien-*ate*, assassin-*ate*, accentu-*ate*.
 -ish : flour-*ish*, nour-*ish*, pun-*ish*.
 -fy : magni-*fy*, signi-*fy*, simpli-*fy*.

§ 100. Greek Suffixes.

I. NOUNS.

- ic : log-*ic*, mus-*ic*.
 -ism : fatal-*ism*, barbar-*ism*, magnet-*ism*.
 -sy : drop-*sy*, pal-*sy*.
 -sis : paraly-*sis*.
 -y : monarch-*y*.
 -isk (diminutive) : aster-*isk*, obel-*isk*.

II. VERBS.

- ise, -ize : civil-*ise*, fertil-*ise*, anathemat-*ise*.

§ 101. Latin and French Prefixes.

A-, ab-, abs- (away, from); *ab-normal*, *ab-dicate*, *abs-tract*, *abs-stain*, *a-vert*, *a-d-vance*, &c.

Ad- (to) :

By assimilation *ad* becomes *ac-*, *af-*, *ag-*, *al-*, *am-*, *an-*, *ap-*, *ar-*, *as-*, *at-*.

ad-join, *ad-vert*, *ac-cept*.

Ante- (before): *ante-chamber*, *ante-date*.

Bene- (well): *bene-fit*.

Bi- (two), bis- (twice): *bi-ennial*, *bi-ped*, *bis-cuit*.

Circum-, circu- (around): *circum-stance*, *circu-it*.

Com-, con-, co- (with) :

By assimilation, *col-*, *com-*, *cor-*.

com-mand, *con*-tend, *co*-eternal, *col*-lect, *cor*-rect.

Contra-, Counter- (against) : *contra*-dict, *counter*-act, *counter*-feit.

De- (down) : *de*-part, *de*-scend, *de*-form.

Dis-, di- (asunder, not) : *dis*-cord, *dis*-honour, *dis*-please, *dis*-like, *dif*-fer.

Demi- (half) : *demi*-god.

Ex-, e- (out of, from) : *ex*-alt, *e*-lect, *ex*-mayor.

Extra- (beyond) : *extra*-ordinary, *extra*-work.

In-, en-, em- (in, into, on), with verbs : *in*-vert, *im*-pose, *il*-lumine, *en*-rich, *en*-dear; *em*-balm, *em*-bolden.

In- (not) : *in*-cautious, *il*-legal, *im*-piety, *ir*-regular.

Inter-, intro- } (within) { *inter*-course, *intro*-duce.
Enter- } { *enter*-tain, *enter*-prise.

Male-, mal- (ill, badly) : *male*-factor, *mal*-treat.

Mis- (from Lat. *minus*, less) : *mis*-chief, *mis*-fortune.

Non- (not) : *non*-sense, *non*-existent.

Ob- (in front of, against) : *ob*-ject, *oc*-cupy, *of*-fer, *op*-pose.

Par-, Per- (through) : *per*-force, *per*-spire, *per*-jure, *par*-don, *pel*-lucid, *pol*-lute.

Post- (after) : *post*-date, *post*-script.

Pre- (before) : *pre*-dict, *pre*-face.

Pur (forth) : *pur*-chase, *pur*-vey.

Pro- (forward, forth, for) : *pro*-ject, *pro*-pose, *pro*-noun.

Re- (back, again) : *re*-claim, *re*-join, *re*-act, *re*-new.

Retro- (backward) : *retro*-spect, *retro*-grade.

Se- (apart, away) : *se*-clude, *se*-parate, *sed*-ition.

Semi- (half) : *semi*-circle.

Sub- (under) : *sub*-ject, *suc*-cour, *suf*-fer, *sug*-gest, *sub*-committee, *sus*-tain.

Super, sur- (above, over, beyond) : *super*-structure, *sur*-face, *sur*-pass.

Subter- (beneath) : *subter*-fuge.

Trans- (across) : *trans*-figure, *trans*-form.

Tra-, tres- (across) : *tra*-verse, *tres*-pass.

Ultra- (beyond) : *ultra*-liberal, *ultra*-marine.

Vice-, vis- (instead of) : *vice*-regent, *vis*-count, *vice*-roi.

§ 102. Greek Prefixes.

Amphi- (about, on both sides) : *amphi*-theatre, *amphi*-bious.

An-, a- (not, without ; like English *un*-) : *an*-archy, *a*-pathy.

Ana- (up to, again, back) : *ana*-tomy, *ana*-logy.

Anti-, ant- (opposite to, against) : *anti*-christ, *ant*-arctic.

Apo- (away from, from) : *apo*-logy, *apo*-strophe.

Arch-, archi- (chief, head) : *arch*-heretic, *arch*-bishop, *archi*-tect.

Auto- (self) : *auto*-graph, *auto*-biography.

Cata-, cat- (down) : *cata*-ract, *cat*-hedral.

Dia- (through) : *dia*-meter, *dia*-logue.

Di- (in two) : *di*-syllable, *di*-phthong.

Dys- (ill) : *dys*-peptic, *dys*-entery.

Ec-, ex- (out, from) : *ex*-odus, *ec*-centric.

En- (in) : *en*-thusiasm, *em*-phasis, *el*-lipsis.

Eu- (well) : *eu*-phony, *ev*-angelist.

Epi- (upon, or) : *epi*-tome, *ep*-och.

Hemi- (half) : *hemi*-sphere.

Hyper- (above, over, beyond) : *hyper*-critical, *hyper*-bological.

Hypo- (under) : *hypo*-crite, *hypo*-thesis.

Meta- (after, across) : *meta*-morphosis, *met*-aphor, *met*-onymy.

Mono- (single, alone) : *mono*-graph, *mon*-archy.

Pan- (all) : *pan*-theist.

Para- (beside) : *para*-phrase, *para*-ble, *par*-ody.

Peri- (around) : *peri*-meter, *peri*-phrases.

Pro- (before) : *pro*-gramme, *pro*-logue.

Syn- (with) : *syn*-thesis, *syn*-tax, *sym*-pathy, *syl*-lable.

CHAPTER XII.

SYNTAX.

§ 103. **Syntax** teaches us how words are put together in a sentence. It treats of the right use of the parts of speech and their inflexions.

The chief combinations of the Parts of Speech are :—

1. A verb and its subject ; as, "*Time flies.*"
2. An adjective and its noun ; as, "*A good man.*"
3. A verb and its object ; as, "*John hurt the dog.*"
4. An adverb and the verb, adjective, or adverb to which it is joined. See examples on p. 13.

The *first*, which shows the relation of the *Predicate* to its *subject*, is called **Predicative** combination. (See § 118, p. 101.)

The *second* is called **Attributive** combination. (See p. 103, for the different modes of expressing an *attribute*.)

The *third* is called **Objective** combination. (See pp. 42, 104.)

The *fourth* is called **Adverbial** combination. (See pp. 74, 104, 108.)

§ 104. 1. Verb and Subject. (See p. 104).

1. A finite verb is in the same number and person as its subject ; as,

<i>I think</i>	<i>We think</i>
<i>Thou think-est</i>	<i>You think</i>
<i>He think-s</i>	<i>They think</i>

The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

I thinks would be wrong, because *I* is of the first person and *thinks* of the third.

The subject of a finite verb is said to be in the Nominative case.

2. The verb *to be* takes a Nominative case after it as well as before it ; as,

“*He is a king ;*”
“*The king is a child.*”

Some verbs are used like the verb *to be* in this respect ; as, “*he became a bankrupt ;*” “*he seems an idiot ;*” “*he is called a poet ;*” “*he is made a knight.*”

3. When two or more subjects in the singular number are joined together by the conjunction *and*, the verb must be put in the *plural* number ; as, “*John and William are good boys.*”

4. Two or more singular subjects joined by *or* or *nor* take a verb in the *singular* number ; as, “*John or William, or James is going with me.*” “*Neither John nor William is going.*”

(1) *Or* originally meant *either* (see p. 39). It implies any one of two, or an alternative.

(2) When two nouns are of different numbers or persons the verb must agree with the latter. "Either he or I *am* right." "Neither John nor his *brothers have come*."

5. When the subject is a collective and singular noun the verb is sometimes put into the plural; "The *jury were* dismissed." "The *multitude were* divided."

When the collective noun refers to a number of things considered separately, then the verb should be in the plural number. If the objects denoted by the collective noun be regarded as a whole, the verb should be singular; as,

- (1) The jury (each of them) were dismissed.
- (2) The council (as one body) has chosen its president.

§ 105. 2. Adjective and Noun.

1. When the adjective is used after the verb *to be* it is said to be used *predicatively*; as, "The wound is *mortal*." When put close to the noun (before or after it) it is said to be used *attributively*; as, "He received a *mortal* wound."

The adjective is used predicatively after the verbs *become*, *seem*, *appear*, *turn*, &c. (See p. 93.)

2. A noun (*or* pronoun) used as an *attribute* to another noun, signifying the same thing, is said to be in *apposition* with it; as, "William the *Norman* conquered England" (= "the *Norman* William conquer'd England").

The word *Norman* is in *apposition* to *William*, and agrees with it in number and case.

2. Sometimes the preposition *of* comes before the appositional word; as, the county of Rutland = the county Rutland.

A noun (*or* pronoun) in the Possessive case stands in the relation of an attribute to another noun.

Sometimes the preposition *of* marks the same relation as the sign of the possessive case (see p. 26.)

“Eye of *newt* and toe of *frog*,
Wool of *bat* and tongue of *dog*,
Adder's fork and *blind-worm's* sting,
Lizard's leg and *howlet's* wing.”

Macbeth iv. 1.

§ 106. 3. Verb and Object.

I. DIRECT OBJECT.

1. The direct object of a transitive verb is put in the Objective case; as, “The lightning *struck* the *tree* and *made it* wither.” (See p. 25.)

2. The verbs *teach*, *ask*, *forgive*, *tell*, &c., take two Objectives, one of a person and the other of a thing. “He taught his *pupils* *history*. “They asked *him* *his name*.”

The verbs *to make*, *name*, *call*, *esteem*, &c., take two Objectives of the same person or thing; as, “They made *him* *king*.” “They called *John* a *traitor*.”

3. Intransitive verbs often take an objective case, akin in form or meaning to the verb itself: “He *dreamed* a *dream*.” “They *went* their *way*.”

The Objective case is sometimes used after intransitive verbs to express (1) *time—how long?* (2) *space—how much?* “The battle lasted the whole *day*.” “He slept three *hours*.” “I walked two *miles* a *day*.”

The Objective case follows some few impersonal verbs, as it did in Old English ; as, it repents *me* ; *me* lists ; it ails *me* ; it irks *me* ; it recks *me* ; it concerns *us* ; it grieves *me*.

2. INDIRECT OBJECT.

The Indirect Object comes after many transitive and intransitive verbs. It may be known by asking the question *to* or *for whom* or *what*? (See p. 25.) "He built *me* a house." "Give *me* my book."

The Indirect object is used with the impersonal verbs, *become*, *behave*, *please*, *likes*, *bescem*, &c. ; cp., *methinks* = it seems *to me* ; *methought* = it seemed *to me*. "Good actions become *us*." "It behoved *Christ* to suffer." "If it please *you* ; or, if *you* please."

The Indirect object follows the adjective *worth* ; as, "woe worth *the day*." In imitation of this we have, "woe is *me* ;" "well is *him*."

The words *like* (and *unlike*), *nigh*, *near*, *next*, are followed by the Indirect object. "He is *like a giant*." "He was *near us*."

Many adjectives (as well as verbs) are followed by the preposition *to*, and the governed noun may be treated as the indirect object ; as, *dear to*, *cruel to*, *fair to*, *similar to*, *obedient to*, *equal to*.

The adjectives *worth* and *worthy* (also *unworthy*) are sometimes followed by the *Indirect Object* ; as, "it is not *worth one's while*."

In O.E. these adjectives, like many others, governed the genitive case, cp. the adjectives, *slow of*, *swift of*, *hard of*, *wearry of*, *worthy of*, *guilty of*, *fond of*, *proud of*, *ashamed of* ; and the verbs, *think of*, *smell of*, *taste of*, *laugh at* (originally *laugh of*).

The genitive was once used with the adjectives *long*, *high*, *broad*, &c. ; as, "the box was six yards *long*, and six feet *broad*, and *ten inches high* ;" "the boy is two *years old*."

§ 107. 4. Adverb and Verb, Adjective,
or Adverb.

Adverbs, as we have already seen (p. 74), are joined to *verbs*, *adjectives*, or *adverbs*, to express certain relations of *time*, *place*, *manner*, *cause*, and *effect*.

The adverb is not always a simple word. It is often (1) a phrase, (2) clause or sentence; as,

1. "He went *on shore*."

"He came down *step by step*."

2. "*The day having dawned* we set out."

"*When the day dawned* we set out."

(See § 130, p. 108.)

MISCELLANEOUS RULES.

1. Pronouns.

§ 108. The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person; as, "the boy *who* was late was punished;" "He *that* is contented is happy;" "O thou *that* leadest Israel."

The relative does not always agree in *case* with its relative. "He *whom* we worship, by *whose* gift we live, is the Lord."

As the relative introduces a new clause, its case must depend upon its relative in its own clause. In the example quoted above, *whom* is objective, because governed by the transitive verb *worship*. "Tell me *whom* I am" is wrong; it ought to be, "Tell me *who* I am." "Do you know *who* you speak to," ought to be, "Do you know *whom*," &c.

§ 109. The Indefinite Pronouns, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, are *singular*, and must be followed by a verb and pronoun in the *singular*. "Each person *knows his* own property." "Every *bird tries* to protect its young." "*Either* of the two *is* to be taken."

2. Verbs.

§ 110. The Indicative Mood states a positive fact, and is used in simple assertions and questions. (See p. 43.)

§ 111. The Subjunctive Mood is used to express a doubt, supposition, opinion. The inflected subjunctive has nearly gone out of use. It is still found after such conjunctions as *if, unless, though, lest, till*; as "*If fortune serve me, I'll requite this kindness.*" "*For murder, though it have no tongue, will speak.*" "*Let me stand here till thou remember it.*" (See p. 43.)

§ 112. Infinitive Mood.

The Infinitive Mood is used after the verbs *shall, will, may, can, must, dare, let, do*, without the sign *to* before it; as, "he can *read*," "he will *talk*."

1. The infinitive without *to* occurs after the transitive verbs *bid, make, see, hear, feel*.

2. It is used after *go*; cp., "*go seek*," which is sometimes changed to "go and seek."

The gerundial infinitive is the infinitive with the preposition *to* (= *for*) before it, used after *nouns* and *adjectives*; as, "a house *to let*," "ready *to go*," "hard *to tell*." Here the *infinitives* are equal to *verbal nouns* with the preposition *for*; as, *to let* = *for letting*, &c.

The gerundial infinitive is also used to mark a purpose; as, "What went ye out *to see*?"

The *gerundial infinitive* is so called because it often corresponds to a *gerund* in Latin.

The simple infinitive must be either in the nominative or objective case; as, "*to err* is human" (nom.); "he began *to err*" (obj.).

§ 113. Participles.

Participles in *-ing* and *-ed* are used as adjectives, and always refer to some noun in the sentence to which they belong. They may be used attributively or predicatively (see p. 45); as, "a *loving* mother;" "a *drunken* man;" "a *bruised* reed."

Participles (*and* Adjectives) with *the* before them are used as nouns; as, "the *living*;" "the *dead*;" "the first *begotten*;" "the Lord's *anointed*."

The Participle is sometimes used *absolutely* with the Nominative case before it; as, "The dawn *appearing*, we rose;" "This *done*, Mazeppa spread his cloak."

The participle is said to be used *absolutely* because it stands in no grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.

The nominative before the participle is called the **Nominative absolute**, because it agrees with no finite verb.

§ 114. Verbal Nouns.

Verbal Nouns in *-ing*. These must not be confounded with present participles in *-ing*.

Verbal nouns are used either as nominatives or objectives.

- (1) The *mending* of the table will not take long.
- (2) The *mending* must be done at once.
- (3) The table wants *mending*.
- (4) The cost of *mending* the table will not be great.

The verbal noun *mending* in (4) seems to govern the noun table : but in older English the preposition *of* came between the verbal noun and the following noun, and the phrase would have stood thus : "The cost *of the mending of the table.*" See example (1), p. 99.

In such phrases as, "The house is *building,*" &c. (= "the house is *a-building*"), the form in *-ing* is a verbal noun.

3. Prepositions.

§ 115. Prepositions are said to govern the objective case (see p. 25.)

Notwithstanding, considering, respecting, &c., were once participles used absolutely (see p. 99). They have now got the force of prepositions.

4. Conjunctions.

§ 116. Conjunctions simply join sentences. They must be carefully distinguished from (1) Adverbs, (2) Prepositions.

Some words, as *save, except, but, ere,* are used both as Conjunctions and Prepositions.

But is used as three parts of speech (see p. 14).

(1) "I cannot *but* believe."

Here *not but* must be taken together as a compound Adverb = *only*.

(2) In "There is no one *but* knows," *but* stands for the older English, *that ne* = that not. It must be parsed as a *Conjunction*.

Cp., "No roof arose, *but* was open to the homeless stranger" = "No roof arose *that* was *not,*" &c.

CHAPTER XIII.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

§ 117. A complete thought put into words is called a **Sentence**.

Sentence (Lat., *sententia*) means judgment, *sense*. A complete sentence makes complete sense. Every sentence expresses either an assertion or a question, command, wish, &c.

To analyse a sentence is to break it up into its separate parts.

§ 118. **Subject and Predicate.**

We can break up every sentence into two parts:—

1. The name of that of which we speak.
2. What is said about the thing spoken of.

The name of that which is spoken of is called the **Subject**.

What is said about the subject is called the **Predicate**.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
Corn	grows.
Rain	falls.
Snow	is white.

Every sentence must contain these two parts. Sometimes the subject is omitted; as, *Go = go* [thou].

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
thou	go

§ 119. The Subject.

As the Subject names something that is spoken of, it must be :—

1. A Noun. (See p. 17 for the various *kinds of nouns*.)
2. Some word or words that may take the place and do the duty of a noun, as a Pronoun or a Sentence.

Examples :—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
<i>Man</i>	is mortal.
<i>He</i>	is erring.
<i>He</i>	is in error.
<i>Erring</i>	is human.
<i>To err</i>	is human.
<i>That he erred</i>	is certain.

An adjective with the definitive article is equivalent to a noun ; as, “*the dead*” = “dead man ;” cp., “*the wise* are respected.”

§ 120. The Enlarged subject. The simple subject is a word in the *Nominative* case. We may call this the *grammatical subject*.

Every noun, however, may have an adjective joined to it to qualify it. The noun with its adjective is called the enlarged subject ; as,

- (1) *Sharp words* give offence.
- (2) *A virtuous man* will be rewarded.

SIMPLE SUBJECT.	ENLARGEMENT.	PREDICATE.
(1) <i>Words</i>	sharp	give offence.
(2) <i>Man</i>	a, virtuous	will be rewarded.

ENLARGED SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
(1) <i>Sharp words</i>	give offence.
(2) <i>A virtuous man</i>	will be rewarded.

§ 121. Instead of adjectives we may use words, phrases, or sentences, to qualify or enlarge the subject. These are called **Attributes**, and may be:—

- (1) A noun or pronoun in the possessive case ; as, “*John’s hat is lost ;*” “*his coat is torn.*”
- (2) An adjective phrase ; as, “*A man of wisdom is respected ;*” “*A walk in the fields is pleasant ;*” “*A desire to learn is to be encouraged.*”
- (3) An adjective sentence ; as, “*John, who is a carpenter, made this box.*”
- (4) A shortened adjective clause, called a *noun in apposition* ; as, “*John, the carpenter, made this box.*”

Participles, whether they come before or after the noun, are adjectives ; as, “*rolling stones gather no moss,*” or “*stones, rolling continually, gather no moss.*”

§ 122. The Predicate.

The **Predicate** is that part of the sentence that makes a statement about the subject. It must therefore contain the chief verb of the sentence. When the predicate is a single word it is a verb ; as, “*Dogs bark.*”

The verb “to be,” when it does not mean *to live*, or *exist*, cannot form a predicate. We must therefore join some word to it to make the predicate ; as, “*the earth is round.*”

Here we predicate of the earth, *roundness*, not existence ; cp., “*The lion is a noble animal.*”

Other verbs, like *become*, *seem*, &c., require another word after them to form the predicate.

§ 123. When the Predicate consists of more than a finite verb it may be called the *Enlarged predicate*; as, "The village master *taught his little school.*"

When the simple predicate is a transitive verb an object must of course be added (see § 59, p. 42).

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.
The village master	taught	<i>his little school.</i>

(1) The object must be a noun, or some word doing duty for a noun. See Subject, p. 102.

Some verbs have two objects, (1) direct, (2) indirect; as,

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.
They	gave	<i>him (indirect) a book (direct).</i>

Others have two direct objects :

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.
They	made	<i>him a king.</i>

Some writers on grammar call the object the *Completion of the Predicate, or the Complement of the Predicate.*

§ 124. The verb may be qualified by an Adverb, or some word or words doing duty for an adverb. This addition to the predicate is called the *Extension of the Predicate or Adverbial qualification of the Predicate*; as,

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	EXTENSION.
He	acted	<i>wisely.</i>
He	acted	<i>in a wise manner.</i>
He	acted	<i>as a wise man should act.</i>

§ 125. The Extensions are nothing else than adverbial adjuncts or qualifications of the Predicate, and they may be put into the same classes as Adverbs (see p. 74), according as they mark the *when*, *where*, *how*, and *why* of the Predicate.

Examples :—

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjuncts.
The village-preacher's modest mansion	rose		near yonder copse (place).
All	met		here (place) on a Sunday-eve (time).
I	knew	him	well (manner).
He	gave	me a book	yesterday (time).
Swallows	appear		spring coming (time).
He	came		to see me (cause).

§ 126. The Compound Sentence.

When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb it is called a Simple sentence. Two

simple sentences may be united together by a co-ordinate conjunction (see p. 78) to form a compound sentence ; as, "*Birds fly and fish swim.*"

Each member of the compound sentence makes complete sense by itself, and neither depends upon the other for its meaning. The second member of a compound sentence is said to be co-ordinate with the first.

(1) Compound sentences may be contracted ; as, "John returned home and James returned home yesterday" = "John and James returned home yesterday."

(2) *And* is often used to join two or more co-ordinate terms belonging to the same word in the sentence ; as, that *new and expensive* toy is spoilt.

SUBJECT.		PREDICATE.
That new and expensive toy		is spoilt.

§ 127. The Complex Sentence.

We have seen that a sentence may do duty for (1) a Noun, (2) an Adjective, (3) an Adverb. As such sentences depend upon another sentence called the *Principal* one, for their full meaning, they are hence called *Subordinate* sentences. Subordinate sentences are of three kinds, *Substantival*, *Adjectival*, and *Adverbial*. The principal sentence, with the subordinate part or parts, is called a **Complex Sentence**.

In the complex sentence, "They lived unknown, till persecution dragged them into fame," the two sentences are :—

(1) "They lived unknown."

(2) "Persecution dragg'd them into fame."

Each sentence as it stands makes complete sense : but the *full meaning* of sentence *two* is not felt before it is joined and related to sentence *one* by the *connecting* word or conjunction *till*.

1. Noun-Sentences.

§ 128. A Substantival or noun sentence does the duty of a *noun*, and may be used as the subject or object of the verb in the principal sentence. It is sometimes introduced by the word *that*; as, (subject) "*That Julius Cæsar invaded Britain* is a well-known fact;" (object) "he tried to prove *that the earth is not round*."

Indirect questions are often *objects*; as, "Tell me *who said so*," "Ask him *why he did so*," "Can he explain *how it is done*."

2. Adjective-Sentences.

§ 129. The Adjectival sentence does the duty of an *adjective* and qualifies some *noun* in the principal sentence.

It is very often joined to the principal sentence by means of a *relative pronoun* or *relative adverb*.

(1) At daybreak on a hill they stood *that overlooked the moor*.

(2) And shall the audacious traitor brave
The presence *where our banners wave*.

In (1) the adjective sentence qualifies the noun *hill* in the principal sentence.

In (2) the adjective sentence qualifies the noun *presence* in the principal sentence. Notice that *where* = in which.

3. Adverb-Sentences.

§ 130. The Adverbial sentence does the duty of an adverb, and modifies some *verb*, *adjective*, or *adverb*, in the principal sentence.

The classification of adverbial sentences is the same as that of adverbs (see p. 74). Adverbial sentences are generally joined to the principal sentence by a *subordinate* conjunction (see p. 78).

Examples :—

“ On Linden, *when the sun was low*,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.”

“ We went *where the lions were kept*.” “ He died *as he had lived*.” “ That man is as good *as he is great*.”
“ He is taller *than his brother*.” “ *The higher he climbs* the more heavily he will fall.” “ The weather was so cold *that I was nearly frozen*.”

§ 131. EXAMPLES.

- (1) "There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech, | His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
That wreathes its old fantastic root so high, | And pore upon the brook that babbles by."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjunct. (Extension of the Predicate.)
(1) There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech, his listless length at noontide would he stretch.	Principal Sentence.	he	would stretch	his listless length	there, at the foot of yonder beech (place) at noontide (time)
(2) That wreathes its old fantastic root so high.	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>beech</i> in sentence (1)	that	wreathes	its old fantastic root	so high (manner)
(3) And [he would] pore upon the brook.	Principal Sentence, Co-ordinate with (1)	he	would pore upon	the brook.	...
(4) That babbles by	Subordinative, Adjective to <i>brook</i> in (4).	that	babbles	...	by (place.)

(2) "If you have seen a cat (which, though it looks so meek, is of the tiger kind), fall on a poor little mouse, you may imagine how the tiger seizes on a deer."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjunct. (Extension of the Predicate)
(1) If you have seen a cat fall on a poor little mouse,	Subordinate, adverbial to <i>imagine</i> in (4).	you	have seen	a cat fall on a poor little mouse	...
(2) which is of the tiger kind,	Subordinate, adjective to <i>cat</i> in (1).	which	is of the tiger kind,
(3) Though it looks so meek and mild.	Subordinate adverbial to predicate in (2).	it	looks so meek
(4) you may imagine.	Principal sentence.	you	may imagine	how the tiger, &c.	
(5) how the tiger seizes on a deer.	Subordinate, noun (object) to <i>imagine</i> in (4).	the tiger	seizes on	a deer.	

(3) "As soon as Sir Roger was acquainted with it, finding that his servant's indiscretion proceeded wholly from affection and good-will, he only told him that he had paid him too high a compliment."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Adjunct. (Extension of the Predicate.)
(1) As soon as Sir Roger was acquainted with it,	Subordinate, adverbial to (3).	Sir Roger	was acquainted with	it	...
(2) that his servant's indiscretion proceeded wholly from affection and good-will,	Subordinate, noun to <i>finding</i> in (3).	his servant's indiscretion	proceeded	...	wholly (man- ner) from affection and good-will (cause)
(3) he (finding, &c.) only told him	Principal.	he	told	him that, &c.	finding (cause) (= because he found) only (manner)
(4) That he had paid him	Subordinate, noun to <i>told</i> in (3).	he	had paid	him too high a compliment.	

§ 132. MODEL OF GRAMMATICAL PARSING.

I. Noun :—1. *Kind* (Common, Proper) ; 2. *Number* ; 3. *Gender* ; 4. *Case* ; 5. *Syntax*.

II. Pronoun :—1. *Kind* (Personal, Demonstrative, &c.) ; 2. *Person* ; 3. *Number* ; 4. *Gender* ; 5. *Case* ; 6. *Syntax*.

III. Adjective :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Degree of Comparison* ; 3. *Function* (attribute of).

IV. Verb :—1. *Kind* (Transitive, Intransitive) ; 2. *Conjugation* (Strong, Weak) ; 3. *Voice* ; 4. *Mood* ; 5. *Tense* ; 6. *Person* ; 7. *Number* ; 8. *Syntax* (agreeing with) ; 9. *Parts* ; (Present, Past, Passive Participle).

V. Adverb :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Degree of Comparison* ; 3. *Function* (qualifying Verb, Adjective, or Adverb).

VI. Preposition :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Function* (joining a Noun to a Noun, &c.).

VII. Conjunction :—1. *Kind* ; 2. *Function* (joining two sentences co-ordinately or subordinately).

EXAMPLE.

My father lived at Blenheim then,
 Yon little stream hard by ;
 They burnt his dwelling to the ground,
 And he was forced to fly.

My ... Pronoun, personal, possessive, 1st person, singular number, common gender, attribute of *father*.

father ... Noun, common, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject of *lived*.

- lived* ... Verb, intransitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, singular number, agreeing with its subject *father*.
Parts : *live, lived, lived*.
- at* ... Preposition, joining *lived* and *Blenheim*.
- Blenheim* ... Noun, proper, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after *at*.
- then* ... Adverb of time, qualifying the verb *lived*.
- Yon* ... Pronoun, demonstrative, used as the attribute of *stream*.
- little* ... Adjective of quality, positive degree, attribute of *stream*.
- stream* ... Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by the compound preposition *hard by*.
- They* ... Pronoun, demonstrative, 3rd person, plural number, common gender, nominative case, subject of *burnt*.
- burnt* ... Verb, transitive, strong conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, plural number, agreeing with its subject *they*. Parts : *burn, burnt, burnt*.
- his* ... Pronoun, demonstrative, possessive, 3rd person, singular number, masculine gender, attribute of *dwelling*.
- dwelling* ... Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by the transitive verb *burnt*.
- to* ... Preposition, joining *burnt* and *ground*.
- the* ... Adjective, demonstrative, attribute of *ground*.
- ground* ... Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition *to*.

- And* ... Conjunction, co-ordinate, joining the two sentences, "They burnt," &c., to "He was forced to fly."
- he* ... Pronoun, demonstrative, 3rd person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, agreeing with the verb *was forced*.
- was forced** ... Verb, transitive, weak, passive voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject *he*. Parts: *force, forced, forced*.
- to fly* ... Verb, intransitive, weak, infinitive mood, indirect object, after *was forced*.

§ 133 Examples of Analysis of Sentences not in a Tabular form.

(See § 131, p. 109.)

- I. Oft at evening close,
Up yonder hill the village murmur rose.

Subject	the village murmur
Predicate	rose
Adverbial Adjunct (or Extension of Predicate)	oft (time) at evening close (time) up yonder hill (place)

* The verbs *was* and *forced* may be parsed separately as follows :

- was* .. Verb, intransitive, strong, auxiliary, indicative mood, past tense, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject *he*.
- forced* .. Verb, transitive, weak, passive participle of the verb *force*, forming with *was* a passive past tense.

2. He saw our ship the day before we came to an anchor, and did believe we were English.

Subject	He
Predicate	saw
Object	our ship
Adverbial Adjunct	the day, &c. (time)

[*Connective; joining the Adverbial sentence, "We came," &c., to the Principal Sentence*] ... before

Subject	we
Predicate	came to an anchor

[*Connective; joining two co-ordinate sentences*] ... and

Subject	[He]
Predicate	did believe
Object	(the following sentence)

[*Connective; joining the Noun sentence, "We were English," to Principal sentence*] ... [that]

Subject	we
Predicate	were English.





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