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# ENGLISH GRAMMAR 

## DR. R. MORRIS

## LITERATURE PRIMERS,

## Edited by J. R. Green, M.A.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR。

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## ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

## BY THE

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## Condon:

MACMILLAN AND CO.
AND NEW YORK.
I893.
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First Edition printed, 1874 .
Reprinted March, July, 1875, 1876; September, November, 1877 ; Second Edition, 1878 ; Reprinted, 1879 ; Tanuary, October, 1880, 1882, 1883, 1884, 1885, 1886 (with alterations), 1888, 1889, 1890, 1891, 1893.

## 890

M877
eng 1886

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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 seconc 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 as German, if not older, so that it would be decidedly wrong to infer that the one language came from or was borrowed from the other. So we are bound 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, \&c., and more remotely to Welsh, Latin, Greek, Russian, Persian, Hindî, \&c.

They have called these kindred tongues the IndoEuropean family of languages.

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

The chief groups in Europe are-
(I) Keltic, containing the Welsh, Irish, Gaelic, Manx, and Armorican languages.*
(2) Romanic 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.

> * Armorican = Brittany.
(5) Teutonic, containing (a) English, Dutch, Flemish.
(b) Icelandic, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian.
(c) Modern German.

## § 3. They have proved-

(I) 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 lowlying shores of the German Ocean and Baltic Sea.
(3) That our language closely resembles Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish, which are called Scandinavian languages.
(4) That it is also, as we have seen, in many ways like the modern German language which was at first spoken only in the highlands of Central and Scuthern Germany, and which is hence caller High-German.
§ 4. History confirms the story told us by those who have studied languages in the way we have described, 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, and the country was called after them England, or "the land of the Angles." We know: too, that there were other Low-German tribes that

Eame 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-
(x) 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 lcst a large number of grammatical endings or inflexions, which we have replaced by using distinct words for them, instead $0^{\circ}$ adopting new endings.

At one time we could translate Lai. " 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, are thoroughly Engliṣ, and 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 ro66 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, which took place in the sixteenth century, 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 archaology, botany, physics, ethics, music, \&c.
5. Miscellaneous words. There are miscellaneous words in our vocabulary from numerous other languages. Our word tea is Chinese ; canoe is American-Indian; yacht is Dutch; and cypher is Arabic, \&c.

## GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS.

§ 6. Language is made up of words.
Grammar is the statement of the facts and rules we have arrived at concerning the words that make up a language. We may examine words in three ways: (i) as to their sounds; (ii) as to their meaning, form, and origin ; (iii) as to the way they are combined with other words to make a statement.
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 relations of the words of a sentence to one another, and the relations of sentences to one another: (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 atterances and formed syllables by themselves. (Fr. voyelle, Lat. vocalis.) Two vowels sometimes unite to form a Diphthong, as $o i$ 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; throatsounds 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-

$$
\mathrm{b} \text { (flat) } \quad \mathrm{p} \text { (sharp): } \mathrm{z} \text { (flat) } \quad \mathrm{s} \text { (sharp) }
$$

## I. Consonant Sounds.

| MUTES. |  |  |  | SPIRANTS. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Flat | Sharp. | Nasal. | Flat. | Sharp. | Trilled |
| Gutturals | $G$ hard | K | NG | ... | H | $\ldots$ |
| Palatals. | I | $\underset{\text { (soft) }}{\mathrm{Ch}}$ | $\ldots$ | Y | ... | $\ldots$ |
| Palatal . Sibilants | \} | $\ldots$ | $\cdots$ | $\underset{\text { (azure) }}{\mathbf{Z h}}$ | $\underset{\text { (sure) }}{\mathrm{Sh}_{1}}$ | R |
| Dental Sibilants | ) | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\underset{\text { (prize) }}{\mathbf{Z}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \text { (mouse) } \end{gathered}$ | L |
| Dentals . | D | T | N | $\underset{\text { (bathe) }}{\mathrm{Dh}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \operatorname{Th} \\ \text { (bath) } \end{gathered}$ | $\ldots$ |
| Labials . | B | P | M | $\underset{W}{V}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{F} \\ \mathrm{~Wh} \text { (which) } \end{gathered}$ | ... |

## II. Vowel Sounds.

$\boldsymbol{a}$ in gnat.
$\boldsymbol{a}$ in pair.
$\boldsymbol{a}$ in fame.
$\boldsymbol{a}$ in father.
$\boldsymbol{a}$ in all.
$a$ in want.
$c$ in met.
$e$ in meet.
$i$ in knit.
0 in not.
0 in note.
00 in fool, rude.
$\infty 0$ in wood, put.
$u$ in nut.

## III. Diphthongs.

$i$ in high.
$a i$ in aisle.
$o i$ in boil.
ou in how, bound. ew in mew.

The pupil must not confound the sound with the name of the letter ; " $b e$ " 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. 17.)
(2) The same sound is represented by different signs; as 0 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 $k w$, and $\mathbf{x}$ by $k s_{n}$
§ io. Occasional Change of Sound in English. When Consonants are 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 weeped, wept.

A flat consonant must be followed by a flat conso nant, and a sharp consonant by a sharp one ; as,
I.-(I) slabs, pronounced slabz.
(2) bathes " bathz.
(3) hugged " hugd. lagged ", lagd. II.-(I) slap-s.
(2) bath-s (gives a bath).
(3) sleeped, pronounced slept. lacked ", lackt.

The original sound of $s$ was sharp, as in mous (See Plurals of Nouns, § 22, p. 2\%.)

## CHAPTER II.

## ETYMOLOGY.

## PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ it. All words are used to tell us something. We arrange them in different Classes according to what they tell us in a SenTENCE.

1. Words used as names are called Nouns ; as, John 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.

A Pronoun differs from a Noun in that it indicates a thing not by its own name, but, either by a perfectly general term, as any, either, one, \&c., or by a term made definite by reference to something else, as $I$, him, who, \&c.
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 tell us about things, of what sort, how many, and which they are.
4. Words used for stating what anything does or is done to, or in what state it exists, are called Verbs;
as, One day John saw a rat come out of a hole ; he found it was hurt; it seemed very old.
5. Words used with Verbs to mark or describe in some way what is done, are called Adverbs; as, The lark soars aloft, and always sings sweetly.

Adverbs most commonly tell us the when, the where, or the how of what is done. They are also much used with Adjectives and other Adverbs to mark their meanings in variou. ways [see Chap. VII. p. 82] ; 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.

Prepusitions 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:-
I. Noun.
2. Pronoun,
3. Adjective.
4. Verb.
5. Adverb.
6. Preposition.
7. Conjunction.
8. Interjection.

## On Parsing.

§ 12. When we state 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 offhand, by merely looking at the 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 ons, 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 $=o n^{\top} v$, 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 1 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 sonjunctions. "Now all is ready, come now, and don't delay a moment." "John was so naughty yesterday, he would climb ahout, so he fell down."
[See English Grammar Exercises, Ex. I.]

## On Changes that Words undergo.

§ 13. Some words alter their form to modify their meaning, that is, to express a new kind of relation to other words ; thus child becomes ( I ) children, to show that more than one are 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.

Only the Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, and some few Adverbs, undergo such a change of form.

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 inflexional endings or suffixes of inflexion.

There are other suffixes not inflexional which are used in word-making, as by the suffix ness we may form the nouns goodness, from the adjective good.
I. The addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a wori often causes a change in the word itself; as, sleep-ed becomes (1) sleep-d, (2) slĕp-t; cp. gold and gild-en, (now gilt) nätion and nătional, goose and gösling.
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 ; $\mathrm{cp} . \vec{e} e r$ for ${ }^{\text {ěver. }}$. 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 always speak of "a she-bear." The word she does exa.tly 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, $l y$ in god-ly is only a corruption of the word like in godlike.

## CHAPTER III.

## NOUNS.

## I. DEFINITION.

§ i5. 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 :
r. Proper.
2. Common.

A Proper Noun is the name of only one person or thing considered individually in the same sense; as, Henry, Loncion, 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.
(I) 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.

## i. Gender of Nouns.

§ 18. Gender is that form of the noun which shows whether we are speaking of male or female beings. 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.

Originally in English, and still in many other languages, the term gender applies to the forms of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, quite independently of their meanings.

In modern English, gender is more a part of derivation than of inflexion.

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. <br> murder-er |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| and | murder-ess. |  |
| sorcer-er | , | sorcer-ess. |

But such words are noze 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 have chiefly to consider then 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 present use is restricted; it cannot be put to every masculine noun.

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

| $\quad$ Masc. |  | Fem. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| executor | and | execu-trix. |
| hero | ," | hero-ine. |
| sultan | ", | sultan-a. |

## § 19. Remains of Older Modes of Marking the Feminine.

r. 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,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Masc. } & \text { Fem. } \\
\text { O. E. bac-ere = baker, } & \text { bac-estre }=\text { baxter. } \\
\text { sang-ere }=\text { sing-er, } & \text { sang-estre }=\text { song-stress. }
\end{array}
$$

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 (for goom) 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.
Laes (= 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,

| he-goat, | she-goat. |
| :--- | :--- |
| man-servant, | maid-servant. |

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

## ii. 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. 19.)

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 $\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{s h}$, soft $\mathbf{c h}$, 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 $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{fe}$, having l or any long vowel (except 00 ) before $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{fe}$, 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 $\mathbf{y}$ (not preceded by a vowel) form the plural by changing $y$ into $i$ and adding es; as,

Singular.
lady,
fly,

Plural.
ladies.
flies.

In such words as soliloquy the $q u(=k w)$ is treated as a consonant and $y$ is changed into $i$ before the addition of the plural sign, as soliloquies, \&c.
§ 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 $-e n$.

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. | cloter |

(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.
formula, datum,
phenomenon, crisis,

Plural.
formulæ.
data.
phenomena.
crises.

## iii. 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. 24.)

The Teacher must first explain the Subject, Predicate, and Object of a
Sentence, before attempting to discuss cases. (See § 118, p. 109)
§ 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 in the case of pronouns. The Objective in English includes-
(1) The direct object after a transitive verb; as, " He struck $J$.mes." "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 inous with the preposition to or for before it; as, "Give John his book." "He bears William a grudge." "Build $m e$ a house." William = to William, Joh $n=$ to John, $m e=$ for $m e$.

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, and is used as an adverbial phrase, was originally a dative case of the simple infinitive. (See Chap. vi. § 65, p. 53.) "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 cize possessor, it is said to be in the Possessive case; a $j_{s}$ "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 rclation by means of an ending or suffix. The difference between the Nominative and Objecirve must be thought out, the sense and positio: being oit 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.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Singular } & \text { man-'s } \\
\text { Plural } & \text { men-'s }
\end{array}
$$

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

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Singular } & \text { boy-'s } & \text { sweep-'s } \\
\text { Plural } & \text { boys' } & \text { sweeps' }
\end{array}
$$

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 17 th century. Apostrophe means "turned away," and is so called because it shows that something has been onnitted; cp . e'en $=$ even. The real omission is the letter e; lord's and lords' were once written and pronounced lord-es.
(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.

| Nominative <br> and <br> Vocative <br> Possessive <br> Objective | Singular. | Plural. | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| man | men | child | children |  |
| man's | men's <br> man <br> men | child's <br> child | children's <br> children |  |


| $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Nominative } \\ \text { and }\end{array}\right\}$ | boy | Plural. boys | Sing. Plural. <br> fox foxes |  | Sing. <br> thief | Plural. <br> thieves |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Vocative |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Possessive | boy | boys' | fox's | foxes' | thief's | es' |
| Objective | boy | boys | fox | foxes | thief | hieves |

## CHAPTER IV.

## ADJECTIVES.

## I. DEFINITION.

§ 33. An Adjective is a word used with a nout, to distinguish or describe the thing named or spoken of.

Adjective (Lat. adjectivum) means "added to."

## II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 34. Scme Adjectives express quality; as, large, tall, rich; others denote quantity or number; as, much, little, fere, one, both; others again 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.

In that case, 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 foi. " 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 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 eer 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 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 several others of the same kind, to show that it possesses the quality in a higher degree than any of them; as, "John is the tall-est boy in his class."
(a) When the Positive ends in a silent $\mathrm{e},-r$ 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, happ $y$, 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.

(1) Late has two comparatives and superlatives; of these, * Old.
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 $c h$ 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, bôt, bet = good (cp. our " to boot"), with change of vowel, as in clder.
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 $-\mathrm{s}(=-\mathrm{se})$ 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 $-\mathrm{ost}(=-\mathrm{est})$.
First is a superlative of fore $=$ front ; cp. fore leg, forehead.
O-ther contains the numeral one (from which the $\mathbf{n}$ has gone), and a comparative ending -ther, cp. whe-ther.
Other once meant second; cp. every other day.

## CHAPTER V．

## PRONOUNS．

## I．DEFINITION．

§ 39．A Pronoun is a word used for a noun． （See Chap．II．§ 2，p．20．）

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．＂＂$I t$＂here stands for＂whether it were night or day．＂

Many Pronouns are used as adjectives：（I）the Possessive cases ；（2）some Demonstratives ；（3）some Relative and Inter－ rogative Pronouns ；（4）some Indefinite Pronouns．

## II．CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUN．\％

§ 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.
Nominative, I Possessive, mine, my Objective (dirret), me Objective (indirect), me

Plural.
we
our, ours us
us

## The Second Person.

| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Nom. and } \\ \text { Vocative, }\end{array}\right\} \quad$ thou | ye, you. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Possessive, thine, thy |  |$\quad$| your, yours. |
| :--- |
| Objective (direct), thee |
| Objective (indirect), thee |

For the explanation of indirect object, see § 29, p. 33.
(1) I was once written ic and ich.
(2) Mine and thine (O.E. min and thin) 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 $a n$ 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. <br>  <br>  <br> Nominative, <br> Masc. <br> Fem. <br> Pouter. |  |  | Plural. |
| :--- | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Possessive, | he | she | it | they |
| Objective (direct), | him | her, hers | its | their, theirs |
| Objective (indirect), him | her | it | them |  |
| her | it | them |  |  |

1. The Pronouns contain endings marking-
(1) Case : s in hi-s; n in mi-ne, thi-ne (all genitive); m in $h i-m ; \mathrm{r}$ in he-r (both dative); r in ou- $r$, you- $\boldsymbol{r}$ thei-r (gen. pl.); $m$ in the-m (dat. pl.). Our-s, you-r-s, \&c., are double genitives.
(2) Gender: t in $\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{t}$ (O.E. hi-t ) once marked the neuter, as in wha-t and tha-t. She was once the feminine of the definite article. In Old English he-o (sometimes written $h e$ ), the feminine of the pronoun he, was used where we now employ she; hence the form her.
Its is quite a modern form. The O.E. was $h i$-s, which is the only form 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, her, hers, its.

Plural: our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs.
(I) Notice the use of mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs, without a following noun ; as, It is mine, not yours.
(2) Notice that myr, thy = Latin meus, tuus, not mei, tui, which must be expressed by of me, of thee.
§ 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.
(I) 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, which was then an adjective; 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 coniunction that, it is used as an adverb. He has such great confidence that he will be sure to succeed $=$ Hc has confidence so great that he will, \&c. The use of such in this way is of late origin.

## 3. Interrogative Pronouns.

§ $4 \%$. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions: Who? which? what?

Who is thus declined:
\(\left.\begin{array}{ll}Nom., \& who <br>
Poss., \& whose <br>
Obj. (direct), \& \begin{array}{l}whom <br>
,, <br>
(indirect), <br>

whom\end{array}\end{array}\right\}\)| Masc. and Fem. |
| :--- |
| Sing. and Plural. |

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

For the s in whose and the m in whom, see p .42.
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. 43.
Who-se is the possessive of what as well as of who; cp. his, once the possessive of he and $i t$.
§ 48. Compound Interrogatives 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.

[^0]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 can 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, whoever, whichever, whatever; whosoever, zehatsoever, whichsoever.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { where-of }=\text { of which, of what. } \\
& \text { where-to }=\text { to which, to what. } \\
& \text { where-by }=\text { by which, by what. } \\
& \text { there-of }=\text { of that. } \\
& \text { \&c. } \& \text { \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

§ 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. 45 .

## 5. Indefinite Pronouns,

§ 54. The Indefinite Pronouns do not point out and particularise 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 (in "one says," \&c.) is the same word as the numeral one. The Fr. on is the Latin homo.

None is made up of ne $=n o t$, 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 $\S 38$, p. 39 .

O-ther, one of two, see $\S 38$, p. 39.
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, naught.

Else in relzat else and something else is an in definite pronoun, being the genitive of an old root el, meaning other.
When else means otherwise it is a conjunction; when ir means besides it is an adverb.

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. A Verb is a word that states or asserts what a thing does or is done to, or in what state it exists ; as, "the fire burns," "John is beaten," "the child sleeps," " the fun begins."

## 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; 2s "t 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 rivet 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 fies his kite "=" he causes his kite to fly."

Some transitive verbs seem to be used reflexively; as, "he turned aside," originally, " 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."
$\S 57$. 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 ( I ), 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.
§ 6r. There are three principal moods: (i) 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 keepest by their want of inflexion. But the subjunctive once had its own endings, as in Latin. The subjunctive form of the verb is now seldon 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. 73.)
§ 64. The Imperative Mood is that form for 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 § 61, p. 51), 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 case of the simple infinitive.

It may be used ( I ) with a noun, as an adjective phrase, in " a house to let" $=$ a house for letting; (2) with an adjective, as an adverbial phrase in "easy to find" = easy for finding. It is sometimes used with a verb to mark purpose, and is an adverbial phrase; as, he came to see me $=$ he came for the purpose of seeing me. (See § II2, p. 106.)
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 eed, -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 kunting. (See Syntax, p. 100.)

The form in -ing is called the Present participle; the forms in eed 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
I. Present.
2. Past.
3. Future.

There are, therefore, three Tenses.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 1. Present, } & \text { I speak. } \\
\text { 2. Past, } & \text { I spoke. } \\
\text { 3. Future, } & \text { I shall speak. } \\
& \text { You will speak. } \\
& \text { He will speak. }
\end{array}
$$

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.
(4) Perfect or progressive.

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

Each tense has therefore four forms, according to the state of the action, as in the following scheme :
TABLE OF TENSES.


Notice that only the present and past tenses of the active voice, indicative mood, are inflected tenses.
§ 57. An Emphatic form of the present and past tenses may be made by using do.

| Present, | I do love. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Past, | I did love. |

But it is not emphatic when used in interrogative and negative sentences, but an auxiliary verb.

Do you hear? Did you listen? I do not hear. I did not listen. . (See note on Do, p. 80.)

## 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 writes,"
> Plural: " they write."

There are three persons (as in the pronouns, see § $4 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{p} .4^{\mathrm{I}}$ ), 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. (See § 77, p. 78.)

## 5. Conjugation.

§ 69. Verbs may be divided into two kinds, or conjugations, according to the form of their past tense.
(1) Those that make their past tense by -d or -t ; as,

$$
\begin{array}{rr}
\text { Present, I love. } & \text { Past, I lov- } d . \\
\text { I sleep. } & \text { I slep- } t .
\end{array}
$$

(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 $t o l-d$, the past tense of $t e l l$, is a waak 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, o |
| 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 [hangen] |
| beat | beat | beaten |

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.

* Forms marked thus* are old.


## CLASS II.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i | $a, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{ou}$ | $u, 0 u$ |
| begin | began | begun |
| cling | clung, clang* | clung |
| drink | drank | drunk |
| rum | 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 | slunk |
| 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 | 0 | 0 |
| help | holp* | holpen* |
| melt | molt* | molten |
| swell | $\ldots$ | swollen |
| burst [berste]* | burst [barst]* | burst [bursten]* |

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

## CLASS III.

| Pres. ea | Past. <br> (o) a | Pass. Part. a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (i) bear | bore, bare* | born, borne |
| break | broke, brake* | broken |
| shear |  | shorn |
| speak | spoke, spake* | spoken |
| steal | stole, stale* | stolen |
| tear | tore, tare* | torn |
| (2) come | came | come |
| Pres i | $\begin{gathered} \text { CLASS IV. } \\ \text { Past. } \\ \text { a } \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{\text { i }}{\text { Pass. Part. }}$ |
| (I) bid | bade, bid | bidden, bid |
| give | gave | given |
| lie | lay | lain, lien* |
| sit | sat | sat [siten]* |
| ea, (ee), e | a, (0) | ea, (ee), o |
| (2) eat | ate | eaten |
| get | got, gat* | got, gotten* |
| tread | trod | trodden, trod |
| see | saw | seen |
| weave | wove | woven |
| ... | quoth | ... |
| ... | was | ... |
|  | CLASS V. |  |
| Pres. a | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Past. } \\ & \mathbf{o}, \mathbf{o o}, \mathbf{e} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pass. Part. } \\ & \text { a (o) } \end{aligned}$ |
| awake | awoke | awoke |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| lade | ... | laden |
| grave |  | graven |
| stand | stood | stood [standen] ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| 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 VI.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i (long) | 0 | 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 |

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

## CLASS VII.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| ee, oo | o | o |
| freeze | froze | frozen |
| seethe | sod $^{*}$ | sodden, sod* |
| cleave | clove | cloven |
| choose | chose | chosen |
| lose | $\ldots$ | lorn* |
| shoot | shot | shot, shotten* |
| fly | flew | flown |

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

* Old.


## § 71. Classification of Weak Verbs.

We may divide the weak verbs roughly into two classes.

1. Those that have $-e d$, $-d$, or $-\frac{1}{2}$ in the past tense and passive participle.
2. Those that have lost the $-d$ or $-t$ in the past tense and passive participle.

## Class 1.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dragged = dragd. } \\
& \text { locked = lockt. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(1) This $-d$ 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. 17), 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. 24.)
(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.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { feed, fed, fed. } \\
& \& \mathrm{cc} . \& \mathrm{c} . \quad \& \mathrm{c} .
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Others ending in $l d$ or $n d$ change the $d$ into $t$ in the past tense and passive participle.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { build, built, built. } \\
& \text { send, sent, sent. } \\
& \& c . \quad \& c . \quad \& c .
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { rid, rid, rid. } \\
& \text { set, set, set. } \\
& \text { \&c. \&c. \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

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

| Past Tense. | Pass. Part. |
| :--- | :--- |
| fed-de | fed-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, smitten.

Present Tense.
Singular.

Indicative Mood.
r. I smite
2. Thou smit-est
3. He smite-s, smite-th

## Plural.

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

Subjunctive Mood
I. I smite
2. Thou smite
3. He smite

Past Tense.
Singular.
I. I smote
2. Thou smot-est
3. He smote
r. I smote
2. Thou smote
3. He smote

Plural.
I. We smote
2. Ye, you smote
3. They smote
I. We smote
2. Ye, you: smote
3. They smote

Imperative Mood.
Singular-Smite (thou). Plural-Smite (ye, yous).
Infinitive, to smite. Present Participle, smit-ing. Passive Participle, smitt-en.

## § 73. II. WEAK CONJUGATION.

## To Lift.

Pres. ift. Past, lift-ed. Pass. Participle, lift-ed. Present Tense.

Singular.

Indicative Mood.
I. I lift
2. Thou lift-est
3. He lift-s (-th)

Plural.
ェ. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

Subjunctive Mood.
I. I lift
2. Thou lift
3. He lift

Past Tense. Singular.

1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift
4. I lift-ed
5. Thou lift-ed-st
6. He lift-ed
7. I lift-ed
8. Thou lift-ea
9. He lift-ed

## Plural.

1. We lift-ed
2. Ye, you lift-ed
3. They lift-ed
4. We lift-ed.
5. Ye, you lift-ed
6. They lift-ea'

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 $w e a k$; those marked thus * are archaic.


[^1]| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pres. } \\ & \text { draw } \end{aligned}$ | Past. drew | Pass. Part. drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| drink | drank | drunk, drunken |
| drive 10.0 | drove, drave* | driven |
| eat | ate | eaten |
| fall | fell | fallen |
| fight | fought | fought, foughten* |
| find ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | found | found |
| fling | flung, flang* | flung |
| fly | flew | flown |
| forbear | forbore | forborne |
| forget | forgot | forgotten |
|  | forgat* | forgot* |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| freeze | froze | frozen |
| - 1 | ... | frorn, frore* |
| 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* | ... |
| 1015 | heaved | heaved |
| help | Nats | holpen* |
|  | helped | helped |
| hew | , | hewn |
| tomer | hewed | hewed |
| hold 6-0 | held | held, holden* |
| know | knew | known |
| lade | - ... | laden, loaden* |
|  | laded | laded |
| lie | lay | lain, lien* |


| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lose | $\ldots$ | lorn, forlorn |
|  | lost | lost |
| melt |  | molten |
|  | melled | melted |
| mow | ... | mown |
|  | mowed | mowed |
| ride | rode, rid* | ridden, rid* |
| ring | rang, rung* | rung |
| rise | rose | risen |
| rive |  | riven |
|  | rived | rived |
| run | ran | run |
| see | saw | seen |
| seethe | sod | sodden, sod* |
|  | seethed | seethed |
| shake | shook | shaken |
| shave | shaved | shaven, shaved |
| shear | sheared, shore* | shorn, sheared |
| shine | shone | shone |
|  | shined | 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 | .. | sown |
|  | sowed | sowed |
| speak | spoke, spake* | spoken |
| spin | spun, span* | spun |
| spring | sprung, sprang* | sprung |


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

$\dagger$ Originally Weak. The past tenses of dig and stick were formerly weak, so were the passive participles of hide, rot, show, strew, sazu.

## § 75. Alphabetical List of Weak Verbs apparently Irregular.

## Class I.

Pres
bereave
beseech
bring
burn
buy
catch
cleave (split)
creep
deal
dream
dwell
feel
flee
have
hide
keep
kneel
lay
lean
learn
leap
leave
lose
make
mean
pay

Past.
bereft
bereaved*
besought
brought
burnt
bought
caught
cleft, clave*
crept
dealt
dreamt
dreamed
dwelt
felt
fled
had
hid
kept
knelt
laid
leant
leaned
learnt
learned
leapt
left
lost
made
meant
paid

Pass. Part.
bereft
bereaved*
besought
brought
burnt
bought
caught
cleft
crept
dealt
dreamt
dreamed
dwelt
felt
fled
had
hid, hidden
kept
knelt
laid
leant
leaned
learnt
learned
leapt
left
lost
made
meant
paid

[^2]| vi.] | LIST | OF WEAK |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | VERBS. |
| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| pen | pent | pent |
|  | penned | 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 |
| siay | staid | staid, stayed* |
| sweep | swept | swept |
| teach | taught | taught |
| tell | told | told |
| think | thought | thought |
| weep | wept | wept |
| work | wrought | wrought |
|  | worked | worked |

## Class II.

Pres.
bend
bleed
breed
build
cast
clothe
cost
cut

Past.
bent
bled
bred
built
cast
clad
clothed
cost
cut

Pass. Part.
bent
bended
bled
bred
built
cast
clad
clothed
cost
cut

* Stayed is used in the English Bible
$\dagger$ Rotten and wrought are now used as adjectives, and not as passive participles ; cp. wrought iron, rotten wood.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| feed | fed | fed |
| gild | gilt | gilt |
|  | gilded | gilded |
| gird | girt | girt |
| [wend] | went | see p. 58 |
| hit | hit | hit |
| hurt | hurt | hurt |
| knit | knit | knit |
| lead | led | led |
| let | let | let |
| light | İt | iit |
|  | 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 |

[^3]
## § 76. ANOMALOUS VERBS.

To Be.

## Indicative Mood.

## Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I abm
2. Thou art
3. He is

Plural.

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

Past Tense.
Singular.
I. I was
2. Thou was-t
3. He was

Plural.

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

Subjunctive Mood.

## Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I be
2. Thou be
3. He be

Plural.
r. We be
2. Ye, you be
3. They be
Past Tense.

Singular.
I. I were
2. Thou were,* wer-i
3. He were

Plural.
r. We were
2. Ye, you were
3. They were

## Imperative Mood.

Singular-be (thou). Plural-be (ye, you).
Infinitive, to be. Present Participle, be-ing. Passive Participle, bee- $n$.

Can.
Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.
r. I can
2. Thou can-st
3. He can

Plural.
r. We can
2. Ye, you can
3. They can

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I coụ-l-d
2. Thou cou-l- $d$-st
3. He cou-l-d

Plural.

1. We cou-l-d
2. Ye, you cou-l-d
3. They cou-l-d

Shall.
Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall
2. Thou shal-t
3. He shall

1 lural.

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

Past.
I. I shoul-d
2. Thou shoul- $d$-st
3. He shoul-d

Singular.

Plural.

1. We shoul-d
2. Ye, you shoul-d
3. They shoul-d

## Will.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I will
2. Thou wil-t
3. He will

Singular.

1. I woul- $d$
2. Thou woul- $d$-st
3. He woul-d

Plural.
r. We woul-d
2. Ye, you woul-d
3. They woul-d

## May.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may
2. Thou may-est may-st
3. He may

Plural.
I. We may
2. Ye, you may
3. They may

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I migh- $\ell$
2. Thou migh- $t$-est, migh- $t$-st
3. He migh-t

Plural.

1. We migh- $t$
2. Ye, you migh-t
3. They migh-t

## Owe.

## Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I owe
2. Thou owe-st
3. He owe-s

Plural.

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

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I ough- $t$
2. Thou ough-t-est
3. He ough- $t$

Plural.
r. We ough- $t$
2. Ye, you ough- $t$
3. They ough-t

## Dare.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I dare
2. Thou dar-est, dar-st 3. He dare, dare-s

Plural.
I. We dare
2. Ye, you dare
3. They dare

Past Tense.

Singular.
I. I durs- $t$

2 Thou durs-t
3. He durs-t

Plural.

1. We durs- $t$
2. Ye, you durs- $t$
3. They durs- $t$

## Have.

Present Tense.

Singular

1. I have
2. Thou ha-st
3. He ha-s, ha-th

Plural.

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

Past Tense.
Singular.

1. I ha-d
2. Thou ha-d-st
3. He ha-d

Plural.

1. We ha-d
2. Ye, you ha-d
3. They ha-d

Imperative Mood.
Singular-have (thou). Plural-have (ye, you).
Infinitive, to have. Present Participle, hav-ing. Passive Participle, ha-d.

## Do.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I do
2. Thou do-st, do-est
3. He doe-s, do-th, do-eth

Plural.
I. We do
2. Ye, you do
3. They do

Past Tense.
Singular。
I. I did
2. Thou did-st didd-est
3. He did

Plural.

1. We did
2. Ye, you 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.

## i. Be,

1. Am, art, is, are, are formed from an old root as to be. The m in am is identical with the pronoun me; cp. Sanskrit (1) $a s-m i$, (2) $a-s i$, (3) $a s-t i$, \&c.
2. WWas 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 17 th 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
4. When the verb is = exists, lives, it is not to be parsed as an auxiliary verb (see § 66, p. 54).

## 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.

r. "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 sense. 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. mag.

## 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 sense.

## 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.
Oxwe 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 Englisb Bible. To wit is the old dative infinitive, now used as an adver 3 .

## 1о. Have.

Hast $=$ hav'st $=$ havest.
Hath = hav'th = haveth.
Has $=$ hav's $=$ haves.
$\mathrm{Had}=h a v ' d=$ haved.

## II. Do.

Did is not a weak form, like had, but a strong verb, being originally the reduplicated perfect tense of do (cp. Lat. dedi). Notice also the passive participle done.
It is used as (I) a tense auxiliary in negative and interrogative sentences; as, "I do not beliere 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 tadies, p. 55 and pp. 64; 65, 73-7?.

## CHAPTER VII.

## ADVERBS.

## I. DEFINITION.

§ 79. Words used with Verbs to mark or describe in some way what is done, are called Adverbs ; as, The lark soars aloft, and always sings sweetly.

Adverbs most commonly tell us the when, the where, or the how of what is done. They are also much used with Adjectives and other Adverbs to mark their meanings in various ways; as, My father is quite well; he is very seldom ill; he does not like to take 100 much medicine.
Briefly, we may say that an Adverb is a word that modifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb. (See Chap. II. §5, p. 21.)

## 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? (r) Well, ill, badly, so, thus. Degree, quality; (2) little, much, quite, very. Affirmation, negation ; (3) yes, indeed, no, not.

Yes and no, originally adverbs, have become mere exclamations or interjections.
4. Adverbs of cause and effect. Why? therefore, thence, wherefore, whence, \&c.

## III. INFLEXIONS.

Most Adverbs are compared by-more and mos!.
See Adjectives, § 38, p. 38.
§ 80. Irregular Comparison of Adverbs.

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

§ 8r. Adverbs are formed from other parts of speech.
I. 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:
whe-re, whe-n, whence; why, the-re, the-n, \&c., he-re, \&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, by turns ; cp. at last, for once, meanzohile ( $=$ in the mean while).

## CHAPTER VIII.

## PREPOSITIONS.

I. DEFINITION.
§ 82. Prepositions join words to mark certain relations. (See p. 2r.)

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.
(4) to an adverb; $I$ have tricked him sufficiently for my purpose.
(5) to an interjection ; Alas, for me !

## II. CLASSIFICATION.

§ 83. Prepositions are either simple or compound.

1. Simple:
at, by, for, in, of, off, out, to, up, with, on.
Off is merely a variant of the word of ; cp. to and too.

## 2. Compound :

(1) af-ter, ov-er, un-der, throu-gh, $b$-ut, $a$-b-out, a-b-ove, un-to, in-to, is-hind, with-in, out of: fro-m, for-in, out-side, in-side.
(2) a-mong, $a$-gain, $a$-head, be-side, be-yond, a-ihwart, be-twixt, a-round, a-long.
(3) From verbs (participles): owing to, notzithstanding, except, save.
(4) We have many adverbial phrases ; as, instead of, close to, because of, on account of, in spite of ( $=$ in despite of).
(5) Round=around; dozen $=a$-down ( $=$ of dowe, i.e. off or from the hill).

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

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

Over and above contain the root ov $=$ up; but is made up of $b e=b y$ and $u t=o u t$.

The $a$ in $a$-mong, $a$-head, \&c. $=o n ; b e$ in $b e-s i d e, \& \mathrm{c} .=b y$.

## CHAPTER IX. CONJUNCTIONS.

## I. DEFINITION.

§ 84. Conjunctions join sentences. (See § 7, p. 21.)

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, also, moreover, besides (see § 126, p. I13).
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, whether, till, ere, hence, while, than, so, \&c. (See § 130, p. Ir6).

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, neverthẻless, however, notwithstanding, whereas, provided that.

See Analysis of Sentences, p. 109.

## 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, goodbye! = God be with you; marry! = the Virgin Mary; wassail=was (be) hate (healthy); cp. hail! all hail! welcome! adieu!

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

* The dative is preserved in some old expressions after interjections; as, Ah me! Well is him! Alas the day!


## 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 called a derivative from man.
§ 89. Particles placed before the root are calleci 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.*
§ 9r. 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.

[^4]
## English Suffixes. <br> § 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- $t h$, 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.
-ock; hill-ock, bull-ock.
§ 94. II. ADJECTIVES.
-ed (like, having): wretch-ed, boot-ed, letter-ed.
-en (made of ) : gold-en, wood-en.

* Old.
-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, likewise.
-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. 83.),

## § 96. IV. VERBS.

1. Frequentative:
$-\mathrm{k}:$ 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 Intran. sitive Verbs by vowel-change :

| Intransitive. | Transitive. |
| :---: | :---: |
| fall | fell, |
| sit | set, |
| rise, | raise, |
| \&c. | $\& c$. |

## § 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.

I. 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.

r. Noun + Adjective: sky-blue, blood-red, footsore. sea-sick, heart-rending, heart-broken.
2. Adjective + Noun : barefoot.
3. Adjective + Adjective : blue-green, red-hot, neremade, fair-haired, six-sided.

## III. VERB COMPOUNDS.

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

For Adverb Compounds, see p. 83.

## § 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.
$\mathrm{Be}-(b y)$ : (r) It forms transitive and intensitive verbs : $b e$-speak, $b e$-think, $b e$-dew, $b e$-smear.
(2) It forms a part of some nouns, adverbs, and prepositions : $b e$-half, $b e$-quest, $b e$-low, $b e$-neath, $b e$-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-: $i n$-come, $i n$-land, $i n$-lay, $i n$-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, to) : over-eating, over-flow. over-hear, over-coat.

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

Un- (not) : un-true, $u n$-truth, $u n$-wise.
Un- (back) : un-do, un-bolt, un-tie.
Under- : under-go, under-mine, under-hand, underling, under-neath.

Up-: $u p$-hold, $u p$-shot, $u p$-right, $u p$-ward, $u p$-on.
With- (against, back) : with-draw, with-hold.

## § 99. Latin and French Suffixes.

## I. NOUNS.

## 1. 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.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text {-our, -er } \\ \text {-or } \\ \text {-tor } \\ \text {-sor }\end{array}\right\}$
emper-or, govern-or, preach-er, robber, act-or, doct-or.
-trix (fem.) : execu-trix, testa-trix.
-ess : (fem.) : lion-ess, song-str-ess.
-ive : capt-ive, fugit-ive.
-iff : cait-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. 89) :
-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, -som : 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, nourishment.
-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, surgery, witch-ery.
-tude : longi-tude, multi-tude.
-ty : boun-ty, cruel-ty, frail-ty.
-ure : creat-ure, vest-ure, forfeit-ure.
$-\mathrm{y}:$ 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: ten-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, favourable, laugh-able, eat-able (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- $f y$, signi- $f y$, simpli- $f y$.

## § roo. 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.
§ ior. Latin and French Prefixes.
A-, ab-, abs- (away, from) ; ab-normal, ab-dicate, $a b s$-tract, $a b s$-tain, $a$-vert, $a$-d-vance, $\& c$.

Ad- (to) :
By assimilation $a d$ becomes $a c-$-, af-, $a g^{\circ}$-, al-, am-, an-, ap., $a r-$, as-, at-
$a d$-join, $a d$-verb, $a c$-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

[^5]Com-, con-, co- (with) :
By assimilation, col-, com-, cor-
com-mand, con-tend, co-eternal, col-lect, cor-rect.
Contra-, Counter- (against) : contra-dict, counteract, counter-feit.

De- (down) : de-part, de-scend, de-form.
Dis-, di- (asunder, not) : dis-cord, dis-honour, displease, 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, $i l$-lumine, en-rich, en-dear, em-balm, embolden.

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, $o p$-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, pronoun.

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) : dy's-peptic, $d y$ s-entry.
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, liyper. bolical.

Hypo- (under) : hypo-crite, hypo-thesis.
Meta- (after, across, change) : meta-morphosis, met-aphor, met-onymy.

Mono- (singie, 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, svn-tax,'sym-pathy, sy\%. lable.

## CHAPTER XII.

## SYNTAX.

§ ro3. 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 fies."
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. 21.)
The first, which shows the relation of the Predicate to its subject, is called Predicative combination. (See § 118 , p. 109.)

The second is called Attributive combination. (See p. III, for the different modes of expressing an attribute.)
The third is called Objective combination. (See pp. 5o, 112.)

The fourth is called Adverbial combination. (See pp. 82, 112, 116 .)
§ 104. 1. Verb and Subject. (See p. ir2.)

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

| I think | We think <br> Thou think-est |
| :--- | :--- |
| You think <br> He think-s | They think |

The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.
$I$ thinks would be wrong, because $I$ is 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,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "He is a king." } \\
& \text { "The king is a child." }
\end{aligned}
$$

Some verbs are used like the verb to be in this respect; as, "He becante 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. 47). 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, as, "The jury were dismissed." "The muititude 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,
(I) The jury (each of them) were dismissed.
(2) The council (as one body) has chosen its president.

## § 105. 2. Adjective and Noun.

r. 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. 1or.)
2. A noun (or pronoun) used as an attribute to aiother noun, signifying the same thing, is said to be in apposition with it; as, "William the Norman conquered England" = "The Norman William conquered England."
(1) 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. 34.)
> "Eye of nerest 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. I.

## § го6. 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. 33.)
2. The verbs teach, ask, forgive, tell, \&c., take two Objectives, one of a person and the other of a thing ; as, "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 intran sitive verbs to express ( I ) time-how long? (2) spacehow 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 $m e$; it irks $m e$; it recks $m e$; 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. 33.) "He built me a house." "Give me my book."

The Indirect object is used with the impersonal verbs, become, behove, please, likes, beseem, \&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 verb worth; as, " Woe worth (= be to) the day!" In imitation of this we have, "Woe is me!" "Well is him!"

The words like (and unlike), nigh, near, next, are followeả 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 adjective 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, weary 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.; in such sentences 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. 82), 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 dawened we set out."
"When the day dazened we set out."
(See § 130, p. 116.)

## MISCELLANEOUS RULES.

## 1. Pronouns.

§ ro8. 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 antecedent. " 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 relation to the verb 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.
§ rog. 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.

§ iro. The Indicative Mood states a positive fact, and is used in simple assertions and questions. (See p. 43.)
§ mir. The Subjunctive Mood is used to express a doubt, supposition, opinion. The inflected subjunctive has nearly cone 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. 51.)

## § i12. 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."
I. 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 the nominative (i.e. subject) or object; as, "To err is human" "He began to err" (object).

## § 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. 53) ; as, "A loving mother." " His father was loving and kind to him." "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;" a noun, or pronoun in "This done, Mazeppa spread his cloak." "She dying the fortune returned to her family."

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

The noun or pronoun before the participle is said to be used absolutely because it does not stand as the subject or object of any finite verb. This is called the Nominative absolute.

## § ir4. Verbal Nouns.

Verbal Nouns in -ing. These must not be confounded with the 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 net De 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. 10\%.)

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. 33).

Notwithstanding, considering, respecting, \&c., were once participles used absolutely (see § 29, p. 107). They have now got the force of prepositions.

## 4. Conjunctions.

§ ir6. 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. 22).
(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.

§ ri\%. A complete thought put into words is called a Sentence.

Sentence (Lat. sententia) is the declaration of a judgment. 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 :
(I) The name of that of which an assertion is made.
(2) What is asserted about the thing spoken of, or named.
The name of that of which an assertion or statement is made 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, $G o=g o$ [thou].

Subject.
Thou

Predicate. go.

## § irg. The Subject.

As the Subject names something that is spoken of, it must be-
(1) A Noun. (See p. 25 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. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Man | is mortal. |
| $H e$ | is erring. |
| $H e$ | is in error. |
| Erring | is human. |
| To err | is human. |
| That he erred | is certain. |

The dead are happy. The slipping of a stone ruined all.
§ I20. The Enlarged subject. The simple subject is a single noun (or its equivalent) in the Nominative case.

Every noun, however, may have an adjective joined to it to qualify it. The subject noun with its adjective is called the enlarged subject ; as,
(1) Sharp words
give offence.
(3) A virtuous man
will be rewarded.

Simple Subject. Enlargement.

| (1) Words | sharp | give offence. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| (2) Man | a, virtuous | will he rewarded. |

Enlarged Subject,
(1) Sharp words
(2) A virtuous man

Predicate.
give offence. will be rewarded.
§ 12 I . 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 mak^ 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. (See pp. IOI, 102.)
§ 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 §56, p. 50.)

Subject.
Predicate. Object. The village master | taught | his little school.
(1) The object must be a noun, or some word doing duty for a noun. It may have attributes joined to it. (See Subject, p. ifo.)

Some verbs have two objects, (1) direct, (2) indirect ; as, Subject. Predicate. Object. They | gave | him (indirect) abook (direct).
Others have two direct objects :

| Subject. <br> They$\quad$Predicate. <br> made | Object. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

In some sentences we have a secondary verbal object, or compound object :

| Subjrct. | Predicatr. |
| :--- | :--- |
| I | heard |
| We | saw |
| I | heard |
| We | saw |

Овјест.
her sing. him run.
him singing a song. her cutting a rose.

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 (phrase or sentence) doing duty for an adverb. This addition to the predicate is called the Adverbial qualification of the Predicate, or Adverbial adjunct.

Some grammarians prefer the term Extension of the Predicate instead of Adverbial adjunct.

Subject.
He
He
He

Predicate. acted acted acted

Ádverbial Adjunct. wisely. in a wise manner. as a wise man should act.
§ 125. The Adverbial Adjuncts (or 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. 82), according as they mark the when, where, how, and why of the Predicate.

Examples:

| Subject. | Predicate. | Object. | Adverbial Adjuncts. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The village- <br> preacher's modest <br> mansion | rose |  | near yonder copse <br> (place). |
| All | met |  | here (place) on a <br> Sunday-eve <br> (time). |
| I | knew | him | well (manner). |
| He | me (indirect) <br> a book <br> (direct) | yesterday (time). <br> Swallows | appear |

## § 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 coordinate conjunction (see p. 86) 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. 1 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 (2) is not felt before it is joined and related to sentence (1) 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 Casar 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. 82). Adverbial sentences are generally joined to the principal sentence by a subordinate conjunction (see p. 86).

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."

A subordinate member of a complex sentence may stand in the place of principal to some other subordinate sentence, that modifies one of its elements. (See (2), p. 11 ${ }^{\text {®. }}$ )
§ i31. Examples.
(1) "There, at the foot of yonder nodiding veech, |His listless length at noontide wonld 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. <br> (Extension of the <br> Predicate.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) There, at the <br> foot of yonder <br> nodding beech, his <br> listless length at <br> noontide would he <br> stretch. | Principal Sentence. | he | would <br> stretch | there, at the <br> his listless <br> length <br> foot of yonder <br> beech (place) <br> at noontide <br> (time). |  |
| (2) That wreathes <br> its old fantastic <br> root so high. | Subordinate, Ad- <br> jective to beech in <br> sentence (I). | that | wreathes | its old fantastic <br> root | so high <br> (manner). |
| (3) And [he would] <br> pore upon the brook. | Principal Sentence, <br> Co-ordinate with <br> (I). | he | would <br> pore <br> upon | the brook. | ... |
| (4) That babbles by. | Subordinative, | that | babbles | ... | by (place). |

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(2) " If you have seen a cat (which, though it looks so meek, is of the tiger kind), fall onn

| Sentence. | Kind of Sentence. | Subject. | Predicate. | Object. | Adverbial <br> Adjuncts <br> (Extension of <br> the Predicate.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) If you have <br> seen a cat fall on a <br> poor little mouse, | Subordinate, ad-. <br> verbial to imagine <br> in (4). | you | have seen | a cat fall on a <br> poor little <br> mouse. | $\ldots$ |
| (2) which is of the <br> tiger kind, | Subordinate, ad- <br> jective to cat in (I). | which | is of the tiger <br> kind | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| (3) though <br> it looks so meek, | Subordinate <br> adverbial to pre- <br> dicate in (2). | it | looks so meek | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| (4) you may <br> imagine | Principal <br> sentence. | you | may imagine | how the <br> tiger, \&c. | $\ldots$ |
| (5) how the tiger <br> seizes on a deer. | Subordinate, noun <br> (object) to imagine <br> in (4). | the tiger | seizes on | a deer. | $\ldots$ |

(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) Assoon as Sir Roger was acquainted with it, | Subordinate, adverbial to (3). | Sir Roger | $\begin{aligned} & \text { was } \\ & \text { acquainted } \\ & \text { with } \end{aligned}$ | it | $\cdots$ |
| (2) that his servant's indiscretion proceeded wholly from affection and good-will, | Subordinate, noun to finding in (3). | his servant's indiscretion. | proceeded | -.. | wholly (manner) 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 told 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, or predicate of).
IV. Verb:-I. 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 :-ı. 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, ist person, singular number, common gender, attribute of father.
father ... Noun, common, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject of lived.
lived
$a \dot{d}$
Blenheim
then
the
ground

Yon ... Adjective, demonstrative, used as the attribute of stream.
little $\quad .$. Adjective of quality, positive degree, attribute of stream.
stream ... Noun, common, singular number, neuter
gender, objective case, governed by the compound preposition hard by.
hard-by $\quad .$. Preposition, joining lived and stream.
They ... Pronoun, demonstrative, 3rd person, plural
number, common gender, nominative case, subject of burnt.
burnt ... Verb, transitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3 rd person, plural number, agreeing with its subject they. Parts : burn, burnt, burnt.
his $\quad .$. Pronoun, demonstrative, possessive, 3 rd person, singular number, masculine gender, attribute of dwelling.
dzelling ... Noun, common, singular number, neuter Noun, common, singular number, neuter
gender, objective case, governed by the transitive verb burnt.
to ... Preposition, joining burnt and ground.
Verb, intransitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3 rd person, singular number, agreeing with its subject father. Parts: live, lived, lived.
... Preposition, joining lived and Blenheim.
Noun, proper, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after at.
... Adverb of time, qualifying the verb lived. attribute of dwelling. Adjective, demonstrative, attribute of ground. Noun, common, singularnumber, neutergender, objective case, after the preposition to.

And $\quad .$. Conjunction, co-ordinate, joining the two sentences, "They burnt," \&c., to " He was forced to fly."
he $\quad .$. 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, 3 rd 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.

$$
\text { (See § I } 31, \text { p. } 117 .)
$$

I. My worthy friend, Sir Roger, when we are talking of the malice of parties, very frequently tells us an accident that happened when he was a school-boy.

## A.

My worthy friend, Sir Roger, very frequently tells us an accident.

[^6]B.
(when) we are talking of the malice of parties

## C.

that happened
D.
(when) he was a school-boy.
A. Principal sentence.
B. Subordinate, Adverbial (time) to tells in A.
C. Subordinate, Adjectival to accident in A.
D. Subordinate, Adverbial (time) to happened in C.

Friend
My worthy, Sir Roger, tells
us
an accident very frequently

When
we
are talking of
malice
the, of parties

That
happened

When
he
was a school-bnv
A.

Subject.
Attributes of Subject.
Predicate.
Object (indirect).
Object (direct).
Adverbial adjunct (time).
B.

Connective, joining A and B.
Subject.
Predicate.
Object.
Attributes of Object.

## C.

Subject.
Predicate.

## 1.

Connective, joining C and D.
Subject.
Predicate.
2. I had worn out all the waistcoats I had, and my business was now to try if I could not make jackets out of the great watch-coats which I possessed, and such other materials as I had.
A.

I had worn out all the waistcoats
B.
[that] I had

## c.

(and) my business was now to try
D.
(if) I coula not make jackets out of the great watch-coats and such other materials
E.
(which) I possessed
F.
as I had.
A. Principal ; co-ordinate with C.
B. Subordinate Adjective to waistcoats in A.
C. Principal ; co-ordinate with A.
D. Subordinate Noun (object) to try in C.
E. Subordinate Adjective to waistcoats in D.
F. Subordinate Adjective to materials in D.
A.

## I

had worn out
waistcoats
all the

Subject.
Predicate.
Object.
Attributes of Object.

## B.

## I

had
[that]
Subject.
Predicate.
Object.

## C.

| And | Connective, joining A and C. |
| :--- | :--- |
| business | Subject. |
| my | Attribute of Subject. |
| was now to try | Predicate. |

If
I
could not make
jackets
out of the great watch-coats ) and (out of) such otıer materiais

## D.

Connective, joining C and D.
Subject.
Predicate. Object. Adverbial aijijunct, (material)
instrument.

## E.

## I

possessed
which
Subject.
Predicate.
Object.*

## F.

I
had
as
Subject. Predicate. Object.*

* Notice that the relatives which and as are used as connectizes.


## CONTRACTIONS.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { O.E. } & =\text { Old English. } \\
\text { Fr. } & =\text { French. } \\
\text { N. Fr. } & =\text { Norman-French. } \\
\text { CD. } & =\text { Compare. }
\end{array}
$$

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{ }^{*}{ }^{*} \text { Others to follow. }
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[^0]:    * As late as 1636 .

[^1]:    - Bounden is used as an adjective, as in "our bounden duty "

[^2]:    - See English Bible, Rut/ i. 14.

[^3]:    * Pronounced red. † Sbitted occurs in xyth century writers.

[^4]:    * The hyphen here marks the composition of words, but it is generally disused in compounds of long standing. In some cases it is retained for clearness, as, re-open, co-operate, \&c

[^5]:    * Norman-French form of -sis.

[^6]:    * 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.

