

# Classical Grammar



# CLASSICAL GRAMMAR

Book 2

G R A D E S    5 - 8

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## PREFACE

Only those who, by teaching English grammar, come into close contact with the young pupil, can know the difficulty of securing a satisfactory textbook. Making an elementary treatise that is scholarly as well as sufficiently simple is not easy.

The temptation to make a subject readily accessible by mechanical devices or by short-cut methods is strong with the teacher; and the writer who supplies the textbook is strongly drawn to those expedients that will make the manual merely the most teachable. On the other hand, there is a temptation to the student of historical English to suppose the grammar school child not only eager for the intricacies of linguistic development, but able to comprehend them.

The truth, as it appears to the present authors, is that the child wishes indeed to attain his ends by the most direct methods possible, but that he also desires to understand that which he labors upon. If he is confronted with the ramifications of historical grammar, his young mind is led aside from the direct road to knowledge; if he is taught unscholarly subterfuges, he will find more difficulties than the textbooks attempted to avoid.

The following pages are the result of a systematic effort to combine simplicity with correctness. All books in this series have been designed to be accessible to both teacher and student.

The illustrative sentences are taken from standard literature. While the various authors' names are not given, it is hoped that the high plane upon which the science of grammar is thus placed will have its educative effect upon the pupil.

## PREFACE

The series of sentences at the close of each of the parts of speech may be used either for parsing or to supplement previous illustrative exercises. Exercises in syntax are included for the convenience of teachers who find such work desirable, but they can be readily omitted by those who disapprove of them.

The chapter on Analysis will form a useful review of facts presented in the logical development of parts of speech. As the treatment of the subject includes the addition of such notes as are needed for a full understanding of the nature of the sentence, it will afford a profitable study in itself.

Although the death of Dr. W. M. Baskervill, after the completion of the manuscript of this book, but before publication, deprived the surviving author of his advice in the final revision, the work was so far advanced and had received the benefit of Dr. Baskervill's keen and scholarly criticism to such an extent that it has not suffered by his decease.

J. W. SEWELL

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# INTRODUCTION

**A sentence is the complete expression of a thought in words.**

Language is made up of sentences, and in forming sentences a writer or a speaker must choose words according to their *use* and their *meaning*.

In the study of grammar we are to separate sentences into their parts, so as to study the nature of the words, their forms, and their uses. For example, in the sentence, "Children learn," one may see that the two words are not of the same nature, for *children* is the name of persons, and *learn* tells what they do. Again, grammar will ask why the form *children* is used instead of *child* or *child's* or *children's*, and why *learn* is used instead of *learns* or *learned*; and so on.

**English grammar treats of the forms of English words, their uses, and their relations to one another in the sentence.**

One way of studying the nature of the thousands of English words is to divide them into **parts of speech**. **The parts of speech are the different classes of words used in the expression of thought.**

In the sentence, "Children learn," it is plain that the two words belong to different classes; that is, they are different parts of speech.

In studying the parts of speech the purposes will be to find out: *first*, how to classify words according to their use and meaning; *second*, what forms words may take

## INTRODUCTION

to express relations to other parts of the sentence; *third*, when it is proper to use one form and when another.

Another way of studying sentences is by **analysis**, which means **separating a sentence into its elements so as to show their relations to one another**.

These two methods of studying the sentence cannot be kept strictly separate, for some knowledge of each is needed in order fully to understand the other; hence a short treatment of both should be given before making a more thorough study of either.

## PARTS OF SPEECH—OUTLINE

In order to understand the parts of speech it will be necessary to study the uses of words in sentences.

### NOUNS

(a) He was tumbled headlong into the dust; and Gunpowder, the black steed, and the goblin passed by like a whirlwind.

The words *dust*, *Gunpowder*, *steed*, *goblin*, and *whirlwind* are names of things. In order to know again anything we have once known, we usually give it a name; and the name word is called a **noun**.

### Exercise

Identify the nouns in these sentences:

1. The house has two rooms.
2. The tiger followed the man.
3. Pupils put their books upon the desks.
4. The farmer sows seed in the ground.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

5. The coach was crowded, both inside and out, with passengers, who, by their talk, seemed principally bound to the mansions of relations or friends, to eat the Christmas dinner. It was loaded also with hampers of game, and baskets and boxes of delicacies; and hares hung dangling their long ears about the coachman's box, presents from distant friends for the impending feast.

### PRONOUNS

(*b*) So intent were the servants upon their sports that we had to ring repeatedly before we could make ourselves heard.

Instead of saying, "So intent were the servants upon the servants' sports," the writer here makes the sentence shorter and smoother by putting the word *their* for *the servants'*. *Their* is called a **pronoun**, meaning for or in place of a name. Again, instead of the name of the writer and that of his friend, the words *we* and *ourselves* are used. They also are pronouns.

### Exercise 1

In the following sentences each pronoun is in italics; tell what each one stands for:

*I* was informed by Frank Bracebridge that the parson had been a chum of *his* father's at Oxford, and had received this living soon after *the latter* had come to *his* estate. . . . The parson had pored over some old volumes so intently that *they* seemed to have been reflected into *his* countenance, *which* might be compared to a title-page of black letter.

## INTRODUCTION

### Exercise 2

Find the pronouns in these sentences, and tell what each one stands for:

1. We were learning our lessons.
2. This girl has lost her purse.
3. All the trees have dropped their leaves.
4. You have not opened your book.

### ADJECTIVES

(c) A fine day, however, with a tranquil sea and favoring breeze, soon put these dismal reflections to flight.

Notice that the words *fine*, *tranquil*, *favoring*, and *dismal* describe, or tell what kind of object or thing is spoken of; *fine* tells what kind of day, *tranquil* what kind of sea, etc. Such words are called **adjectives**, and each one is joined to a noun to describe the thing named.

### Exercise

Find the adjectives in the following sentences, and tell what noun each limits:

1. Great trees from little acorns grow.
2. The flag has red and white stripes.
3. What beautiful flowers you have!
4. Our yard has large trees and broad walks.
5. Of all the old festivals, that of Christmas awakens the strongest and most heartfelt associations. There is a tone of solemn and sacred feeling that blends with our conviviality, and lifts the spirit into a state of hallowed and elevated enjoyment.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

### VERBS

(d) As we passed over a rising ground which commanded something of a prospect, the sounds of rustic merriment now and then reached our ears.

This sentence makes some statements or *assertions*; but if the words *passed*, *commanded*, and *reached* were left out, no statement would be made. These words are called **verbs**, since they are used for asserting something about persons or things: *passed* tells what we did; *reached* tells what the sounds did. Verbs express action or a state of being.

### Exercise

Find the verbs in the following sentences, and tell what each makes a statement about:

1. The storm rattled the windows.
2. Somebody wrote me a long letter.
3. Our teacher read us a story.
4. Albert threw the ball away.
5. As Ichabod approached the stream his heart began to thump. He summoned up all his resolution, gave his horse half a score of kicks in the ribs, and attempted to dash briskly across the bridge; but, instead of starting forward, the perverse old animal made a lateral movement and ran against the fence.

### ADVERBS

(e) The English have always been fond of those festivals and holidays which agreeably interrupt the stillness of country life.

The statement, "The English have been fond of those festivals," is modified, or changed in meaning, by the word *always*, which expresses time, or tells how long;

## INTRODUCTION

*always* is called an **adverb**, that is, a word joined to a verb, to modify the meaning. Likewise the word *agreeably* modifies *interrupt*, and tells the way, or manner, of the action.

### Exercise

Find the adverbs in the sentences (a), (b), (d), and (e), and tell what verb each modifies.

## CONJUNCTIONS

(f) He passed the tree in safety, but new perils lay before him.

Here two statements are made, and they are united into one sentence by the word *but*. A word that connects words or groups of words is called a **conjunction**. It merely links, or joins, but does nothing more.

### Exercise 1

The conjunctions are in italics below; tell what words or word groups each connects:

1. As we approached the house, we heard the sound of music, *and* now *and* then a burst of laughter.
2. His only resource on such occasions, *either* to drown thoughts *or* drive away evil spirits, was to sing psalm tunes.
3. To have taken the field openly against his rival would have been madness; *for* he was not a man to be thwarted.
4. He now suspected *that* the grave roysters of the mountain had put a trick upon him.



### Exercise 2

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what each connects:

1. This street has houses new and old.
2. God rules on the land and on the sea.
3. Go now, or stay with me.
4. He spoke quietly, but firmly.

### PREPOSITIONS

(g) The rays of a bright morning sun had a dazzling effect among the glittering leaves.

In this sentence it is necessary to express some connection and relation between *rays* and *sun*, and also between *had a dazzling effect* and *leaves*. The expression *of a bright morning sun* clearly shows possession or source; the word *of* connects *rays* and *sun*, and shows the relation of possession or source. *Among* connects the verb *had* with the noun *leaves* and expresses the relation of place. A word that connects words and shows the relation between them is called a **preposition**.

### Exercise

Point out the prepositions in this sentence and tell between what words they show relation:

1. Your book lies among mine on the shelf under the desk.
2. From the tower into which we went we saw far along the water.
3. The roof of the house is old, especially near the edge.
4. A sloop was loitering in the distance, dropping slowly down with the tide, her sail hanging uselessly against the mast.

## INTRODUCTION

### INTERJECTIONS

There is one other class of words to be noted, those that merely express feeling; as, *Alas! What! Psha! Ho!* They are called **interjections**, which means thrown into the midst. They are merely dropped into the sentence to attract attention, and have no part in building up the sentence. They are not properly parts of speech.

### USE DETERMINES PARTS OF SPEECH

Some words may be several parts of speech, according to the use they have in different places. It is the use, not the form of an English word, that determines what part of speech it is. For example, “An excited crowd swept *by*” (adverb); “Crowds were running *by* the jail” (preposition); “They heard that he *still* lived” (adverb); “The waves are *still*” (adjective).

### Exercise

Write sentences using words as directed below:

(1) *Handle* as a noun and a verb. (2) *Light* as noun, adjective, verb. (3) *Brown* as noun, adjective, verb. (4) *Before* as adverb, preposition, conjunction. (5) *Water* as noun, adjective, verb. (6) *Iron* as noun, adjective, verb. (7) *In* as adverb and preposition. (8) *Past* as noun, adjective, adverb, preposition. (9) *While* as noun, verb, and conjunction.

### ANALYSIS—OUTLINE

Analysis is a very important subject in grammar, lying at the basis of most of the work in mastering good English.

A person can much better understand what he reads if he is able to tell at a glance the relations of all the parts of a sentence. While studying the parts of speech

it is necessary to describe the use of words by their relations to one another in the sentence. This depends on analysis, and is to be learned only by careful thinking. Then, too, in writing sentences, no one can tell where to use the marks of punctuation without knowing when the sentence is complete, and what parts of it are related, and how.

For analysis, take the following sentence:

The golden sun poured a dusty beam through the closed blinds.

Every sentence must have at least two parts: that of which something is said, and that which is said of it. *The golden sun* is called the **subject**, because it is the part brought especially to our notice—that of which something is said; the rest of the sentence is called the **predicate**, because it declares or says something about the subject. As no sentence can be made without these two members, they are often called the **main** or **principal elements** of the sentence.

Now, noticing more closely, we find that the one word *sun* names that of which the statement is made, and *sun* is modified by *the* and *golden*. *The golden sun* is called the complete subject; *sun* is the simple subject, and *the* and *golden* are modifiers of the simple subject.

We also find that *poured a dusty beam through the closed blinds* is the **complete predicate**; *poured* alone is the **simple predicate**. The expression *through the closed blinds* tells where, and is a **modifier** of the simple predicate.

## INTRODUCTION

### Exercise

Find the complete subject and predicate, then the simple subject and predicate, of the following sentences:

1. A ragged boy came into the room.
2. My best friend came here with me.
3. All your toys are scattered over the floor.
4. Suddenly came a loud shout.
5. That garden has beautiful flowers.
6. The old gardener is working diligently.
7. Slowly and carefully the boy wrote.
8. This work was done neatly.
9. Her old books were sold yesterday.
10. Every child should walk lightly.

In the sentence “*The ... blinds,*” on p. 9, the meaning of the verb is not complete without the words *a dusty beam*. The *sun* poured *what through the closed blinds*? Answer, *a dusty beam*. *Poured* expresses action, and *beam* names that which receives the action of the verb; such a word is called the **direct object** of the verb. *Beam* is modified by *a* and *dusty*. The subject or object may be modified by a group of words, introduced by a preposition.

### Exercises

1. Write six sentences using the following words as subjects of verbs: *ink, paper, lion, bear, lily, rose*.
2. Rewrite the six sentences in (1) so as to have an adjective modifying each subject.
3. Mention the complete subject of each sentence that you wrote in (2).

## ANALYSIS

4. Write six sentences using the following verbs as predicates: *walks, found, howl, played, look, saw*.
5. Change the sentences in (4) so as to have an adverb modifying each verb.
6. Mention the complete predicate of each sentence that you wrote in (5).
7. Write sentences using as direct objects the words in (1).

Example: The nurse threw the *rose* away.

To sum up, the main elements are:

- (1) The complete subject.
- (2) The complete predicate.

After full analysis, we find in the sentence on p. 9:

- (1) The simple subject.
- (2) The modifiers of the subject.
- (3) The simple predicate.
- (4) A modifier of the predicate.
- (5) The simple direct object.
- (6) The modifiers of the direct object.

In order to complete the list, however, some more sentences must be examined:

1. Her eyes became red from weeping.
2. The frost made the leaves yellow.
3. This fell sergeant, Death, is strict in his arrest.

In sentence (1) *became* is the simple predicate, but as it does not express action, it cannot have an object. The adjective *red* completes the meaning of the predicate and expresses a quality of the subject. Such a verb

is called **intransitive**, and such completing words are called **complements**.

In sentence (2) the simple predicate *made* is a **transitive verb**, but it is not complete even with the object *leaves*. The expression, “The frost made the leaves,” is not clear; if we say, “made the leaves yellow,” or “made yellow the leaves,” it is plain at once how necessary is the word *yellow*. *Leaves* is really the object, not of *made*, but of *made yellow*. The word *yellow* is a complement, completing the verb *made*, and is also an adjunct of the direct object.

## Exercise

(a) In the following sentences tell which words are complements:

1. The old man became very poor.
2. Disease made the old man poor.
3. Our new lessons seem hard.
4. Diligent study makes hard things easy.
5. This tree will soon grow tall.

(b) Write five sentences having complements, some after transitive and some after intransitive verbs.

In sentence (3), p. 11, the subject *sergeant* needs the word *Death* to explain it; the latter, indeed, is equivalent to the added statement, “And his name is Death.” A word thus added to another to modify and explain it is called an **appositive word**, or a term in **apposition** with another.

Add now these three to the list of elements:

- (7) The complement of an intransitive verb.
- (8) The complement of a transitive verb.
- (9) An appositional modifier.

**Exercise**

(a) In the following sentences, which nouns are in apposition?

1. My friend Henry came with me.
2. Washington, our first President, was a Virginian.
3. Tell Albert, the porter, to come at once.
4. The best wrestler is your cousin George.
5. My brother, the lawyer, has moved away.

(b) Write five similar sentences of your own.

## SUMMARY FOR REVIEW

<b>Divisions of Grammar</b>	{	Parts of Speech. Analysis.
<b>Parts of Speech</b>	{	Nouns. Pronouns. Adjectives. Verbs. Adverbs. Conjunctions. Prepositions. Interjections.
<b>Parts of a Sentence</b> (by Analysis)	{	I. Main Elements – Subject: complete, simple. Predicate: complete, simple.  II. Subordinate Elements – Modifiers of Subject. Modifiers of Predicate. Direct Object. Modifiers of Direct Object. Complement (of Transitive or Intransitive Verb). Appositional Terms.



### Review Exercise—Parts of Speech

Tell what part of speech each italicized word is in the following sentences:

1. *Pandora stood* gazing at the box.
2. *It* was made of a *beautiful* kind of *wood*.
3. The surface was so *highly* polished that *she* could see *her* face in *it*.
4. Around the *margin* were *figures* of *graceful* men and *women*.
5. These various *objects* were *exquisitely* represented.
6. The *most beautiful* face of all was *in* the center of the *lid*.
7. Pandora *had looked at* this face a great many times.
8. The features *wore* a very *lively and mischievous* expression.

### Review Exercises—Analysis

- (a) Give the definitions of: complete subject, complete predicate; simple subject, simple predicate; direct object; transitive verb, intransitive verb; complement; appositional term.
- (b) Write sentences using the following words as subjects: *book, pencil, slate, door, window, playground, apple, button, dollar, stove*.
- (c) Write sentences using the above words as objects of transitive verbs.
- (d) Write sentences in which the above words are modified by adjectives.
- (e) Change the sentences of (c) so that the verbs are modified by adverbs.
- (f) Write five sentences having nouns in apposition with other nouns. Write five sentences having nouns as complements of intransitive verbs. Write five sentences having adjectives as complements of intransitive verbs.
- (g) Analyze in full these sentences:

## INTRODUCTION

1. I particularly noticed one young woman of humble dress but interesting demeanor.
2. My holiday afternoons were spent in rambles about the surrounding country.
3. Never did Christmas board display a more goodly and gracious assemblage of countenances.
4. The interior of the church was venerable but simple.
5. A river formed the boundary—the river Meuse.
6. I made myself familiar with all its places famous in history or fable.
7. I admired for the hundredth time that picture of convenience, neatness, and broad, honest enjoyment, the kitchen of an English inn.
8. The temperate are the most truly luxurious.
9. The joyous disposition of the worthy Squire was perfectly contagious.

# PARTS OF SPEECH

## NOUNS

### CLASSES OF NOUNS

Let us examine this sentence:

1.

A few miles from this point, where the Rhone enters the lake, stands the famous Castle of Chillon, connected with the shore by a drawbridge – palace, castle, and prison, all in one.

We find that two words are names of particular places: *Rhone*, which is the name of a river running through France and Switzerland, and *Castle of Chillon*, which is the name of a medieval castle in Switzerland. The names are used only when speaking of these places and no others. They are called **proper nouns**, from a Latin word meaning *one's own, belonging to one person or thing*.

**A proper noun is a name given to a particular object, whether person, place, animal, or thing.**

There are other names in this sentence, namely, *miles, point, lake, shore, drawbridge, palace, castle, prison*. These are general names: we may speak of a lake in America, or a lake in any state, county, or other division; we may refer to the shore of the Gulf of Mexico, or the Atlantic Ocean, or of any river, sea, etc.; so with *drawbridge, palace*, and similar words. They are called

common nouns, because common means *belonging to any* of a class.

**A common noun is a name applied to any one of a class of persons, places, animals, or things.**

**2.** Study now these additional sentences:

(a) The savage army was in war paint, plumed for battle.

(b) No man is so sunk in vice and ignorance but there are still some hidden seeds of goodness and knowledge in him.

In (a), the word *army* is a general name, a common noun. However, it is the name of a number of persons taken together. It is called a **collective noun**. Nouns of this kind are in very frequent use; as, *fleet*, *herd*, *flock*, *crowd*, *party*.

The word *war paint* is a common noun, being a name of general application; but instead of being the name of a separate object it is the name of a substance, of the material of which something is composed. Such are called **nouns of material**; other examples are *glass*, *iron*, *clay*, *silk*, etc.

**3.** In sentence (b), the words *vice*, *ignorance*, *goodness*, and *knowledge* are not names of objects, but of qualities. All are derived from other parts of speech; for example, a person leads a *vicious* life (adjective) or a life of *vice* (noun); he *knows* (verb) or has *knowledge* (noun), etc. In each case where the noun is used, action or quality or condition is not asserted of the person, but is only named, or spoken of in the abstract; that is to say, apart from the object to which it belongs.

**Abstract nouns are names of qualities, conditions, or actions.**

**4.** To sum up the classes of nouns, we have:

## NOUNS

Proper Nouns.

Common nouns, divided into:

- (1) Class names.
- (2) Collective.
- (3) Material.

Abstract nouns.

### Parsing Examples (See Section 41)

1. The famous **Castle of Chillon** stands where the Rhone enters the **lake**.

**Castle of Chillon:** noun, **proper**, neuter, 3rd person, singular, subject of “stands,” nominative case.

**lake:** noun, **common (class name)**, neuter, 3rd person, singular, direct object of “enters,” objective case.

2. The savage **army** was in **war paint**, plumed for battle.

**army:** noun, **common (collective)**, neuter, 3rd person, singular, subject of “was,” nominative case.

**war paint:** noun; **common (material)**; neuter; 3rd person; singular; object of the preposition “in”; objective case.

3. No man is so sunk in vice and ignorance but there are still some hidden seeds of **goodness** and knowledge in him.

**goodness:** noun, **abstract**, neuter, 3rd person, singular, object of the preposition “of,” objective case.

## Exercises

(a) Use the following common nouns in sentences: *table, orange, ceiling, clock, coal, iron, railroad, steamer*.

(b) Make a list of ten other common nouns, and use them in sentences.

(c) Find in a textbook of geography five proper nouns, also five in a textbook of history, and use these words in sentences.

(d) Use in sentences the collective nouns that you find on p. 18.

(e) Use the following abstract nouns in sentences: *weight, brilliancy, truth, fear, neatness, width, care, neglect*.

(f) Of which class is each of the following italicized nouns?

He was a kind and thankful *creature*, whose *heart* dilated in *proportion* as his *skin* was filled with good *cheer*; and whose *spirits* rose with *eating* as some *men's* do with *drink*. He could not help, too, rolling his large *eyes* round him as he ate, and chuckling with the *possibility* that he might one *day* be *lord* of all this *scene* of almost unimaginable *splendor*. Then, he thought, how soon he'd turn his *back* upon the old *schoolhouse*; snap his *fingers* in the *face* of *Hans Van Ripper*; and every other niggardly *patron*; and kick any itinerant *pedagogue* out of *doors* that should dare to call him *comrade*!

(g) Find the nouns in the following sentences, and tell which class each belongs to:

As Rip and his companion approached them, they suddenly desisted from their play, and stared at him with such fixed, statue-like gaze, and such strange, uncouth, lack-luster countenances, that his heart turned within him, and his knees smote together. His companion now emptied the contents of the keg into large flagons, and made signs to him to wait upon the company. He obeyed with fear and trembling.

(h) Write one or more class names corresponding to each collective noun in the following list: *swarm, drove, school, flock, regiment, crew, committee*.

Example: A swarm of *bees* or *gnats* or *flies*, etc.

(i) Write one or more collective nouns corresponding to each class noun in the following list:

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*ruffian, room, horse, listener, girl, neighbor, camel, citizen.*

Example: A *horde* or *band* or *mob* of ruffians.

**NOTE:** Pupils may be instructed to make up sentences of their own or to select them from books. The latter plan is far better, as it keeps the pupil's attention upon good literature.

**Inflection means a change in the form of a word 5. to express a change in its use or meaning.**

Five parts of speech are inflected: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

Nouns have three kinds of inflection: **gender, number, and case.**

## GENDER

In English grammar the words used as names of persons or animals may be classified based on whether the persons or animals are male or female. Nouns may be inflected or modified to show that a male is being mentioned or that a female is being mentioned. **6.**

The name of a **male** being is said to be of the **masculine gender**; the name of a **female**, is said to be of the **feminine gender**. The words **male** and **female** apply to the gender of living beings; the words **masculine** and **feminine** apply to the gender of nouns.

Names of inanimate things are called **neuter nouns**, because *neuter* means *neither* masculine nor feminine.

Examples: *man, horse, ox*, masculine; *woman, mare, cow*, feminine; *book, stove, chalk*, neuter.

Some words may be gender nouns (masculine or feminine, indicating that the object is male or female) or **7.**

they may be neuter nouns, not depending on their form but depending on their use in a sentence. (See Note.)

Many nouns refer to persons without determining the gender, such as, *cousin, teacher, acquaintance, friend, parent*. Likewise, common nouns for animals, such as *insect, pig, songbird, mouse*, are frequently used without any indication or concern whether the animal is male or female.

If these names of persons or animals are used in the sentence in such a way that the gender is made clear, they are at once classified as masculine or feminine. Otherwise, the noun is said to be **neuter**, which means it does not indicate gender, even though the object itself certainly has a gender.

All nouns may therefore be divided into gender nouns and neuter nouns, depending on whether the form or the use of the noun in the sentence indicates the gender of the object.

In parsing nouns which name gender objects, but neither whose form nor whose use indicates which gender, it is also acceptable to state: *gender unknown*.

**Gender is the form or use of a word to designate an object as male or female.**

**NOTE:** The **form** of a word is any of the ways in which it may appear, such as change of spelling or pronunciation. For example: *man, men*.

The **use** of a word refers to the way it is used in a sentence.



### Exercises

- (a) Use in sentences five masculine nouns.
- (b) Use in sentences five feminine nouns.
- (c) Use in sentences five neuter nouns.
- (d) Use in sentences the words *cousin*, *teacher*, *acquaintance*, *friend*, *parent*, so as not to show the gender of the person Example: My *cousin* will arrive today at noon.
- (e) Use the words in Exercise (d) so as to show the gender of the person. Example: My cousin will bring *his* gun.

Gender forms belong only to masculine and feminine nouns. **8.**

We have three ways by which the feminine noun is distinguished from the masculine:

- I. By placing a gender word before one without gender.
- II. By adding a suffix to a masculine word.
- III. By using a different word for each gender.

A **prefix** is a syllable added at the beginning of a word; as, un-truth, mis-spell. A **suffix** is a syllable added at the end of a word; as, truth-ful kind-ness. An **affix** is either a prefix or a suffix. **9.**

### I. GENDER SHOWN BY COMPOUNDS

The pronouns *he* and *she* are often affixed to a noun that does not indicate gender, such as: *he-goat*, *she-goat*; *he-wolf*, *she-wolf*. Nouns indicating gender are often employed in the same way, such as: *manservant*, *maidservant*; *salesman*, *saleswoman*. **10.**

The word *woman* belongs to this list. The old word *wīff* meant *woman*, but was joined with the word *mann*

to form *wīff-mann*, this gradually changing to the form *woman*.

Sometimes, a feminine word is used before a noun that is often or always considered masculine. Examples are: *doctor, lawyer, soldier; woman doctor, woman lawyer, female soldier*.

## II. GENDER SHOWN BY SUFFIXES

- 11.** The suffix frequently used to form a feminine from a masculine noun is *-ess*, such as: *giant, giantess*.

Some points in spelling should be noticed here:

- (a) Some words do not change their form before adding the suffix, such as: *host, hostess; baron, baroness*.
- (b) Words of one syllable ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant before adding the suffix, such as: *god, goddess*.
- (c) A letter or a syllable may be dropped and *-ess* added to the root of the word, such as: *abbot, abbess; sorcerer, sorceress*.
- (d) A vowel preceding the final consonant may be dropped before adding *-ess*; as, *actor, actress; enchanter, enchantress; waiter, waitress*.

- 12.** As stated in Section 10, it is customary now to use a gender word before the masculine instead of writing editress, doctress, etc.; that is, if we wish to make an emphatic contrast to the masculine form. Ordinarily, however, the masculine form is used to represent the feminine, the context showing the gender of the person.

Not only the words *author, poet, nurse, teacher*, etc., but also *lawyer, librarian, doctor, dentist, artist, sculptor, architect, editor, bookkeeper, cashier, superintendent*, and others may refer to a man or to a woman.

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**Exercise**—Tell the gender of each noun in the sentences after Section 45.

A few words from foreign languages, with their original suffixes, are in good use as English words. Those most often met with are the following pairs: **13.**

beau, belle

hero, heroine

czar, czarina

señor, señora

don, donna

signor, signora

mediator, mediatrix (or *-ice*)

sultan, sultana

**Exercise**—Write sentences using all the foreign words given in this list.

### III. GENDER SHOWN BY DIFFERENT WORDS

The distinction between masculine and feminine is sometimes made not by inflection of a single word, but by the use of pairs of words entirely unlike in form: **14.**

bachelor, maid or spinster

uncle, aunt

boy, girl

wizard, witch

brother, sister

boar, sow

earl, countess

buck, doe

father, mother

bull, cow

husband, wife

bullock, heifer

king, queen

drake, duck

lord, lady

gander, goose

monk, nun

hart, roe

nephew, niece

horse, mare

son, daughter

ram, ewe

tutor, governess

sire, dam

### Parsing Examples (See Section 41)

1. The **emperor** descended from the tower.

**emperor**: noun; common (class name); **masculine**; 3rd person; singular; subject of “descended”; nominative case.

2. He reached his **destination** at length, and found no small **company** assembled.

**destination**: noun; common (class name); **neuter**; 3rd person; singular; object of “reached”; objective case.

**company**: noun; collective; **neuter**; 3rd person; singular; object of “found”; objective case.

### Exercises

(a) The teacher should dictate a list of words, some masculine and some feminine, selected at random, and have the pupils write the corresponding gender word for each of these.

(b) Write five sentences containing masculine nouns, and five using the same words as feminine nouns. (See Section 12.)

## NUMBER

15. **Number is the form or use of a word to show whether one person or thing is meant, or more than one.**

Words meaning one thing, such as *table*, *porch*, *lily*, are said to be of the **singular number**; those meaning more than one, such as *tables*, *porches*, *lilies*, are of the **plural number**.

16. The most common way of forming the plural of nouns is by adding -s or -es. Any new words adopted into the language take this inflection.

## NOUNS

There are two other ways of forming the plural, but these do not apply to a large number of words: one way is by adding *-en*, and the other way is by a change in the vowel of the word itself. Three words still have the ending *-en*: *oxen*, *children*, *brethren*. There are only a few with the vowel change: *foot*, *feet*; *man*, *men*; *goose*, *geese*; *louse*, *lice*; *mouse*, *mice*; *tooth*, *teeth*.

It will be helpful now to give some suggestions in regard to when one should add *-s* and when *-es*. **17.**

- (a) Words ending in *s*, *x*, *z*, *ch*, and *sh* (letters that will not unite with the sound of *s*) add *-es*, as, *glasses*, *boxes*, *topazes*, *churches*, *fishes*.
- (b) A few words ending in *f* change this to *v* and add *-es* to form the plural; some of them are *beef*, *calf*, *leaf*, *loaf*, *self*, *wife*, *wolf*. Notice, however, that *brief*, *chief*, *fife*, *proof*, *reef*, *roof*, *strife*, and *turf* add *-s*.

*Wharf* usually has *-ves* in the plural but may add *-s*; *dwarf*, *hoof* and *scarf* may add *-s* or *ves*; *staff* has the plural *staves* unless a body of men is meant, in which case the form *staffs* is used, as, *staffs* of commanders or of newspapers.

- (c) Words ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant sound, change the *y* to *i* and add *-es*, such as: *ladies*, *soliloquies*. (In such words as *soliloquy* and *colloquy* the *u* has the sound of the consonant *w*.)

**NOTE:** If the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, the regular ending *-s* is used; as, *turkeys*, *boys*, *Fridays*.

Words of foreign derivation ending in *-o* may add *-s* or *-es*. The words *alto*, *cameo*, *canto*, *folio*, *oratorio*, *piano*, *solo*, and *zero* add *-s*; *echo*, *embargo*, *hero*, and *potato* add *-es*; and *cargo*, *motto*, *tomato* and *volcano* may add either *-s* or *-es*, though *-es* is more common.

## SPECIAL REMARKS ON NUMBER FORMS

18. Material and abstract nouns have no plural. When such nouns do take the plural inflection they take on a different meaning and become common class nouns, such as: *glass, glasses; iron, irons; sorrow, sorrows*.
19. Certain nouns have only a plural form. Very few in the following list ever have a singular form:

amends	billiards	oats	tongs
annals	dregs	obsequies	spectacles
antipodes	gallows	premises	vespers
assets	matins	scissors	victuals
bellows	nuptials	thanks	

The singular form *asset* is sometimes used, as, “He needed every available *asset*.” The singular form *premise* is a term used in logic; the word *premises* usually means the surroundings or grounds about a building. The word *spectacle*, meaning scene, is not the singular of the word *spectacles*, meaning eye-glasses. The word *bellow*, meaning yell, is not the singular of the word *bellows*, meaning an instrument used to blow pressurized air, often to fan a fire.

**Exercise**—Write sentences using each word in the list in Section 19 as a subject.

20. Some words have the **same form for singular and plural**: *deer, sheep, swine; trout, salmon; yoke* (of oxen), *head* (of cattle), *Chinese*.

Such nouns as *pair, score, dozen, hundred*, have usually the same form for the plural if they follow numerals; but if not limited by numerals or if used after certain prepositions, they take -s for the plural, such as:

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“five *thousand* of the citizens,” but “people by the *thousands*.”

Many words having a plural form are used as singular; such as *optics*, *physics*, *mathematics*, and names of other sciences. Likewise the words *pains* (in the sense of *care*), *news*, *molasses*, *summons*. The words *means* and *politics* may be treated as singular or plural in meaning: we may say, “*a means* of success,” or “success by *these means*”; “*politics is* his favorite study,” or “*politics are* very annoying to him.” **21.**

A few singular words have two plurals with different meanings: **22.**

brothers (of a family), brethren (of a society or church)

cloths (kinds or pieces), clothes (garments)

dies (stamps for coins, etc.), dice (for gaming)

fishes (individuals or kinds), fish (collectively)

geniuses (persons of genius), genii (fabled spirits)

indexes (to books), indices (signs in algebra)

pennies (separate coins), pence (collective value)

shots (times fired), shot (collective balls)

The word *pence* may add *-s* in speaking of coins, thus making a double plural; as, “a few *sixpences*.”

**Exercise.** Make sentences using all the words listed in Section 22.

The plural form of **compound words** depends upon **23.** the relation of their parts.

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Some are so closely united that we think of the parts as forming one unit, so the last part adds *-s*:

attorney-general	steamboat	handful
housewife	forget-me-not	maidservant
typewriter	kingfisher	spoonful
fellow-servant	goosequill	stepson

In most compound words which have the parts loosely joined by hyphens or even standing apart, and in which one member is described by another word or phrase, the chief member adds *-s*:

aide(s)-de-camp	commander(s)-in-chief	father(s)-in-law
attorney(s)-at-law	court(s)-martial	knight(s)-errant
billet(s)-doux	cousin(s)-german	hanger(s)-on

We may also write *attorneys-general* and *knight-errants*.

A few compound words make both parts plural: *men-servants*, *women lawyers*, *knights templars*.

Not all words ending in *-man* are compounds of the English word *man*; consequently, some do not change the ending to *men*, but add *-s*. Examples are *Brahman*, *firman* (a kind of royal decree in certain Middle Eastern states), *German*, *Norman*, *Ottoman*, etc.

A good dictionary will always tell the plural of a compound word.

**Exercise.** Write sentences using the singular and plural of each noun in this Section.

- 24.** We have two methods for forming the plural of proper **names with titles**, as *Mr. Brown*, *Miss Hill*, *Mrs. Adams*, *Dr. Johnson*. We may pluralize the name and say,



“the two *Mr. Browns*, or *Miss Hills*, or *Mrs. Adamses*, or *Dr. Johnsons*”; or we may pluralize the title, and say, “the two *Messrs. Brown*, or *Misses Hill*, or *Mesdames Adams*, or *Drs. Johnson*.”

We also have a choice of two methods in making the plural of **letters, figures, signs, and words used merely as words**. Some writers add an apostrophe and the letter -s ('s), some add only -s. For example, we may write either: “tall *h's*,” “crooked *7's*,” “+’s like *x's*,” “too many *and's*”; or, “tall *hs*,” “crooked *7s*,” “+s like *xs*,” “too many *ands*.” **25.**

In either case, we should decide in favor of clarity. The following example shows the confusion which may arise for a reader. In the sentence, “He does not write *as* clearly,” *as* may mean the letter *a* or the word *as*. If the writer means the plural of the letter *a*, he should use an apostrophe: “He does not write *a's* clearly.”

Foreign **words** are of two classes; how we make them plural depends upon the nature of each word: **26.**

(1) Some retain a foreign plural only, such as: *axis*, *criterion*, *erratum*, *analysis*, *antithesis*, *genus*, *chateau*; plurals *axes*, *criteria*, *errata*, *analyses*, *antitheses*, *genera*, *chateaux*.

(2) Some have both an English form of plural and an original plural. Examples (in the plural) are:

bandits or banditti	formulas or formulae
beaus or beaux	memorandums or memoranda
cherubs or cherubim	seraphs or seraphim
dogmas or dogmata	stratums or strata
focuses or foci	vertexes or vertices

### Parsing Examples (See Section 41)

1. We gave the **boy** the **remains** of breakfast.

**boy**: noun; common (class name); masculine; 3rd person; **singular**; object of “gave”; objective case.

**remains**: noun; collective; neuter; 3rd person; **plural**; object of “gave”; objective case.

### Exercises

(a) Write sentences using the plural of the following words:

life, valley, half, strife, soliloquy, monkey, dwarf, reef, sheaf, ally, roof, wharf, story, attorney.

(b) Write sentences using the plural of the following words:

brother	knight-templar	Brahman	antithesis
cameo	domino	genius	goosequill
oratorio	cloth	spoonful	volcano
talisman	formula	attorney-at-law	bandit
Mr. Allen	piano	father-in-law	Mrs. Young
potato	hero		

**NOTE:** Make good use of a dictionary for these exercises.

## CASE

27. Examine the following sentences:

1. My father was amongst the mighty crowd.
2. He drew his cloak around him.
3. Night's silvery veil hung low.

In (1), the word *father* is the subject of the verb; in (2), the word *cloak* is the object of *drew*; in (3), the word

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*Night's* expresses ownership or possession; in (1), again, *crowd* is the object of the preposition *amongst*.

These four nouns have certain relations to other words in the sentence, and the **manner of showing this relation** is called **case**. Thus, *father* is in the case of subject, *cloak* and *crowd* in the case of object, *Night's* in the case of possessor.

**Case is the form or use of a noun or pronoun to show its relation to other words in the sentence. 28.**

**The nominative case usually expresses the relation of subject; the objective case expresses the relation of object; and the possessive case expresses the relation of possession, source, or ownership.**

Notice that case is not always shown by inflection because there are only two case forms. Case is most often shown by use in a sentence.

### I. USES OF THE NOMINATIVE CASE

The most common use that the nominative case has is as subject. Other uses, however, are shown below: **29.**

(1) **Subject**, such as:

*Water* seeks its level.

(2) **Predicate nominative**, more properly called a **complement of an intransitive verb**, such as:

This is my own, my native *land*.

(3) In **apposition** with another nominative word, modifying it not by describing but by restating, such as:

Rich gift of God, a *year* of time!

(4) **Independent or absolute uses**, in which the noun is considered to be in the nominative case, but has no real office in the sentence. There are three of these uses:

(a) **Direct address**, as:

*Lord Angus*, thou hast lied!

(b) **Exclamation**, as:

The *Old Manse*! We had almost forgotten it.

Direct address is often put in the form of an exclamation, as well. The difference is that direct address concerns a person or thing spoken *to*, while this exclamation concerns a person or thing spoken *of*.

(c) **With a participle** (a verbal form in *-ing* or *-ed* that does not assert), **in a phrase independent of the rest of the sentence**, such as:

*But the rain coming on, or the east wind blowing, or some other reason arising, his honor turns his horses' heads down St. James's Street."*

### Exercise 1

Mention the nouns in the nominative case in these sentences, and tell what use each has:

1. The forecastle was a roomy place.
2. Captain, will you give me the key?
3. There came a clash of steel upon the deck.
4. Night coming on, we made fast to a tree.
5. Adams, the skipper, had gone overboard.
6. Sitting in front of the fire was a tallish gentleman in a great coat, the only other occupant of the room.
7. It was a rather cool evening for the season of the year, and the gentleman drew his chair aside.

8. "My good fellow," said Mr. Winkle, his teeth chattering all the time he spoke, "I respect your attachment to my excellent friend."

## Exercise 2

Illustrate the nominative uses by writing or finding five sentences for each use.

## II. USES OF THE OBJECTIVE CASE

The objective case has the following uses:

30.

- (1) **Direct object** of a verb, as:

Woodman, spare that *tree*!

- (2) **Object of a preposition**, as,

I stood on the *bridge* at *midnight*.

- (3) **Indirect object**, naming the person or thing to or for whom something is done: it usually precedes a direct object, as,

We gave the *boy* the remains of breakfast.

- (4) **Predicate objective**, more properly called a **complement of a transitive verb**, as,

The Spaniards made themselves *masters* of the Empire.

*Masters* is a **complement** because it **completes** the meaning of the verb *made*, whose direct object is *themselves*. In the sentence,

Time makes the worst enemies *friends*,

*makes friends* are verb and complement, together acting on the object *enemies*. (This is sometimes called

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a *second object* or a *factitive object* from a word meaning *do* or *cause*.)

(5) **Adverbial objective**, a noun used without a preposition to express time, distance, measure, value, etc., as,

Full *fathom* five thy father lies.

The next *night* it came again.

Many common expressions are adverbial objectives: “but a few *steps* farther on”; “a *mile* wide”; “worth a *dollar*”; “*years* after,” etc.

(6) In **apposition** with another objective word, as,

*Hardly a moment between the two lights, the day and the lamplight.*

### Exercise

(a) In the following sentences, mention the nouns in the objective case, and tell the use of each:

1. Before I reached the ground the rain poured.
2. My uncle gave a broken cry and fell to the floor.
3. Give the devil his due.
4. The man was drowned two weeks later.
5. Some people make money their idol.
6. Call Bates, the young fellow by the ladder.
7. They made themselves servants of the King of Spain.
8. But the next day, when the priest returned with fresh offerings to the tomb, he found that to the relics of heathen superstition some unknown hands had added a palm-branch.
9. But the law gives a man no power over the life of a slave.

10. Yet this was the last night for the gay Pompeii! the fabled city of Hercules! the delight of the voluptuous Roman!

(b) Write or find twenty sentences illustrating all of the uses of the objective case.

### III. USE OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE

The term *possessive* is given because ownership or some other close relation is usually implied: “The *gentleman’s* mode of speaking” means the mode characteristic of the gentleman; “A sale of *ladies’* shoes” means a sale of shoes suitable for ladies to wear. **31.**

A possessive noun is generally equivalent to the preposition *of* and its object; for example, in Section 31 “*the gentleman’s*” is equivalent to saying “*of the gentleman*”; “*our fathers’*,” to saying “*of our fathers*.” However, the expression “*ladies’* shoes” has a slightly different equivalent phrase, as shown above. **32.**

On this account the prepositional phrase is often used instead of the possessive case, especially if the possessive form is more awkward to pronounce.

Often we meet with a peculiar form called a **double possessive**, in which the preposition *of* is followed by the possessive case, for example, “He was brought to my house as a countryman *of my father’s*.” **33.**

This is called an **idiom**, which means a correct expression not falling under the usual rules of grammar.

Sometimes the ordinary possessive or phrase does not make the meaning as clear as the double possessive. For instance, “The newspaper speaks of *my sister’s* portrait” may mean a likeness of my sister executed by someone else, or a portrait painted by my sister to represent some other person. But “this portrait *of my sister’s*” clearly means the portrait that my sister possess-

es. The double possessive is often used for convenience even when it is not necessary for clarity.

- 34.** The noun modified by the possessive is sometimes omitted, such a word as *house*, *store*, etc., being understood, as, “A visit to my *uncle’s*”; “the silks at *Macy’s*.”

The omission is noticed especially in the case of well-known public places, as, “A dinner at *Delmonico’s*” (restaurant); “the greatness of *St. Paul’s* or *St. Peter’s*” (church); “the season at *McVicker’s*” (theater); “his career at *St. James’s*” (court).

- 35.** The **apostrophe (’)** is called the **possessive sign**, and the pupil will need to exercise care in the use of it. The following directions are helpful:

Singular nouns add -’s to form the possessive case; as, *boy’s*, *neighbor’s*, *committee’s*, *America’s*.

Plural nouns not ending in -s also add -’s to form the possessive; thus, *children’s*, *deer’s*, *men-of-war’s*.

Plural nouns ending in -s add the apostrophe only, as, *attorneys’*, *friends’*, *committees’*, *neighbors’*.

- 36.** A few expressions have only the apostrophe in the singular, especially the phrases, “for appearance’ sake,” “for convenience’ sake,” “for conscience’ sake,” “for Jesus’ sake.” But the usual custom is to add -’s even if the singular noun ends in an s sound; for example, “*St. James’s* Square”; “the *princess’s* bicycle”; “for her *mistress’s* comfort”; “*Erasmus’s* dialogue”; “*Pythagoras’s* first rule.”

- 37.** Compound words form the possessive case singular and plural by the same rules as simple words; thus, “the *aide-de-camp’s* orders”; “my *fellow-pupil’s* troubles”; “the *women-servants’* wages”; “the *men-of-war’s* gallant



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crews.” (Compare with the rules for pluralizing these nouns, in Section 23.)

**The declension of a noun is the orderly arrangement of the forms for number and case. 38.**

The following nouns are declined in full.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	fairy	fairies
<i>Possessive</i>	fairy’s	fairies’
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	wife	wives
<i>Possessive</i>	wife’s	wives’
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	hero	heroes
<i>Possessive</i>	hero’s	heroes’
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	father-in-law	fathers-in-law
<i>Possessive</i>	father-in-law’s	fathers-in-law’s

### Parsing Examples (See Section 41)

1. My **father** was amongst the mighty **crowd**.

**father**: noun; common (class name); masculine; 3rd person; singular; **subject of “was”**; **nominative case**.

**crowd**: noun; collective; neuter; 3rd person; singular; **object of the preposition “amongst”**; **objective case**.

2. **Night’s** silvery veil hung low.

**night’s**: noun; common (class name); feminine [because Night is personified as a woman]; 3rd person; singular; **expresses ownership of “veil”**; **possessive case**.

### Exercises

(a) Write sentences using the possessive singular and plural of the following words:

ox, postmaster-general, thief, enemy, attorney, sheep, Mrs. Jackson, brother-in-law, dwarf, Miss Hall, hero, bandit, Englishman, fellow-pupil, gentleman.

(b) Use the possessive equivalent of each of the following phrases: (See section 45 in Syntax)

1. Shoes for men and boys.
2. Hats for ladies and misses.
3. The pianos of Knabe and Steinway.
4. The machines of Wilcox and Gibbs.
5. The bicycles of Albert and Henry (together).
6. The bicycles of Albert and Henry (separately).
7. Dresses for girls and women.
8. The boat belonging to Wilson and Baker.
9. The tennis court of the Reds and the Blues.

## PERSON

**39. Person is the form or use of a noun or pronoun to indicate the person speaking, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.**

**The word representing the speaker is said to be of the first person.**

**The word representing the person or thing spoken to is of the second person.**

**The word representing the person or thing spoken of is of the third person.**

Person is more important in the study of pronouns, because the personal pronouns have separate forms for

## NOUNS

the three persons; in nouns person depends upon the use of the words. In other words, person is not a special form or inflection of nouns but is shown by relation of words.

Nouns are most often of the third person, since they name the person or thing spoken of. **40.**

A noun is said to be of the first person when it stands in apposition with a pronoun which represents the speaker; as, “**I**, a household *pet*, naturally fell into her hands”; “**We**, the *children*, were all touched with pensiveness.”

A common use is in proclamations; as, “**I**, *Thomas Jefferson*, President of the United States of America, do hereby,” etc.

Nouns denoting the person or thing addressed are of the second person; as, “**Ye** *crag*s and *peak*s.”

### Parsing Examples (See Section 41)

1. **I**, a household **pet**, naturally fell into her **hands**.

**pet**: noun; common (class name); masculine [in the context of the book, Thomas de Quincey’s autobiography, a man is the speaker, “**I**”]; **1st person**; singular; in apposition with the subject “**I**”; nominative case.

**hands**: noun; common (class name); neuter; **3rd person**; plural; object of the preposition “into”; objective case.

## PARSING OF NOUNS

Parsing a word is putting together all the facts about its form and its relation to other words in the sentence. **41.**

We have studied the classes of nouns, and learned to recognize the gender, number, person, and case; we have already seen **Parsing Examples** in which certain words were taken from a sentence and all of the facts about it were given in a brief list.

Parsing deals with the regular facts and laws of the language; and the pupil should take notice at the start that in parsing **we must make allowance for idioms, which may defy all rules and make their own laws.**

**42.** To parse a noun, one should state all of its aspects:

(1) **class** (and subclass, if a common noun).

(2) **gender**.

(3) **number**.

(4) **person**.

(5) **office**.

(6) **case**.

Many examples of parsing have been given in the text. We have stated the class of the word or its nature, then gender and number indicate its inflection or form, and finally, person, office and case indicate its relation to other words in the sentence. (*Office* is another word for *use*, and names the specific *function* of the word in the sentence. It determines case, as we have seen.)

The following example offers a complete parsing, including an explanation for the different facts about the word, telling first what the word denotes or *does* and then, as a result, what it *is*, which is a natural, sensible order. (In the brief parsing order above, only the specific *office* in the sentence is mentioned, as determining *case*.)

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Is yon mute thing carved by man's art a goddess?

*Thing* is a name, therefore a **noun**; the name of any object of its class, therefore a **common class noun**; it names an object without life, hence is **neuter gender**; names one object, therefore **singular number**; names an object spoken of, and is **third person**; **subject of *is***, hence **nominative case**.

Follow this model with *man's*, *art*, and *goddess*.

## SYNTAX OF NOUNS

**Syntax is that department of English grammar 43. which deals with the relations of words, and with their right use in sentences.**

Nouns have no distinct forms for the nominative and objective cases; hence no mistake can be made in using them in these cases. But some remarks are required concerning the use of the possessive case.

Two words in apposition are usually treated as one 44. compound noun, the possessive sign being added to the last one only; as, "The recital of *Hodge the farmer's* woes"; "the length of *Victoria queen of England's* reign."

Often, however, it is found to be clearer as well as smoother in sound to use the prepositional phrase instead of a compound noun or a pair of appositional words; as, "The woes *of Hodge the farmer*"; "the reign *of Victoria queen of England*"; "the gallant crews *of the men-of-war*."

If two nouns modify the same word and denote **joint 45. origin, ownership**, etc., the apostrophe is added to the second modifier only; as, "*Mason and Dixon's* line"; "*Wheeler and Wilson's* machines." Examples are to be

seen every day in newspaper advertisements and business announcements.

If one of two possessive nouns has its modified word omitted and the other has its modified word expressed, and if **separate origin, ownership**, etc., is implied, the apostrophe is used with both modifiers; as, *Huyler's and Gunther's candies*"; "*Byron's and Shelley's poetry*."

### Sentences for General Exercise

1. I studied medicine two years.
2. The chains that held my left leg were about two yards long.
3. The emperor descended from the tower.
4. My good master, Mr. Bates, recommended me.
5. At the place where the carriage stopped, there once stood an ancient temple.
6. The last of these voyages not proving very fortunate, I grew weary of the sea.
7. Death, self-interest, and fortune's changes are every day breaking up many a happy group, and scattering them far and wide.
8. We write these words now, many miles distant from the spot at which, year after year, we met on that day, a merry and joyous circle.
9. Happy, happy Christmas, that can win us back to the delusions of youth!
10. The last observation of Mr. Weller's bore reference to a demonstration that Mr. Winkle made at the instant.
11. And now show the man of misery and gloom a few of the pictures from our great storehouse!
12. The bride's father, our good friend here, is a noble person, and I am proud to know him.
13. "I have called from Dodson and Fogg's," said Mr. Jackson.
14. The ward meetings on election days are not softened by any misgivings of the value of these ballotings.

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15. He was a complete family chronicle, which made him a great favorite with the old folks.
16. That keeps the good from our homes and hearts.  
And lets the evil in.
17. Ere long he reached the magnificent glacier of the Rhone;  
a frozen cataract more than two thousand feet in height,  
and many miles broad.
18. Maiden, that read'st this simple rhyme,  
Enjoy thy youth, it will not stay.
19. 'Fly pride,' says the peacock.

**NOTE TO TEACHER:** Lists of "Sentences for General Exercise" throughout the book may be used for parsing or to supplement the exercises on classification, inflection, etc.

## CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION

Every word and expression used as a proper name **46.** begins with a capital letter.

They include such words as the following:

- (1) **Names of persons, places, etc.**, as, *Garibaldi, New York, the City of Rocks, Buckeye State, Orphans' Home.*
- (2) Words, either nouns or adjectives, which are **derived from proper nouns**, as, *American, Parisian, Shakespearean.*
- (3) **Names of months, days of the week**, special days appointed as **holidays** or for **religious observance**, etc.; but *not* the names of the seasons, unless they are personified. Examples are: *September, Sunday, Thanksgiving Day, Easter, Fourth of July.*
- (4) **Names of religious bodies and political parties**; as, *Dominican, Presbyterian, Tory, Democrat.*
- (5) **Names for the Deity**; as, *Jehovah, the Infinite.*

## PARTS OF SPEECH

- (6) **Names of things personified**, as, “When *Music*, heavenly maid, was young”; “Now came still *Evening* on”; “But *Error*, wounded, writhes with pain.”
- (7) **In titles** of books, newspapers, essays, etc., not only the nouns have capitals, but all the principal words; as, *An Introduction to Chemical Science*; *The Scientific American*; *The Nineteenth Century*; *A Treatise on the Freedom of the Press*.
- (8) Capitalize such words as *street*, *river*, *mountain*, etc., if they are **used in connection with proper names**; the words of direction, *north*, *east*, etc., if they are used as nouns to name sections of country; and all titles used as part of proper names. Examples are: “This is *Fleet Street*, or *Euclid Avenue*; *Roane Mountain*; the prairies of the *West*; the *Duke of Wellington*; *Colonel Bonaparte*.”

### Exercise

Copy the following sentences and use capitals wherever they are needed, giving reasons:

- 1. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray  
Had in her sober livery all things clad.
- 2. One of dickens’s stories was published in the paper called  
“all the year round.”
- 3. Honor the light brigade,  
Noble six hundred !
- 4. He was a believer in the church of Rome.
- 5. Master simon gave them a christmas song.
- 6. These wise men came from the east.
- 7. But, Mr. speaker, the gentleman says we have a right to  
tax america!
- 8. Ben Jonson lived in Queen elizabeth’s reign.
- 9. I think uncle Henry lives on Broad street.
- 10. This essay, called “the rights of man,” caused discussion  
throughout the united states of america.



The apostrophe has the following uses:

47.

- (1) To mark the **possessive case**, as, the *World's* Fair.
- (2) To mark the **plural of letters**, figures, etc., as, *x's*, *8's*, *oh's*.
- (3) To show that **letters are omitted** from words, as,  
*'Tis* (it is) distance lends enchantment.

*They'll* (they will) bare their snowy scalps.

*We've* (*we have*) *been long together*.

Some uses of the comma should be noticed here in connection with the study of nouns:

48.

- (1) Nouns **independent by direct address** are set off from the rest of the sentence by the comma, as,  
Courage, *father*, fight it out!
- (2) Nouns in **apposition** are separated by the comma, unless they are used as parts of one name; for example,  
O gentle sleep, Nature's soft *nurse*.
- (3) Nouns used as **nominative absolute with a participle** are set off by the comma, as,  
*His father yielding to old age, the prince ascended the throne.*

### Exercise

Copy these sentences, insert apostrophes and commas where needed, and give reasons:

1. O sir Im sorry to give you a pain!
2. Twas the fishers wife at her neighbors door.
3. The moon a phantom vessel sails  
Past reefs of cloud in rugged lines.
4. The road passing straight through a waste moor the towers of a distant city appear.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

5. I wouldnt hurt you for a farm  
My pretty little neighbor!
6. He had under him in one of his dominions a briber a  
gift-taker a gratifier of rich men.
7. The end being given the means could not well be mis-  
taken.
8. Anne the mother of Francis Bacon was distinguished  
both as a linguist and as a theologian.
9. He came clattering up to the school door with an invita-  
tion to Ichabod to attend a merry-making or “quilting-  
frolic” to be held that evening at Mynheer Van Tassels.
10. “Well my dear,” said her father with a quiet laugh, “I  
didnt say you dont manage for everybodys good.”

## PRONOUNS

We have learned that the office of the pronoun is **to stand for a name, or for a noun.** It may have other uses in the sentence, but must have this quality of standing for a noun or its equivalent. **49.**

**A pronoun is a reference word, standing for a name, or for a person or thing, or for a group of persons or things.**

## CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

**Pronouns** may be grouped in five classes, which **50.** may be found by a study of the following sentences:

As soon as the captain came, he rallied his men around him.

In this sentence, the words *he*, *his*, and *him* evidently stand for *captain*, and denote a person *spoken of*. They are called **personal pronouns**. Other personal pronouns, as *I*, *we*, *me*, etc., denote the person *speaking*; and yet others, as *you*, *thou*, *thee*, etc., denote the person or thing *spoken to*.

**A personal pronoun is one that shows by its form whether it represents the person speaking, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.**

**Exercise.** Write sentences using five of the personal pronouns mentioned above.

**Consider** the following sentence:

**51.**

The person who effected so much by his eloquence was called Peter the Hermit.

In this sentence, two statements are put together. The main statement is, "The person was called Peter the Hermit"; and in this the word *person* is modified by the expression, "who effected so much by his eloquence."

The expression, "who effected so much by his eloquence," is equivalent to "*and he effected...*" ; *and* is a conjunction connecting the two members of the sentence, and *he* refers to *person* in the main division.

**A division of a sentence containing a subject and its predicate is called a clause.**

Two clauses have now been shown in this sentence. The word *who*, being equivalent to *and he*, connects clauses, and also refers to a noun in the sentence.

**A word that stands for some noun or equivalent of a noun in the sentence and also connects clauses is called a relative pronoun.**

**The name for which the pronoun stands is called its antecedent**, from a Latin word that means *going before*. The antecedent, as the term implies, usually comes before the pronoun, though not always, as shown in the sentences under Sections 56 and 57.

**NOTE:** A single clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence is a **simple sentence**. See Sections 95-97 for a fuller treatment of clauses and of simple and complex sentences. See also the chapter on Analysis.

## **52. Consider the pronoun in the question:**

What was the Priory like?

Here the word *what* does not stand for any word in the sentence, but is used to ask a question. The answer

might be, “It was like a church,” or “It was like an inn”; and the word *church* or the word *inn* would take the place of *what* in the sentence. Hence, *what* stands for a word or a group of words, and is a pronoun.

**A pronoun that is used to ask a question is called an interrogative pronoun.**

Consider the pronouns in the following statements: **53.**

1. These too belonged to the past.
2. I had no advantage over others of my age.
3. All was now placed beyond a doubt.

The words *these* in (1), *others* in (2), and *all* in (3), are terms that might modify nouns; as in the sentences, “*These* customs are strange”; “I saw *other* persons”; “*All* doubt disappeared.” But in sentences (1), (2), and (3), the words do not modify, but stand for nouns; in (1), *these* means the things previously mentioned; in (2), *others* contains the idea of persons; and so on.

**A word primarily an adjective, but used to stand for a noun, is called an adjective pronoun.**

**Exercise.** Write five sentences using as adjective pronouns the words *some*, *several*, *all*, *any*, *every*.

Finally, find the pronouns in the following sentence: **54.**

Let us also perform something worthy to be remembered.

The word *something* does not stand for a particular thing but for one of many possible things. It is an example of an **indefinite pronoun**.

**Indefinite pronouns are words which stand for an indefinite number or quantity of persons or**

**things; but unlike adjective pronouns they are never used as adjectives.**

Indefinite pronouns are often compound, made up of two or more words: *someone, anybody, somewhat*. They may also be simple, such as *what* or *they* in certain uses.

**Exercise.** Write five sentences using the indefinite pronouns *someone, nobody else, nothing, anything, everybody*.

To sum up, the five classes of pronouns are **personal, interrogative, relative, adjective, and indefinite**.

### Parsing Examples

1. As soon as the captain came, **he** rallied **his** men around **him**.

**he: pronoun, personal**, antecedent: "captain," masculine, singular, 3rd person, subject of "rallied," nominative case.

**his: pronoun, personal**, antecedent: "captain," masculine, singular, 3rd person, shows possession of "men," possessive case.

**him: pronoun, personal**, antecedent: "captain," masculine, singular, 3rd person, object of the preposition "around," objective case.

2. The person **who** effected so much by his eloquence was called Peter the Hermit.

**who: pronoun, relative**, antecedent: "person," masculine, singular, 3rd person, subject of "effected," nominative case.

3. **What** was the Priory like?

**What: pronoun, interrogative**, neuter, singular, 3rd person, predicate nominative of "Priory," nominative case.

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4. **These** too belonged to the past.

**These: pronoun, adjective (demonstrative)**, neuter [or gender unknown], plural, 3rd person, subject of “belonged,” nominative case.

5. Let us also perform **something** worthy to be remembered.

**something: pronoun, indefinite**, neuter, singular, 3rd person, object of “perform,” objective case.

### Classes of Pronouns:

#### 1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The declension of personal pronouns is as follows:

**55.**

1 <sup>ST</sup> PERSON		2 <sup>ND</sup> PERSON		3 <sup>RD</sup> PERSON		
<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>		
		<i>Old</i>	<i>Common</i>			
		<i>Form</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<b>Nom.</b>	I	thou	you	he	she	it
<b>Poss.</b>	mine, my	thine, thy	your, yours	his	her, hers	its
<b>Obj.</b>	me	thee	you	him	her	it
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>		
<b>Nom.</b>	we	ye	you	they		
<b>Poss.</b>	our, ours	your, yours	your, yours	their, theirs		
<b>Obj.</b>	us	you	you	them		

The pronouns of the first and the second person do not, by their form, indicate gender. They do not always

**56.**

refer to words in the sentence, but may stand for the names of persons speaking, or persons or things spoken to; and since they are used in direct speech, the gender need not be expressed by the form of the pronoun.

If, however, the context has a word to accompany the pronoun, the gender of the latter is clear; for example:

1. "*I* like the old custom," said the *Squire*.
2. *Niece*, I hope I see *you* well in health.
3. *Thou* hast done well, good *fellow*.

The singular pronouns of the third person, on the other hand, show by the form whether the object spoken of is a male or a female being, an inanimate object, or a living being whose gender is not important.

So exact are these forms in indicating gender that they are used to show whether certain nouns are regarded as masculine or feminine—for example, *friend*, *acquaintance*, *cousin*, etc.; as in the sentences:

1. My *companion* looked around *him* with transport.
2. The *invalid* retired with *her* maid to *her* bedroom.

They also accompany names of things personified, as shown in the following expressions:

1. *Night*, sable goddess, from *her* ebon throne.
2. As if *Death* were raging, ... seeking for *his* prey.

**Exercise.** Write sentences using five nouns from Section 12, with masculine pronouns, then with feminine, as illustrated above.

- 57.** There is no pronoun, however, of the third person *singular* to stand for terms that include both masculine and feminine. The examples in Section 56 are used expressly to show that a male or a female person is spoken



of; but when certain nouns or other words imply that both male *and* female persons are meant, the pronouns are defective. For instance, what shall we use to fill this blank "Every friend of mine has \_\_\_\_ own plans"?

The preferred way is to let the masculine pronoun stand for both masculine and feminine names, which would mean placing, "*his* own plans," in the sentence just quoted. Other examples are:

1. Who can tell, when *he* sets forth to wander, whither *he* may be driven ?
2. *Everyone* had *his* tale of shipwreck and disaster.
3. Any *man or woman* with a pennyworth of brains . . . must have gone off into a digression of *his* own.

Sometimes writers use both a masculine and a feminine pronoun in such a case; as:

No *male or female* remembers *his or her* first inclination any more than *his or her* own christening.

But there is no such difficulty when several objects or persons are represented by a plural pronoun. The forms *they, their, them*, are the only plurals for all genders:

1. [Persons] The *villagers* doffed *their* hats to the Squire.
2. [Things] The *sounds*, as *they* receded, became more soft.
3. [Persons and things] What has become of the charms of music, by which *men and beasts, fishes, fowls, and serpents* were so frequently enchanted, and *their* very natures changed ?

Occasionally the plural forms *we, our*, etc., are used **58.** to represent only one person, especially a ruler; for example, Queen Victoria's expression of disapproval:

*We* are not amused.

They are also often used by authors and editors, who are speaking with the purpose of making their words prominent but themselves less prominent; for example:

*We shall be pardoned, we hope, if we call the attention of our readers to the causes and to the consequences of that great event.*

- 59.** A form originally plural is used as a singular pronoun of the second person. We no longer say *thou, thee*, etc., in ordinary speech, but *you, your*. These forms are used in speaking to one person or more than one, always taking a plural verb, however, whether one or more are addressed. It is not correct to say, "You *was* a good friend," or the like.

The forms *thou, thine* or *thy, thee*, and *ye*, are often called the **solemn forms**, since they are used in the Bible, also in prayers and other kinds of worship; no quotations are needed to illustrate this familiar usage.

They may be called the **poetic forms** also, since they occur frequently in poetry and elevated prose style:

1. There was a boy, *ye* know him well, *ye* cliffs
2. I fear *thee* and *thy* glittering eye.
3. Bishop of Beauvais! *thy* victim died upon a scaffold—  
*thou* upon a down bed.

- 60.** The word *you*, and its possessive case *yours*, are sometimes used without reference to a particular person spoken to. They approach the *indefinite pronoun* in use.

The peasants take off their hats as *you* pass; *you* sneeze, and they cry, "God bless *you*!" The thrifty housewife shows *you* into her best chamber.

Longfellow here is describing what anyone would experience who traveled through villages in a particular region of Sweden; he speaks to no precise individual but

to all of his readers in general. Though the use is like that of an indefinite pronoun, when parsing we say that the pronoun is **personal in class, indefinite in use, and has no precise antecedent.**

The word *it* has several distinct uses:

**61.**

The regular use **as a pronoun**, to refer to some word or expression in the same sentence or a sentence close by. This reference may be *backward* to a preceding word:

1. The cheerful fire glanced *its* rays through the lattice.
2. Indeed, *he was the idol of the younger part of the company.* . . . I could not wonder at *it*.

In the first sentence, *it* stands for the noun *fire*; in the second, *it* stands for the whole statement preceding.

The reference may be *forward* to some noun or its equivalent in the sentence or a sentence close by; as:

1. None but those who have experienced *it* can form an idea of the delicious *throng of sensations*.
2. Shorn as it is of *its* ancient and festive honors, *Christmas* is still a period of delightful excitement.

Beside the regular use just given, there are some that are strikingly idiomatic, quite unlike the reference to particular expressions. These uses are:

**62.**

(a) **Introductory:** here *it* does not really stand for a noun and take the exact place of it in a sentence, but occupies a place as *grammatical subject*, while the *real subject* is a word, phrase, or clause following the predicate. (The *real subject* is sometimes called the *logical subject*.) Though *it* is singular, the real subject may be a plural word, as:

1. *It* was a fine, sunny morning.

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2. "*It* was the English," Kaspar cried, "who put the French to rout."
3. *It* is impossible to resist the gladdening influence of fine weather and fair wind.
4. *It* is a beautiful arrangement that this festival has been made the season for the gathering together of family connections.

(b) **Impersonal subject** as in the following common expressions: *It* is raining. *It* turned cold. *It* thundered and lightened. *It* was very late, etc. Here the verb has no other subject than *it*, which is a meaningless word in this use, the real idea being in the verb which follows, or in such a word as *rain*, *weather*, *air*, *time*, etc., in the mind of the speaker.

(c) **Impersonal object**, merely completing the assertion of the verb, but having no meaning of its own; for example:

1. How she (the ship) seems to lord *it* over the deep!
2. She sweeps *it* through the court with troops of ladies.

### Parsing Examples

1. **It** was a fine, sunny morning.

**It:** pronoun, personal, no antecedent, **grammatical subject**.

2. How the ship seemed to lord **it** over the deep.

**It:** pronoun, personal, no antecedent, **impersonal object**.

3. The peasants take off their hats as **you** pass.

**you:** pronoun, personal, no precise antecedent, gender unknown, singular, 2nd person, **subject, indefinite use**.

### Exercise

(a) Tell what is the antecedent of each personal pronoun of the third person in these sentences:

1. My own demurs to these harsh judgments were not so many as they might have been.
2. My brother did not share my inexpressible delight; his taste ran in a different channel.
3. No motive existed any longer for living near to a great trading town, so long after the commercial connection with it had ceased.
4. Cicero tells us that he never liked an orator who did not appear in some little confusion at the beginning of his speech.
5. To teach is to learn; according to an old experience, it is the very best mode of learning.
6. Every one ought to reflect how much more unhappy he might be than he really is.

(b) In the following sentences, tell which use the pronoun *it* has in each instance:

1. It was a very good time for talking.
2. It has been my lot to have my roving passion gratified.
3. I might fill a volume with the reveries of a sea voyage—for with me it is almost a continual reverie—but it is time to get to shore.
4. Certain it is, the place still continues under a spell.
5. He lorded it over his little empire, the school.
6. When I awoke, it rained.

### NOMINATIVE CASE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The nominative forms of these pronouns have, like **63.** nouns, the following uses:

- (1) **Subject** of a verb; as, “Thither *we* went.”

(2) **Predicate nominative**, or complement of an intransitive verb: “You are *he* who decided the victory.”

(3) **In apposition** with a nominative word, as, “There is the hero, *he* who saved our lives.”

(4) **Direct address** (*thou*, *ye*, and *you*), either alone, as in this expression, “O *ye*, whom wrath consumes!” or, much oftener, an adjunct of a noun addressed; as, “*Thou* Wind, that ravest without.”

(5) **In an absolute phrase**, usually with a participle; as, “I was obliged to part from my friends, *they* having been called away by a message.”

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences illustrating all the above uses.

## OBJECTIVE CASE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

**64.** The objective forms of the personal pronouns have mainly the same uses as objective nouns:

(1) **Direct object** of a verb, as, “Touch *us* gently, Time!”

(2) **Object of a preposition**, as, “For I will fly to *thee*.”

(3) **Indirect object** of a verb, as, “Sing *me* the song.”

(4) **In exclamations** the objective form *me* is often used, as, “Ah, *me* ! what rumor do I hear ?”

**Exercise.** Write fifteen sentences illustrating the first three uses above, five sentences for each use.

## POSSESSIVE CASE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The possessive forms *my, our, thy, your, her, its, their*, **65.** stand before nouns and modify, as adjectives do.

Besides these there are the possessive forms *mine, ours, thine, yours, hers, and theirs*, which imply possession but are seldom used to stand before a noun. The word *his* may stand before a noun or be used without a noun following.

This use of possessive forms, modifying but not standing before the modified noun, is called *absolute*, which means *cut loose from* the modified word; and the pronouns so used are called **absolute personal pronouns**, or sometimes **absolute possessive pronouns**.

They are not a separate class, but a special use of the personal pronouns. Examples of their use are:

1. 'Twas *mine*, 'tis *his*, and has been slave to thousands.
2. And since thou owns't that praise, I spare thee *mine*.

In their *function* (or *use*) in the sentence, the **absolute possessive forms** of the personal pronouns are very much like adjectives used as nouns.

In such sentences as, "*The good* alone are great," "*None but the brave* deserves *the fair*," the words italicized have an adjective force and also a noun force.

So in sentence (1) above, taken from Shakespeare's *Othello*, *mine* stands for *my purse*, or *property*, and *his* stands for *his purse*. In sentence (2), *mine* stands for *my praise*. But the two pronouns in (1) have a nominative use, whereas *mine* has an objective use.

In parsing, these are always **possessive in case**, but **nominative or objective in use**, according as the understood modified word is in the nominative or the objective.

## COMPOUND PERSONAL (OR REFLEXIVE) PRONOUNS

**66.** A pronoun is used reflexively when it is the direct or indirect object of a verb, and also refers to the same person or thing as the subject of that verb. For example:

I set *me* down and sigh.

Beyond this occasional use, certain words are classed separately as reflexive pronouns because their very form is reflexive. They consist usually of the possessive form of the personal pronoun united with the word *self*, *selves*; as, *myself*, *yourselves*.

1. We fill *ourselves* with ancient learning.

They are more properly called **compound personal pronouns**, as they are not always reflexive, as shown in the following example:

2. This great globe *itself* ... shall dissolve.

In this example, *itself* is used for emphasis, not to show any reception of action; rather, it is in apposition with the subject, *globe*. Accordingly, the pronoun is not in the objective but in the nominative case.

The following is a list of these compounds:

1 <sup>ST</sup> PERSON		2 <sup>ND</sup> PERSON		3 <sup>RD</sup> PERSON		
		<i>Old</i>	<i>Common</i>			
		<i>Form</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>masc.</i>	<i>fem.</i>	<i>neuter</i>
<i>Sing.</i>	myself	thyself, yourself		himself, herself, itself		
<i>Plur.</i>	ourselves	yourselves		themselves		

All these are in the nominative or the objective case; the form is the same for both cases.



### Parsing Examples

1. There is the hero, **he** who saved our lives.

**he:** pronoun, personal, antecedent “hero,” masculine, singular, 3rd person, in apposition with “hero,” nominative case.

2. I was obliged to part from my friends, **they** having been called away by a message.

**they:** pronoun, personal, antecedent “friends,” neuter gender [*or* gender unknown], plural, 3rd person, absolute use, nominative case.

3. Sing **me** the song.

**me:** pronoun, personal, antecedent unknown, gender unknown, singular, 1st person, indirect object, objective case.

4. Ah **me**! What rumor do I hear?

**me:** pronoun, personal, antecedent unknown, gender unknown, singular, 1st person, exclamation, objective case.

5. Some provinces have tried the experiment, as we have tried **ours**; and **theirs** have succeeded.

**ours:** pronoun, personal (absolute), antecedent “[our experiment],” objective use, possessive case.

**theirs:** pronoun, personal (absolute), antecedent “[their experiments],” nominative use, possessive case.

6. We fill **ourselves** with ancient learning.

**ourselves:** pronoun, personal (compound), antecedent “we,” gender: unknown, 1st person, plural, direct object, objective case.

**Exercise.** Select five of the compound pronouns listed in Section 66 and use them in sentences, first as nominative, then as objective case.

## Classes of Pronouns:

### 2. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

- 67.** The office of an **interrogative pronoun** is to ask a question and stand for the noun or equivalent of a noun that would answer the question.

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

An interrogative pronoun does not have an *antecedent* but rather stands for what we call a *subsequent*, which may be found in the answer to the question. An interrogative pronoun must agree with its subsequent in gender, person and number.

- 68.** Sentences are most often put into the form of a statement, as,

A burnt child fears the fire.

Notice that the words of this sentence are placed in the following order: (1) Subject (*a burnt child*); (2) Predicate (*fears*); (3) Object (*the fire*). This is known as the regular or normal order of words in a sentence.

Sentences may also be put into the form of a question, as,

Who calls me at the dead of night?

This sentence has the regular or normal order, just like that of the statement quoted above; but in many questions the subject does not come first, as in these sentences in transposed order:

#### A

1. What sort of a house is Woodstock?

## PRONOUNS

2. Who and what could it be?
3. What was the Cyclops doing here?

The real relations of the words may best be seen if they are rearranged from the transposed to the regular order:

### B

1. Woodstock is what sort of a house?
2. It could be who and what?
3. The Cyclops was doing what here?

In group A, the first word in each sentence asks the question; but we see from group B that the subjects are *Woodstock*, *it*, and the *Cyclops*.

**Sentences that ask direct questions are called interrogative sentences**, whether in transposed or in regular order.

### Exercise

Rearrange the words of these sentences if necessary, then tell the office of each italicized word:

1. And by *what* appeal hereafter shall we attempt to rouse up native valor?
2. *Who can* estimate the power of gentle influences?
3. *What* could the little bird mean by pouring forth such a song at midnight?
4. *Which* way should the unhappy victim turn?
5. *Whom* had he gained by this contempt?
6. For *what* had we come up to London?
7. *Which* would my uncle the captain prefer?
8. *Who* is she in bloody coronation robes?

9. *What* was the reason that the Greeks and the Romans had not the advantage of printed books?

10. This soldier, this officer—*who* are they?

**NOTE:** The pupil should be careful to use a question mark after each interrogative sentence.

**69.** The following sentences illustrate the uses and also the forms of the interrogative pronoun *who*:

1. *Who* were the persons that lodged in this house when it was first built?
2. *Whose* monument is this? A neglected poet's who died not long ago.
3. I turned to share the transport—Oh! with *whom*  
But Thee, deep buried in the silent tomb?

**Exercise.** Identify the case of each interrogative pronoun in the above sentences, and give the reason for your answer.

**70.** From the sentences in Section 69 it may be seen that *who* as an interrogative pronoun refers to *persons only*; that it is inflected for case, but not for number; and that, since it asks *about* a person, it is always of the third person.

**71.** The following sentences show the uses of the interrogative pronoun *which*:

1. A rich young English peer in the reign of George the Second; a wealthy patrician in the reign of Augustus; *which* would you rather have been?
2. *Which* of us was so witty? Was it I or you?
3. *Which* of the children can the fond mother punish?
4. There was war with its horrors, and peace at a sacrifice—which would he prefer?

**Exercise.** Tell the use of each interrogative pronoun in Section 71 above, and tell in which case each is.

These exercises show that the interrogative pronoun *which* asks about either persons or things; that it is not inflected for case, the form for the nominative and objective being the only one; nor is it inflected for number, as the simple form refers to one person or thing or more than one; that it is always of the third person; and that it is *selective* in its use, that is, it picks out one or more from a number of known objects. **72.**

The uses of the interrogative pronoun *what* are shown in the following sentences: **73.**

1. *What* have I but my word, and my honor?
2. And *what* had been his conduct in that country?
3. When we sum up all the useful truths which we owe to that philosophy, to *what* do they amount?
4. After all, *what* were the charms that had laid the lorn youth a slave at her feet ?

**Exercise.** Tell the use of the italicized word in each sentence in Section 73; then tell in which case it is.

It will be observed that the interrogative pronoun *what* stands for *things*; that it is not inflected for case, or for number; that it is always of the third person; that it is usually singular, but may be the complement after a plural subject. **74.**

## 75. The forms of the interrogative pronouns, then, are:

	SING. & PLUR.	SING. & PLUR.	SING. & PLUR.
<i>Nom.</i>	who?	which?	what?
<i>Poss.</i>	whose?	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	whom?	which?	what?

*Whose*, being a possessive form, is always a modifier; *who* (with *whose* and *whom*), *which*, and *what* are also relative pronouns (Section 79); *which* and *what* are also interrogative or relative adjectives; and *what* has still other uses, to be mentioned later.

### Parsing Examples

1. **Who** were the persons that lodged in this house when it was first built?

**Who:** pronoun, interrogative, gender unknown, plural, 3rd person, predicate nominative, nominative case.

A rich young English peer in the reign of George the Second; a wealthy patrician in the reign of Augustus; **which** would you rather have been?

**which:** pronoun, interrogative, masculine, singular, 3rd person, predicate nominative, nominative case.

### Exercises

1. Write six sentences using the forms *who*, *whose*, and *whom* as interrogative pronouns—two sentences for each word.
2. Write four sentences using *which* as an interrogative pronoun—two sentences for the nominative use, and two for the objective use.
3. Write four sentences, using *what* as you used *which* in Exercise 2.

## Classes of Pronouns:

### 3. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The **relative pronoun** differs from both personal and interrogative pronouns. It does the double work of joining two clauses (Section 51) and of standing for a noun. **76.**

It is called *relative* because words of this class usually *relate* to an antecedent in another clause.

**NOTE:** A relative pronoun may be called a *conjunctive pronoun* because it connects clauses, as conjunctions do (cf. Section 220).

In order to find out the antecedent of a relative pronoun, the best way at first is to divide the sentence into its clauses and find out what word the pronoun takes the place of. For example, the sentence, **77.**

He maintained the same cheerfulness of heart upon the scaffold which he used to show at his table,

is made up of two statements: "He maintained...scaffold," and "he used to show [this cheerfulness] at his table." It is clear that *which* takes the place of *cheerfulness*.

**Exercise.** Mention the antecedent of each relative pronoun in sentences 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, and 8 of the Exercise after Sections 97.

As to the case of these words, that depends upon the *use of each relative pronoun in its own clause*. The same rules about case hold good here as with nouns, personal and interrogative pronouns, etc. **78.**

The **simple relative pronouns** are *who*, *which*, *that*; the word *what* is sometimes called a **double rela-** **79.**

**tive pronoun** because of its additional treatment as *that which*; and *whoever, whichever, whatsoever...*, are called **indefinite** or **compound relative pronouns**.

### Parsing Example

He maintained the same cheerfulness of heart upon the scaffold **which** he used to show at his table.

**which: pronoun, relative (simple),** antecedent “cheerfulness,” neuter, singular, 3rd person, direct object of “used to show.”

### Exercise

(a) Unite the following sets of statements, using relative pronouns to join them:

1. All the men were lost. They were in the ship.
2. My hair was tied down. It was very long.
3. One made a speech. He was a nobleman.
4. One soldier was killed. His sword was broken.
5. Their horses are useful. They are very small.
6. The men have come. You sent for them.
7. The watch is lost. The boy had bought it.
8. Those are the men. Their sons are in the army.

(b) In the sentences you have made, tell whether each relative pronoun is the subject of its clause, the object, or a possessive modifier.

**80.** The following sentences illustrate the forms and the uses of the relative pronoun *who*:

1. I, *who* had been placed under the tuition of one of my guardians, remained some time longer under his care.
2. To us *who* have seen the solution, the question presents few difficulties.



## PRONOUNS

3. O Time! *who* know'st a lenient hand to lay  
Softest on sorrow's wound.
4. O ye *who* teach the ingenuous youth of nations,  
I pray ye flog them upon all occasions.
5. The clergyman *who* then dwelt in the manse stood  
watching the outbreak of a long and deadly struggle.
6. The hermit had called the dogs *who* made this clamor  
to aid him in his defense.
7. We *whose* names are hereunto subscribed do solemnly  
declare, that we do believe that two and two make four.
8. A few barons, *whose* names ought to be clear to their  
country, joined Bruce in his attempt.
9. O thou! with *whom* my heart was wont to share  
From Reason's dawn each pleasure and each care.
10. It is not merely, sir, those *whom* I, John Lambert,  
priest, have joined, let no man put asunder.

**Exercise.** Point out the antecedent of each relative pronoun in the sentences above, and give its gender, person, and number.

The above sentences show that the relative pronoun *who* relates usually to persons, though sometimes to animals; that it is inflected for case, but not for gender, number, and person. The agreement of the pronoun with its antecedent is, however, often shown by the form of the verb of which the pronoun is the subject.

The sentences below will illustrate the forms and **81.**  
uses of the relative pronoun *which*:

1. We heard a distant thwacking sound, *which* he informed me was a signal for the serving-up of dinner.
2. The poor lady was herself agitated by the flutter and agitation *which* she saw in her young companion.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

3. We were escorted by a number of gentlemanlike dogs, the last of *which* was of a race that had been in the family time out of mind.
4. The gallant Frith the eye might note,  
Whose islands on its bosom float,  
Like emeralds chased in gold.
5. The highroads were choked with loaded wains, *whose* axle-trees crackled under the burdens of wine casks and hogsheads of ale.
6. At the same time he delivered a letter, *which* my friend read to me as soon as the messenger had left him.

**Exercise.** In the above sentences, point out the antecedent of each relative pronoun, indicating person, number, and case.

A study of the first three sentences above shows that *which* relates to *animals and things*; that it has one case form for the possessive, and one for the nominative and objective; that it does not change its form to indicate the gender, person, and number of its antecedent.

**82.** The following quotations illustrate the uses of the relative pronoun *that*:

1. Dear Babe, *that* sleepest cradled by my side.
2. My garden, *that* skirted the avenue of the manse, was of precisely the right extent.
3. Who *that* has seen the world, has not admired that astonishing ease with which fine ladies drop you and pick you up again?
4. You, friends, *that* have stood by me all these years, help me now!
5. I was making some remarks upon a flock of peacocks, *that* were basking upon a sunny wall.
6. Such a solitude as the Old Manse, where he plucks the fruit of trees *that* he did not plant.

**Exercise.** Give the gender, person, number, and case of each relative pronoun in the above quotations.

As is clear in the sentences above, *that* relates to *persons*, *animals*, and *things*; it has only one form for singular and plural number, and for all genders, numbers, and cases.

To sum up all the facts about the simple relative pronouns, we find that: **83.**

*Who* and its forms usually refer to persons, but sometimes to the higher animals as well.

*Which* and its forms refer to animals and things and point out one or more from a number of known objects.

*That* relates to persons, animals, and things.

*Who* has three case forms, *which* has two, while *that* has only one form.

The declension of *who* and *which* is just like that of the interrogatives, except that the relative *which* has a possessive form, *whose*.

### Exercise

Write sentences using the relatives *who*, *which*, and *that*, as follows:

(1) *Who* as subject, third person singular; (2) *who* as subject, second person plural; (3) *who* as object of a verb, third person plural; (4) form of *who* as possessive, first person singular; (5, 6, 7) *which* and its forms as nominative, possessive, and objective, third person plural (8, 9, 10) *that* nominative plural, objective plural, objective singular, second person.

The relative *what* is handled differently, because it has usually no antecedent, but is singular, neuter, third **84.**

person. Its case is determined exactly as that of other relatives. In the sentence,

What cannot be cured must be endured,

the verb *must be endured* is the predicate of something. What must be endured? Answer: *What cannot be cured*. The whole expression is its subject. The word *what*, however, is subject of the verb *cannot be cured*, and hence is in the nominative case.

What we call nature is a certain self-regulated motion or change.

Here the subject of *is*, etc., is *what we call nature*; but of this, *we* is the subject, and *what* is the direct object of the verb *call*, so is in the objective case.

Some prefer another method of treatment. As shown in the following sentences, *what* is equivalent to *that which*:

*That which* is pleasant often appears under the name of evil; and *what* is disagreeable to nature is called good and virtuous.

It has been said that "common souls pay with *what* they do, nobler souls with *that which* they are."

Hence some take *what* as a **double relative**, and parse *that* in the first clause, and *which* in the second clause; that is, "common souls pay with *that* [singular, object of *with*] *which* [singular, object of *do*] they do..."

The following sentences serve to illustrate the uses of the relative pronoun *what*:

1. In the world some persons assimilate only *what* is ugly and evil.
2. *What* was good and nourishing food for the spirits of one generation will not do for the next.

## PRONOUNS

3. It is my belief that social intercourse cannot long continue *what* it has been.
4. I wandered among *what* once were chapels.
5. The trial of skill was made with *what* were called the arms of courtesy.
6. Nothing retained any sap except *what* was written for the passing day and year.

**Exercise.** Give the number and case of *what* in each of the sentences just quoted.

The forms of the relative pronouns, then, are:

**85.**

SINGULAR AND PLURAL				
<i>Nom.</i>	who	which	that	what
<i>Poss.</i>	whose	whose	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	whom	which	that	what

**Indefinite relatives** are, by meaning and use, not as direct as the simple relatives. **86.**

They are *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*; less common are *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whichsoever*, *whatsoever*. They are sometimes called **compound relatives**. However, not all are compound: the simple relatives *who*, *which* and *what* may also be used as indefinite relatives. The following sentences give examples of indefinite relatives:

1. *Whoever* has made a voyage up the Hudson must remember the Catskill Mountains.
2. "Pass on, *whosoever* thou art," was the answer given by a deep, hoarse voice from within the hut.
3. *Whoso* is heroic will always find crises to try his edge.
4. *Whatever* had looked ugly was now beautiful.

5. He would hit me with his stable broom or the fork, *whichever* he might have in his hand.
6. Only itself can inspire *whom* it will.
7. God offers to every mind its choice between truth and repose. Take *which* you please, – you cannot have both.
8. Do *what* we can, summer will have its flies.

**Exercise.** In the above sentences, tell the case of each indefinite relative pronoun, and see whether each refers to a person or to a thing.

**87.** The fitness of the term *indefinite* here cannot be shown better than by examining the following sentences:

1. There is something so overruling in *whatever* inspires us with awe, in *all things which* belong ever so remotely to terror, that nothing else can stand in their presence.
2. Death is there associated, not with *everything that* is most endearing in social and domestic charities, but with *whatever* is darkest in human nature and in human destiny.

It is clear that in (1), *whatever* is equivalent to *all things which*, and in (2), to *everything that*; no certain antecedent, no particular thing, is being referred to in either case. It is not simply a question of not knowing the antecedent; no precise antecedent is to be sought. So with the other indefinites.

**88.** The above helps us to discriminate between *what* as a simple and *what* as an indefinite relative.

As shown in section 84, the simple relative *what* is equivalent to *that which* or the *thing which* – some particular thing; however, in the last sentence of Section 86, *what* is used to mean *anything that*, *everything that* (or *everything which*) – no particular thing.

To determine whether *what* is used as a simple or as an indefinite, we can only look to the meaning of the sentence, as *what* hardly ever has an antecedent which is named or known.

The examples 6. and 7. in Section 86 show that *who* and *which* have no antecedent expressed, but mean *any one whom, either one that*, etc.

## HOW TO PARSE RELATIVES

The *gender, number, and person* of the relatives *who*, *which*, and *that* must be determined by those of the antecedent; the *case* depends upon the function of the relative in its own clause. 89.

For example, consider the following sentence:

He uttered truths *that* wrought upon and molded the lives of those *who* heard him.

Since the relatives hold the sentence together, we can, by taking them out, let the sentence fall apart into three divisions:

1. He uttered truths.
2. The truths wrought upon and molded the lives of the people.
3. These people heard him.

*That* obviously refers to truths, and consequently is neuter, third person, plural number. *Who* plainly stands for *those* or *the people*, either of which would be neuter, third person, plural number. Here the relative agrees with its antecedent.

We cannot say that the relative agrees with its antecedent in *case*. *Truths* in sentence (2), above, is the subject of *wrought upon and molded*; in (1) it is the direct object of *uttered*. In (2), *people* is the object of the prepo-

sition of; in (3), it is subject of the verb *heard*. Now, *that* takes the case of *the truths* in (2), not of *truths* which is expressed in the original sentence: consequently *that* is in the nominative case. In the same way *who*, standing for *the people* understood in the original sentence, subject of *heard*, is in the nominative case.

Indefinite relatives are to be parsed in the same manner, since they always include a simple relative and follow the same rules of agreement.

If the antecedent of a simple relative pronoun is unknown, simply express that fact. Indefinite relatives are considered to have no definite antecedent.

The parsing order of pronouns is given in Section 105, and resembles that of nouns.

### Parsing Examples

1. **What** cannot be cured must be endured.

**What:** pronoun, relative (simple), antecedent unknown, neuter, singular, 3rd person, subject of “cannot be cured,” nominative case.

2. It has been said that “common souls pay with **what** they do, nobler souls pay with **that which** they are.”

**what:** pronoun, relative (double), antecedent unknown, neuter, singular, 3rd person, object of the preposition “with,” objective case.

**that:** pronoun, relative (simple), antecedent unknown, neuter, singular, 3rd person, object of the preposition “with,” objective case.

**which:** pronoun, relative (simple), antecedent “that,” neuter, singular, 3rd person, predicate nominative, nominative case.



3. Only itself can inspire **whom** it will.

**whom:** pronoun, relative (indefinite), no definite antecedent, gender unknown, number unknown, 3rd person, object of the verb "will [inspire]."

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS

All the sentences that were studied under interrogative pronouns were **direct questions**, that is, quoted directly, in the language of the questioner himself. **90.**

Instead of quoting a question exactly as a person asks it, we may put it into our own words so as to make it part of another sentence; thus: "His curiosity began to awake, and he demanded of the guide *who and what he was*." This latter part is called an **indirect question**. The original words were, "Who and what are you?"

It is to be noticed that usually only a direct question is enclosed in quotation marks and followed by a question mark.

Hitherto all interrogative pronouns have been studied in direct questions and all relative pronouns in direct statements; but in fact interrogative pronouns are often found in an indirect question contained in a statement, and relative pronouns may form part of a sentence making a direct question. **91.**

For these reasons, it is sometimes hard for the student to tell a relative from an interrogative pronoun. In the regular direct question the interrogative is easily recognized; so is the relative when an antecedent is close by. But compare the following sentences in pairs:

1. (a) Like a gentleman of leisure *who* is strolling out for pleasure.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

- (b) Well we knew *who* stood behind, though the earthwork hid them.
2. (a) But *what* you gain in time is perhaps lost in power.
- (b) But *what* had become of them they knew not.
3. (a) These are the lines *which* heaven-commanded  
Toil shows on his deed.
- (b) And since that time I thought it not amiss

To judge *which* were the best of all these three.

In sentences 1. (a), 2. (a), and 3. (a), the pronoun is used regularly, as a relative: *gentleman* is the antecedent of *who*; *what* has the double use of pronoun and antecedent; and *lines* is the antecedent of *which*.

But in sentences 1. (b), 2. (b), and 3. (b), there are two points of difference from the others considered: first, no antecedent is expressed, which would indicate that they are not relatives; second, a question is disguised in each sentence, although each sentence as a whole is declarative in form. Thus, if expanded, the pronouns are clearly interrogative:

1. (b) *Who* stood behind? We knew well...
2. (b) But *what* had become of them? They knew not.
3. (b) *Which* were the best of all these three? I thought it not amiss to judge...

In studying such sentences,

- 1) see whether there is an antecedent of *who* or *which*, and whether *what* = *that* + *which* (if so, it is a simple relative; if not, it is either an indefinite relative or an interrogative pronoun);

## PRONOUNS

- 2) see if the pronoun introduces an indirect question, if necessary expanding the sentences as above to discover any hidden questions (if it does, it is an interrogative; if not, it is an indefinite relative – cf. Sections 86-88).

On the other hand, care must be taken to see whether the pronoun is the word that really *asks the question* in an interrogative sentence. Examine the following:

1. Sweet rose! whence is this hue  
Which doth all hues excel?
2. And then what wonders shall you do  
Whose dawning beauty warms us so?
3. Is this a romance? Or is it a faithful picture of *what*  
has lately been in a neighboring land?

These are interrogative sentences, but in none of them does the pronoun ask the question. In the first, *whence* is the interrogative word, *which* has the antecedent *hue*. In the second, *whose* has the antecedent *you*, and asks no question. In the third, the question is asked by the verb.

### Exercise

- (a) Write five sentences having direct questions.
- (b) Change these to indirect questions.
- (c) Tell which kind of pronoun each italicized word is in the following sentences:
  1. It need not be inquired where or from *whom* he learned the lesson of filial disobedience.
  2. *Who* were the persons in *whom* he placed the greatest confidence, and *who* took the warmest interest in his schemes?
  3. I pray your Lordship to let me know *whom* you will favor.

4. How can I talk to gentlemen when I do not know *which* of them have received gratification?
5. *What* is so pleasant as these jets of affection *which* make a young world for me again?
6. He had twenty friends *who* would release him from his confinement; to *which* of them should he apply, was the question.
7. He demanded again of the unknown culprit *what* he came there for, and *whom* he was seeking.

(d) Rewrite sentences 3 and 7 so as to form direct questions.

**92.** The relative is frequently omitted in spoken and in literary English when it would be the object of a preposition or a verb. Hardly a writer can be found who does not leave out relatives in this way when they can be readily supplied in the mind of the reader. Thus:

These are the sounds [which] we feed upon.

*I visited many other apartments, but shall not trouble my reader with all the curiosities [which] I observed.*

### Exercise

Put in the relatives *who*, *which* or *that* where they are omitted from the following sentences, and see whether the sentences are any smoother or clearer:

1. The insect I am now describing lived three years.
2. He opened the volume he first took from the shelf.
3. The thing I want to see is not Redbook Lists, and Court Calendars, but the life of man in England.
4. When Goldsmith died, half the unpaid bill he owed to Mr. William Filby was for clothes supplied to his nephew.
5. The material they had to work upon was already democratical by instinct and habitude.

An important distinction between clauses introduced by relative pronouns is yet to be made; and it will best be brought out by studying two sentences: **93.**

1. Like all men who know but a few books, he looked up to them with a kind of idolatry.
2. They all liked the lad, whose frank, cordial ways and honest face got him a welcome in most places.

In sentence (1), the statement, "Like all men, he looked up to them. . . ." would not be a truthful one; the action is stated, not of "all men," but of "all men who know but a few books." The clause, *who know but a few books*, is called a **restrictive clause**, because it restricts or limits the meaning of the word it modifies.

In sentence (2), the reader is supposed to know who the lad is; the clause, *whose frank, cordial ways. . .*, is not needed to describe the lad, but adds another fact to what is already known. It is really equivalent to "*and his frank, cordial ways...*"—a conjunction and a personal pronoun, and is called a **coordinate** or **unrestrictive clause**.

**A relative clause that is necessary to the meaning of the word it modifies, is a restrictive clause.**

**A relative clause that adds a fact to one already clear and complete, is an unrestrictive clause.**

The pronouns *who* and *which* introduce both kinds of clauses; *that*, usually a restrictive clause only. **94.**

In many cases nothing but the punctuation shows whether the clause is restrictive or not. If a comma were placed after *men* in sentence (1) above, and if the comma were omitted after *lad* in sentence (2), the meaning of each sentence would be changed.

A comma is always used to separate an **unrestrictive relative clause** from the rest of the sentence.

### Exercise

(a) Tell which of the relative clauses in the following sentences are restrictive, and which unrestrictive:

1. Mr. Harry, who ought to have known better, was lying on his face quite motionless.
2. You who are ill and sore from the buffets of Fate, have you one or two of these sweet physicians?
3. Doubtless there were thousands of men employed who were as good as they.
4. He was engaged in capturing those guns at Louisburg, of which the arrival caused such joy.
5. His nose curved boldly forth, flushed with a frost-bitten bloom that seemed the trophy of December.

(b) Distinguish in meaning these sentences as they stand, from the same with commas inserted:

1. A traveler falls in with a berry [,] which he has never seen before.
2. When we sum up all the useful truths [,] which we owe to that philosophy, to what do they amount?
3. His object was to free millions of his subjects from penal laws and disabilities [,] which hardly any person now considers as just.
4. He could turn his eyes nowhere without meeting some object [,] which reminded him that he was a stranger.
5. He had to deal with a people [,] whose noble weakness it is not to press too hard on the vanquished.

(c) Punctuate the following sentences as necessary, and give the reason in each case:

1. He was soon at ease with his honest host whose manners were quite simple and cordial.
2. What honest man that can choose his lot would be a prince, let us say?
3. A gravel walk ran around this green beyond which was a wall and gate-sign.

4. Her complexion which was exceedingly fair was further ornamented with a pair of red cheeks which he took to be natural roses.
5. Almost all who beheld him, nay, even those who cheated him, trusted him.
6. This was no other than Mr. Wolfe who was soberly eating a chicken and salad.
7. "I must make them a present," said he, clapping his hand into his pocket which was filled with the crisp notes.
8. He was living with a man and woman who had seen the world, though they lived retired from it.

### RELATIVE PRONOUNS IN COMPLEX SENTENCES

In studying Analysis in the Introduction we considered only those sentences which have one subject and predicate, and found out what elements these sentences contained. **95.**

**A sentence having only one statement, question, or command is a simple sentence.**

In Section 51, however, we studied a group of words having two clauses so knit together as to form one sentence. **96.**

The main division, "The person was called Peter the Hermit," is one that makes a complete meaning when standing alone, that does not need the aid of any other clause; the other division, "who effected so much by his eloquence," does not make sense when standing alone, but, like an adjective, modifies the word *person* in the preceding clause.

**A main, principal, or independent clause is one that makes a statement, question, or command without the aid of another clause.**

**A subordinate or dependent clause is one that does not make complete sense when alone, but is a subordinate element in a sentence.**

**A complex sentence is one that consists of one main clause, and one or more subordinate clauses.**

In the study of relative pronouns especially, a knowledge of complex sentences is very necessary.

**97.** In the two sentences following may be seen two kinds of dependent, or subordinate clauses:

1. The great stream which fertilizes the soil is the chief highway of Eastern commerce.
2. How dost thou know what he containeth?

We may, in analyzing these, first treat each as a simple sentence, taking as its subject the subject of the main clause. This is the analysis:

In (1), *The great stream which fertilizes the soil*, is the subject; *is the chief highway of Eastern commerce* is the predicate. To be more minute, the bare or simple subject is *stream*, modified by a clause *which fertilizes the soil*; this clause modifies a noun and so must be an **adjective clause**. The clause may then be analyzed: subject *which*, predicate *fertilizes*, etc.

In (2), *thou* is the subject, *dost know what he containeth* is the predicate; of the predicate, *dost know* is the verb, *what he containeth* is the object, and, having this use, must be a **noun clause**. This clause should now be analyzed like a simple sentence.

**An adjective clause is one having the use of an adjective.**

**A noun clause is one used as subject, complement, object, etc., like a single noun.**



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A fuller consideration of complex sentences may be found in the chapter on Conjunctions, particularly Sections 220-222, and in the chapter on Analysis, particularly Sections 276-283

### Exercise

Point out the dependent clauses in the following sentences; tell how each clause is used, then analyze it like a simple sentence:

1. Amidst all the evils that threaten me, I will look up to Him for help.
2. How many men are country curates that might have made themselves aldermen in London!
3. Till about twelve o'clock in the morning, these needy persons know not what they shall say.
4. My landlord, who was a jolly good-natured man, took it into his head that I wanted company.
5. I love to read books which he delighted in.
6. He was not ill qualified to conduct the work which he had planned.
7. Those had little reason to laugh who encountered them in the hall of debate or in the field of battle.

## Classes of Pronouns:

### 4. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

Most of the words now to be considered are capable **98.** of a double use: they may be pure modifiers of nouns, or they may stand for nouns. In the first use they are adjectives; in the second they retain an adjective *meaning*, but have lost their adjective *use*. Primarily, they are adjectives, but in this function, or use, they are properly classed as adjective pronouns.

The following are some examples of these:

1. He shrugged his shoulders, shook his head, cast up his eyes, but said nothing. *This*, however, always provoked a fresh volley from his wife.
2. *Some* say that the place was bewitched.
3. *One* taste provoked *another*; and he reiterated his visits to the flagon so often that at length his senses were overpowered, his eyes swam in his head, his head gradually declined, and he fell into a deep sleep.

In (1), the word *this* stands for the sentence before it, but does not modify; it is not an adjective here, but a pronoun. In (2), the word *some* modifies no noun but stands for *some people* and hence is a pronoun. However, in (3), *another* modifies *taste*, which is understood but not repeated, just as *one* modifies *taste* expressed, and both are adjectives.

The italicized words in (1) and (2) are like adjectives used as nouns, which we have seen in such expressions as, "*The dead* are there." **A word, in order to be an adjective pronoun, must not modify any word, expressed or understood. It must come under the requirement of pronouns, and stand for a noun.**

Consider the following sentences,

1. The cubes are of stainless ivory, and on *each* is written, in letters of gold, 'Truth.'
2. You needs must play such pranks as *these*.
3. They will always have one bank to sun themselves upon, and *another* to get cool under.
4. Where two men ride on a horse, *one* must ride behind.

The words italicized modify nouns understood, necessarily thought of because mentioned in the same sentence; thus, in the first, "each *cube*"; in the second, "these *pranks*"; in the others, "another *bank*," "one *man*." They

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are not adjective pronouns, but adjectives whose noun is simply not repeated, for the sake of elegance.

### Parsing Examples

1. He shrugged his shoulders, shook his head, cast up his eyes, but said nothing. **This**, however, always provoked a fresh volley from his wife.

**This:** pronoun, adjective (**demonstrative**), antecedent: previous sentence, neuter, singular, 3rd person, subject of “provoked,” nominative case.

2. One taste provoked **another**; and he reiterated his visits so often to the flagon...

**another:** adjective, quantitative, distributive numeral, no comparison, modifies “taste.”

### Exercise

In the following paragraphs, tell which of the italicized words are pronouns, and which adjectives:

1. They were dressed in a quaint, outlandish fashion. *Some* wore short doublets; *others*, jerkins, with long knives in their belts; and *most* of them had enormous breeches, of similar style with *that* of the guide's. *One* had a large head, broad face, and small piggish eyes. The face of *another* seemed to consist entirely of nose. They *all* had beards.
2. The blast that bore it to our ears swept us out of *all* further hearing. I shall never forget *that* cry. It was *some* time before we could put the ship about, she was under *such* headway. We cruised about for *several* hours in the dense fog. We fired signal guns, and listened if we might hear the halloo of *any* survivors; but *all* was silent.

Adjective pronouns are divided into three classes, demonstrative, distributive, and numeral. **99.**

**Demonstrative pronouns** are used to point out some special object, person, or expression, such as *this*, *that*, *the former*, etc.

**Distributive pronouns** are used in speaking of persons or things singly, such as *each*, *either*, *neither*, etc.

**Numeral pronouns** stand for an uncertain number or quantity of persons or things, such as *some*, *any*, *few*, *many*, *none*, *all*, etc.

- 100.** The **demonstrative pronouns** are *this*, *that* (plurals *these*, *those*), *such*, *the same*, *the former ... the latter*, *the one ... the other*. They definitely point out what persons or things are alluded to in the sentence.

The person or thing alluded to by the demonstrative may be named in another sentence, or may be the whole of a sentence. For example, "Be *that* as it may" could refer to a sentiment in a sentence, or an argument in a paragraph; but the demonstrative clearly points to that thing.

The following are examples of demonstratives:

1. (a) I did not say *this* in so many words.  
(b) The head, the diadem, the arm—*these* all had sunk.
2. (a) Have you forgotten me? *That* might well be the case if I were as much altered as yourself.  
(b) The behavior of the present family was contrasted with *that* of the old lord and lady; who were better folks than *those* now in possession.
3. He hurled the mace against the head of the Emir, for *such* his enemy appeared.
4. Ichabod pulled up, and fell into a walk, thinking to lag behind; the other did *the same*.
5. His Eastern attendants wore silver collars round their throats, and bracelets of the same metal upon their

## PRONOUNS

swarthy arms and legs, of which *the former* were naked from the elbow, and *the latter* from mid-leg to ankle.

6. In this city Alcander and Septimius were fellow students together. *The one* the most subtle reasoner of all the Lyceum; *the other* the most eloquent speaker.

**Exercise.** Mention the word or expression for which each demonstrative pronoun stands in the sentences above.

*That* and *those* have several uses: *That* may refer to a group of words, as in Section 100, 2(a). *That* and *those* may stand for some single word, being used to prevent the repetition of that word, as in Section 100, 2(b). *Those* is often used as the antecedent of a relative pronoun, to refer to a number of persons; thus, “ ‘As to *those* who have bad constitutions,’ he said, ‘let them die.’ ” 101.

*The former ... the latter* and *the one ... the other* are useful words in pointing out two persons or objects named in a sentence, *the former* or *the one* referring to the first mentioned, *the latter* or *the other* referring to the last.

The **distributive pronouns** are *each*, *either*, *neither*, *each other*, and *one another*. 102.

The following examples show the use of the first three, which are considered simple pronouns:

1. I could almost doubt which of us is the visionary form, or whether *each* be not the *other's* mystery.
2. Pleasure and study are not to be thus mixed together; the Romans lose both, and prove they have no souls for *either*.
3. Their eyes met, and *neither*, for some moments, had power to withdraw his gaze.

*Either* and *neither* refer regularly to two things, but *each* to any number, though singling out one by one. All three words are frequently used as adjectives.

*Each other* and *one another* are sometimes called **reciprocals**. They are compound but should be treated as one pronoun. The following examples show their use:

1. The clergyman and his father looked at *each other*.
2. The fine ladies buzzed into *one another's* ears over their pews, and uttered their praises and comments.
3. All the passengers were rubbing their eyes, comparing watches, and congratulating *one another*.

### Parsing Examples

1. I could almost doubt which of us is the visionary form, or whether **each** be not the **other's** mystery.

**each:** pronoun, adjective (distributive), neuter [*or* gender unknown], singular, 3rd person, subject of "be," nominative case.

**other's:** pronoun, adjective (distributive), gender unknown, singular, 3rd person, shows possession of "mystery," possessive case.

2. The clergyman and his father looked at **each other**.

**each other:** pronoun, adjective (distributive, reciprocal), masculine gender, singular, 3rd person, object of the preposition "at," objective case.

**103.** Some of the **numeral pronouns** are *some, any, few, many, none, all*, etc. They are shown in the following quotations:

1. *Some* purchased the paltry wreaths with their lives, *others* by a toilsome servitude of years, and *many* sacrificed whatever was most valuable.
2. To *all* who love human faces best for what they tell of human experience, Nancy's beauty has a heightened interest.

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3. The livid and motley hues completed a countenance which *none* could behold without repugnance, and *few* without terror and distrust.
4. And there *several* were taking the slight morning repast that made an Italian breakfast.
5. The witch did not reply—she seemed like one who has awakened for a moment from the dead.

### Parsing Example

**Another** opposes him with sound argument.

**Another:** pronoun, adjective (numeral), gender unknown, singular, 3rd person, subject of “opposes,” nominative case.

**Exercise.** Write sentences using five of the above adjective pronouns in the nominative case, then in the objective.

## Classes of Pronouns:

### 5. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

**Indefinite pronouns are words which stand for an indefinite number or quantity of persons or things; but, unlike adjective pronouns, they are never used as adjectives.** 104.

Most of them are compounds of two or more words, to be treated as a single pronoun:

*Somebody, someone, something; anybody, any one (or anyone), anything; everybody, every one (or everyone), everything; nobody, no one, nothing; also aught, naught, and somewhat, what and they.*

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These are singular, though referring to any of an indefinite number; when antecedents, they are followed by a singular pronoun.

For example, notice the singular verb following the indefinite pronoun in this sentence:

*Everyone* knows how laborious the usual method is of attaining to arts and sciences.

These compounds join with the word *else* to form other compounds, such as, *someone else*, *everybody else*, *anything else*, etc.

That these groups also are used as single pronouns is shown by the way in which they form the possessive case, with an apostrophe before, not after the 's':

*If Mr. Pickwick had declined to keep himself up for anybody else's sake, it would have occurred to him that he might as well for his own.*

### Parsing Examples

1. **Everyone** knows how laborious the usual method is of attaining to arts and sciences.

**Everyone:** pronoun, indefinite, neuter gender, singular, 3rd person, subject of "knows," nominative case.

2. If Mr. Pickwick had declined to keep himself up for **anybody else's** sake, it would have occurred to him that he might as well for his own.

**anybody else's:** pronoun, indefinite, neuter gender, singular, 3rd person, shows possession of "sake," possessive case.

**Exercise.** Write sentences using three of the above words as subjects, four as objects, three as possessives.



## PARSING OF PRONOUNS

In parsing pronouns in general, follow the order for **105.** parsing nouns, adding the antecedent or subsequent. Thus, identify it as a pronoun and tell all of its aspects, basing gender and number on the antecedent.

- (1) **class** (and **subclass**).
- (2) **antecedent** (*relative and personal only*).
- (3) **gender**.
- (4) **number**.
- (5) **person**.
- (6) **office**.
- (7) **case**.

## SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS

When personal pronouns refer to two or more antecedents in the same sentence, the pronouns should be used in such a way that the meaning can be clearly seen. Observe this sentence: **106.**

A hale, ruddy-faced, white-headed farmer appeared to be the wit of the village, for I observed all his companions to wait with open mouths for his retorts, and burst into a gratuitous laugh before *they* could well understand *them*.

In this we can hardly fail to see that *they* refers to *companions* and *them* refers to *retorts*; but now and then sentences are so carelessly put together that the reader can get the meaning only after a good deal of trouble; and sometimes the apparent meaning is ludicrously different from that intended.

When Pittacus, after the death of his brother, who had left him a good estate, was offered a great sum of money by the king of Lydia, he thanked him for his kindness, but told him that he had already more by half than he knew what to do with.

In this case some labor might be avoided by the use of a direct quotation, thus: "When ... Lydia, he said, 'I thank you for your kindness, but I have already more by half than I....'"

His father died soon after his birth, and his early life was spent in poverty.

This absurd statement would be avoided by the repetition of the antecedents, or by the use of some distinguishing word; as, "His father died soon after the *boy's* birth, and the early life of the *latter* was spent in poverty."

**107. Pronouns must *agree with their antecedents in gender, person, and number*.** For instance, if the antecedent of a personal pronoun is singular, masculine, third person, the pronoun will be *he*, *his*, or *him*; if the antecedent is feminine, so will the pronoun be; etc.

If the antecedent of a personal pronoun is a word in the third person, singular number, that does not make clear the gender of the person named, the pronoun is to be of the masculine gender, third person, singular number.

Examples of the agreement of personal pronouns:

1. Every *student*, before *he* is matriculated, must subscribe *his* assent to the thirty-nine articles.
2. As soon as I was able to converse with the *natives*, I began to feel some satisfaction in *their* company.
3. *Every one* looked on *himself* as in the utmost danger.

## PRONOUNS

4. Every *man* who rises above the common level has received two educations: the first from *his* teachers; the second, more personal and important, from *himself*.

**Exercise.** Mention the antecedent of each pronoun in these four sentences, and show in what respects they agree.

An error frequently made is caused by one's forgetting that the antecedent may be singular in form while referring to many persons or things separately; and that consequently the pronoun should take the singular form. An example of this error is, "*Anyone* who has a question *they* wish answered can drop it into the box."

108.

**NOTE:** A collective noun referring to persons or things as a unit will take a singular pronoun; as, "The Ways and Means *Committee* had just completed *its* labors." But if the collective noun refers to the individuals of the collection, a plural pronoun is used; as, "The quiet *congregation* of trees set *their* feet in the flood."

Another error is caused by making the pronoun agree in person and number with some word near the antecedent and not with the antecedent itself. Example of the correct construction:

109.

*Each* of us [two] shall count *his* own wrinkles on the other's brow and *his* white hairs upon the other's head.

Instead of this, a careless writer would have said, "Each of us shall count *our* wrinkles..." which is not only bad syntax, but also nonsense.

Sometimes, on account of haste in writing, an introductory pronoun of one person and number is followed in the same sentence by pronouns of other persons and numbers referring to the same person as the first; also the old and the common form of the second person may be thoughtlessly confused in the same sentence; as, "*Ev-*

110.

*eryone* should be careful to keep *your* own pen"; "Wilt *thou* go with me, or can *you* best succeed alone?"

- 111.** In using pronouns care must be taken to mark the nominative uses by the nominative forms, and the objective uses by the objective forms.

Objective forms may be improperly used for the nominative forms in the following ways:

(1) In the language of the ignorant or heedless, who employ the objective forms as subjects of verbs expressed, as:

There now, father, you won't work in the garden till it's all easy, and you and *me* can mark out the beds.

(2) In such a sentence as this,

If such as *thee* are noble, then are we vile sinners indeed,

the writer forgets that the verb is understood after *thee*, and that *as* is not a preposition. The nominative form should be used to mark the use of the word as subject: "If such as *thou* are [art] noble, then are...." The same error often occurs after the conjunction *than*. Example of the correct use:

I think nobody could be happier than *we* [are].

(3) A common misuse of the nominative forms for the objective is the placing of nominative pronouns as objects of verbs and prepositions; especially when two pronouns of different persons, or a noun and a pronoun, are used together. The proper way to determine which form of the pronoun is correct is to take each of the words separately, and see if it can stand in the position and express correctly the relation.

In the sentence, "The policeman directed *her* and *I* to the wrong place," it is right to say, "The policeman directed *her*," but we may not say, "directed *I*."

(4) The objective form of the relative and of the interrogative pronoun *who* is sometimes misused for the nominative, and the nominative form for the objective. "He is a boy *whom* I know is careful" should be changed to "He is a boy *who* I know is careful," since *who* is the subject of the verb *is*. "Who do I owe this to?" should be changed to "Whom do I owe this to?" since *whom* is the object of the preposition *to*.

To avoid misunderstanding, a relative pronoun should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent. "Wanted, a nurse to take care of a baby who can sew" should be changed to "Wanted, a nurse who can sew, to take care of a baby," since it is the nurse who can sew, not the baby. **112.**

In order that a subject may be made more striking and emphatic, it is sometimes mentioned and then repeated in the form of a pronoun instead of having its verb just after it in the usual way, as, "Thy *rod* and thy *staff*, they comfort me." **113.**

Such repetition of words is called **pleonasm**.

Notice that the purpose is *emphasis*, and the arrangement of words is intentionally made; but when, in speaking, people *carelessly* repeat a subject, the only effect is that the sentence is slovenly; as, "Napoleon fought well, but Blucher *he* was late."

An error of another kind is the omission of pronouns that are necessary to the meaning of the sentence. This occurs often in business letters; in the language of those who imitate this manner of expression in their writing; **114.**

and sometimes in sentences where the omission causes a different meaning from that intended.

### Exercise

Explain the use of italicized words in these sentences:

1. The committee differed in *their* opinions today.
2. The tired child came to *its* mother's arms.
3. The speaker thought that every mechanic, every farmer, every tradesman should give *his* hearty support.
4. Either the judge or the lawyer must acknowledge *his* error.
5. I dislike mathematics because *it* is difficult.
6. The jury gave *its* verdict within an hour.

### Sentences for General Exercise

1. I dug up a piece of ground near my new bower, and sow'd the rest of my seed in February, a little before the Vernal Equinox; this having the rainy months of March and April to water it, sprung up very pleasantly, and yielded a very good crop
2. When we feel that another is to share the self-same fortune with ourselves, we judge more severely of our prospects and withhold our confidence.
3. Being anxious to discover who and what he really is, and how connected with me, and what are to be the results to him and to myself of the joint interest which seems to be permanently established between us, I have determined to notice a few of his remarkable points.
4. The more we kept in each other's company, the greater coxcombs we mutually grew. But neither of us need apprehend any such misfortune now.
5. In its upper stories are apartments where the inhabitants of earth may converse with those of the moon.

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6. We will rank together all who have the symptom of dizziness in the brain, and as fast as any drop by the way supply their places with new members.
7. With their sad sisterhood are mingled many youthful maidens who have sickened in aristocratic mansions, and for whose aid science has unavailingly searched its volumes and whom breathless love has watched.
8. We will assign them as partners those lonely laborers and handicraftsmen who have pined as with a dying thirst after the unattainable fountains of knowledge.
9. The remainder, if any, may connect themselves with whatever rank of the procession they shall find best adapted to their tastes and consciences.
10. Thus threatened, the unhappy scarecrow had nothing for it but to puff away for dear life.
11. Let even an affectionate Goliath get himself tied to a small tender thing, dreading to hurt it by pulling, and which of the two, pray, will be master?
12. Can thy gods, whosoever they be, look with wrath on a conflict with such as these?
13. Now, old boy, pray the gods that that victor be neither of the Romans!
14. The fox, who had attended the steps of his fell mistress, uttered a dismal howl.
15. The challengers, rallying each from his pavilion, mounted their horses and descended to the platform.
16. Not for the world would I have sought sympathy from her or from anybody else.
17. The surgeon who attended me at one time talked of trepanning. This was an awful word; but I now doubt whether anything serious had followed.
19. For what had we come? To see London. And what were the limits within which we proposed to crowd that little feat?
20. Whatever may be the number of those in whom this faculty of dreaming splendidly can be supposed to lurk, there are perhaps not many in whom it is developed.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

21. She could turn her hand to anything; of which I will give you two memorable instances.
22. The man certainly did utter the jest; but who it was that he stole it from is another question.
23. What could be done—who was it that could do it— to check the storm-flight of these maniacal horses?
24. Like the fabled opossum we have read of, who, when he spied the unerring gunner from his gum-tree, said, “It’s no use, Major, I will come down,” so S. gave himself up to his pursuers.
25. He confided the command of his various cities to such as had distinguished themselves by valor.



# ADJECTIVES

## CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

Nouns are seldom used as names of objects without additional words joined to them to add to their meaning. If we want to speak of a friend's house, we cannot guide someone to it by merely calling it a house. We need to add some words to tell its color, size, position, etc. These words are called adjectives.

The office of an adjective is to narrow down or limit a noun. It may have its office alone, or it may at the same time add to the meaning of a noun, pronoun or other substantive word or expression.

**An adjective is a word joined to a noun, pronoun or other substantive word or expression, to describe or limit it.**

To discover the different classes of adjectives, let us **115.** examine the following sentences:

1. Telemachus was for jumping overboard; but the *tough old* crew held the *silly, bawling* lad.
2. A *red-headed* calf was observing her with *alarmed* doubt.

The words in italics all modify the nouns that follow them, and all describe, or tell what kind of crew, lad, calf, etc. They are called **descriptive adjectives**.

Now consider another kind of adjective, in the following sentences:

1. It was a bright autumn Sunday, *sixteen* years after.

2. Throwing on *some* dried leaves, he raised a flame.
3. There were not *many* days that he was not seen riding.

The word *sixteen* mentions an exact, definite number; *some* and *many* express an indefinite amount or number; hence such are called **adjectives of quantity**.

Here are examples of yet another kind of adjective:

1. She was not familiar enough with *those* monotonous lanes.
2. Mother Rigby took the pipe from her own mouth, and thrust it into the crevice which represented *the same* feature in the pumpkin visage of the scarecrow.

These two sentences contain certain words that were studied in the previous chapter as **demonstrative pronouns**: *those* and *the same* (which act as one adjective). Since they each modify a noun in these sentences (*feature* and *lanes*) rather than standing alone in place of a noun, they are called **demonstrative adjectives**.

The demonstrative adjectives are considered to be primarily adjectives although they may be used as pronouns; there is another class of words which are primarily pronouns but may also be used as adjectives, modifying nouns. Here are examples:

1. He would play with them for *what* stakes they chose to name.
2. *What* objects are the fountains of thy happy strain?
3. *Which* picture do you prefer?

Because such words are normally pronouns, they are called **pronominal adjectives** when they are used to modify nouns rather than stand for nouns.

## 116. The classes of adjectives are descriptive, quantitative, demonstrative, and pronominal.

**Descriptive adjectives** tell of what kind an object is, or describe it by telling some of its qualities, such as *blue dress*, *large ship*.

**Quantitative adjectives** tell either exactly or in a general way how much of a thing is spoken of, or how many persons or things are meant, such as *twenty guns*, *several horses*.

**Demonstrative adjectives** stand before a noun and point out which person or thing is referred to, such as *this house*, *the same boy*, *those birds*, *the other field*.

**Pronominal adjectives** are words which are generally pronouns but may be used as adjectives, standing before nouns and modifying them, such as *which child*, *whichever book*, *what weather*.

**Descriptive adjectives.** This class includes several **117.** kinds of words (considered *subclasses*):

1. **Simple adjectives** expressing quality, such as *safe*, *happy*, *deep*, *fair*, *rash*, *beautiful*, *terrible*, *remotest*.
2. **Compound adjectives** made up of various words placed together to make descriptive epithets, such as "*Heaven-derived power*," "*life-giving book*," "*ice-cold water*," "*unlooked-for burden*," "*next-door neighbor*."
3. **Proper adjectives**, derived from proper nouns, such as "an old *English* manuscript," "a *Chinese* roof," "the *Roman* writer." (These are capitalized.)
4. **Participial adjectives**, which are either true participles, expressing action and also quality, like a descriptive adjective, or participles which no longer have any function except to describe. These are:
  - (a) **Pure participial adjectives**, such as "the *healing* power of herbs"; "*trailing* clouds."
  - (b) **Faded participial adjectives**, such as: "sleep is a *blessed* thing"; "an *aged* man"; "a *charming* sight."

**NOTE:** Care is needed, in studying these participial adjectives, to distinguish between a participle that forms part of a verb, and a participle that belongs to a noun:

- (a) In the sentence, “The work was well accomplished,” *was accomplished* is a verb.
- (b) In the sentence, “No man was more brilliant or accomplished,” *accomplished* is a (faded) participial adjective.

Participles will be studied in greater detail in the chapter on Verbs and Verbals.

### Exercise

1. Tell what noun each descriptive adjective modifies in the sentences after Section 133.
2. Write twenty sentences with descriptive adjectives, some modifying the subject, some the predicate nominative, some the direct or indirect object.

**118. Adjectives of quantity tell how much or how many.** The following sentences show the various subclasses of these **quantitative** or **numeral adjectives**. These may signify:

1. **quantity in bulk**, usually used to modify singular nouns and to express an indefinite measure of the thing spoken of, such as “*little wine*,” “*small effort*,” “*considerable difficulty*.”
  - (a) So he parted with much weeping of the lady.
  - (b) But ever she looked on Mr. Oxenham, and seemed to take no care as long as he was by.
2. **quantity in number**, whether by an exact and definite **cardinal number**, (*two, fifty, a thousand, a half-dozen*) or by an approximate or **indefinite number** (*a few, several, many, more, some, one, a, an, enough, certain, divers, another...*).

## ADJECTIVES

- (a) He found in the pathway *fourteen* Spaniards.
  - (b) I have lost *one* brother, but I have gained *fourscore*.
  - (c) We gave *several* pounds for it.
  - (d) He had been hunting for *some* months.
3. **distributive numerals**, which refer to objects one at a time, though without telling how many objects there are total (*every, each, either*).
- (a) *Every* town had its fair; *every* village its wake.”
  - (b) Few on *either* side but had their shrewd scratch to show.

**NOTE:** Ordinal numerals mark the position of an object in a series: *second, fiftieth, the thousandth*. They will be classified under demonstrative adjectives, since they point out which thing is meant among a series of things mentioned.

Multiplicatives are a subclass of definite numerals and denote how many times a number is multiplied: *single, double, twofold, fourfold*.

### Exercise

Copy the adjectives in italics below, and divide them into the three kinds of numeral adjectives.

1. Not *one* Londoner in *ten thousand* can lay down the rules for the proper use of “shall” and “will.” Yet not *one* Londoner in a *million* ever misplaces his “shall” or “will.”
2. It has been observed by *many* writers that Socrates was *several* times present when it was being acted.
3. There were none left but a *few* servants and stragglers of the army.
4. One consideration I hope will have *some* weight.
5. They may do so without any hindrance to business.
6. The exercise consists in brandishing two short sticks grasped *in each* hand and loaded with lead at *either* end.

7. He entertains his mother every night with observations that he makes both in town and in court.
8. When the arguments press equally on both sides in matters that are indifferent to us, the safest method is to give up ourselves to *neither* [side].

**119.** The **demonstrative adjectives** are: *this, that, these, those, yonder, former, latter*, (as well as *the former, the other, the latter, the same...*).

**Demonstrative adjectives are primarily adjectives that point out particular things.** They sometimes have a pronominal use, and stand for words omitted without modifying them, as for example, "*These* were thy charms... but all these charms are fled," or "*These* were thy charms... but all *these* are fled."

**Ordinal numbers** are considered a subclass of demonstrative adjectives rather than quantitative, because they point out *which one of many is meant*.

1. In my *third* paper I mentioned some of *these* false wits among the ancients; and in *this* I shall give the reader two or three that flourished in *the same* early ages.
2. Whenever *that* look appeared in her wild, bright, deeply black eyes, it invested them with a strange remoteness.
3. *Yonder* proud ships are not means of annoyance to you.

**NOTE:** *This* (plural *these*) points out objects near in place and time.

*That* (plural *those*) points out objects as not near, or not so near as others.

*Former* and *latter* designate which of two objects previously mentioned are being referred to.

*Yon* and *yonder* denote a view, but at a distance.

### Exercise

1. Tell what noun each demonstrative adjective modifies in these three sentences.
2. Select five demonstrative adjectives from Section 119, and use these in sentences of your own.

The **pronominal adjectives** *which* and *what* are primarily pronouns. However, when they modify words instead of referring to them as antecedents, they act as **adjectives**. (cf. Sections 98 and 99). Just like the corresponding pronouns, they are used to join sentences or ask questions. 120.

The **pronominal adjectives** fall under the subclasses: **relative**, **interrogative** or **exclamatory**.

#### 1. Relative, either simple or indefinite.

The **simple relative adjectives** are *which* and *what*:

- (a) It matters not *what* rank he has.
- (b) He leaped aside, *which* movement saved him from instant death.
- (c) Now, *which* way could they wend? All was rayless to them – a maze without a clue.

The **indefinite relative adjectives** are *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, and sometimes simply *what*, if it modifies a noun which names no specific object, as in:

- (a) *Whichever* way I turn, I find beauty. (*No specific way is indicated, but rather any one of many.*)
- (b) He in his turn tasted some of its flavor, *which*, make *what* sour mouths he would for pretense, proved not altogether displeasing to him. (*No specific sour mouth is mentioned, but rather any one he could possibly manage to make.*)

2. **Interrogative** – The **interrogative adjectives** are simply *which* and *what* used in direct and indirect questions, as in:
- (a) *Which* debt must I pay first?
  - (b) In the whirl of London life, *what* man sees his neighbor, and *what* brother his sister?
3. **Exclamatory** – In exclamatory expressions, *what* or *what a* are neither relative nor interrogative and may be called **exclamatory adjectives**, as:
- (a) *What a* piece of work is man!
  - (b) Lord, *what* fools these mortals be!

### Parsing Examples

1. It was a **bright** autumn Sunday, **sixteen** years after.
- bright:** adjective, descriptive (simple), positive degree of comparison, modifies the noun “Sunday.”
- sixteen:** adjective, quantitative (cardinal number), no comparison, modifies the noun “years.”
2. So he parted with **much** weeping of the lady.
- much:** adjective, quantitative (bulk), no comparison, modifies the gerund “weeping.”
3. **These** truths are not unfamiliar to you.
- These:** adjective, demonstrative, no comparison, modifies the noun “truths.”
4. **Which** picture do you prefer?
- Which:** adjective, pronominal (interrogative), no comparison, modifies the noun “picture.”
5. He would play with them for **whatever** stakes they chose to name.
- whatever:** adjective, pronominal (indefinite relative), no comparison, modifies the noun “stakes.”



## NUMBER AND COMPARISON

There are two ways in which certain adjectives are **inflected**, which means change their form to express different meanings; these inflections are for **number** and **comparison**. **121.**

Most adjectives modify both singular and plural nouns without changing their form: “*old* shoes,” “*old* house.” **122.**

*This* and *that* are the only adjectives having a plural form (plurals *these* and *those*). We say they are **inflected for number**.

When two or more objects are considered together, we may notice some differences between them as to size, weight, shape, color, etc. **123.**

We can therefore compare objects according to their qualities. A cow is *larger* than a sheep, gold is *heavier* than iron, a sapphire is *bluer* than the sky, Sam is the *oldest* in our class. Thus, the cow and the sheep are compared for their size; gold and iron for their weight; the sapphire and the sky for their color; Sam is compared to the whole class for his age. Comparison shows these different degrees of a quality (*large, larger, largest*).

**Comparison is the inflection of an adjective in expressing different degrees of quality.**

There are three degrees of comparison, as illustrated above. Degree means step, and the degrees express the amount of quality step by step. They are: **124.**

1. the **positive degree**, indicating the simple quality (*large, heavy, blue*);
2. the **comparative degree**, indicating a greater degree of quality between two objects (*larger, heavier, bluer*);

3. the **superlative degree**, showing the greatest degree of the quality among three or more objects (*largest, heaviest, bluest*).

**125.** There are only two variations or inflections for comparison:

-*er* is used to form the comparative degree (*blue, bluer*);

-*est* is used to form the superlative degree (*blue, bluest*).

However, there exist many words in English which would become harsh and awkward if another syllable were added, so the adverbs *more* and *most* are used to denote the two degrees of comparison on an ascending scale, which means in increasing steps:

**Comparative:** "She is *more beautiful*."

**Superlative:** "Edward is *most studious*."

The adverbs *less* and *least* are used to denote comparison on a descending scale:

**Comparative:** "She is *less happy* than her friend."

**Superlative:** "He is the *least happy* man alive."

As a general rule, words of one syllable take the endings -*er* and -*est*, as also do words of two syllables that may be smoothly pronounced with these endings. All others express the degrees by means of *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*.

However, this rule must not be regarded as absolute; *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* may be used before any words, no matter what the number of syllables. In Section 123 it would be just as correct to say *more large*, *most large*; it is largely a matter of taste, after all.

Many descriptive adjectives have meanings that do not admit of degrees in comparison; for example: **126.**

Present, past, future; preferable, superior, inferior; main, chief, principal; immutable, divine, everlasting; supreme, almighty; universal, complete, round, level.

When parsing, we simply state that they have “no comparison.”

**NOTE:** The ending *-est* or the word *most* used before an adjective do not always denote superlative degree but may simply be the equivalent of *very*, as in, “To this the Count offers a *most wordy* declaration of the benefits conferred by Spain,” “ ‘So help me God, madam, I will,’ said Henry Esmond, falling on his knees, and kissing the hand of his *dearest* mistress.”

A superlative adjective is sometimes formed by affixing *-most* to a word which is not otherwise an adjective, as in, *topmost*, *northernmost*.

### Parsing Examples

1. There was no man who could make a **more graceful** bow than Mr. Henry.

**more graceful:** adjective, descriptive (simple), **superlative degree of comparison**, modifies the noun “bow.”

### Exercise

1. Tell which of the following words are capable of comparison, and use their comparative and superlative forms in sentences:

*Loud, wonderful, fierce, modern, unceasing, daily, predominant, healthy, red, new, unconscious, sharp-*

*tongued, gentle, miniature, handsome, familiar, superficial, moral, shallow, large, perpetual, beautiful.*

2. Write sentences using each of the comparative and each of the superlative forms given in Section 127.

- 127.** The following adjectives are compared irregularly. Notice that alternative comparisons may correspond to nuances in meaning.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good or well	better	best
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
little	less, lesser, littler	least, littlest
many, much	more	most
old	elder, older	eldest, oldest
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
near	nearer	nearest
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
late	later, latter	latest, last
hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost

## PARSING OF ADJECTIVES

- 128.** In parsing an adjective, tell:

- (1) class (and sub-class).**
- (2) degree of comparison, if compared.**
- (3) number, if it is inflected for number.**
- (4) what word or expression it modifies.**

In identifying the word or expression which the adjective modifies, it is important to realize that an adjective does not always come just before its noun. It may be in one of three positions: **attributive**, **appositive**, or **predicate**. The function of the adjective is to modify in

each position but in a slightly different manner, which may be specified in the parsing.

When immediately before the noun, its position is called **attributive** and the adjective simply modifies:

He passed through the streets with a *hasty* step, but a *quick* and *observant* eye.

In parsing, we would simply say that the office of *hasty* is “modifies ‘step,’” while *quick* and *observant* each “modifies ‘eye.’”

The adjective has two uses besides the above:

First, the **appositive** position, in which the adjective is more loosely connected with the noun and may be taken as completing a verb understood, that is to say, which could be considered as predicate nominatives in a relative clause which is merely implied. Examples of this are:

1. *Quick* and *watchful*, *the* agile Greek leaped lightly aside [meaning, “The agile Greek, *who was* quick and watchful. . . .”]
2. The poor old slave knew not with what arguments to enlighten an ignorance so *dark* and yet so *beautiful* [“*that was* so dark and yet so beautiful.”]

In parsing, *quick* and *watchful* may be said to be “in apposition with the noun ‘Greek’”; *dark* and *beautiful* each are “in apposition with the noun ‘ignorance.’”

Second, the **predicate** position, in which the adjective helps the verb to assert some quality of the subject or the object. It is then said to be predicated of its noun:

1. The words grow *chilled* and *trite* if I banish from them allusions to the gods.

2. If these things were *true*, society could not hold together.

In parsing, *chilled* and *trite* may be said to be “predicated of the noun ‘words’”; *true* is “predicated of the noun ‘things.’”

When an adjective is in the predicate position, it both modifies the subject and completes the verb. Thus, it would be correct to say that these adjectives are *complements of the verb ‘grow’ and ‘were,’* respectively.

## SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES

- 129.** Care should be used in the placing of all adjectives, especially *phrases* and *clauses* acting as adjectives.

Sometimes when a writer has in his mind a certain idea which seems clear to him, he puts it into such words as to make an obscure or even a ridiculous statement; thus:

1. He dropped his knife in his retreat against the wall, which his rapid antagonist kicked under the table.
2. We have received a basket of oranges from our friend G. B., for which he will please accept our compliments, some of which are nearly six inches in diameter.

In the first sentence, the clause “which . . . table” really modifies *knife*, but is placed so as to modify *wall*. It should read, “In his retreat against the wall, he dropped his knife, which his rapid antagonist kicked under the table.” (See Section 112.) The pupil should criticize the second sentence for himself.

- 130.** **Adjectives** which vary in number, such as *this* and *that*, must agree in number with the noun they modify.

One should say, “this sort,” “these sorts,” “that kind,” “those kinds.”

When comparing objects of the same class, the word *other* should be used before the last object so as to clarify the sentence. For example, “Pasteur was more brilliant than any other scientist of his time.” **131.**

However, when objects of different classes are compared, the word *other* should not be used. For example, “London Bridge is a greater piece of work than any of the seven wonders of the world.”

*Other* should not be used in the superlative degree because the thing compared is always included in the class of objects being compared. For example, one should say, **132.**

England was the most dreaded of all powers in Christendom.

It would be faulty to say,

*England was the most dreaded of all other powers in Christendom.*

Never use double comparison such as: “more bolder,” “bestest ever,” “most beautifulest.” **133.**

It is also incorrect to use *more* and *most* with words naturally of comparative or superlative meaning, as in the sentences:

1. He is now the manager of one of the *most leading* printing companies in New York.
2. While my successor may be *more preferable* to the politicians, I am reasonably sure that, etc.

### Sentences for General Exercise

1. But the question with respect to them is not where they were, but which way they were going.
2. Listen to me; I have not myself dabbled in these lesser mysteries, but I know one who hath.
3. Cabinets of gems, each cabinet a gem, filled up the interstices of the columns; the most precious woods lined the thresholds and composed the doors.
4. I am not that being—cold, insensate, and morose—which I have seemed to be.
5. Thou art full of the romance of thy native Thessaly, and a strange mixture of sense and all conflicting superstitions.
6. In a deep recess, at a little distance, was a covered seat, in which two or three poorer travelers were resting.
7. The first door leads to the staircase; the second is but a false recess, in which stood a statue of bronze.
8. “Oh! years ago,” said she in a voice unlike her usual tones, so plaintive was it, and so soft, “I was not the thing that I am now.”
9. This was the first time when the risk that he himself ran by this method of vengeance occurred to a mind ordinarily wary and circumspect.
10. It was only at the outer side of these tables that the guests reclined; the inner space was left untenanted, for the greater convenience of the waiters.
11. Every reader’s memory may supply him with innumerable instances of the same nature.
12. For, high-souled Maid, what sorrow would it be  
That Mountain floods should thunder as before,  
And Ocean bellow from his rocky shore,  
And neither awful Voice be heard by thee!
13. This, he thought, could only be accomplished by means of Cromwell, and the greater part of England was of the same opinion.



## ADJECTIVES

14. He is griping and gold-thirsty to a proverb; the witness of such men is to be bought.
15. My dream *was* past; it had no further change,  
It was of a strange order, that the doom  
Of these two creatures should be thus traced out.
16. That day and the next were spent in tranquility.
17. Is it for a brave soldier to inquire from what quarter his enemies are to come?
18. Restless and anxious, the priest consumed the day in wandering through the most sequestered walks.
19. Wherever he goes he pays a visit to whatever prince or gentleman of note resides upon his road.
20. A low murmuring sound, as of stifled voices and clanking chains, now reached me.

## ARTICLES

The words *the* and *a* (or *an*) form a separate class of words called **articles**. Articles are true adjectives since they always limit the meaning of a noun, but they cannot accurately be placed under any class of adjective. They have such subtle functions and various meanings that they deserve separate treatment; in some grammar books, articles are treated as a separate part of speech. **134.**

Articles always modify a noun. The noun modified is never omitted unless some other adjective follows the article, as, "The *old* way and the *new*."

*A* or *an* is more like a numeral adjective in its meaning, being a worn-down form of *one*. *The* is nearest to a demonstrative adjective in meaning, being a worn-down form of the demonstrative *that*. **135.**

*A* or *an* is used in speaking of *any* object of a class; as, *an* apple, *a* man, *a* flower.

*The* is used in speaking of some *particular* object that has been mentioned, or one that the reader or listener is familiar with; as, *the* apple, *the* man, *the* flower—some special one.

A good example of their use is the following:

He saw Silas Marner leaning against *a* stile with *a* heavy bag on his back, instead of resting *the* bag on *the* stile.

After *stile* and *bag* have been introduced by means of *a*, they are spoken of as familiar terms by means of *the*. *The* is called the **definite article**; *an* or *a*, the **indefinite article**.

Ordinarily *an* is used before vowel sounds, and *a* before consonant sounds.

Notice that a *vowel sound* does not necessarily mean beginning with a vowel, nor does *consonant sound* mean beginning with a consonant, because English spelling does not coincide closely with the sound of words.

*Examples: a youth, a luxury, an eager welcome, a humble soul, an honor, such a one, a union.*

**NOTE:** *An* and *a* are different forms of the same word, the Old English cardinal number *ān*, meaning *one*.

**136. An article is a limiting word, not descriptive, which cannot be used alone, but always joins to a substantive word to denote a particular thing, or a group or class of things, or any individual of a group or class.**

Articles are either *definite* or *indefinite*.

*The* is the definite article, since it points out a particular individual, or group, or class.

**A or an is the indefinite article, because it refers to any one of a group or class of things.**

**Exercise.** Write sentences using *an* or *a* before each of the following words: *honorable, orange, humble, harbor, age, church, year, ocean, European, American.*

When two or more adjectives, joined by conjunctions, modify the same noun, the article is used before each adjective, provided the noun expressed and that understood refer to different persons or things. For example: **137.**

1. Temple took part in the famous controversy about *the* ancient and *the* modern learning.
2. After hesitating for some time between *a* military and *a* commercial life, he had at length been placed in a post which partook of both characters.

Instead of repeating the article before each of two *singular* nouns in such case, one article may be used before the first adjective, followed by the noun in the plural; thus:

*They watched his lips in the hope that he would, at least, let fall some unguarded word, indicating the hopes or fears entertained by the English and Dutch governments.*

When two or more nouns, names of different persons or things, are joined by conjunctions, the article is used before each noun, for confusion might arise from the omission of the articles, as, **138.**

*This hall is a lasting monument to the painter and the sculptor. [two persons]*

### Exercise

Tell the difference between these sentences as they stand, and the same with the articles omitted:

1. I have lost a German and [an] English dictionary.
2. The nation began to find out to what [a] man it had entrusted, without conditions, all its dearest interests, on what [a] man it had lavished its fondest affection.
3. Though a prelate might hold that Paul directed men to obey [a] Nero, it might not be perfectly safe.
4. In every part of the country, the name of [a] courtier had become a by-word of reproach.

## PARSING OF ARTICLES

When parsing the article, tell whether it is definite or indefinite and what word it limits.

### Parsing Example

Such are **the** words **a** brave should use.

**the:** definite article, limits the noun “words.”

**a:** indefinite article, limits the noun “brave.”

## VERBS AND VERBALS

The term *verb* is from the Latin *verbum* meaning **139.** *word*: hence it is *the* word of a sentence. A thought cannot be expressed without a verb. When the child cries, "Apple!" he means, "*See* the apple!" or "*I have* an apple!" (or perhaps "*I want* an apple!") In the mariner's shout, "A sail!" the meaning is, "Yonder *is* a sail!"

Sentences are in the form of declarations, questions or commands, and none of these can be put before the mind without the use of a verb.

The verb may not always be a single word. On account of the lack of inflections in English, *verb phrases* are very frequent. Hence the verb may consist of:

- (1) *One word*, as, "The young man *obeyed*."
- (2) *Several words of verbal nature, making one expression*, as, "Some day it *may be considered* reasonable."
- (3) *One or more verbal words united with other words to compose one verb phrase*, as in the sentences:
  - (a) "They knew well that this woman *ruled over* thirty millions of subjects."
  - (b) "If all the flummery and extravagance of an army *were done away with*, the money could be made to go much further."

In (3)a, a verb and a preposition are used as one verb; in (3)b, a verb, an adverb and a preposition unite as a verb.

**A verb is a word used as a predicate, to assert something to or about a person or a thing.** We may consider a verb phrase as one word and parse it as such, because it is a unit doing the work of a single predicate.

**140.** Now, it is indispensable to the nature of a verb that it is “used as a predicate.” Consider the following sentences:

- a) Four times his horse *had been shot* under him.
- b) We *feel* that we *are surrounded* by great men.
- c) She *smiled* inwardly, whilst *following* the lad’s narrative, *to recognize* in his simple tales about his mother, traits of family resemblance.
- d) The second cause of failure *was* the *burning* of Moscow.

The words *had been shot* in sentence a) form a single verb, asserting something of *his horse*. The words *feel* and *are surrounded* are predicated of the subject *we*, in each clause. Likewise in sentence c), *smiled* is asserted of *She*.

However, in this same sentence c), two other words have something of the nature of a verb: *following* and *to recognize*. These express action, but neither of them has a subject; both merely have the verbal idea without the power of asserting, and to them is given the name, **verbals**.

Likewise in sentence d), the asserting word is *was*; the word *burning* has something of the nature of a verb but asserts nothing of a subject. It, too, is a **verbal**, expressing something of action but not predicated of a subject.

A fuller discussion of verbals will be given starting with Section 178. For the moment let us simply point out that there are three verbals: **participles**, **infinitives** and **gerunds**.

**A word ending in *-ing*, *-ed*, *-d*, *-t*, or *-n*, belonging to some noun or pronoun and expressing action in connection with it without describing, is called a participle.**

**The simple or root form of a verb used as a noun or a modifier, is a verbal called an infinitive.** (An infinitive need not include the word “to.”)

**A word having the form of a participle but used as a noun is a verbal called a gerund.**

In sentence c), *Following* is a participle, since it ends in -ing and belongs to the subject *she* without describing it; *[to] recognize* is an infinitive, because it has the simple form of a verb and modifies *smiled*. In sentence d), the word *burning* is a gerund because it is used as a noun, in this case, as a predicate nominative of the noun *cause*.

### Parsing Examples

1. The young man **obeyed**.

**obeyed: verb**, weak, intransitive, active, indicative, past, its subject is “man,” 3rd person, singular.

2. They knew well that this woman **ruled over** thirty millions of subjects.

**ruled over: verb with a preposition**, weak, transitive, active, indicative, past, its subject is “woman,” 3rd person, singular.

3. If all the flummery and extravagance of an army **were done away with**, the money could be made to go much further.

**were done away with: verb with adverb and preposition**, strong, transitive, passive, subjunctive, past, its subject is “all,” 3rd person, singular.

### Exercise

Tell whether each of the italicized words below is a verb, a participle, or an infinitive, and give your reason:

1. He *reached* his destination at length, and *found* no small company *assembled*.
2. Mr. W. *paid* his money, and *was accommodated* with a seat in the gallery *commanding* a perfect view.
3. Lord March, who *was* by no means prodigal of politeness, *seemed to show* singular deference to him.
4. Whilst he was thus *engaged*, Lord M. *spied* the Virginian.
5. We *had promised to have* our sport together.
6. It was beautiful *to see* our ladies *forgiving* one another, *smiling, joking*, after the hard words of yesterday.
7. He wept genuine tears, *finding* he *could produce* them.
8. The warriors, when the bugle *sang* truce, *fraternized* and *exchanged* tobacco pouches and wine, ready *to seize* their firelocks and *knock* each other's heads off when the truce *was* over.

## CLASSES OF VERBS

**141.** As to their use, verbs are divided into fewer classes than most of the other parts of speech. For one division, examine the verbs in the following sentences:

1. He *has rescued* two unfortunate people.
2. He *saw* the beef-bone reflected.
3. With each bumper his admiration *grew* stronger.
4. What a shock that seizure *had been*!

In (1), *has rescued* has the object *people*, in (2), *saw* with its complement *reflected* has the object *beef-bone*. These are called **transitive verbs**, from a Latin word, meaning *to go over*, since the **action is represented as**



**passing over from the subject to some object** (even if that object is the subject himself: “He saw himself...”).

In (3), *grew* expresses action, but is completed by the adjective *stronger* without needing an object; in (4), *had been* is completed by the noun *shock*, yet does not express action, but being, or existence. Verbs of this class are called **intransitive**, since **no action passes over**.

### Parsing Examples

1. He **has rescued** two unfortunate people.

**has rescued**: verb, weak, **transitive**, active, indicative, present perfect, subject is “He,” 3rd person, singular.

2. He **saw** the beef-bone reflected.

**saw**: verb, strong, **transitive**, active, indicative, past indefinite, subject is “He,” 3rd person, singular.

3. With each bumper his admiration **grew** stronger.

**grew**: verb, strong, **intransitive**, active, indicative, past indefinite, subject is “admiration,” 3rd person, singular.

4. What a shock that seizure **had been**!

**had been**: verb, irregular weak, **intransitive**, active, indicative, past perfect, subject is “seizure,” 3rd person, singular.

### Exercises

- (a) Tell which of the verbs in the preceding exercise are transitive and which are intransitive.
- (b) Write three sentences having intransitive verbs followed by predicate nouns, three followed by predicate adjectives; three with transitive verbs followed by direct and indi-

rect objects, three followed by direct object and predicate objective.

**142.** Often the same verb may be transitive or intransitive, according to its use in the sentence; for example, “The man *sleeps*,” “The man *is sleeping* his last sleep”; “The sailor *drowns* in the roaring sea,” “The roaring sea *drowns* him”; “Plants *grow* here,” “This gardener *grows* fine plants.”

**143.** Again, verbs may be divided into **auxiliary** and **principal** verbs. Our language has not many separate forms to express the various circumstances of action or being, as Latin and Greek have, hence we must use compound forms. These are made up of an auxiliary verb, and a participle or an infinitive of the verb (without the word *to*) which is to express the kind of action or state.

The word *auxiliary* means *helping*; the forms of the verbs *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must* are frequently used in helping to make verb phrases.

Notice the helping verbs in the following sentences:

- a) Society *has lost* many of its local peculiarities.
- b) Even the sound of the waifs – rude as *may be* their minstrelsy – breaks upon the mid-watches of a winter night with the effect of perfect harmony.
- c) I *have been awakened* by them.
- d) Music *must be* in time.
- e) Its gilded vaults *shall lie* in rubbish.

The auxiliaries used in these sentences are *has*, *may*, *have been*, *must*, and *shall*.

**144.** **Principal verbs**, or **notional verbs**, as they are also called, are those that have a meaning and force of their own. **Notional verbs contain the real verb**

**idea, instead of merely helping to give meaning to some other verb.**

In the above list of auxiliary verbs, *be* and *have* may at times be notional verbs; as in the sentences,

- a) He *was*, in truth, an odd mixture.
- b) He *has* a broad, full face.

These verbs are not auxiliary here but *notional*, because *was* conveys the idea or *notion* of a state of being, while *has* conveys the idea of possession.

### Exercise

In this paragraph, distinguish transitive verbs from intransitive, and auxiliary from notional verbs:

The animal he bestrode was a broken-down plow-horse, that had outlived almost everything but his viciousness. He was gaunt and shaggy, with a ewe neck, and a head like a hammer. His rusty mane and tail were tangled and knotted with burs. One eye had lost its pupil, and was glaring and spectral, but the other had the gleam of a genuine devil in it. Still he must have had fire and mettle in his day, if we may judge from his name, which was Gunpowder. He had, in fact, been a favorite steed of his master's, the choleric Van Ripper.

Either by inflection or by combination with the auxiliaries, verbs may express the relations of **tense, voice, person, number, and mood.** **145.**

### TENSE

As there are three divisions of time, the three chief tenses are the present, the past, and the future; for example, **146.**

- a) The boy *stands*.

- b) The boy *stood*.
- c) The boy *will stand*.

**Tense is that form of the verb which indicates the time of the action or being.**

The verbs *stand* and *stood* show by their form that the action is thought of as being somewhere in present or in past time; *will stand* is a verb phrase made up of an auxiliary and an infinitive, to express action somewhere in future time.

Notice that in each of these three tenses, the action is entirely **indefinite** as to beginning, continuance, or completion in its particular period.

**147.** If the purpose is to speak of an action as finished with reference to some other time, the **perfect tenses** are used, as:

- a) The boy *has stood* there ten minutes.
- b) The boy *had stood* there ten minutes when he sat down.
- c) The boy *will have stood* there much longer before he may sit down.

Sentence a) means that the action began in the past and has continued till the *present time*; b), that the action was completed before some other action taking place in *past time*; c), that the action is to be completed before another action in *future time*.

*Has stood* is in the **present perfect** tense; *had stood*, in the **past perfect**; *will have stood*, in the **future perfect**.

**148.** Not only this idea of action completed with reference to some particular time may be expressed, but a still more exact impression is made by the *definite* (or *progressive*) forms. Thus, instead of the *indefinite forms* of

the simple tenses in Section 146 and of the perfect tenses in Section 147, one may say:

The boy *is standing*. [present definite]

The boy *was standing*. [past definite]

The boy *will be standing*. [future definite]

The boy *has been standing*. [present perfect definite]

The boy *had been standing*. [past perfect definite]

The boy *will have been standing*. [future perfect definite]

These express clearly the continuance of the action. It is true, a verb like *stand* has in itself an idea of continuance, yet the forms just given are more vivid and definite than those preceding.

The definite forms are composed of the verbs *is*, *was*, *will be*, *have been*, etc., and an incomplete or imperfect participle. All six tenses therefore possess an indefinite and a definite form.

To sum up, the forms and phrases of a verb for expressing action in present, past, and future time may be exhibited in the following table: **149.**

#### PRESENT TIME

<i>Indefinite</i>	He calls.
<i>Definite (Progressive)</i>	He is calling.
<i>Perfect</i>	He has called.
<i>Perfect definite (progressive)</i>	He has been calling.

#### PAST TIME

<i>Indefinite</i>	He called.
<i>Definite (Progressive)</i>	He was calling.
<i>Perfect</i>	He had called.
<i>Perfect definite (progressive)</i>	He had been calling.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

### FUTURE TIME

<i>Indefinite</i>	He will call.
<i>Definite (Progressive)</i>	He will be calling.
<i>Perfect</i>	He will have called.
<i>Perfect definite (progressive)</i>	He will have been calling.

**NOTE:** All of these verbs and verb phrases should be parsed as a single unit.

### Parsing Examples

How far it **had gone**, **was** now the question.

**had gone**: verb, strong, intransitive, active, indicative, **past perfect**, subject is "it," 3rd person, singular.

**was**: verb, irregular weak, intransitive, active, indicative, **past indefinite**, subject is a noun clause, 3rd person, singular.

**Exercise.** As in the table above, write the tense forms of the verbs *begin*, *blow*, *come*, *grow*, *take* (see Section 169).

**150.** Usually each tense form represents the time for which it is named, but to the general rule there are some noteworthy exceptions. By special meaning or by connection with other words in the sentence, some tense forms may express action or being in the following ways:

(1) The present tense may represent past time in vivid narration, the event being pictured as actually going on before the speaker, as,

A soft hand *is held* out after this pretty speech, a pair of very well-preserved blue eyes *look* exceedingly friendly. Harry *grasps* his cousin's hand....

(2) The present often represents future time, in both independent and dependent clauses, as,

He *takes* a trip to New York next month.

When he *comes* home, please tell him I have called.

This latter use is very common.

(3) The present perfect also may represent future time in a dependent clause; thus,

I will not return till he *has come* with some message for me.

(4) The past tense may represent present time in such sentences as,

If he *asked* me [now], I *should tell* him.

If my mother were here, I *should endure* the pain better.

### Exercise

- (a) Tell in what tense each verb is in the following sentences, and what time each expresses:
1. We feel that we are surrounded by the congregated bones of the great men of past times, who have filled history with their deeds, and earth with their renown.
  2. And now they pause, and the soft voices of the choir break out into sweet gushes of melody: they soar aloft and warble along the roof, and seem to play about these lofty vaults like the pure airs of heaven.
  3. The stillness, the desertion and obscurity, that were gradually prevailing around, gave a deeper and more solemn interest to the place.
  4. When this book is concluded, I shall change the livery which my books have worn.
  5. He always asked everybody to sit and drink, and partake of his best. Had he a crust, he would divide it; had he a haunch, he would share it.

6. Her servant arrived with her tea. If I told you she took a dram with it, you would be shocked.
  7. Every one around the table will have heard of it.
  8. "Well, if your honor does stay, there is good beef and carrot at two o'clock," says the skeptic, and closes the door on the solitary prisoner.
- (b) Mention the transitive and the intransitive verbs in the above sentences.
  - (c) Mention the auxiliary and the principal verbs in these sentences.
  - (d) Mention the verbals in these sentences.

## VOICE

**151.** In these two sentences—

- (1) The Normans *built* great castles.
  - (2) Great castles *were built* by the Normans.
- exactly the same idea is expressed.

Sentence (1) has as subject the word *Normans*, naming the persons performing an action, and as object the word *castles*, naming that upon which the action was directed. In sentence (2), on the other hand, the word *castles*, which was the object in (1), becomes the subject; and the name of the persons acting is placed as the object of the preposition *by* in a phrase. These sentences serve to show the difference between the active and the passive voice.

**The active voice is that form of the verb by which the subject represents the agent, or doer, of an action.**

**The passive voice is that form of a transitive verb by which the subject names the person or thing that receives an action.**



The agent may not be expressed in sentences using the passive voice, as:

The grate had been removed from the wide fireplace.

The **passive voice** is made up entirely of verb phrases, some form of the verb *be* (Section 158) and a perfect participle, as *were built*, (sentence 2 in Section 151), and *had been removed* in the sentence above. **152.**

The present and past tenses have **definite forms** (also called **progressive forms**); for example, “Castles *are being built*,” or “Castles *were being built*.”

These are especially useful, since the present and past tense forms often do not express action, but state or condition. The sentences, “*The house is built*,” “*The house was crowded*,” speak of the condition of the house, and really have a predicate verb with participle complement; but such sentences as, “*The house is being painted*,” “*The house was being raised*,” express an action clearly and definitely, at a given time.

**NOTE:** In parsing, it is not necessary to specify the tense form if a verb is indefinite, but always specify definite (or progressive) form.

### Parsing Examples

1. The Normans **built** great castles.

**built:** verb, irregular weak, transitive, **active**, indicative, past [indefinite], subject is “Normans,” 3rd person, plural.

2. Great castles **were built** by the Normans.

**were built:** verb, irregular weak, transitive, **passive**, indicative, past [indefinite], subject is “castles,” 3rd person, plural.

3. The house **is built** on a hill.

**is built**: verb, irregular weak, intransitive, **passive** [expressing state or condition], indicative, present [indefinite], subject is “house,” 3rd person, singular.

4. The house **is being painted**.

**is being painted**: verb, irregular weak, transitive, **passive**, indicative, present definite, subject is “house,” 3rd person, singular.

### Exercise

(a) Point out the active and the passive forms, and tell whether each verb expresses action or condition:

1. The dinner was served up in the great hall, where the Squire always held his Christmas banquet.
2. As the evening was far advanced, the Squire would not permit us to change our traveling dress.
3. Many of their faces had evidently originated in a Gothic age, and had been merely copied by later generations.
4. I am half inclined to think that the old gentleman was himself somewhat tinctured with superstition.
5. It was the belief that some wrong had been left unre-dressed by the deceased, or some treasure hidden.
6. The door suddenly flew open, and a train came trooping into the room, that might almost have been mistaken for a breaking-up of the court of Fairy.
7. I also felt an interest in the scene, from the consideration that these fleeting customs were posting fast into oblivion, and that this was perhaps the only family in England in which they were still observed.
8. The gray walls are discolored by damp; the sharp touches of the chisel are gone from the rich tracery.
9. Even this reminder of the olden customs is being swept away by the onward march of trade.

- (b) Write ten sentences having active verbs, then change them to passive verbs.
- (c) Give the tense of each verb in the nine sentences above.
- (d) Tell which verbs are transitive, and which are intransitive in the nine sentences above.

## PERSON AND NUMBER

The verb is inflected for **person and number**; that is, the verb has certain forms to correspond with the person and number of its subject, as, “I *spe*ak;” “The man *spe*aks”; “We *spe*ak”; “You *spe*ak.” **153.**

If the old form of the personal pronoun of the second person singular is used, the verb has forms which correspond—“thou *speakest*.” An old form of the third person singular, as, “He *speake*th,” is also sometimes used. But usually the only forms of the verb indicating person and number are in the present tense; the first person singular, “I *spe*ak,” may be distinguished from the third person singular, “He *spe*aks”; and this last is different from the third person plural; as, “They *spe*ak”; “Men so *spe*ak.”

These few forms are, however, very important in questions of correct usage; hence, the rule is given as a general one that verbs agree with their subjects in person and number.

When the subject is a relative pronoun, the antecedent must determine the person and number.

### Parsing Examples

He **counted** the moments as they **passed** and **beheld** that his last sands **were falling**.

**counted:** verb, weak, transitive, active, indicative, past indefinite, **subject is “he,” 3rd person, singular.**

**passed:** verb, weak, intransitive, active, indicative, past indefinite, **subject is “they,” 3rd person, plural.**

**beheld:** verb, strong, transitive, active, indicative, past tense, **subject is “he,” 3rd person, singular.**

**were falling:** verb, strong, intransitive, active, indicative, past definite, **subject is “sands,” 3rd person, plural.**

### Exercise

(a) Give the person and number of each verb:

1. Their acquirements, doubtless, were different, and so were the objects of their literary pursuits.
2. We see before us a probable train of great events.
3. Night fell as we were walking, and the clouds, which had broken up in the afternoon, settled in and thickened.
4. I saw he was speaking, but the roaring of the falls and the trouble of my mind prevented me from hearing.
5. Every man looked as if a great estate had been left him.
6. He told his friends, with smiling resignation, that they ought to admire his philosophy.

(b) Write sentences having: (1) the verb *call* in the second person singular, present tense, definite, passive; (2) the verb *break* in the third person singular, present perfect tense active, with subject relative pronoun; (3) the verb *spend*, third person plural, past perfect tense passive; (4) the verb *find*, first person plural, past tense active; (5) the verb *write*, third person singular, future tense passive.

## MOOD

One other inflection remains to be spoken of, that of **154. mood**. The term is from a Latin word meaning *manner*, or *way*; in some grammars it is called “mode.” As here used, **mood indicates the way in which action or being is thought of**—whether as an *actual fact*, or *something commanded*, or *something merely supposed to happen under doubtful or impossible circumstances*.

**There are three moods: the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive.**

**The indicative mood expresses action or being 155. as an actual fact or inquires about some fact.** It is the commonest of the moods.

The expression of the fact may be in several ways:

(1) A simple assertion, declaring a thing to be true or not true, for example,

As I *passed* to my room, I *heard* the sound of music in a small court.

(2) A question, inquiring to find out some fact, as,

To what purpose *is* all this?

The indicative mood uses all the tense forms given in Section 149, and all the persons and numbers.

### Parsing Examples

As I **passed** to my room, I **heard** the sound of music in a small court.

**passed:** verb, weak, intransitive, active, **indicative**, past indefinite, subject is “I,” 1st person, singular.

**heard:** verb, weak, transitive, active, **indicative**, past indefinite, subject is “I,” 1st person, singular.

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences— six statements and four questions—each having a verb in the indicative mood.

**156. The imperative mood expresses a direct command, an entreaty, or a request, as,**

- a) *Send* it to the public halls; *proclaim* it there; *let* them see it.
- b) *Give* me thy hand, *let* me wipe the dew from thy brow.

As a command, request, or entreaty is addressed *to* a person, the subject of an imperative verb is regularly of the second person, and so is the verb. In ordinary speech, the subject is not expressed; see examples above.

If a negative command is to be expressed, a verb phrase made up of the verb *do* and an infinitive is used with *not*, as, “*Do not go.*” In poetic or solemn style, however, *do* is not used:

*Tell* me not in mournful numbers.

To take the place of an imperative verb of the first person plural or the third person, a verb phrase consisting of *let* and an infinitive is used:

*Let* us *hear* with delight.

These last must not be regarded as true imperatives of the first or the third person; grammatically, the verb *let* is an imperative verb of the second person in each instance, with the subject *you* or *thou* understood.

Imperative verbs are used only in the present tense and the second person, singular and plural.

### Parsing Examples

**Give** me thy hand, **let** me **wipe** the dew from thy brow.

**give:** verb, strong, transitive, active, **imperative**, present, understood subject is “(You),” 2nd person, singular.

**let:** verb, irregular weak, transitive, active, **imperative**, present, understood subject is “(you),” 2nd person, singular.

**wipe:** infinitive, indefinite, active, complement of the verb “let.” [See the NOTE after Section 190 for the parsing of imperative mood verbs with “let.”]

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences, each having a verb in the imperative mood.

**The subjunctive mood does not state a fact; it regards the action or being as something merely conceived or imagined; thus, 157.**

- (1) I almost desired that the whole of life *might be spent* in that visionary scene.
- (2) *Had* the engine *run* off the track, the bottomless pit, if there *be* such a place, *would* undoubtedly *have received* us.

In the first sentence, the verb *might be spent* is used to express a wish—a thing merely thought of, and not a fact, else no one would wish for it. (The verb *desired* is in the indicative mood, merely stating a fact.)

In the second sentence, the expression, “*had* the engine *run* off the track”—that is, *if* the engine *had run* off the track—clearly implies that the engine did *not* run off the track, hence the action is merely imagined to happen. And since this is true, the conclusion, “the bottomless pit *would* undoubtedly *have received* us,”

cannot express a fact, but what is merely conceived to follow an action that we have seen is itself not a fact.

Further, the clause, "if there be such a place," does not declare a fact, but doubt as to the existence of a certain place; here again the idea of action or being is only conceived in the mind.

The subjunctive mood includes the present, past, present perfect, and past perfect tenses, with all persons and both numbers.

**Exercise.** In the Exercises after Section 191, find the sentences containing examples of the wish or mere supposition, and point out all the verbs that are in the subjunctive mood.

**158.** In some cases the verbs of the subjunctive mood have the same form as those of the indicative, and the mood must be determined by the nature of the sentence. But some of the forms are unlike those of the indicative mood, as may be seen by a comparison of the following tables. The first presents the verb *be*, in both moods.

### INDICATIVE

### SUBJUNCTIVE

#### PRESENT TENSE

##### *Singular*

1. I am
2. You are  
(Thou art)
3. He is

##### *Singular*

1. [If] I be
2. [If] You be  
(Thou be)
3. [If] He be

### INDICATIVE

### SUBJUNCTIVE

##### *Plural*

1. We are
2. You, ye are
3. They are

##### *Plural*

1. [If] We be
2. [If] You, ye be
3. [If] They be



## VERBS AND VERBALS

### PAST TENSE

#### *Singular*

1. I was
2. You were  
(Thou wast)
3. He was

#### *Singular*

1. [If] I were
2. [If] You were  
(Thou were) [wert]
3. [If] He were

#### *Plural*

1. We were, etc.

#### *Plural*

1. [If] We were, etc.

### PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

#### *Singular*

1. I have been
2. You have been  
(Thou hast been)
3. He has been

#### *Singular*

1. [If] I have been, etc.
2. [If] You have been  
(Thou have been)
3. [If] He have been

#### *Plural*

1. We have been, etc.

#### *Plural*

1. [If] We have been, etc.

### PAST PERFECT TENSE

#### *Singular*

1. I had been, etc.

#### *Singular*

1. [If] I had been, etc.

**NOTE:** *If* is used in this table for convenience as a word introducing the subjunctive in a dependent clause. This is not to imply that *if* is the only word so used, or that *if* is always accompanied by the subjunctive mood.

**159.** Verb *choose*, indicative and subjunctive.**INDICATIVE****SUBJUNCTIVE****PRESENT TENSE***Singular*

1. I choose
2. You choose  
(Thou chocest)
3. He chooses

*Singular*

1. [If] I choose
2. [If] You choose  
(Thou choose)
3. [If] He choose

*Plural*

1. We choose, etc.

*Plural*

1. [If] We choose, etc.

**PAST TENSE***Singular*

1. I chose
2. You chose  
(Thou cholest)
3. He chose

*Singular*

1. [If] I chose
2. [If] You chose  
(Thou chose)
3. [If] He chose

*Plural*

1. We chose, etc.

*Plural*

1. [If] We chose, etc.

**PRESENT PERFECT TENSE***Singular*

1. I have chosen
2. You have chosen  
(Thou hast chosen)
3. He has chosen

*Singular*

1. [If] I have chosen
2. [If] You have chosen  
(Thou have chosen)
3. [If] He have chosen

**PAST PERFECT TENSE***Singular*

1. I had chosen, etc.

*Singular*

1. [If] I had chosen, etc.

The differences between the definite forms of the indicative and subjunctive may readily be seen by placing the *imperfect* participle of any verb after the forms of *be*, in Section 158. For example, “He *is choosing*, [if] he *be choosing*; he *was choosing*, [if] he *were choosing*,” etc. **160.**

The common uses of the **subjunctive mood**, then, are: **161.**

(1) a. **To express a wish**, the subjunctive verb being **in an independent clause**, as:

1. Peace *be* with the heroes.
2. Heaven *rest* her soul!

This is often expressed by a verb phrase with *may*, as for example:

*May* all the stars *hang* bright above thy dwelling.

b. **To express a wish**, the subjunctive verb being **in a dependent clause** which is the object of the verb *wish* or a verb of similar meaning, as for example:

1. O Mother dear, that thou *were* here!
2. “I would,” said Geraldine, “she *were*!”

(2) **To express a concession**, the subjunctive verb being in the subordinate clause:

1. *Be* the matter how it may, Gabriel Grub was afflicted with rheumatism to the end of his days.
2. Wherever he *dream*, under mountain or stream,  
The spirit he loves remains.

An *indefinite relative pronoun, adjective or adverb* often helps express the concession (*whatsoever, whoever, wherever...*). See Sections 86-88 on *indefinite relatives*.

(3) **To express a condition contrary to fact**, the verb in the condition itself (dependent clause) and the

verb in the conclusion (main clause) both being in the subjunctive mood (Section 157); thus:

If these wretches *were* princes, there *would be* thousands ready to offer their ministry.

The subjunctive in the conclusion is usually made up of a verb phrase having the words *should*, *would*, *could*, *might*, and an infinitive. Other examples of this contrary-to-fact subjunctive are:

1. I *should have taken* the poet for a very sagacious farmer of the old Scotch school [*understood*: if I had not known him].
2. He *would have thanked* any one who had befriended him [*meaning*: if he had befriended him].

### Parsing Examples

1. Peace **be** with the heroes.

**be**: verb, irregular weak, intransitive, active, **subjunctive**, present, subject is "peace," 3rd person, singular.

2. **May** all the stars **hang** bright above thy dwelling.

**May hang**: defective verb with an infinitive, intransitive, active, **subjunctive**, present, subject is "stars," 3rd person, plural.

3. O Mother dear, that thou **were** here!

**were**: verb, irregular weak, intransitive, active, **subjunctive**, past, subject is "thou," 2nd person, singular.

4. If these wretches **were** princes, there **would be** thousands ready to offer their ministry.

**were**: verb, irregular weak, intransitive, active, **subjunctive**, past, subject is "wretches," 3rd person, plural.

**would be**: defective verb with an infinitive, intransitive, active, **subjunctive**, past, subject is "thousands," 3rd person, plural.

**Exercise.** Write nine sentences showing the uses of the subjunctive mood, three sentences for each use.

162.

Since the subjunctive forms are often the same as the indicative, the student should always take special care to notice the *use* of the verb as well as the form. In many languages the subjunctive mood has many distinct forms, and to understand its uses will be valuable.

In the condition contrary to fact, the introductory *if* is often omitted, but the subjunctive use of the verb is readily seen, as:

1. *Were* I to breathe it long, methinks it would make me ill.
2. *Had* he *been* a little richer, almost ever so little, the whole might have been otherwise.

NOTE: The student of literature may encounter several other uses of the subjunctive, employed especially by those who are artistic and exact in the expression of their thought. In an independent clause, the subjunctive may express a **contingent declaration or question**:

Our chosen specimen of the hero as literary man [if we were to choose one] *would be* this Goethe.

In dependent clauses, the subjunctive may express **the purpose** giving rise to an action:

It was necessary, he supposed, to drink strong beer, that he *might be* strong to labor.

It may express the **result** toward which an action tends:

So live, that when thy summons comes to join  
The innumerable caravan...  
Thou *go* not, like the quarry-slave at night.

The subjunctive is used to express the **time when an action is to take place**, as in certain Latin clauses:

## PARTS OF SPEECH

Let it rise, till it *meet* the sun in his coming.

In a **noun clause**, especially after verbs of commanding:

See that there *be* no traitors in your camp.

### Exercise

(a) Give first the use, then the mood of each verb in the following sentences:

1. The Indian immediately started back, whilst the lion rose with a spring and leaped toward him.
2. Think not man was made in vain, who has such an eternity reserved for him.
3. Though the work performed was small, we must remember that he had his very materials to discover.
4. We had already stated our doubts whether direct pecuniary help, had it been offered, would have been accepted, or could have proved very effectual.
5. "Then God bless you," said Faith with the pink ribbons, "and may you find all well when you come!"
6. If he drudges, it is with his brothers, and for his father and mother, whom he loves.
7. Thine was a dangerous gift, when thou wast born—  
The gift of Beauty. Would thou hadst it not;  
Or wert as once, awing the caitiffs vile  
That now beset thee!
8. If he entered an inn at midnight, after all the inmates were in bed, the news of his arrival circulated from the cellar to the garret.
8. Oh! raise us up, return to us again;  
And give us manners, virtue, freedom, power.
10. It seems almost as if we were treading a mansion of that fabled city, where every being had been suddenly transmuted into stone.

11. The wedge will rend rocks, but its edge must be sharp and single; if it be double, the wedge is bruised in pieces and will rend nothing.
12. In the silent afternoons, if I listened, the thump of a great apple was audible.
13. If the mighty merchant whose benefactions are reckoned by thousands of dollars deem himself worthy, let him join the procession.
14. It would fill a volume in an age of pamphlets were I to record all my observations.
15. Many a time shall I disturb them there, and feel as if I had intruded among a company of silent worshipers, as they sit in Sabbath stillness among the tree-tops.

(b) Write six sentences using the indicative mood, six using the subjunctive, four using the imperative.

## CONJUGATION

**Conjugation is the orderly arrangement of the forms of the verb in the various voices, moods, tenses, persons, and numbers. 163.**

**Conjugation** is from a Latin word meaning *joining together*, and in Latin grammar the word refers to the adding of various endings to a verb-root, or verb-stem. In English, inflections of verbs are few and the various circumstances of action or being are expressed by different combinations of verb forms and auxiliaries.

The verb *be* has a larger number of distinct forms than any other verb, since its forms include several different root words; as, *been*, *are*, *were*. Most of the other verbs have only four or five distinct forms in common use; for example, the forms of the verb *talk* are *talk*, *talks*, *talk-ing*, *talked*; the forms of *speak* are *speak*, *speaks*, *spoke*, *speaking*, *spoken*.

The complete conjugation of a verb in English includes these distinct forms as well as all the verb phrases that express the relations of voice, mood, tense, etc.

## 164. Conjugation of the verb *be*.

Four tenses of the indicative mood and all of the subjunctive have been given (Section 158); the other forms and phrases are:

### INDICATIVE MOOD

#### FUTURE TENSE

##### *Singular*

1. I shall be

2. You will be (Thou wilt be)

3. He will be

##### *Plural*

1. We shall be

2. You, ye will be

3. They will be

#### FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

##### *Singular*

1. I shall have been

2. You will have been  
(Thou wilt have been)

3. He will have been

##### *Plural*

1. We shall have been

2. You, ye will have been

3. They will have been

### IMPERATIVE MOOD

#### PRESENT TENSE

##### *Singular*

2. Be [you or thou]

##### *Plural*

2. Be [you or ye]



**A synopsis of a verb is the orderly arrangement of the different moods and tenses in only one person and number. 165.**

The following is a synopsis of the verb *speak*. The third person singular will be used here, and the imperative mood will be added.

### ACTIVE VOICE

#### INDICATIVE MOOD

<i>Present</i>	He speaks.
<i>Present definite</i>	He is speaking.
<i>Past</i>	He spoke.
<i>Past definite</i>	He was speaking.
<i>Future</i>	He will speak.
<i>Future definite</i>	He will be speaking.
<i>Present perfect</i>	He has spoken.
<i>Present perfect definite</i>	He has been speaking.
<i>Past perfect</i>	He had spoken.
<i>Past perfect definite</i>	He had been speaking.
<i>Future perfect</i>	He will have spoken.
<i>Future perfect definite</i>	He will have been speaking.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present</i> [If, though, etc.]	He speak.
<i>Present definite</i>	He be speaking.
<i>Past</i>	He spoke.
<i>Past definite</i>	He were speaking.
<i>Present perfect</i>	He have spoken.
<i>Present perfect definite</i>	He have been speaking.
<i>Past perfect</i>	He had spoken.
<i>Past perfect definite</i>	He had been speaking.

**NOTE:** See Sections 173-174 on defective verbs with infinitives in the formation of verbs in the subjunctive mood.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

### IMPERATIVE MOOD

<i>Present</i>	Speak. (2 <sup>nd</sup> person.)
<i>Present definite</i>	Be speaking.

### PASSIVE VOICE

#### INDICATIVE MOOD

<i>Present</i>	It is spoken.
<i>Present definite</i>	It is being spoken.
<i>Past</i>	It was spoken.
<i>Past definite</i>	It was being spoken.
<i>Future</i>	It will be spoken.
<i>Present perfect</i>	It has been spoken.
<i>Past perfect</i>	It had been spoken.
<i>Future perfect</i>	It will have been spoken.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present</i> [If, though, etc.]	It be spoken.
<i>Past</i>	It were spoken.
<i>Past definite</i>	It were being spoken.
<i>Present perfect</i>	It have been spoken.
<i>Past perfect</i>	It had been spoken.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD

On account of its meaning, *speak* has no passive imperative. Of other transitive verbs, the forms are:

<i>Present</i> (2 <sup>nd</sup> person)	Be seen, be smitten, etc.
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**166.** In the present and past tenses active, a verb phrase consisting of *do* and the infinitive of any verb is used for emphasis, and these are called **emphatic forms**, as,

- a) I *do speak* clearly.
- b) I *did speak* harshly.

In poetry, *do* and *did* are often merely substitutes for the simple forms of the verb, and are not emphatic, as for example,

- a) In our life alone *does* nature *live*.
- b) The ice *did split* with a thunder-fit.

The use of *do* in the imperative has been mentioned.

The **negative forms** of the present and past tenses active, indicative, are made up of *do* and *did* with *not*, (which may be considered part of a verb phrase), as,

- a) He *does not speak* well.
- b) They *did not speak* cordially.

To ask questions, *do* and *did* are used in the same tenses, inverting the order, and are often called **interrogative forms**, as,

- a) *Do you know* him?
- b) *Did we intrude*?

In other tenses the forms remain the same, and only the order is changed, as,

And *will* your mother *pity* me?

By combining the emphatic and interrogative forms with the negatives, we may form other phrases, such as,

- a) I *did not walk*.
- b) *Did they not walk* with you?

These remarks serve to show how numerous and how useful verb phrases are in English, for indicating the different shades of meaning and circumstances of action.

NOTE: Care is needed in distinguishing between verb phrases which form a tense or a voice; verb phrases consisting of a defective verb and an infinitive; idiomatic verb phrases (*I am going to come*; *I used to go*) and emphatic verb phrases. Parsing examples have been given.

Finally, it is important not to confuse a true verb phrase, in which an infinitive (or sometimes an adverb or preposition) *completes* a conjugated verb to express a single idea and form a simple predicate, with a more complex predicate structure, consisting of a verb with an infinitive as *complement*. See Sections 183-184 and 267-269.

### Parsing Examples

1. I **do speak** clearly.

**do speak:**

**do:** verb, strong, intransitive, active, indicative, present, subject is “I,” 1st person, singular.

**speak:** infinitive, indefinite, active, completes the verb “do.” [See the NOTE after Section 190 for the parsing of emphatic verbs with “do.”]

2. **Did** they **not walk** with you?

**Did not walk:**

**Did not:** verb and adverb, strong, intransitive, active, indicative, past indefinite, subject is “they,” 3rd person, plural.

**walk:** infinitive, indefinite active, completes the verb “did.”

## STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

- 167.** As to the forms of the words, verbs are divided into **strong** and **weak**. They can be distinguished by their manner of forming the past tense.

**Strong verbs form the past tense by changing the vowel of the present tense form, but adding no ending**, such as: *choose, chose; blow, blew; fling, flung*.

This manner of forming the past tense is from Old English; *strong verbs* are *old conjugation verbs*.

**Weak verbs always form the past tense by adding an ending – -d, -ed, or -t – to the present form of the verb and sometimes changing the vowel,** such as, *flee, fled; tan, tanned; buy, bought*. Weak verbs are now the more common, and are called “regular” in many grammar books.

Sometimes a strong verb also has a weak form in the past tense, as an alternative.

**NOTE:** Weak verbs also include some words that neither change the vowel nor add an ending, because the ending is already -t, for example, *set, set; cast, cast; cost, cost; put, put*. There are also some that drop -d for -t: as, *send, sent; build, built*.

A general description of any verb is usually given by means of the **principal parts**; that is, the forms used as a basis in making up the conjugation of the verb. **168.**

**The principal parts of a verb are the simple infinitive, the past tense, and the perfect participle.** For example:

*blow, blew, blown*  
*come, came, come*  
*buy, bought, bought*  
*watch, watched, watched*

## LIST OF STRONG VERBS

The table on the following pages includes most of the strong verbs of our language. **169.**

**NOTE:** Some of these verbs have weak forms, which are placed in parentheses.

# PARTS OF SPEECH

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
<b>abide</b>	abode	abode	<b>find</b>	found	found
<b>arise</b>	arose	arisen	<b>fling</b>	flung	flung
<b>awake</b>	awoke	awoke	<b>fly</b>	flew	flown
	(awaked)	(awaked)	<b>forbear</b>	forbore	forborne
<b>bear</b>	bore	borne [act.]	<b>forget</b>	forgot	forgotten
		born [pass.]	<b>forsake</b>	forsook	forsaken
<b>begin</b>	began	begun	<b>freeze</b>	froze	frozen
<b>behold</b>	beheld	beheld	<b>get</b>	got	got [gotten]
<b>bid</b>	bade	bidden	<b>give</b>	gave	given
<b>bind</b>	bound	bound	<b>go</b>	went	gone
<b>bite</b>	bit	bitten, bit	<b>grind</b>	ground	ground
<b>blow</b>	blew	blown	<b>grow</b>	grew	grown
<b>break</b>	broke	broken	<b>hang</b>	hung	hung
<b>chide</b>	chid	chidden		(hanged)	(hanged)
		chid	<b>hold</b>	held	held
<b>choose</b>	chose	chosen	<b>know</b>	knew	known
<b>cleave</b>	clove	cloven	<b>lie</b>	lay	lain
	(cleft)	(cleft)	<b>ride</b>	rode	ridden
<b>climb</b>	[clomb]	climbed	<b>ring</b>	rang	rung
	climbed		<b>run</b>	ran	run
<b>cling</b>	clung	clung	<b>see</b>	saw	seen
<b>come</b>	came	come	<b>shake</b>	shook	shaken
<b>crow</b>	crew	crowed	<b>shear</b>	shore	shorn
	(crowed)			(sheared)	(sheared)
<b>dig</b>	dug	dug	<b>shine</b>	shone	shone
<b>do</b>	did	done	<b>shrink</b>	shrank,	shrunk
<b>draw</b>	drew	drawn		shrunk	
<b>drink</b>	drank	drunk	<b>shrive</b>	shrove	shriven
		drank	<b>sing</b>	sang	sung
	[ <i>adjective:</i>	drunken]		sung	
<b>drive</b>	drove	driven	<b>sink</b>	sank	sunk
<b>eat</b>	ate, eat	eaten, eat		sunk	
<b>fall</b>	fell	fallen	<b>sit</b>	sat [sate]	sat
<b>fight</b>	fought	fought	<b>slay</b>	slew	slain

## VERBS AND VERBALS

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
<b>slide</b>	slid	slid slidden	<b>string</b>	strung	strung
<b>sling</b>	slung	slung	<b>strive</b>	strove	striven
<b>slink</b>	slunk	slunk	<b>swear</b>	swore	sworn
<b>smite</b>	smote	smitten	<b>swim</b>	swam swum	swum
<b>speak</b>	spoke	spoken	<b>swing</b>	swung	swung
<b>spin</b>	spun	spun	<b>take</b>	took	taken
<b>spit</b>	spat, spit	spat	<b>tear</b>	tore	torn
<b>spring</b>	sprang sprung	sprung	<b>thrive</b>	throve (thrived)	thriven (thrived)
<b>stand</b>	stood	stood	<b>throw</b>	threw	thrown
<b>stave</b>	stove (staved)	staved	<b>tread</b>	trod	trodden trod
<b>steal</b>	stole	stolen	<b>wear</b>	wore	worn
<b>stick</b>	stuck	stuck	<b>weave</b>	wove	woven
<b>sting</b>	stung	stung	<b>win</b>	won	won
<b>stink</b>	stunk stank	stunk	<b>wind</b>	wound	wound
<b>stride</b>	strode	stridden	<b>wring</b>	wrung	wrung
<b>strike</b>	struck	struck stricken	<b>write</b>	wrote	written

**NOTE:** The perfect participle *got* is preferable to the form *gotten*, which is not now used in the best English writing; but *forgotten* is the correct participle of the verb *forget*.

The verb *hang* has two forms with different meanings in the past tense and past participle; *hanged* regularly refers to execution of persons by hanging, while *hung* means suspended, in speaking of other matters.

## IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS

**170.** There are many weak verbs which are called **irregular weak verbs** because they do not follow the simple rule of adding *-d* or *-ed* and maintaining the rest of the verb form the same. They are of two classes:

I. Those that add a *-d* or *-t* in the past tense and past participle with in addition some other change of form.

II. Those whose present tense ends in *-d* or *-t* but have lost the ending which was once added to form the past tense and past participle.

The most common of each class are given below:

## IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS: CLASS I

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
<b>bereave</b>	bereft	bereft	<b>lay</b>	laid	laid
	bereaved	bereaved	<b>lean</b>	leaned	leaned
<b>beseech</b>	besought	besought		leant	leant
<b>bring</b>	brought	brought	<b>leap</b>	leaped	leaped
<b>burn</b>	burned	burnt		leapt	leapt
	burnt		<b>leave</b>	left	left
<b>buy</b>	bought	bought	<b>lose</b>	lost	lost
<b>catch</b>	caught	caught	<b>make</b>	made	made
<b>creep</b>	crept	crept		[once: maked]	
<b>deal</b>	dealt	dealt	<b>mean</b>	meant	meant
<b>dream</b>	dreamed	dreamed	<b>pay</b>	paid	paid
	dreamt	dreamt	<b>pen</b>	penned	penned
<b>dwell</b>	dwelt	dwelt	[inclose]	pent	pent
<b>feel</b>	felt	felt	<b>say</b>	said	said
<b>flee</b>	fled	fled	<b>seek</b>	sought	sought
<b>have</b>	had	had	<b>sell</b>	sold	sold
	[once: haved]		<b>shoe</b>	shod	shod
<b>hide</b>	hid	hid	<b>sleep</b>	slept	slept
<b>keep</b>	<b>kept</b>	<b>kept</b>	<b>spell</b>	spelled	spelled
<b>kneel</b>	knelt	knelt		spelt	spelt



## VERBS AND VERBALS

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
<b>spill</b>	spilled	spilled	<b>tell</b>	told	told
	spilt	spilt	<b>think</b>	thought	thought
<b>stay</b>	stayed	stayed	<b>weep</b>	wept	wept
	staid	staid	<b>work</b>	worked	worked
<b>sweep</b>	swept	swept		wrought	wrought
<b>teach</b>	taught	taught			

### IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS: CLASS II

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
<b>bend</b>	bent	bent	<b>quit</b>	quit	quit
	bended	bended	<b>read</b>	read	read
<b>bleed</b>	bled	bled	<b>rend</b>	rent	rent
<b>breed</b>	bred	bred	<b>rid</b>	rid	rid
<b>build</b>	built	built	<b>send</b>	sent	sent
<b>cast</b>	cast	cast	<b>set</b>	set	set
<b>cost</b>	cost	cost	<b>shed</b>	shed	shed
<b>feed</b>	fed	fed	<b>shred</b>	shred	shred
<b>gild</b>	gilded	gilded	<b>shut</b>	shut	shut
	gilt	gilt	<b>slit</b>	slit	slit
<b>gird</b>	girded	girded	<b>speed</b>	sped	sped
	girt	girt	<b>spit</b>	spit [spat]	spit [spat]
<b>hit</b>	hit	hit	[ <i>may be considered weak or strong, because "spat" is an obsolete form.</i> ]		
<b>hurt</b>	hurt	hurt	<b>split</b>	split	split
<b>knit</b>	knitted	knitted	<b>spread</b>	spread	spread
	knit	knit	<b>sweat</b>	sweat	sweat
<b>lead</b>	led	led	<b>thrust</b>	thrust	thrust
<b>let</b>	let	let	<b>wed</b>	wed	wed
<b>light</b>	lighted	lighted		wedded	wedded
	lit	lit	<b>wet</b>	wet	wet
<b>meet</b>	met	met		wetted	wetted
<b>put</b>	put	put			

**171.** The perfect participle may be used alone as a verbal, as explained more fully in Sections 180 and 181; but it is put down in the above lists because it is used in so many verb phrases. The principal uses are as follows:

(1) After the auxiliaries *have*, *had*, and *shall have* to form the perfect tenses active.

(2) After the forms of the verb *be* to form the various passive phrases.

Errors are often caused by careless or ignorant confusion of past tense and perfect participle forms; as, he *done*, for he *did*; we *seen*, for we *saw*; you *had took*, for you *had taken*; they *come*, for they *came*.

**172.** Two groups of verbs need special attention because they are so often misused: *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*.

**Lie** and **lay** need close attention. Here are the forms, including present participle, for clarity:

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Pres. Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
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1. lie	lay	lying	lain
--------	-----	-------	------

2. lay	laid	laying	laid
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The distinctions to be observed are as follows:

(1) *Lie*, with its forms, is regularly *intransitive* as to use. As to meaning, *lie* means to rest, to recline, to place one's self in a recumbent position, as: "The dog *is lying* at the door"; "There *lies* the ruin."

(2) *Lay*, with its forms, is always *transitive* as to use. As to meaning, *lay* means to put, to place a person or thing in position, as. "Slowly and sadly we *laid* him down." Also *lay* may be used without any object expressed, but there is still a transitive meaning, as in

the expressions, “to *lay* up for future use,” “to *lay* on with the rod.”

**Sit** and **set** have principal parts as follows:

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Pres. Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
1. sit	sat	sitting	sat
2. set	set	setting	set

Notice these points of difference between the two verbs:

(1) *Sit*, with its forms, is always *intransitive* in use. In meaning, *sit* signifies (a) to place one’s self on a seat, to rest; (2) to be adjusted, to fit; (c) to cover and warm eggs for hatching, as, “The hen *sits*.”

(2) *Set*, with its forms, is always *transitive* in use when it has the following meanings: (a) to put or place a thing or person in position, as “He *set* down the book”; (b) to fix or establish, as, “He *sets* a good example.”

*Set* is *intransitive* when it means (a) to go down, to decline, as, “The sun *has set*”; (b) to become fixed or rigid, as “His eyes *set* in his head because of the disease”; (c) in certain idiomatic expressions, as, for example, “to *set* out,” “to *set* up in business,” “to *set* about a thing,” “to *set* to work,” “to *set* forward,” “the tide *sets* in,” “a strong wind *set* in,” etc.

### Exercise 1

Conjugate the following tenses as directed:

1. Present perfect indicative active of *begin*.
2. Past tense indicative active of *come*.
3. Past tense indicative active of *do*.
4. Past perfect indicative active of *fly*.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

5. Present tense subjunctive passive of *forget*.
6. Present perfect indicative passive of *get*.
7. Past tense indicative active of *grow*.
8. Future tense indicative passive of *ring*.
9. Past perfect indicative active of *sing*.
10. Present perfect indicative passive of *slay*.

### Exercise 2

(a) Form sentences using the following tenses of verbs in the third person, singular number:

1. Past tense indicative active of *lie*.
2. Past tense indicative active of *lay*.
3. Future tense indicative active of *lie*.
4. Present perfect indicative active of *lie*.
5. Past perfect indicative active of *sit*.
6. Future perfect indicative active of *set*.
7. Past tense subjunctive passive of *set*.
8. Present perfect indicative active of *sit*.
9. Past tense indicative passive of *swim*.
10. Past perfect subjunctive passive of *write*.

(b) Where possible, change the forms in Exercise 2 to interrogative negative-definite; as, “*Was not* the cat *lying* on our new velvet rug?”

(c) Where possible, change the active forms in Exercises 1 and 2 to passive, and the passive forms to active.

### Exercise 3

Examine the forms of *lie*, *lay*, *sit*, and *set* in these sentences; give the meaning of each, and correct those used wrongly:

1. If the phenomena which lie before him will not suit his purpose, all history must be ransacked.
2. He sat with his eyes fixed partly on the ghost and partly on Hamlet, and with his mouth open.
3. The days when his favorite volume set him upon making wheelbarrows and chairs ... can never again be the realities they were.
4. To make the jacket sit yet more closely to the body, it was gathered at the middle by a broad leathern belt.
5. He had set up no attainable standard of perfection.
6. For more than two hundred years his bones lay undistinguished.
7. The author laid the whole fault on the audience.
8. Dapple had to lay down on all fours before the lads could bestride him.
9. Achilles is the swift-footed when he is sitting still.
10. It may be laid down as a general rule, that history begins in novel, and ends in essay.

## DEFECTIVE VERBS

**Defective verbs are those which are lacking in one or more of the principal parts.** The following list includes the important ones:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
may	might	will	would
can	could	[must]	must
shall	should	[ought]	ought

All these are used with infinitives to form verb phrases. *Ought* requires the infinitive with *to*; all others take the pure infinitive. Here are examples of such phrases, with the various infinitive forms, active voice:

*Simple infinitive, indefinite* Ought to write

## PARTS OF SPEECH

<i>Simple infinitive, definite</i>	Can be writing
<i>Perfect infinitive, indefinite</i>	Should have written
<i>Perfect infinitive, definite</i>	Would have been writing

The defective verbs in English deserve close study, because they are used so frequently and allow us to express such a wide variety of nuance in thought.

As in the case of other verb phrases, **the tense of a defective-verb phrase is determined by both of its parts**; for example, *might be writing* consists of the past tense verb *might* and a simple infinitive, hence the phrase is in the past tense (definite form); *might have written* consists of a past tense verb and the perfect infinitive *have written*, hence the phrase is in the past perfect tense (indefinite form). For example:

<i>Present</i>	I may love
<i>Present Perfect</i>	I may have loved
<i>Past</i>	I might love
<i>Past Perfect</i>	I might have loved

**NOTE:** *Shall* and *will* are exceptions to this rule when they are used in the regular formation of the future tense. As may be seen in the parsing examples, they should be parsed as a single verb phrase, not as a defective verb with an infinitive. See Sections 175-177.

Since they are devoid of person and number forms, **the mood of certain defective verbs must be determined by considering the manner of their use in the sentence.** (As indicated in Section 174, some defective verbs are only used to express the indicative.) The parsing examples in this chapter provide a wide variety of sentences, to guide the student in identifying the tense and mood of verb phrases with defective verbs, as well as Section 190.

**May, can, must** and **ought** may be treated together as expressing various nuances of potentiality and obligation. 174.

(1) **May** is used as either indicative or subjunctive, as it has two meanings.

a) **May** is **indicative** when it expresses *permission*, or, as it sometimes does, *ability*, like the word *can*:

If I *may* lightly *employ* the Miltonic figure, "far off his coming light shines."

His superiority none *might question*.

b) **May** is **subjunctive** when it expresses doubt as to the reality of an action, or when it expresses wish, purpose, etc.:

And from her fair and unpolluted flesh  
*May* violets *spring*!

(2) **Can** is used in the **indicative** only. **Could** may be subjunctive, if it expresses contingency rather than fact:

I *could lie* down like a tired child,  
And weep away the life of care  
Which I have borne and yet must bear.

(3) **Must** is historically a past-tense form, from the obsolete verb *motan*, which survives in the sentence, "So *mote* it be." **Must** is present or past tense according to the infinitive used, and is always **indicative**.

All *must concede* to him a sublime power of action.

This, of course, *must have been* an ocular deception.

(4) The same remarks apply to **ought**, which is historically the past tense of the verb *owe*. Like *must*, it is used only in the **indicative** mood:

*Have we valuable territories and important posts...which ought long since to have been surrendered?*

**Exercise.** Write sentences using six verb phrases with forms of the defective verbs *may*, *can*, *must*, and *ought* in the indicative mood, and four using defective verbs in the subjunctive.

**175.** **Shall** and **will** may be treated together because they are the regular auxiliaries to indicate future time.

I <i>shall</i> write	We <i>shall</i> write
You <i>will</i> write	You <i>will</i> write
He <i>will</i> write	They <i>will</i> write

Notice that *shall* is used with the first person, and *will* with the second and third persons. (See the NOTE about parsing, in Section 173.)

This distinction has largely been lost in American English, in which *will* is commonly the only auxiliary to express future time, yet it is important to recognize the correct usage. The correct usage of *shall* and *will*, as of their past tense forms, *should* and *would*, is to be found in literature, and the nuance of idea so expressed should not be lost by inattention. These distinctions of use and meaning are as follows:

(1) With the FIRST PERSON, *shall* and *should* are used:

(a) In making simple statements or predictions about future time, as:

The time will come full soon, I *shall* be gone.

(b) In questions asking for orders, or implying obligation or authority resting upon the subject:



With respect to novels, what *shall* I say?

How *shall* I describe the luster which at that moment burst upon my vision?

(2) With the SECOND AND THIRD PERSONS, *shall* and *should* are used:

(a) To express authority, in the form of command, promise, or confident prediction. The following are examples:

Never mind, my lad, whilst I live thou *shalt* never want a friend to stand by thee.

The sea *shall* crush thee; yea, the ponderous wave up the loose beach *shall* grind and scoop thy grave.

(b) In *indirect questions*, to express the same idea that the original speaker put forth (i.e., future action); for example:

He declares that he *shall* win the purse from you.

She rejects his suit with scorn, but assures him that she *shall* make great use of her power over him.

(c) With *direct questions* of the second person, when the answer expected would express simple futurity. Thus:

“*Should* you like to go to school at Canterbury?”

(3) With ALL THREE PERSONS:

(a) *Should* is used with the meaning of obligation, and is equivalent to *ought*.

I never was what I *should* be.

(b) *Shall* and *should* are both used in *dependent clauses* of condition, time, purpose, etc.; for example:

Suppose this back-door gossip *should* be utterly blundering and untrue, would any one wonder?

If thou *should'st* ever come by chance or choice to Modena...

**176.** **Will** and **would** are used as follows:

(1) With the FIRST PERSON, *will* and *would* are used to express determination as to the future, or a promise, as for example:

I *will* go myself now, and *will* not return untill all is finished.

And promised...that I *would* do him justice, as the sole inventor.

(2) With the SECOND PERSON, *will* is used to express command. This puts the order more mildly, as if it were merely expected action, as:

Thou *wilt* take the skiff, Roland, and two of my people,... and fetch off certain plate and belongings.

You *will* proceed to Manassas at as early a moment as practicable, and mark on the grounds the works, etc.

(3) With both SECOND AND THIRD PERSONS, *will* and *would* are used to express simple futurity, action merely expected to occur. For example:

All this *will* sound wild and chimerical.

She *would* tell you that punishment is the reward of the wicked.

When I am in town, you'll always have somebody to sit with you. To be sure, so you *will*.

(4) With FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PERSONS, *would* is used to express a *wish* – the original meaning of the verb *will*. For example:

*Would* that a momentary emanation from thy glory  
would visit me!

Thine was a dangerous gift, when thou wast born,  
The gift of Beauty. *Would* thou hadst it not.

It shall be gold if thou *wilt*, but thou shalt answer to me  
for the use of it.

What *wouldst* thou have a good great man obtain?

(5) With the THIRD PERSON, *will* and *would* often denote an action as customary, without regard to future time, as:

They *will* go to Sunday schools, through storms their  
brothers are afraid of.... They *will* stand behind a table  
at a fair all day.

*In this stately chair would he sit, and this magnificent pipe  
would he smoke, shaking his right knee with a constant motion.*

*Shall* and *will* are the only defective verbs among those we have studied which are considered simple auxiliaries, because they regularly form the future tense. The other defective verbs studied above are not strictly speaking auxiliaries, but rather form a defective-verb phrase to which we attribute a tense based on its parts (cf. Section 190 on the Parsing of Verbs and Verbals). 177.

### Exercise

(a) Tell what use *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would* have in the following sentences:

## PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Shouldn't you like to be present at a scalping match, and see a fellow skinned alive?
  2. He would carry a fowling piece on his shoulder for hours together, trudging through woods and swamps.
  3. She says that the death of every bird which is killed in her ground will spoil a concert, and that she shall certainly miss him the next year.
  4. Tell him that we yield to his rapacity, as in similar circumstances we should to that of a robber.
  5. Everything about the place went wrong, and would go wrong, in spite of him.
  6. Why, you wouldn't like to keep the child, should you—an old bachelor like you?
  7. The royal blood of our Saxon kings shall not be spilt while mine beats in my veins; nor shall one hair fall from the head of the kind knave who risked himself for his master.
  8. I trust I shall remember the password.
  9. Say what we did was imprudent. Would we not do it over again?
  10. On the last day of his life General Wolfe said he would rather have written Gray's Elegy than have won a battle.
  11. He set off with the thought that he should be able to dress up and magnify to the admiration of a select circle.
  12. There was something in front of the fire that would have been tempting to a hungry man.
- (b) Explain the difference between the following sentences as they stand, and the same with the other auxiliary substituted:
1. Will [shall] he be allowed to join the club?
  2. You shall [will] not enter the house again.
  3. We should [would] not meet this man again if we remained here all day long.
  4. My opponent declared that he should [would] know the name of the man who hissed him.
  5. I shall [will] go; nobody will [shall] hinder me.

## VERBALS

**A verbal is a word that expresses action or being in a general way, but it does not limit the action to any time, does not assert it of any subject, and cannot be used as a predicate.** 178.

In the following pages the purpose is mainly to study such words separately, as verbals, and not in composition, as parts of phrases.

**There are three kinds of verbals: participles, infinitives, and gerunds.**

**Participles are *adjectival verbals*; that is, they express action either in some connection with a substantive, or as modifiers describing a substantive. (A substantive is a noun or noun equivalent.)** 179.

The following examples will help to illustrate these two functions:

1. At length, *wearied* by his cries and agitations, and not *knowing* how to put an end to them, he addressed the animal as if he had been a rational being.

Here *wearied* and *knowing* belong to the subject *he*, and express action in connection with it, but do not describe the subject, as would simple adjectives, for example, *ignorant* or *weary*. They are *pure participles*.

2. Another name glided into her petition – it was that of the *wounded* Christian, whom fate had placed in the hands of bloodthirsty men, his *avowed* enemies.

Here, *wounded* and *avowed* are participles because they express an action, but are used with the same ad-

jectival force as *bloodthirsty*, which is a descriptive adjective. They are *pure participial adjectives*.

Thus, all participles contain an element of action, and may or may not describe as would true adjectives.

Participles which are used to describe as well as express action should be carefully distinguished from certain words which look like participles but are in fact only adjectives which have lost their force to express action. Examples are:

1. Not merely to the soldier are these campaigns *interesting*.
2. The clearness and quickness are *amazing*.
3. No man of his day was more brilliant or more *accomplished*.

The words *interesting*, *amazing* and *accomplished*, as they are used in these sentences, are simply descriptive adjectives yet they may be classed as *faded* or *fossil participial adjectives* because of their verbal origin.

These two kinds of participial adjectives – *pure* and *fossil* – have already been discussed in Adjectives Section 117, § 4.

**Exercise.** Write sentences in which *interesting*, *amazing*, and *accomplished* are used otherwise than as fossil participial adjectives and retain all of their verbal force.

- 180. Participles**, by their verbal origin and because they still express action, may have *voice* and *form*, which resembles tense (see Section 181). They may therefore be in **active voice** or **passive voice**, and their form may be **imperfect**, **perfect**, and **perfect definite**.

The simple participles and the phrases are:

## VERBS AND VERBALS

### ACTIVE VOICE

<i>Imperfect</i>	<i>Writing</i>
<i>Perfect</i>	<i>Having written</i>
<i>Perfect definite</i>	<i>Having been writing</i>

### PASSIVE VOICE

<i>Imperfect</i>	<i>Being written</i>
<i>Perfect</i>	<i>Written, having been written</i>

**NOTE:** The form *written*, when used alone as a verbal, is always perfect and passive; when used in verb phrases, it may be active or passive (Section 171).

The *imperfect* form is sometimes called *incomplete*; *perfect* is sometimes called *past* or *complete*; and *perfect definite* is sometimes called *perfect progressive*.

**Exercise.** Write sentences using all the participles in the above table.

**Participles** have no exact tense. The time expressed **181.** by the incomplete or imperfect *form* of the participle depends on the tense of the accompanying verb, as for example,

He comes, *bringing* good news. (present)

He came, *bringing* good news. (past)

He will yet come, *bringing* good news. (future)

The **perfect participle** has in it a vague idea of past time and of completed action, whatever the tense of the main verb, as,

*Having obeyed* the order, the officer came [comes, had come, etc.] back to report.

### Parsing Examples

1. At length, **wearied** by his cries and agitation, and not **knowing** how to put an end to them, he **addressed** the animal as if he **had been** a rational being.

**wearied:** participle, passive, perfect, belongs to “he.”

**knowing:** participle, active, imperfect, belongs to “he.”

**addressed:** verb, weak, transitive, active, indicative, past, subject is “he,” 3rd person, singular.

**had been:** verb, irregular, weak, intransitive, active, subjunctive, past perfect, subject is “he,” “3rd person, singular.

2. Perhaps I **was** too saucy and **provoking**.

**was:** verb, irregular, weak, intransitive, active, indicative, past, subject is “I,” 1st person, singular.

**provoking:** participial adjective, descriptive, positive degree of comparison, describes “I.”

### Exercise

(a) Write the participles of the verbs *bring*, *begin*, *set*, *sit*, *lie*, *lay*, *fall*, *see*, *build*.

(b) Tell which of the italicized words below are pure participles (expressing action), which are participial adjectives (expressing action and describing), and which are only fossil participles or fossil participial adjectives (describing without expressing action). Tell also whether each italicized word is in the attributive, appositive, or predicate position (Section 128).

1. A little *gurgling* sound ascended to the window.
2. The man’s demeanor was that of one *walking* under some malignant influence.
3. Soon there emerged from under a *sculptured* portal the figure of a young girl *arrayed* with much taste.
4. His patients are *interesting* to him only as subjects for some new experiment.



5. By the *shattered* fountain grew the magnificent shrub, with purple gems *clustering* all over it.
6. *Having satisfied* his curiosity by this investigation, he looked for the object of his resentment, whom he observed *standing* on the same spot, with the same *composed* countenance which he had exhibited upon the *preceding* day.
7. The general came in out of breath, *having been riding* hard in pursuit of some deer.
8. The gage *having been delivered* to the noble knight, he was appointed to do this battle.

(c) Write sentences having the participles *interesting*, *entertaining*, *terrifying*, and *forsaken* in the attributive, the appositive, and the predicate use.

**An infinitive is a verbal having the simple or root form of a verb, and is used as a noun or as a modifier of some word in the sentence. 182.**

Besides the simple infinitive, there are phrases used as single verbals, just as in the case of participles; but these infinitive phrases are always introduced by the root form of the verb. For example, in the sentence, "Stone seems *to have been robbed* of its weight and density," *have* is the simple form of the verb, though it is completed by the participles *been* and *robbed* in forming the compound infinitive.

The remarks as to the tense of participles apply to all the verbals; all derive their tense from that expressed by the verb used in connection with them.

**The infinitive forms and phrases are:**

ACTIVE VOICE

<i>Simple (or Indefinite)</i>	<i>[To] write</i>
<i>Imperfect</i>	<i>[To] be writing</i>
<i>Perfect</i>	<i>[To] have written</i>
<i>Perfect definite</i>	<i>[To] have been writing</i>

## PARTS OF SPEECH

### PASSIVE VOICE

*Simple (or Indefinite)*

*[To] be written*

*Perfect*

*[To] have been written*

The word *to* is not a necessary part of the infinitive, though it is called the infinitive sign because it often introduces the infinitive; hence it is printed in brackets in Section 183.

The *to* is omitted: (1) in verb phrases with all the defective verbs except *ought*; (2) after the object of such verbs as *let*, *feel*, *hear*, *see*, and usually *make* and *bid* (order); (3) often after *please*, *need*, and *dare*.

Examples of infinitives:

The twilight would of itself *have rendered* a disguise unnecessary.

Let it not *be objected* that he did little. He had seen George *go* to the front.

You need not *be surprised*. The villain dared not *attack* me.

*To try* by the strict rules of art would *be* unfair.

### Parsing Examples

1. The twilight **would** of itself **have rendered** a disguise unnecessary.

**would have rendered:** defective verb with an **infinitive**, transitive, active, indicative, past perfect tense, subject is "twilight," 3rd person, singular.

2. **Let** it not **be objected** that he **did** little.

**Let:** verb, irregular, weak, transitive, active, imperative, present, subject is "(you)," 2nd, singular.

**be objected:** **infinitive**, passive, simple, complement of "let."

**did:** verb, strong, transitive, active, indicative, past, subject is “he,” 3rd person, singular.

3. He **had seen** George **go** to the front.

**had seen:** verb, strong, transitive, active, indicative, past perfect, subject is “He,” 3rd, singular.

**go: infinitive,** active, simple, complement of transitive verb “had seen.”

4. **To try** by the strict rules of art **would be** unfair.

**To try: infinitive,** simple, active, subject of “would be.”

**Would be:** defective verb with an **infinitive**, intransitive, active, indicative, past, subject is “To try,” 3rd person, singular.

**Exercise.** Write sentences using all the infinitives in this Section.

**Infinitives** may be used as **parts of verbs**, as **183.**  
**nouns**, or as **modifiers** (adjectives or adverbs).

There are two main **verbal uses** of infinitives:

(1) Completing an incomplete verb, but having no other office than a verbal one. (This role as *completing* is not to be confused with use as a *complement*.)

(a) With the defective verbs *may (might), can (could), should, would, seem, ought*, etc., or with the verb *used* in idiomatic phrases:

My weekly bill used invariably *to be* about fifty shillings.

There, my dear, he should not *have known* them at all.

(b) With the conjugated verb *be* and expressing a future with obligation, necessity, etc., as in the sentences:

Ingenuity and cleverness are *to be rewarded* by State prizes.

“The Fair Penitent” was *to be acted* that evening.

(c) With the definite forms of *go*, equivalent to a future:  
I was going *to repeat* my remonstrances.

I am not going *to dissert* on Hood's humor.

(2) Completing an incomplete transitive verb, but also belonging to a subject or an object (see Sections 267-269 for an explanation of complements).

I am constrained every moment *to acknowledge* a higher origin to events.

*Do they not cause the heart to beat, and the eyes to fill?*

**184.** There are four **substantive** or **noun** uses of infinitives:

(1) As the **subject**:

*To have* the wall there, was to have the foe's life at their mercy.

*To teach* is to learn.

(2) As the **object**:

I like *to hear* them tell their old stories.

I don't wish *to detract* from any gentleman's reputation.

(3) As **complement**. See examples in (1), in which *to have* and *to learn* in the role of predicate nominative are complements. See also Parsing Example 3, after Section 182, in which *go* is a complement of *had seen*.

(4) In **apposition**, explaining or renaming a noun preceding:

She forwarded to the English leaders a touching invitation *to unite* with the French.

*He insisted on his right to forget her.*

**Infinitives** may act as **modifiers**, either **adjectival** or **adverbial**. **185.**

Used as an **adjective**, an infinitive may modify a noun which is a subject, object, complement, etc. For example:

But there was no time *to be lost*. [*to be lost* is not in apposition with *time*, since it describes rather than restates.]

She has a new and unattempted problem *to solve*.

I have such a desire *to be* well with my public.

Used as an **adverb**, an infinitive will usually express *purpose, result, reason, degree, or condition*. As shown below, the idea which an infinitive expresses may be seen by turning the infinitive into an equivalent clause.

**(1) Purpose:**

The governor, Don Guzman, sailed to the eastward only yesterday *to look* for you. [*To look* means *that he might look*, a purpose clause.]

**(2) Result:**

Don Guzman returns to the river mouth *to find* the ship a blackened wreck. [*To find* shows the result of the return.]

What heart could be so hard as *not to take* pity on the poor wild thing? [*Not to take pity* is equivalent to *that it would not take pity*.]

**(3) Reason:**

I am quite sorry *to part* with them. [*To part* means *because I part*.]

## PARTS OF SPEECH

Are you mad, *to betray* yourself by your own cries? [*To betray* expresses the reason the subject would seem mad, equivalent to *that you betray*.]

Marry, hang the idiot, *to bring* me such stuff. [*To bring* is equivalent to *because he brought*.]

### (4) Degree:

We have wone gold enough *to serve* us the rest of our lives. [*To serve* is equivalent to [*as much gold*] *as will serve us*.]

But the poor lady was too sad *to talk* except to the boys now and again.

### (5) Condition:

You would fancy, *to hear* McOrator after dinner, the Scotch fighting all the battles. [*To hear* is equivalent to *if you should hear*.]

*To say what good of fashion we can, it rests on reality.* [*To say* is equivalent to *If we say*.]

**NOTE:** There may also be two **independent** uses of an infinitive, either:

(1) Thrown loosely into the sentence, as, "To make a long story short, the company broke up," "Truth to say, he was a conscientious man."

(2) As an exclamation, as: "I a philosopher! I advance pretensions!"

## Parsing Examples

1. Ingenuity and cleverness **are to be rewarded** by state prizes.

**are to be rewarded:**

**are:** verb, irregular weak, intransitive, active, indicative, present, subject is “Ingenuity and cleverness,” 3rd person, singular.

**to be rewarded:** infinitive, simple, passive, completes “are.”

2. I **am not going to dissent** on Hood’s humor.

**am [not] going to dissent:**

**am [not] going:** verb [with adverb], irregular weak, intransitive, active, indicative, present definite, subject is “I,” 1st person, singular.

**to dissent:** infinitive, indefinite, active, completes “am [not] going.”

3. **Do** they not **cause** the heart **to beat** and the eyes **to fill**?

**Do cause:**

**Do:** verb, strong, transitive, active, indicative, present, subject is “they,” 3rd person, plural.

**cause:** infinitive, simple, active, completes the verb “Do.”

**to beat, to fill:** infinitive, simple, active, complement of “do cause.”

4. I like **to hear** them **tell** their old stories.

**to hear:** infinitive, simple, active, direct object of “like.”

**tell:** infinitive, simple, active, complement of “hear.”

5. She forwarded to the English leaders a touching invitation **to unite** with the French.

**to unite:** infinitive, simple, active, in apposition with “invitation.”

6. I have such a desire **to be** well with my public.

**to be:** infinitive, simple, active, adjective describing “desire.”

7. The governor, Don Guzman, sailed to the eastward only yesterday **to look** for you.

**to look: infinitive**, simple, active, adverb [of purpose] modifying “sailed.”

8. **To make** a long story short, the company broke up.

**To make: infinitive**, simple, active, absolute use.

### Exercise

(a) Write the infinitives of the verbs *draw, see, learn, be, think, prove, lose, give*.

(b) Classify the infinitives in the following sentences, and tell which use each has:

1. To be a tutor to such a pupil is absurd.
2. The boys' friend warned the lad to be prudent.
3. Other servants darkened the porch windows with their crisp heads to hear him discourse.
4. She knew not from which she would like to part.
5. I am not a man to be moved by a woman's tears.
6. Let me endure the extremity of your anger.
7. He is likely to raise a clamor loud enough to be heard over twenty horns and trumpets.
8. I will keep my word to share weal or woe with thee.
9. To have saved you is a sufficient reward.
10. If you were to bid me jump out of yonder window, I should do it.
11. She happened to be going to see an old pauper.
12. His lordship appeared to have been waiting for some one to bring just such news.

(c) Write nine sentences illustrating the uses of the infinitives as shown in Sections 183-185.

**186. The gerund is like the participle in form, and like a noun in use.**



The participle has been called an adjectival verbal; the gerund may be called a *noun verbal*, because it expresses action and also has several attributes of a noun: Like a noun, a gerund:

- (a) may be governed as a noun;
- (b) may be the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb or a preposition;
- (c) is often preceded by the definite article;
- (d) is frequently modified by a possessive noun or pronoun.

The gerund differs from the participle in being always used as a noun: it never belongs to or modifies a noun, as a participle does. On the other hand, the participle never has the use of a noun, acting as subject, object, complement, etc..

The gerund has five forms like the participle:

ACTIVE VOICE

<i>Imperfect, Writing</i>	<i>Perfect, Having written</i>
<i>Perfect definite,</i>	<i>Having been writing</i>

PASSIVE VOICE

<i>Imperfect, Being written</i>	<i>Perfect, Having been written</i>
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Care must be taken with certain nouns which resemble gerunds. They have an *-ing* form and are sometimes even called *verbal nouns* because they have their origin in a verb; however, they are like the husk of a verb and express no action. Examples are: *sayings, forebodings, teachings, feelings, meaning, wedding*. They are naming words only: they are simply common or abstract nouns, naming an action or state, or often simply an object or a quality. Thus they cannot have the power of expressing action and thus *governing* other words (cf. Section 263 for an explanation of the *government* of words).

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Examples are given in these sentences:

1. He turned and looked around his *dwelling*.
2. She had high veracity, delicate honor in her *dealings*.
3. I think those have the least *feeling* who act wrong.
4. This time of the year is considered most suitable for a *wedding*.
5. A *blessing* is flung abroad.

**188.** The uses of the gerund are here illustrated:

(1) As **subject**:

Madame B. asked her if *sitting* backwards in the carriage made her ill.

(2) As **object** of a verb or a preposition:

The Squire preferred *talking* loudly, *scattering* snuff, and *patting* his visitors' backs.

The Earl had a way of *understanding* things without *speaking*.

(3) As an **object** (being governed) **while governing its own object**:

*It is seldom that the miserable can help regarding their misery as a wrong inflicted by those who are less miserable.*

### Parsing Examples

1. Madame B. asked her if **sitting** backwards in the carriage **made** her ill.

**sitting: gerund**, active, imperfect form, subject of subordinate clause.

2. The Squire preferred **talking** loudly, **scattering** snuff, and **patting** his visitors' backs.

**talking, scattering, patting: gerunds**, active, imperfect, direct objects of "preferred."

3. It **is** seldom that the miserable **can help regarding** their misery as a wrong **inflicted** by those who **are** less miserable.

**is:** verb, weak, irregular, intransitive, active, indicative, present, grammatical subject is "It," real subject is noun clause, 3rd person, singular.

**can help:** defective verb with an infinitive, transitive, active, indicative, present, subject is "[the] miserable," 3rd person, plural.

**regarding:** **gerund**, imperfect, active, direct object of "can help."

**inflicted:** participle, derived from "to inflict," perfect, passive, belongs to "wrong."

### Exercise

(a) Write sentences using the five gerunds of the verb *write*; also those of the verbs *break*, *ride*, and *seek*.

(b) Mention the gerunds in the following sentences, and tell which use each one has:

1. Perhaps it would be just as happy in life without being owned by its father.
2. He was noted for preferring vicious animals.
3. The legs were crossed, in token of the warrior's having been engaged in the holy war.
4. Drinking toasts seems a point of honor with them.
5. He was the singing master, and picked up many bright shillings by instructing the young folks.
6. I want to make up with you for having been exceedingly rude to everybody this morning.
7. I remember in this very room, so coaxing my father and mother and your grandfather.
8. The mere starting of a nail, the yawning of a seam, might give him entrance.

(c) Write sentences using gerunds as follows: three sentences with gerunds used as subjects and followed by objects; the same modified by adverbs; three sentences with gerunds as objects of prepositions and completed by objects; three sentences with gerunds as objects of verbs and modified by adverbs.

**189.** We have seen that words in *-ing* are of six kinds, according to use as well as meaning. They are as follows:

1. **Part of the verb**, making the *definite* tenses.
2. **Pure participles**, which express action, but do not assert.
3. **Participial adjectives**, which express action and also modify.
4. **Pure adjectives**, which have lost all verbal force.
5. **Gerunds**, which express action, may govern and be governed.
6. **Verbal nouns**, which name an action, state, object, or quality, but cannot govern because they have lost all verbal force.

### Exercise

(a) Tell what office each *-ing* word has in these sentences, and what part of speech it is:

1. She was in the habit of speaking of and to him with a protecting air, which was infinitely diverting.
2. Here was a type of the beginning and the end of human pomp and power.
3. He was knowing enough with all his blushing cheeks.
4. The food would have been inviting to a hungry man if it had been in a different stage of cooking.
5. The pork had been hung so as to prevent the roasting from proceeding too rapidly.

6. He opened the door wide to admit Dolly, but without otherwise returning her greeting than by moving the armchair a few inches.
7. How easy it is for one benevolent being to diffuse pleasure all around him!
8. All bears marks of the gradual dilapidations of **lime**, which has something pleasing in its very decay.
9. A marble figure of Mary is stretched upon the tomb, round which is an iron railing.
10. Certain of the most authentic historians of these parts, who have been careful in collecting and collating the floating facts concerning the specter, allege that, the body of the trooper having been buried in the churchyard, the ghost rides forth to the scene of battle in nightly quest of his head; and that the rushing speed with which he sometimes passes along the hollow, is owing to his being belated.
11. Entering the Court of the Lions, I was almost startled at beholding a turbaned Moor seated near the fountain.

(b) Write sentences using each of the following words in as many of the four ways as you can: *packing, understanding, painting, entertaining, being considered, having lost.*

## PARSING OF VERBS AND VERBALS

In parsing **verbs**, tell:

**190.**

- (1) **class as to form:** strong, weak, or irregular weak.
- (2) **class as to use:** transitive or intransitive.
- (3) **voice:** active or passive.
- (4) **mood:** indicative, subjunctive, imperative.
- (5) **tense,** specifying if it is definite.
- (6) **subject, person, and number.**

All the simple and compound forms given in Sections 164 and 165 are parsed as regular tenses of the verb, and none are analyzed into asserting words and infinitives or participles.

The **defective-verb phrases**, as in Sections 174 and 176, are separated briefly into their elements, then the *whole phrase* is parsed as a unit, like any simple verb, though without the distinction of *strong* or *weak*.

**NOTE:** When parsing the emphatic form of verbs, as presented in Section 166, state the verb phrase, then parse *do* or *did* entirely, as the true verb and not a defective verb, and parse the notional verb as an infinitive used verbally, completing the verb *do*.

When parsing an imperative verb with *let*, parse the two verb forms separately: parse *let* entirely as the true verb, then parse the action commanded as an infinitive used as a complement.

**Verbals** are parsed as follows:

**Participles** (not including *pure adjectives*). Tell:

- (1) **form:** imperfect, perfect, perfect definite.
- (2) **voice:** active or passive.
- (3) **the word to which it belongs**, if a pure participle.
- (4) If the word is a ***participial adjective***, **finish parsing as an adjective**. (*Pure adjectives* [Section 189, § 4] are not parsed as participles.)

**Infinitives**. Tell:

- (1) **form:** simple (or indefinite), imperfect, perfect, perfect definite.
- (2) **voice**.
- (3) **office in the sentence**.

### Gerunds:

(1) **form:** imperfect, perfect, perfect definite.

(2) **voice.**

(3) **office in the sentence.**

The following model for a full parsing shows the how the use determines the nature of the word. Elements to be included in a brief parsing are in **bold**. 191.

Now that she found herself belated, even the animation of a vindictive purpose could not keep her from failing.

(1) *Found*: principal parts are *find, found, found*, hence it is a **strong verb**; has an object, *herself*, hence it is **transitive**; represents the subject as acting, and is **active voice**; states a fact, therefore **indicative mood**; expresses past time, and is in the **past tense**, indefinite; its subject is the pronoun *she* and so is **third person, singular number**.

(2) *Could not keep* is a negative verb phrase, consisting of the *could*, a **defective verb**, active voice, past tense; the adverb *not*, and *keep*, an **infinitive, simple form, active**. As a unit, the phrase is **transitive, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, its subject is animation, third person, singular**.

(3) *Belated* is a **participle, perfect, passive, belongs to the word herself**; has the double use of **modifying the object herself** and of being the **complement of the verb found**.

(4) *Falling* is the object of a preposition and so is a **gerund, imperfect in form, active voice, object of the preposition from**.

### Sentences for General Exercise

1. There is an exquisite delight in picking up an arrow head that was dropped centuries ago and has never been handled since.
2. I could wish that the grave might be opened, for I would fain know whether either of the skeleton soldiers has the mark of an ax in his skull,
3. Many strangers come to view the battleground.
4. Do not believe these stories; believe nothing of me save what you have seen with your own eyes.
5. We have been standing on the greensward.
6. The brown spaniel, who had placed herself in front of him, and had been watching him for some time, now jumped up in impatience.
7. God of Zion protect us! What a dreadful sight!
8. Spare thy strength, good traveler, and I will undo the door, though it may be my doing so will be little to thy pleasure.
9. If thou lovest the prize, thou shalt be stripped of thy Lincoln green, and scourged out of the lists.
10. His first intention was to hire a horse and ride home forthwith, for to walk so many miles without a gun in his hand was out of the question.
11. He had something else to curse—his own folly.
12. Towards this happiness he was impelled fitfully, after having passed weeks in which he had avoided her as the far-off, bright-winged prize, that only made him spring forward, and find his chain all the more galling.
13. A thrill of indefinable horror shot through his frame on perceiving that those dewy flowers were already beginning to droop; they wore the aspect of things that had been lovely yesterday.
14. He must soon, he thought, be getting near the opening at the Stone Pits; he should find it out by the break in the hedgerow.



15. About twilight on the second day she found herself entering Paita, without having had to swim any river in her walk.
16. If thou accomplish thy purpose, I will pay thee with my casque full of crowns.
17. If the long letters were bows, and the short letters broad arrows, I might know something of the matter.
18. His gold, as he hung over it, and saw it grow, gathered his power of loving together.
19. A dissertation on the book of Job—which only Job himself could have had the patience to read—filled at least a score of small thickset quartos.
20. Give me a stoup of wine, as jolly Prince John said, that I may wash away the relish.
21. Had I not been armed in proof, the villain had marked me down seven times with as little compunction as if I had been a buck in season.
22. May each stone in this vaulted roof find a tongue to echo that title into thine ear!
23. Could I but grapple with these horrors that hover round, as I have done with mortal dangers, Heaven should never say that I shrunk from the conflict!
24. The elder books seemed to have been earnestly written, and might be conceived to have possessed warmth at some former period.
25. He lifted his hands to his head, trying to steady himself, that he might think.
26. One morning he was disagreeably surprised by a visit from the professor, whom he had scarcely thought of for whole weeks, and would willingly have forgotten still longer.

## SYNTAX OF VERBS AND VERBALS

**192.** In expressing a wish or a condition contrary to fact, the *subjunctive form* is to be regularly used, and the indicative is to be avoided. Illustrations have been given in the Parsing Examples throughout the chapter.

**193.** In a narration of past events the *past tense* may be used, or the *present* vividly representing past time; **but the two should not be confused in the same sentence.**

**Correct use:** A scuffle *ensues*; a clatter *is heard* among the knives and forks of the dessert; a glass *tumbles* over and *breaks*.

**Incorrect:** When he is in the boat, he cries to the hermit, 'Shrive me, holy man,' and then he told his story.

**194.** The general rule is that subjects of singular meaning have the singular form of the verb, and subjects of plural meaning take the plural form of the verb.

This applies also to the predicate noun, since the use of a plural complement after a singular verb is very awkward, as:

*Neither of the two great generals was wise and prudent statesmen. [The correct expression would be: a wise and prudent statesman.]*

**195.** Singular subject and singular verb:

(1) Words of singular form and singular meaning, the commonest form of agreement, as,

The day *was* clear.

(2) Collective nouns naming the collection as a unit; as,

The world *has* likewise *heard* those names.

(3) Words of plural form but singular meaning, as,

Physics *is* an important branch of education.

The writer tells us that 'The Visions of Mirzah' *was found* at Grand Cairo.

(4) Two or more singular words connected by *or* or *nor*, as,

The heart or the judgment or the moral sense or the taste *is* dissatisfied with this.

Not a hoof nor a wheel *was* to be heard.

(5) Two or more singular words preceded by the adjectives *each*, *every*, *no*, emphasizing each subject separately, as,

Each pendent twig and leafy festoon *was* in a blaze.

Every change of season, every change of weather, indeed every hour of the day *produces* some change in the magical hues.

*No sophistry, no vain logic detains him.*

Plural subject and plural verb:

**196.**

(1) Words of plural form and plural meaning, as,

These things *follow* each other by a general law.

(2) Collective nouns thought of as naming the individuals of the group separately, as,

The quiet congregation of trees *are* fringed with foliage.

The audience *were* soon in excitement.

(3) Two or more singular subjects connected by *and*, a separate idea being presented by each, as,

His step and mien *were* particularly sedate and lofty.

But several singular subjects may take a singular verb if they are regarded as making up one idea:

*For the best of the cheer, and the seat by the fire  
Is the undenied right of the Barefooted Friar.*

**Exercise.** Write sentences to illustrate all the above points on the syntax of verbs.

**197.** A common error in the use of the participle is the lack of proper connection between the participial phrase and the leading subject of the sentence, as,

Despairing of any hope of return, there came a large bird, an albatross, lighting upon the ship.

The meaning seems to be that the large bird despaired of any hope of return, and the participial phrase should be so rewritten as to make the proper sense and connection with the word modified, thus:

(1) The sailors despairing, ... there came....

(2) Despairing of any hope of return, the sailors were surprised to see a large bird....

**198.** Generally, the simple infinitive should be used to express the *same* time as an accompanying verb, and the perfect infinitive to express time *before* the action of the main verb:

1. It is gratifying *to see* that feeling completely aroused.  
He would have liked *to spring* on Dunstan.

2. This extraordinary man is said sometimes *to have given* way to spiritual delusions. The priest seemed *to have exhausted* more of life than the Egyptian.

This rule applies to verb phrases having simple or perfect infinitives, as,

He felt that he could *draw* a magic circle around her.

*It could not be seen that they intercepted for a moment the faint gleam athwart which they must have passed.*

But whenever the main verb is *expect, wish, hope, intend*, and the like, the simple infinitive is to be used with any tense of the verb to express future time: **199.**

1. My father *expects* [*expected*, etc.] to sail for Paris today.
2. They *had hoped* to reach the green banks of the Tagus before the noonday.

The object of a preposition is not necessarily the first word following it. Consider the following sentence: **200.**

I was astonished to hear of him stealing the money.

The object of the preposition *of* is not the pronoun *him*, but the gerund *stealing*; the pronoun is intended to modify the gerund and is usually found in the possessive form *his*. The objective form also is used by writers, but many condemn this as wholly incorrect.

### Parsing Examples

I **was astonished** to hear of him **stealing** the money.

**was astonished:** verb, weak, transitive, passive, indicative, past, subject is "I," 1st person, singular.

**to hear:** infinitive, simple, active, adverbial of cause.

**stealing:** gerund, imperfect, active, object of the preposition "of."

## DIRECT AND INDIRECT DISCOURSE

- 201.** A direct quotation is a copy of the exact words used by a writer or a speaker; an indirect quotation is a report in our own words of what a writer or speaker said; thus:

Direct:

“What have I done, child?” said Priscilla, in some alarm.  
“Why, you asked them if they minded about being ugly!”  
said her sister Nancy.

Indirect:

*Priscilla, in some alarm, asked what she had done. Nancy replied that she had asked them if they minded about being ugly.*

- 202.** Several points of difference between direct and indirect discourse are to be noticed:

(1) Direct quotations are always indicated by quotation marks; direct questions have also a question mark. The quotation, if a sentence, begins with a capital letter, and is separated from the main clause by a comma, sometimes by a colon (:).

(2) Indirect quotations are united with the clause introducing them; they have no quotation marks or, do not begin with a capital letter, and are not separated by commas or colons; generally, the statements begin with the word *that*, and the questions with *whether* or *if* or some interrogative word used in the direct question.

(3) The verb governing the direct quotation has no effect on the verbs in the quotation, each having the tense required by the meaning; but in the indirect quotation the verbs have such tenses as suit the governing verb.

(4) The direct quotation has the same freedom with pronouns as with verbs; the indirect quotation uses only such pronouns as agree with the persons in the main clause:

(Direct)

“Nay,” said I to her with a gush of tenderness, “I rejoice at the wrongs which drove thee to this blessed lawsuit!”

(Indirect)

I exclaimed to her with a gush of tenderness that *I* rejoiced at the wrongs which drove *her* to this blessed lawsuit!

NOTES:

1. If a direct quotation is included within a direct quotation, the included one has single marks; “Why, you asked them, ‘Do you mind about being ugly?’” said her sister Nancy.
2. An imperative verb is usually changed to an indicative followed by an infinitive. (Direct) “Bring forth the converts!” cried a voice. (Indirect) A voice *ordered* them *to bring* forth the converts.
3. A past tense in the main clause may be followed by a present tense in the clause of indirect quotation, if the latter verb is intended to express a statement true at all times.

### Exercise

(a) Copy the following from dictation; change the direct quotations to indirect, and the indirect to direct:

1. “Come,” said I to my friend, “or I shall be tempted to make a theory—after which there is little hope of any man.”

## PARTS OF SPEECH

2. Having been on speaking terms with one of those persons, I called him and inquired what was his business there.
3. "Sir," he said to me with a sad, yet mild and kindly, voice, "do you call yourself a pilgrim?"
4. "I observe a few crumbling relics," said I. "But ever and anon, I suppose, Oblivion comes with her huge broom and sweeps them all from the marble floor."
5. Jem Rodney averred that, on coming up to him, he saw that Marner's eyes were set like a dead man's, and he spoke to him, and shook him, and his limbs were stiff.
6. Silas confessed that he could never arrive at anything higher than hope mingled with fear, and listened with wonder when William declared that he possessed unshaken assurance.
7. The emperor added that he hoped I should prove a useful servant, and well deserve all the favors he had already conferred upon me.
8. "You are to know," said his lordship to me, "that several committees have been lately called on your account; and it is but two days since his majesty came to a full resolution."
9. The secretary added that if it had not been for the present situation of things at court, perhaps I might not have obtained my liberty so soon.
10. "I'll take the first watch," said Alan. "You've done well by me, first and last; and I wouldn't lose you for all Appin."

(b) Criticize the two sentences below:

1. A policeman awoke him and asked him what was he doing there at that time of night?
2. Professor A. asked N. would he not go with him, for he needed some one to mount specimens for him.



## ADVERBS

The word *adverb* means *joined to a verb*. The adverb **203.** is the only word that can join to a verb to modify it.

When action is expressed, an adverb is often added to define the action in some way – for example, to tell the *time, place, or manner* of the action.

Some examples of adverbs are here given:

1. He began *already* to be proud of being a Rugby boy.  
[The adverb *already* tells the time of the action *began*.]
2. One of the young heroes scrambled up *behind*. [The adverb *behind* tells the place of the action *scrambled up*.]
3. Come into port *greatly*, or sail with God the seas. [The adverb *greatly* tells the manner of the action *come*.]

But this does not mean that adverbs modify verbs *only*. They may also limit adjectives or other adverbs. For example, adverbs commonly express *degree* in modifying adjectives or adverbs, as in:

1. We have sought a *somewhat* devious track in our walk.  
[The adverb *somewhat* tells the degree of the adjective *devious*.]
2. The first of these generals is *pretty* generally recognized as the greatest military genius that ever lived. [The adverb *pretty* tells the degree of the adverb *generally*.]

**Adverbs are words used to modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.**

Adverbs may modify a *phrase* or a *clause* which is **204.** used as an adjective or an adverb:

## PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Across the rafters were placed two boards *exactly* of the same size. [The adverb *exactly* tells the degree of the prepositional adjective phrase, *of the same size*.]
2. *Just* as he had got halfway through the hollow, the girths of the saddle gave way. [The adverb *just* tells the time of the subordinate adverbial clause *as he had got halfway through the hollow*.]

Also, any verbal word may be modified by adverbs, because a verbal still expresses action in some way:

1. The very soul seems *almost* rapt *away*. [The adverb *almost* tells the degree of the participle *rapt*; the adverb *away* tells the place of the participle *rapt*.]
2. He attempted to dash *briskly* across the bridge. [The adverb *briskly* tells the manner of the infinitive *to dash*.]
3. He had left the neighborhood partly in mortification at having been *suddenly* dismissed by the heiress. [The adverb *suddenly* tells the time of the gerund *having been dismissed*.]

Here, then, is a more complete definition: **An adverb is a modifying word, which may qualify an action word or a statement, and may add to the meaning of an adjective or adverb, or a word group used as such.**

### Parsing Examples

The very soul seems **almost** rapt **away**.

**almost:** **adverb**, simple, degree, no degree of comparison, modifies the participle “rapt.”

**away:** **adverb**, simple, place, no degree of comparison, modifies the participle “rapt.”

**Exercise.** Write sentences with adverbs modifying the verb, predicate adjective, participle, infinitive, and gerund.

## CLASSES OF ADVERBS

Adverbs may be classified in two ways: (1) according to use or office in the sentence; (2) according to the meaning of the words. **205.**

Classified according to their office in the sentence, adverbs may be **simple**, **interrogative**, or **conjunctive**.

The adverbs in Section 203 are **simple adverbs**; that is, they **only modify, and have no further office in the sentence**.

**Interrogative adverbs are those which modify and also are used to ask a question, as,**

*Where* is the master who could have taught Shakespeare?

**Conjunctive adverbs are those which modify and also help to connect clauses, as,**

As much wisdom may be expended on a private economy as on an empire.

## SIMPLE ADVERBS

Within each of these classes, we may further tell the class according to meaning, or subclasses. **206.**

Simple adverbs fall into five main subclasses:

(1) **Time:** *now, then, yesterday, tomorrow, today, soon, late, ever, never, lately, hereafter, thereupon, etc.*

(2) **Place:** *here, there, hither, thither, hence, thence, and the compounds, herein, therein, elsewhere, nowhere, anywhere else, etc.*

(3) **Manner**, telling how: *easily, thoroughly, otherwise, solemnly, deeply*, etc., most adverbs ending in *-ly*.

These three classes modify verbs exclusively.

(4) **Degree**, telling how much, and modifying adjectives and adverbs: *so, too, as, very, almost, enough*, etc.

(5) **Assertion**, modifying not some single word, but a whole statement, and changing its meaning: *probably, surely, perhaps, doubtless, certainly, hardly, not*, etc.

**NOTE:** There are many other classes of adverbs expressing other nuances of meaning, which come into play especially when phrases or clauses are used as adverbs. Examples are cause, condition, concession, material, origin, reason, reference, result, and separation (adverbial classes frequently encountered in Latin) (*cf.* the chapter on Analysis of Sentences, especially Section 281).

**Exercise.** Write sentences having adverbs of each of the five classes.

**207.** Many of the above words change from one subclass to another, according to the meaning they express:

1. *So* died the hero. (manner)
2. *So far* we cannot go. (degree)
3. The plague spreads gradually but *surely*. (manner)
4. *Surely* he cannot have betrayed us. (assertion)

Sometimes the word *there*, instead of being used adverbially, merely introduces a sentence, as, "*There* is a time for everything." (*Cf.* Section 273).

**Exercise.** Write sentences using the word *then* as an adverb of time and assertion; *so* as an adverb of manner, degree, and assertion; *certainly* as an adverb of manner and assertion; *far* as an adverb of place and degree; *there* as an adverb of place and as an introductory word.

## INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS

Interrogative adverbs introduce questions, and express **time, place, manner, reason, and degree**. The chief ones are: *when, where, why, and how*, as in, **208.**

*How and when had the child come into the hut?*

## CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

Conjunctive adverbs join clauses like conjunctions and may also be considered to modify like adverbs: **209.**

*As the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined.*

Conjunctive adverbs may either be (1) interrogative adverbs used to introduce an indirect question, or else (2) found within a pair of words (usually an adverb and a conjunction) used together in such a way as to connect two elements of a comparison.

(1) Interrogative adverbs in indirect questions are conjunctive, since they both modify and connect (*cf.* Section 279). Here are two examples of interrogative adverbs used as conjunctive adverbs:

(a) He did not learn *how* this failed.

(b) Still no one asks *why* such measures are not taken.

(2) Of certain pairs of connecting words, the first, or modifying word, is usually an adverb, the second a conjunction, which the adverb helps in its role of joining. Common examples are: *as . . . so, the . . . the, as . . . as, so . . . that, so . . . as*. (In the first of these two sets, both words are adverbs, yet they are called conjunctive because they work together to connect two elements of a comparison.)

## PARTS OF SPEECH

Here are three examples of pairs of words, of which one or both are used as conjunctive adverbs:

- (a) *So* brilliantly were they polished *as* to resemble the finest specimens of emerald. [*So* is a conjunctive adverb, *as* is a subordinate conjunction.]
- (b) Some say we have already *as* good poets *as* any in the world. [In the first use, *as* is a conjunctive adverb; in the second use, it is a conjunction.]
- (c) Yet *the* more the alchemist labored, *the* less hope had he of such an achievement.

**NOTE:** *The* is not an article but a conjunctive adverb in sentence (c).

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences illustrating the use of different words as conjunctive adverbs, some modifying adjectives and some adverbs.

### Parsing Examples

1. **So** died the hero.

**So:** adverb, **simple, manner**, no degree of comparison, modifies the verb “died.”

2. **How** and **when** had the child come into the hut?

**How:** adverb, **interrogative, manner**, no degree of comparison, modifies the verb “did come.”

**when:** adverb, **interrogative, time**, no degree of comparison, modifies the verb “had come.”

3. He did not learn **how** this failed.

**how:** adverb, conjunctive, manner, no degree of comparison, modifies the verb “failed” and introduces an indirect question.

4. **So** brilliantly were they polished **as** to resemble the finest specimens of emerald.

**So:** adverb, **conjunctive**, **degree**, no degree of comparison, modifies the adverb “brilliantly” and helps to connect a subordinate clause introduced by “as.”

**as:** subordinate conjunction, connects an adverbial clause of comparison.

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Comparison is the only inflection of adverbs. Many words are used as adjectives and adverbs without change of form, and are inflected by the endings *-er* and *-est*; *as*, *high*, *deep*, *loud*, *wide*, *hard*, *long*, etc. **210.**

Most of the words compared irregularly as adjectives are used as adverbs (Section 127); but *better*, *best*, have the positive adverb, *well*; and *worse*, *worst*, the positive, *ill*, or *badly*.

Adverbs ending in *-ly* take the adverbs *more*, *less* and *most*, *least* to express the degrees of comparison; as, *more carefully*, *most carefully*, *least carefully*.

In observing the use rather than the form of adverbs, the student must keep in mind two things: that adverbs often do not end in *-ly*, and that very many words ending in *-ly* are adjectives. **211.**

### Parsing Exercise

He regrets sometimes that he had not been born a few centuries **earlier**.

**earlier:** adverb, simple, time, **comparative degree**, modifies the verb “had not been born.”

### Exercise

Point out the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell which kind each is:

1. It is certainly the most unexcitable and sluggish stream that ever loitered imperceptibly toward its eternity, the sea.
2. The other Briton raised himself painfully upon his hands and knees and gave a ghastly stare.
3. Our garret was an arched hall, dimly illuminated through small and dusty windows.
4. There yet lingers with me a superstitious reverence for literature of all kinds.
5. How gently did its gray, homely aspect rebuke the speculative extravagances of the day!
6. Then Nature will love him better than at any other season, and will take him to her bosom with a more motherly tenderness.
7. The breeze would linger fondly around us, but since it must be gone it embraces us with its whole kindly heart and passes onward.
8. Such delusions always hover nigh whenever a beacon fire of truth is kindled.

## PARSING OF ADVERBS

**212.** In parsing an adverb, the pupil should tell:

- (1) **class according to use**
- (2) **class according to meaning.**
- (2) **degree of comparison**, if it is compared.
- (3) **its office, that is, what word or expression it modifies** (and **helps to join**, in the case of conjunctive adverbs).



**Sentences for General Exercise**

1. Who can tell, when he sets forth to wander, whither he may be driven by the uncertain currents of existence, or when he may return?
2. But where, thought I, is the crew?
3. Their struggle has long been over; they have gone down amidst the roar of the tempest.
4. I regret to say that these customs are daily growing more and more faint, being gradually worn away by time, but still more obliterated by modern fashion.
5. His waistcoat is commonly of some bright color, striped, and his smallclothes extend far below the knees, to meet a pair of jockey boots which reach about halfway up his legs.
6. The kitchen was hung round with copper and tin vessels highly polished, and decorated here and there with a Christmas green.
7. So intent were the servants upon their sports that we had to ring repeatedly.
8. Supper was announced shortly after our arrival.
9. Though he was ostensibly a resident of the village, he was oftener to be found in the Squire's kitchen.
10. The more carefully his works are examined, the more clearly it will appear that this is the real clew to the system.
11. Could not Noll have given his poor relatives and brother-in-law a sop somewhere else?
12. As the Sandwich Islander believes that the strength of the enemy he kills passes into himself, so we gain strength of the temptation we resist.
13. Why should he assume these faults?
14. His sixty cords of wood had probably dwindled to a far less ample supply.

15. He is driven to entertain himself alone and acquire habits of self-help; and thus, like the wounded oyster, he mends his shell with pearl.
16. It was because he dug deep that he was able to pile high.
17. In his manners he was perfectly friendly, but so silent that he would often sit at the head of his table, and leave it without uttering a word.
18. The London people often wondered why he traveled with only one servant.
19. This clever woman tired of most things and people sooner or later.
20. How far had this pretty intrigue gone, was now the question.
21. It is remarkable that the longer Bacon lived the stronger this feeling became.

## SYNTAX OF ADVERBS

**213.** Adverbs and adverbial expressions should be so placed that no one can doubt which words they modify. The words *even*, *merely*, *only*, *almost*, *nearly*, are often misplaced. Consider the following the sentence,

Her injuries were so serious that she was expected to die for a long time.

The phrase *for a long time* seems at the first glance to be a modifier of *to die*, whereas in reality it modifies *expected*. To save trouble and error, the writer should have placed the phrase after *that*—"that *for a long time* she was...."

Here is another example of a misplaced adverb:

I scarcely *ever* expect to have such a pleasure.

By the sloppy placement of words, the adverb *ever* seems to belong to the verb *expect* whereas it really belongs to the infinitive, and should be placed before it—"I scarcely expect *ever* to have...."

In English of the present day, two negative words **214.** are equivalent to an affirmative. "I never have no luck" means "I have luck always." If the purpose is to make an affirmative statement, two negatives or none may be used; if a negative is intended, only one negative should be used.

*Not, never, no, none, nor, neither, nowhere, nobody,* etc., are the commonest negatives; but such adverbs as *hardly, scarcely, and but* have a negative meaning.

Errors are frequently made, especially in the predi- **215.** cate, by the improper use of adjectives for adverbs, or of adverbs for adjectives. In the sentence,

The child had never looked so *sweetly*,

the meaning intended is, "The child never had been so sweet in its appearance." A quality of the subject is to be expressed, and the adjective *sweet* is the word needed.

In the sentence,

The silk was sent *direct* to me,

the purpose is to describe the manner of sending, and the adverb *directly* is the word to use.

In general, if the purpose is to limit in some way the action of the verb, an adverb should be used; if the purpose is to express some quality or condition of the subject, an adjective is to be used.

## PARTS OF SPEECH

The words most frequently misused are *real*, *most*, *near*, *good*, *previous*, *really* (or *very*), *almost*, *nearly*, *well*, and *previously*.

**Exercise.** Write five sentences in which the words *feel*, *appear*, *smell*, *cook*, *grow*, shall have adjective complements, and five in which they shall be modified by adverbs.

## CONJUNCTIONS

**Conjunctions are words used for joining words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. 216.**

(1) **Words:** as, “I seek the Vatican *and* the palace.”

(2) **Phrases:** as, “With his will *or* against his will, he draws his portrait.”

(3) **Clauses:** (*a*) independent, “Always pay; *for* first or last you must pay your entire debt”; (*b*) independent and dependent, “We meet *as* water meets water.”

(4) **Sentences:** as, “It has overflowed stone fences and even rendered a portion of the highway navigable for boats. The waters, *however*, are gradually subsiding.”

### Classes of Conjunctions

#### 1. COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

**Conjunctions are divided into two general classes: 217. coordinate and subordinate.**

**Coordinate conjunctions join words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank ;** that is, in the same construction, as (1), (2), (3) (*a*), and (4) above.

**Subordinate conjunctions introduce clauses that are subordinate to those with which they are joined,** as Section 216 (3) (*b*).

**Coordinate conjunctions are of four kinds or sub-classes:**

## PARTS OF SPEECH

- (1) **Copulative**, those that *couple* or unite expressions in the same line of thought, denoting addition merely: *and, also, as well as, moreover*, etc.
- (2) **Adversative**, connecting words and expressions that are opposite in thought: *but, yet, however*;
- (4) **Causal**, introducing a reason or cause: *for, hence, therefore, so, accordingly*.
- (3) **Alternative**, expressing a choice, usually between two things: *or, either, else, nor, neither, whether*.

Some of these go in pairs, answering to each other in the same sentence: *both...and; not only...but* (or *but also*), *either...or; whether...or; neither...nor; whether...or whether*. These are called *correlatives* and will be treated in more detail in Section 222.

### Parsing Examples

1. I seek the Vatican **and** the palace.

**and:** conjunction, coordinate, copulative, connects “Vatican” and “palace.”

2. It has overflowed stone fences and even rendered a portion of the highway navigable for boats. The waters, **however**, are gradually subsiding.

**however:** conjunction, coordinate, adversative, links with the previous sentence.

The following sentences show the use of some of the coordinate conjunctions of each class:

- 1. Hospitality must be for service and not for show, or it pulls down the host.
- 2. The portrait responded not; so I sought an answer for myself.

## CONJUNCTIONS

3. Strangers may present themselves at any hour and in whatever number.
4. It is a noble, generous liquor, and we should be thankful for it; but water was made before it.
5. We have seen or heard of many extraordinary young men who never ripened, or whose performance in actual life was not extraordinary.
6. It might indeed sharpen and invigorate the minds of those who devoted themselves to it; and so might the disputes of the orthodox Lilliputians and the heretical Blefuscudians about the big ends and the little ends of eggs. But such disputes could add nothing to the stock of knowledge. The human mind, accordingly, instead of marching, merely marked time.
7. The sweet of nature is love; yet if I have a friend, I am tormented by my imperfections.
8. Neither the travelers nor their steeds were visible.
9. He had never felt so lonely and dismal. He was, moreover, approaching the very spot.
10. Their business is not to check, but to act. The very same things, therefore, which are the virtues of Parliaments may be vices in Cabinets.
11. He is not only bold and vociferous, but possesses a considerable talent for mimicry.
12. He began to doubt whether both he and the world around him were not bewitched.

### Exercise

1. To which class of coordinate conjunctions does each conjunction in these ten sentences belong?
2. Tell what each conjunction connects in the ten sentences above.
3. Write eight sentences, using two words of each class of coordinate conjunctions.

4. Write sentences containing coordinate conjunctions connecting (1) two noun clauses, (2) two adjective clauses, (3) two subjects, (4) two objects, (5) two predicate adjectives, (6) two adjective phrases, (7) two adverb phrases, (8) two adverbs modifying the same verb, (9) two verbs having the same subject and object.

## COMPOUND SENTENCES

- 218.** Sentences that contain two independent clauses are known as **compound sentences**. (See Sections 284-288.) Many examples have been given in the sentences facing. The compound sentence may have more than two independent clauses, as well as any number of dependent clauses; the main point to notice is that it must have at least two independent clauses.

### Classes of Conjunctions:

## 2. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

- 219.** Observe the following sentences:

1. I do not know *when* the boat will arrive.
2. The hour *when* the boat arrives has passed.
3. I will meet you *when* the boat arrives.

In Section 97 the pupil learned to distinguish the **noun clause** from the **adjective clause**; in sentence (1) above, the word *when* is a conjunctive adverb and introduces a **noun clause**; in sentence (2), *when* is a subordinate conjunction introducing an **adjective clause**.

Finally, in sentence (3), *when* is a subordinate conjunction and introduces a clause used to modify the verb *will meet* and to answer the question, *At what time?* Hence, the clause introduced by the conjunction



*when* is called an **adverbial clause**. Notice that *when* in this final sentence does not express time or modify as an adverb but acts as a mere conjunction, allowing the entire clause *when the boat arrives* to modify *will meet*.

From this we see that some words may introduce several kinds of clauses; and that **the nature of the clause must be determined by its use in the sentence, more than by its form or by the word introducing it.**

### Parsing Examples

1. I do not know **when** the boat will arrive.

**when:** conjunctive adverb, interrogative, no degree of comparison, connects the clauses and modifies “will arrive.”

2. The hour **when** the boat arrives has passed.

**when: conjunction,** subordinate, time, connects the principal and subordinate clauses.

3. I will meet you **when** the boat arrives.

**when: conjunction,** subordinate, time, connects principal and subordinate clauses.

### Exercises

1. Write three sentences using *where* to introduce a noun clause, an adjective clause, and an adverbial clause.
2. Write a complex sentence having two dependent clauses introduced by *how*.

**Subordinate conjunctions** are of several kinds, **220.** most of which are named for the meaning of the clause they introduce. Thus we may distinguish the subordinate conjunction subclasses of: place, time, manner,

cause or reason, comparison, purpose, result, condition, concession, and those introducing substantive clauses.

This list includes certain other parts of speech which may be considered conjunctions depending on use.

(1) **Place:** *where, wherever, whither, whereto, whithersoever, whence, etc.*

An artist will delight in excellence *wherever* he meets it.

(2) **Time:** *when, before, after, since, as, until, whenever, while, ere, etc.*

It is sixteen years *since* I last saw the Queen of France.

(3) **Manner:** *how, as, however, howsoever.*

Let the world go *how* it will.

(4) **Cause or Reason:** *because, since, as, now, whereas, that, seeing, etc.*

I see no reason *why* I should not have the same thought.

(5) **Degree or Comparison:** *than* and *as*.

As a soldier, he was more solicitous to avoid mistakes *than* to perform exploits that are brilliant.

(6) **Purpose:** *that, so, so that, in order that, lest, so... as.*

We wish for a thousand heads, a thousand bodies, *that* we may celebrate its immense beauty. [*Here, Emerson is refering to the beauty of certain "celestial" days.*]

(7) **Result:** *that, so that, especially that* after *so*.

So many thoughts moved to and fro,  
*That* vain it were her eyes to close.

(8) **Condition:** *if, unless, so, even if, provided, provided that, in case, on condition that, etc.*

*If* he could solve the riddle, the Sphinx was slain.

(9) **Concession:** indefinite relative pronouns and adjectives, adverbs, and adverbial conjunctions, such as *however, whatever, except, though, although*.

But still, *however* good she may be as a witness, Joanna is better.

(10) **Substantive:** *that, whether, if*. (See Section 279 for a fuller discussion of the connectors introducing noun clauses).

I felt *that* I breathed an atmosphere of sorrow.

Although the subordinate conjunction subclasses (1)-(9) resemble the classes of adverbs, they do not introduce adverb clauses only; for example, sentence (4) contains an adjective clause, modifying *reason*.

**NOTE:** The conjunction is not the only indicator of the nature of a clause, because it is sometimes even omitted. Nor do clauses need to be introduced by a subordinate conjunction; many adjective clauses are introduced by relative pronouns, which are not considered conjunctions (though they are sometimes called *conjunctive pronouns* for their capacity to link clauses). (Cf. Sections 51, 72, and 280 for more discussion of relative pronouns and of adjective clauses.)

### Exercise

Learn the above subordinate conjunctions, and tell what each one expresses—whether time, place, etc.

The following sentences show the various uses of subordinate conjunctions. Write the sentences from the teacher's dictation, and tell the exact use of each italicized word:

## PARTS OF SPEECH

1. This is perhaps the reason *why* we seldom hear of ghosts.
2. They passed on through the forest, *where* no church had ever been gathered.
3. He knew more about the matter *than* he chose to tell.
4. We know truth *when* we see it.
5. His spirits rose with eating and drinking *as* some men's do with drink.
6. He distributed beef and ale and bread among the poor, *that* they might make merry.
7. *As* he was a bachelor, and in nobody's debt, nobody troubled about him.
8. *If* left to himself, he would have whistled away life in perfect contentment.
9. His instrument was as old and battered *as* himself.
10. She felt *that* it was a very hard trial for the poor weaver.
11. The Squire, *though* he was not superstitious himself, was fond of seeing others so.

Write sentences using all the subordinate conjunctions in the list (Section 220).

Write sentences with the conjunction *why* introducing an adjective clause and an adverbial clause; *that* and *if* introducing noun and adverbial clauses.

**221.** The list in Section 220 shows that some words are used as several kinds of conjunctions. As some of them get their meaning from that of the accompanying clause, one must examine the meaning of the whole dependent clause in order to classify a given conjunction. *That* may indicate purpose, result, and introduce a noun clause; *since* may express time and reason; *as* may express time, manner, reason, comparison, and result. Some of the words in the list may be used as prepositions and simple adverbs also.

### Exercise

Tell what kind of conjunctions *that*, *as*, and *since* are in the following sentences:

1. *That* all this might not be too onerous on the purses of his rustic patrons, he had various ways of rendering himself useful and agreeable.
2. But neither the government of France nor that of England is so disorganized *as* to be fit for the propagation of theological doctrines.
3. We are apt to murmur against the whole system of the universe, *since* it involves the extinction of so many summer days.
4. So tenacious was he on this point, *that* the poor sexton was obliged to strip down most of the trophies of his taste.
5. He has also sorted a choir *as* he sorted my father's pack of hounds.
6. It was but the rubbing of one huge bough upon another, *as* they were swayed by the breeze.
7. I observed *that* he exercised rather a mischievous sway with his wand.
8. It was now a twelvemonth *since* the funeral procession had turned from that gateway.
9. Rip's sole domestic adherent was his dog Wolf, who was as much hen-pecked *as* his master.
10. They could not do without him, *as* he was the best hand at a song and story in the household.

**Correlative conjunctions are those that go in pairs, each being needed to complete the other.** **Correlative connectives** are not a third class of conjunction, but are rather two words used for a single office: acting as a coordinate or a subordinate conjunction, and connecting independent clauses or an independent with a subordinate.

We may distinguish those correlative pairs composed of two or more words which are normally coordinate conjunctions, and those combining what is normally a subordinate conjunction with what is normally a coordinate conjunction. Some of these are in the following lists:

(1) **Two or more coordinate conjunctions:** *both...and, not only...but (but also), either...or, neither...nor*, as:

But *neither* climate *nor* poverty, *neither* study *nor* the sorrows of a homesick exile, could tame the desperate audacity of his spirit.

(2) **A subordinate with a coordinate conjunction:** *if ... then, though (although) . . . yet*, as:

1. *If* the poet write a true drama, *then* he is Caesar, not the player of Caesar.
2. *Although* they had various success, *yet* on the whole the advantage remained with the challengers.

See also Section 209 (2).

### Parsing Examples

1. But **neither** climate **nor** poverty...

**neither...nor:** conjunctions, coordinate correlatives, connect "climate" and "poverty."

2. **If** the poet write a true drama, **then** he is Caesar, not the player of Caesar.

**If...then:** conjunctions, subordinate and coordinate correlatives, conditional, connect the subordinate clause "the poet write a true drama" with the main clause, "he is Caesar, not the player of Caesar."

**Exercise.** Write five sentences illustrating the use of the different kinds of correlatives shown above.

## PARSING OF CONJUNCTIONS

In learning to parse conjunctions, it is well to note the fact that frequently a conjunction introduces a clause which is contracted; that is, its subject and part or all of its predicate are omitted. In that case the missing part should be supplied, in order that the meaning and connection may be made clear. For example, in sentences already quoted: **223.**

His instrument was as old and battered as [*he*] himself [*was*].

If [*he had been*] left to himself, he would have whistled away life.

In parsing a conjunction, the pupil should state:

**(1) its class** – *coordinate* or *subordinate*, and whether *correlative* or not (**and subclass** – *copulative*, *adversative*, *alternative*, *illative* as in Section 217; or *time*, *place*, *manner*... *substantive*, etc., as in Section 220). Correlative conjunctions should be parsed as a single word, because they perform a single office as either a coordinate or a subordinate conjunction.

**(2) its office: what words, phrases, etc., it joins.**

### Sentences for General Exercise

We are desirous, before we enter on the discussion of this important question, to point out a distinction.

1. Once while Hillard and other friends sat talking with us, there came a rustling noise, sweeping through the very midst of the company, so closely as almost to brush against the chairs.
2. It is of very much more importance that men should have food than that they should have pianofortes. Yet it

by no means follows that every pianoforte maker ought to add the business of baker to his own; for, if he did so, we should have worse music and worse bread.

3. They could not have paid a more acceptable compliment to my abode, nor to my own qualities.
4. I never like to notice M. du Miroir, nor to acknowledge the slightest connection with him. He, however, has no scruple about claiming my acquaintance, even when his common sense might teach him that I would as willingly exchange a nod with Old Nick as with him.
5. Somewhere, not only an orator but every man should let out all the length of the reins.
6. He who has more obedience than I masters me, though he should not raise his finger.
7. Unless he be another Lado whose garments the depths of the ocean could not moisten, it is difficult to conceive how he keeps himself in any decent pickle, though I am bound to confess that his clothes seem always as dry and comfortable as my own.
8. He must find in that an outlet for his character, so that he may justify his work.
9. If you would serve your brother because it is fit for you to serve him, do not take back your words when you find that prudent people do not commend you.
10. He was more ambitious than noble.
11. As I passed its threshold, it seemed like stepping back into the regions of antiquity.
12. We step curiously and softly about, as if fearful of disturbing the hallowed silence of the tomb.
13. The monuments are generally simple, for the lives of literary men afford no striking themes for the sculptor.
14. This helped to account not only for there being more profusion in the holiday provisions, but also for the frequency with which the Squire condescended to preside in the parlor of the Rainbow Inn.



15. Supper was his favorite meal, because it came at his time of revelry, when his heart warmed over his gold.
16. He turned, and tottered towards his loom, and got into the seat where he worked.
17. Mr. Macey thought this was nonsense, since the law was not likely to be fonder of lawyers.
18. The rain and darkness had got thicker, and he was glad of it; though it was awkward walking with both hands filled, so that it was as much as he could do to grasp his whip along with one of the bags. But when he had gone a yard, he might take his time. So he stepped forward into the darkness.

## SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS

In the use of coordinate correlatives, care should be taken to use the proper words in sets, and to place them in corresponding positions; for example:

224.

- (1) The assailants might introduce into the underwood whatever force they thought proper, *not only* under cover, *but also* without the knowledge of the defenders.
- (2) Thou shalt have *neither* answer, *nor* aid, *nor* obedience at their hands.

Usually it is best to notice what kind of expression the second correlative precedes, and then to make the position of the first correspond to that of the second. In the above sentences, *not only* and *but also* are followed by phrases; *neither*, *nor*, *nor* are followed by nouns.

The following sentence is faulty:

He *neither* exhausts himself *or* his hearers at each service.

The correct writing would be:

*He exhausts neither himself nor his hearers at each service.*

**225.** The word *what* is sometimes incorrectly used as a conjunction, as in the sentence:

I do not know *but what* his explanation is the best.

*What* is never a subordinate conjunction; *but*, *but that*, or *that...not* should be used.

It is well, however, for the student to note two types of correct sentences which are not to be confounded with that just given:

(1) In this he can be said to assume nothing *but what* he can readily prove.

(2) O lady, we receive *but what* we give.

In (1), *but* is a preposition and *what* a relative pronoun; in (2), *but* is an adverb and *what* a relative pronoun; both sentences are clear, correct English.

**226.** Notice carefully this sentence:

We can learn as much, if not more, out of school than in school.

In making a comparison of equality, *as* is the conjunction to use; but in making a comparison of inequality, *than* should follow the comparative word.

Hence, if a sentence has a comparison of equality and one of inequality, both clauses should be so arranged that each conjunction may have the proper connection:

*We can learn as much out of school as in school if not more [than we can learn in school].*

**227.** Besides these inaccuracies, several other errors may be spoken of in this connection:

In the sense of *attempt to*, the proper expression is *try to* instead of *try and*.

## CONJUNCTIONS

The word *without* is never a conjunction, but is now and then wrongly used instead of *unless*.

The word *like* is not to be used as a conjunction instead of *as*, *as if*, or *as though* when a verb follows in the clause.

The conjunction *as* should not be used instead of *that* to introduce a noun clause, as, "I do not know *as* he shall have such a privilege."

The conjunctions *how* and *where* are sometimes improperly used for *that* and *when* is used instead of a substantive word in the predicate; as, "Abdication is *when* a ruler gives up his throne." A correct expression would be, "Abdication is the *giving up* of a throne by a ruler."

## PREPOSITIONS

**228. Prepositions** connect parts of sentences, and also express the relation of one word or expression to another, as:

1. His first movement *after* the shock was to work *in* his loom.

The word *after* introduces the phrase *after the shock*, and shows a relation of time between *movement* and *shock*; *in* introduces the phrase *in his loom* and shows a relation of place, connecting *to work* and *loom*.

2. A weaver who came *from* nobody knows where, worked wonders *with* a bottle of brown waters."

*From* expresses separation, which is the relation between *came* and the phrase *nobody knows where*; *with* expresses the means or instrument by which the weaver *worked wonders*; *of* expresses what fills the *bottle*.

**A phrase is a group of words, not containing a verb but used as a single modifier** (see Section 263); as, *after the shock*, *with a bottle*.

**A preposition is a word joined to a noun or its equivalent to make up an adjective phrase or an adverbial phrase, and to show the relation between its object and the word modified.**

It is important to identify properly what part of the sentence is modified by a prepositional phrase, in order to determine whether it is an adverbial phrase or an adjective phrase, as well as the class of preposition.

In the examples given above, *after the shock* is adjective because it is used to modify the noun *movement* (although it expresses a relation of time, it is not ad-

verbial, because it helps determine *which* movements are meant: not those *before*, but those *after* the shock); *in his loom* is easily identified as adverbial because it is used to modify the verb *worked*.

Likewise, *from nobody knows where* is adverbial, modifying the verb *came*; *with a bottle* is adverbial, modifying the verb (along with its complement) *worked wonders*; *of brown water* is adjective, describing what kind of *bottle* (one filled with *brown water*).

**NOTE:** The object of a preposition is always in the objective case, which is the case showing reception of action or some other determination by another word. A preposition *governs* its object, that is to say, it determines the relationship of its object to another part of the sentence.

### Parsing Examples

He was wild **with** delight **about** Texas.

**with: preposition**, shows the relation between “wild” and “delight.” [The phrase is adverbial because it modifies the adjective *wild*, expressing a relation of cause or motive.]

**about: preposition**, shows the relation between “delight” and “Texas.” [The phrase is adjective because *delight* is an abstract noun; *about Texas* specifies the kind of delight, showing a relation of reference.]

## CLASSES OF PREPOSITIONS

**Prepositions** may be single words or combinations of two or three words used as one; as, *through*, *by*, *with*, *out of*, *because of*, *by way of*, *in place of*, etc. **229.**

They cannot all be classified, on account of the great variety of relations expressed by them. The largest

classes are those of **time**, **place**, and **exclusion** or **separation**.

The chief ones expressing **time** are: *after, during, pending, ere, since, till, until*. Some prepositions expressing other relations may be classed under time, such as, *about, before, above, at, between, by, near, on*.

The prepositions of **place** may be divided into:

- (1) those of place *WHERE*—*abaft, about, above, across, amid (amidst), among (amongst), around (round), at, below, beneath, beside, between (betwixt), beyond, in, on, over, under (underneath), upon, within, without*;
- (2) those of place *WHITHER*—*into, through, throughout, to, towards, unto, up*;
- (3) those of place *WHENCE*—*down, from, away from, down from, off, out of*.

The most common prepositions expressing **exclusion** or **separation** are: *besides, but, except, save, without*. The participle *excepting* is also used as a preposition.

**Exercise.** Write sentences having five prepositional phrases modifying nouns, and five modifying verbs.

**230.** The **object of a preposition** may be:

- (1) A **word**: noun, pronoun, adverb, gerund, etc., as,

In *coming* from *there*, he had to pass through the *village*.

- (2) A **phrase**, as,

Aaron had made an outwork of his mother's chair, and was peeping round from *behind it*.

- (3) A **clause**, as,

*There was no word in it that could rouse a memory of what he had known as religion.*

Some idiomatic constructions with prepositions may be mentioned and illustrated here: **231.**

The preposition sometimes follows its object when this is an interrogative or a relative word:

1. Godfrey had better reason than any one else to know *what* his brother was capable *of*.
2. The head was held up to see *where* the cunning gleam *came from*.

Sometimes the object of a preposition is not expressed, especially if it is a relative pronoun:

1. There was nothing that called out his love for the strangers [*whom*] he had come *amongst*.
2. The Squire was in higher spirits than [*those which*] we have seen him *in* at breakfast.

After an infinitive the preposition may be used without an object, or rather, with an implied object:

1. This authority carried with it the right to sell you the ground to be buried *in* [*in which* to be buried].
2. When you can see your face in a table, there's nothing else to look *for* [*for which* to look].

After the words *like* and *near*, which may be adjectives or adverbs according to their use in the sentence, the preposition *to* is usually omitted:

1. He must soon be getting *near* [*to*] the Stone Pits.
2. The feast was not to end with a single evening, *like* [*to*] a paltry town entertainment.

Some prepositions are used to complete the meaning of verbs and verbals, and may be considered a part of them:

1. Mr. M. did not doubt that he had been listened *to*. (*To listen to* may be considered a complete verb.)

2. There may still remain some creditors unpaid, even after all that I have shall have been disposed *of*. (*To dispose of* may be considered a complete verb.)
3. This caused him to be looked *upon* as a prodigy. (*To look upon* might be considered a complete verb.)
4. Mrs. Siddons was prevailed *on* to read passages from both Shakespeare and Milton. (*To prevail on* might be considered a complete verb.)

**232.** Some words may be prepositions or conjunctions, according to use, and a few may be prepositions, conjunctions or adverbs. The use must be closely watched. For example:

1. No one *but* John was admitted. (preposition)
2. I will go *but* you must stay. (conjunction)
3. 'Tis *but* a little faded flower. (adverb)

### Exercise

(a) Tell the use of the italicized words below, and point out what part of speech each is:

1. Now he leads the same life as *before*.
2. It was the very spot *for* a clergyman's residence.
3. The wind, *after* blustering all day, hushes itself to rest.
4. The timbers are green with half a century's growth of water-moss; *for* during that length of time the tramp of horses and human footsteps have ceased.
5. The two soldiers have ever *since* slept peacefully.
6. His soul was tortured by the blood stain *before* war had robbed human life of its sanctity.
7. The old minister, *before* reaching his patriarchal age of ninety, ate the apples from this orchard.
8. The cabbage swells to a monstrous circumference, *until* its ambitious heart often bursts asunder.



9. Nothing *but* a becoming blush betrayed the moving thoughts that urged themselves upon her.
  10. There were two doors, *but* the lower one was closed.
  11. In such weather the camp afforded *but* a cheerless shelter.
  12. Ducks that had been floating there *since* the preceding eve were startled at our approach.
  13. *Until* now he had not been aware of the tyrannizing influence acquired by one idea.
  14. An old farmer, who had been down to New York several years *after*, brought the news.
  15. *Since* he would not obey he was unfit to command.
- (b) Write sentences of your own, using the above italicized words in as many ways as they are here used.

## PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS

In parsing a preposition, it is necessary only to tell **233.** that it is a **preposition**, and **between what words it shows relation**, as:

**At** every pause **in** the general conversation he renewed his bantering.

**At:** preposition, shows the relation between “renewed” and “pause.”

**In:** preposition, shows the relation between “pause” and “conversation.”

In the analysis of sentences, it is important to determine whether a phrase is adverbial or adjective, beyond the simple parsing. The sentence above gives an example of both offices of a prepositional phrase. Since *at every pause* modifies *renewed*, it is an adverbial phrase; the phrase, *in...conversation*, modifying *pause*, is an adjective phrase.

### Sentences for General Exercise

1. This attack was commenced by the ladies, but it was continued throughout the dinner by the fat-headed gentleman.
2. When I returned to the drawing room, I found the company seated round the fire.
3. It was said to get up from the tomb and walk the rounds of the churchyard in stormy nights.
4. These tales were often laughed at by some of the sturdier among the rustics.
5. Methinks I hear the question asked by my graver readers, "To what purpose is all this?"
6. The approach to the Abbey through these gloomy monastic remains prepares the mind for its solemn contemplation.
7. The monuments are generally simple, for the lives of literary men afford no striking themes for the sculptor.
8. He has lived for them more than for himself.
9. A flight of steps leads up to it, through a deep and gloomy but magnificent arch.
10. How often did he shrink with curdling awe at the sound of his own steps on the frosty crust beneath his feet!
11. The place still continues under the sway of some witching power, that holds a spell over the minds of the good people, causing them to walk in a continual reverie.
12. He seldom sent either his eyes or his thoughts beyond the boundaries of his own farm.

## 1. SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS

- 234.** Certain words must be followed by special prepositions, sometimes because of the original meaning, sometimes only because of customary usage. These must be

learned gradually by observation and practice, but some of the important sets may be mentioned here:

Absolve *from*, acquit *of*, bestow *upon*, comply *with*, conform *to*, conversant *with*, dependent *on* (*upon*), deprive *of*, different *from*, dissent *from*, independent *of*, profit *by*.

Certain words may be followed by two or more prepositions, with a difference in meaning; as: **235.**

Agree *to* (a proposal); agree *with* (a person).

Confer *on* or *upon* (bestow upon); confer *with* (talk with).

Differ *from* (to be unlike in appearance or qualities); differ *from* or *with* (disagree with persons in opinions).

Disappointed *in* (a thing obtained); disappointed *of* (a thing wished for, but not obtained).

Taste *of* (food); taste *for* (art, reading, etc.)

Some sets of prepositions need to be noticed, so that the words of each set may not be confused with each other: *in* and *into*, *between* and *among*, *beside* and *besides*. **236.**

*In* indicates position, rest in a place; *into* indicates motion to a place within.

*Between* refers generally to two things or groups; *among*, to more than two.

*Beside* usually means near, by the side of; *besides* means in addition to.

Prepositions are often useful in helping to define action, such as: to hear, to hear *of*; to laugh, to laugh *at*. Many words lose their function as prepositions and be- **237.**

come adverbs, defining the action of the verb to which they are attached; as, to call *away*, to call *out* (some one), to call *in*, to call *off*, etc.

Words of either group are not to be used unless they really add to the meaning of the accompanying verb. In the sentences, "I do not recollect *of* having seen him before," "The boy raised *up* the window," the words *of* and *up* are quite unnecessary.

## INTERJECTIONS

**Interjections are words used to indicate emotion of some kind.** 238. Frequently they have no particular meaning, so that we cannot in some cases discover what emotion is to be expressed, without studying the whole sentence. Some are merely imitative words, as:

*Alas!* that cannot be.

*'Ha! ha!'* quoth he.

*Bah!* don't madam me!

*H'm!* you know what has happened.

*Hallo!* how do you know, Mr. Chaplain?

*Pooh! pooh!* stupid old man!

The owls have awakened the crowing cock. *Tu-whit! tu-whoo!*

Many of the parts of speech, however, may be used as exclamations, and are not to be called interjections. They may be nouns used independently, or imperative verbs, or adverbs, etc.; as:

*Up! up!* my friend.

*Milton!* thou shouldst be living at this hour.

*Help! help!* sir, your honor!

*Hush!* for heaven's sake!

*Indeed!* I scarcely saw them.

In parsing, identify the word as an interjection.



# EXERCISES IN SYNTAX

## NOUNS

Correct any nouns that have the wrong form or any agreement errors in these sentences: **239.**

1. Mathematics were his favorite study at school.
2. Every drop of water swarms with animalculae.
3. Those molasses are fresh from the South.
4. Such genuses of plants are very common here.
5. He read stories old of the knight-errants bold.
6. Two cupsful of flour were generally used.
7. Cross the ts carefully and dot all the is.
8. We had to put up with many inconveniencies.
9. The book has too many long appendixes.
10. Court-martials were trying the two traitors.
11. Such phenomenons cause widespread anxiety.

(Refer to Sections 19-26.)

Rewrite correctly the following sentences, and give the reason for each correction: **240.**

1. We have a full line of mens' and boys' hats.
2. Ladie's gloves are cheap on these two counters'.
3. Call at Adams' shop for all farmer's supplies.
4. You have no better friends than the Smith's.
5. I staid at my friends all the afternoon.
6. She is fond of Colgan and Beeman's chewing gum.
7. We owe sixteen months interest on the note.

8. We offer a fine stock of women and childrens' shoes.
9. I have visited the Soldiers and Sailor's Home.

(Refer to Sections 32-37 and 44-45.)

## PRONOUNS

### PERSONAL PRONOUNS

**241.** Examine the following sentences, and rewrite those in which the pronouns are not correctly used:

1. Miss H. F., in a humorous recitation, told us "Mr. Brown Had His Hair Cut," and we were delighted to hear it.
1. His father died the year in which he was born, and this left him to make his way in the world.
2. Mr. N. told Mr. H. that his cattle were in his cornfield, and that he had to lose by somebody's carelessness.
3. One grisly old wolf-dog alone had planted himself close by the chair of state, and occasionally ventured to solicit notice by putting his large, hairy head upon his knee, or pushing his nose into his hand.
4. The dog bit the man's foot because he stepped upon him, and it pained him severely afterward.
5. At the lower end of the hall is a large otter's skin stuffed with hay, which the knight looks upon with great satisfaction, because it seems he was but nine years old when his dog killed him.

(Refer to Section 106.)

**242.** Point out the antecedent of each pronoun in the following sentences, rewriting any faulty sentences:

1. Everybody went to see her when their children had fits.
2. Every one I speak to vanishes as soon as they hear my voice.



## PRONOUNS

3. He is a representative of a class who have a dress, a manner, a language, an air, peculiar to themselves.
4. Nor did either Bois-Guilbert or the Disinherited Knight find in the ranks opposed to them a champion who could be termed their unquestioned match.
5. Each shifted for himself, and got to the end as well, or rather as soon, as he could.
6. Every one was so positive of their having seen what they pretended to see that there was no contradicting them.

(Refer to Sections 107 and 108.)

Explain whether the construction is correct in the following sentences, and if not, write them correctly: **243.**

1. Which of you, during my absence in the city has let your horse come into my yard ?
2. One or the other of us, after making good promises to reform, has failed woefully to do our duty.
3. Every one of us, in this dream, has a bait offered to the infirm places of his own individual will.
4. On account of the large stock of goods now on hand, I would advise each one of you in the store to use your best efforts to have good sales.
5. Both of my elder brothers were good managers, and gave me their help in increasing our property.
6. This rural politeness is very troublesome to a man of my temper, who generally take the chair that is next me.

(Refer to Section 109.)

Determine whether the following sentences are correct, and if not, write them correctly: **244.**

## EXERCISES IN SYNTAX

1. Every pupil ought to have self-control if he wishes to accomplish anything at studying—that is, we should know when and where to hold our tongue.
2. Take thou this frock and cord and march quietly out of the castle, leaving me your cloak and girdle to take the long leap in thy stead.
3. To the battlements, ye loitering villains! to the battlements, or I will splinter your bones with this truncheon.
4. Cover thyself with yonder ancient buckler, and show as little of your person at the lattice as may be.
5. If one wrote an epitaph for the ambassador, one might be tempted into saying....
6. It is well worth one's while, even if he had no idea of buying or selling, to loiter through the bazaars.

(Refer to Section 110.)

**245.** Tell the office of each pronoun in the following sentences, and write correctly the faulty sentences:

1. Aaron was so much wiser than she was about most things.
2. Us old fellows may wish ourselves young tonight.
3. It is not for such as we to sit with the rulers of the land.
4. A less truthful man than him might have been tempted.
5. You and me could carry the smallest; and Aaron 'ud carry the rest, I know he would.
6. Perhaps the pretty woman, not much younger than he, who is leaning on his arm, is more changed.
7. We shall do very well—Eppie and me 'ull do well enough.

(Refer to Section 111.)

**246.** Study the following sentences, and rewrite such of them as contain errors of syntax:

## PRONOUNS

1. I remember seeing him with her and Marner going away from church.
2. Let her, as well as I, taste of the tortures of the hereafter!
3. The rapidity with which he insisted on traveling bred several disputes between him and the party whom he had hired to attend him as a guard.
4. God be judge between him and me!
5. The orders were for he and I to report at once at headquarters to answer for the disturbance.
6. The deadly air of that region caused my uncle and she to remove immediately to this state.
7. I regretted this unfortunate disagreement with my friends, and I tried hard to avoid ill humor.

(Refer to Section 111.)

In the following sentences, mention which words illustrate pleonasm, and rewrite the sentences in which the pronouns are carelessly used. **247.**

1. He that hits that rod at fivescore yards, I call him an archer fit to bear bow and quiver before a king.
2. That land, too, now vanishing from my view—what vicissitudes might occur in it before I should visit it again!
3. Ferdinand, who was then king and a most excellent ruler, he would not help Columbus.
4. Godfrey, the older son, and Dunstan, the younger, a wild fellow, they had trouble often.
5. One of those sensational reports that nobody knows how it was started or where it came from, was going the rounds last night.
6. Ah, the good horse that was brought all the long way from Barbary, he takes no more care of him than if he were a wild ass's colt; and the noble armor, he cares for it as little as if he had found it in the highway!

(Refer to Section 113.)

**248.** Rewrite the following sentences, after explaining the nature of any errors:

1. Letter received by us and contents noted. In reply would say that books and supplies will be shipped at the earliest possible moment.
2. Dear Cousin: Happy to say that can come to visit you next week. Will bring skates and sled, and hope you and friends will have a long holiday.
3. He started for a town which he knew the circus would go to next but did not get more than five miles before night.
4. Mr. H. F. and wife, who have been in Florida for the winter, returned this morning.
5. He went to clerk for his brother, who kept a dry goods store and was soon the center of attention among the merchants.

(Refer to Section 114.)

## INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

**249.** Determine the case of each interrogative and each relative pronoun in the following sentences, then see whether the right form is used:

1. As the lady was discoursing, and held her snuff-box in her hand, who should I see in the lid of it but the doctor?
2. We did not know who he was seeking.
3. Ah, but who's to watch you, Dowlas?
4. John is a boy whom I believe is going to succeed.
5. Who does Time gallop with? With a thief to the gallows.
6. A girl was leading the dog who had long golden hair and rosy cheeks.

## PRONOUNS

7. That is the man who I was speaking about.
8. Who have we here, with the two boys?
9. Who could the poor lonely fellow write to?

(Refer to Sections 111 and 112.)

### General Exercise

Read carefully the following sentences; if any are wrong, state why and correct them.

**250.**

1. The ball grazed his cheek, which, though painful, is not fatal.
2. A writer says he does not think either of the three countries are entitled to the credit given them.
3. Frank S. R., brother of Dr. R., who was buried here last Thursday, and who came here to attend his brother's funeral, was reported dying at the Cincinnati hospital this morning from a knife wound.
4. The people who he came in contact with all loved him.
5. Were I as thou, I should find myself disport and plenty out of the king's deer.
6. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both.
7. Shakespeare and Corneille was each the leading spirit of his age.
8. The very act of separating themselves from the rest of the world, to have the fuller enjoyment of each other's society, implies that they prefer one another to all the rest of the world.
9. Even in glorious England there are some that carry their heads as proudly as the reindeer, who yet secretly have received a mark upon their foreheads.
10. Already all is waiting: the mighty audience is gathered, and the Court is hurrying to their seats.

(Refer to Sections 106-114.)

## ADJECTIVES

**251.** Point out any errors in the following sentences, and write correctly the faulty sentences.

1. This cow was recently gored under the right foreleg, and the wound was smeared with tar down to her right knee, which is still on her.
2. We have used every exertion to make our stock even more complete than it was before.
3. Mr. W. played and swore, it is true, but he was no worse than any young man of his time.
4. These kind of complaints are not often drawn from me.
5. It was not very long before he became mayor of Greenville, which he held for three years.
6. The fond girl thought that her father was the soberest and best of all the other men there.
7. These sort of books were exceedingly popular in Dr. Johnson's time, but are scarcely read now.
8. Put stress on all the most principal points.
9. LOST—A collie dog by a man on Saturday answering to Jim, with a brass collar round his neck and a muzzle.
10. But them things are dying out, as I tell Solomon every time he comes around.
11. As for the women, they were the kindest, merriest, most agreeable of all the ladies that he met in England.
12. Mrs. A. L. suddenly fell dead in this county yesterday, while conversing with friends, aged 65 years.
13. This dull color rendered him more invisible.
14. WANTED—A room by two gentlemen about thirty feet long by twenty feet broad.
15. But as to popularity, Mr. M. is doubtless the most universal favorite among all the applicants.
16. LOST—Near Highgate archway, an umbrella belonging to a gentleman with a bent rib and a bone handle.

## ARTICLES

17. To be disposed of, a mail phaeton, the property of a gentleman with a movable headpiece as good as new.

(Refer to Sections 129-133.)

## ARTICLES

Correct any of the following sentences that are wrong, **252.** and give reasons for each change.

1. The neighborhood was one of those highly honored places which abound with chronicle and great men. The British and American line had run near it during the war.
2. It appears to us, then, the difference between a sound and unsound induction does not lie in this.
3. During that happy period, there was peace over nearly all the Eastern and the Western Continents.
4. I no longer presume to connect the Greek, the Jewish, and the Egyptian antiquities, which are lost in a distant cloud.
5. And here making a hasty salutation, he ran across the parade ground toward a young and elderly lady and a gentleman, who were now advancing.
6. The knight and baron quitted the table, and felt in his embroidered pockets, as if for money.

(Refer to Sections 137 and 138.)

## VERBS

Examine the following verbs, and correct any that **253.** are not suitable in form or in meaning.

1. Many have mistook the reason for his action.
2. He was not here when his brother come.

## EXERCISES IN SYNTAX

3. Her face has always wore a sad expression.
4. He was not discovered until this morning, after he had laid in the wet grass for six hours.
5. The wind had scattered the apples around and broke some branches of the trees.
6. The car had already ran off the track.
7. I am afraid you will loose your new ball.
8. He has set there an hour, all alone.
9. If the hunter had clomb the tree, he could easily have gotten the squirrel.
10. We ought not to have sit in the cold so long.
11. My exercise must have been wrote badly.
12. Can't I ever learn you to think before speaking?
13. I seen him after he had swam the river.
14. When they come in they were almost froze.
15. I done better while he had me by the hand.
16. He has not, and never will, reveal the secret.
17. The guilt of the accused was easily proven.
18. Hasn't the assembly bell rung for us yet?
19. The iron was drawed out into fine wire.
20. My cousin has just set out for his journey.
21. He give me the money he win on the last race.
22. He throwed the ball and run hard for the base.
23. He might once, but he can not now, deceive us.
24. The blacksmith shoed the horse in ten minutes.
25. The horse thief was hung by the regulators.
26. When I am forsook by all, Thou wilt be nigh.
27. I might have gone sometimes the whole length of the street, and see nobody to direct me.
28. The visitor has not sat here half an hour.
29. As soon as I seen it, I knowed the coat was stole.



## VERBS

30. My neighbor's wife taken pneumonia last winter.
31. The sheet was not tore when I wrote the lesson.
32. The Indian has slew many a man.
33. The dog is laying on my brother's new cap.
34. The birds have flew away for the winter.
35. Ten dollars had been bidden for this picture.

(Refer to Sections 169, 171, 172.)

See if *shall*, *should*, etc., are rightly used in the following sentences, and correct any errors. **254.**

1. The driver said he would like to go farther, but that he should hurry back.
2. I will be sixteen years old next month.
3. Shall you come to our next entertainment?
4. I will if my mother will permit me.
5. They shall be sick if they play too long out in this rain.
6. The teacher says that he will expect us to remember all the dates in that lesson.
7. Wouldn't you prefer to sit with me?
8. I shall lend you the marbles, but not one of them will you keep with my consent.

(Refer to Sections 175-177.)

Decide which of the following sentences are correct, and rewrite any incorrect ones, giving reasons. **255.**

1. Neither Russia or Austria are ready for war, and Germany has nothing to gain thereby.
2. Every one of the players in our club are bent on winning the game this afternoon.
3. If I was a lord or a bishop, I would not put a fellow in my livery that had not a wooden leg.

## EXERCISES IN SYNTAX

4. One of these persons was in a somewhat tarnished coat, with a large queue and bag.
5. I confess that neither his hand nor mine were particularly steady.
6. Each tree and rock and every blade of grass are distinctly imaged in the stream.
7. It is melancholy to think how little that portion of the community which is quite at ease in their circumstances, have to do, in a social way, with the humbler classes.
8. A popular novel, a theater, a ballroom, makes us feel that we are all paupers.
9. I am considering how each of these professions are crowded with multitudes seeking their livelihood.
10. A handful of daring adventurers from a civilized nation wander to some savage country, and reduce the aboriginal inhabitants to bondage.
11. Either of these, or of a myriad more, are equally good to the person to whom they are significant.
12. When the boat comes near to his, he hears a great noise and the boat sinks; but he and his companions were saved by the hermit.
13. The boxing match came off, but neither of the men were very game or severely punished.
14. The Red House was without that presence of the wife and mother which is the fountain of wholesale love and fear in parlor and kitchen.
15. Her simple view of life and its comforts were only like a report of unknown objects.
16. The painter, the sculptor, the composer, the epic rhapsodist, the orator, all partake one desire, namely to express symmetrically and abundantly.
17. A number of persons was clustered together in the light of one of the great stained windows.

18. The uniform habit of the academics, the square cap and the black gown, is adapted to the civil and even the clerical profession.
19. But whether either of these be modern discoveries, or derived from old foundations, is disputed.
20. It must be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery and murder.
21. Every street, every turning in the more frequented parts of the city, were familiar to her.
22. Wayland's "Elements of Political Economy" was published in the year 1837.
23. Fifty head of cattle were bought today and will be sent abroad next week.
24. The fleet were seen sailing up the channel, where it was anchored in safety.
25. The increase in the number of pupils render the purchase of new seats necessary.
26. Forest after forest fall under the ax, but no measure, no law, no effort have been made to prevent the waste.
27. Not a feature, not a muscle, were seen to move.
28. The mob, which rapidly advanced on the jail, were composed of the roughs of the city.
29. A number of our best friends were told never to attend the meeting again.
30. The number of men on the committee has been increased from three to five.
31. The peasantry often goes barefooted in winter.
32. Two thousand years of slavery to the Turk has made a coward of the Armenian.
33. Either of these developments are quite possible, as the allied army have been pressing against every obstacle to reach the city of Pekin.

(Refer to Sections 192-196.)

## VERBALS

**256.** Correct the errors in these sentences, and give reasons.

1. On entering, the eye is astonished by the pomp of architecture and the elaborate beauty of sculpture.
2. She gave him a copper farthing of Birmingham manufacture, being all the coin she had about her.
3. Such things had been known as a man doing himself a mischief, and then setting the justice to look for the doer.
4. I knew their cargoes were heavy, and expected every moment they would have gone to the bottom.
5. The sequestered situation of the church seems always to have made it a favorite haunt of spirits.
6. Being young, wealthy, good looking, and fortunate, the fashionable world took him by the hand.
7. This had been Silas's testimony, though he clutched strongly at the idea of the peddler being the culprit.
8. He has beheld beds of them unfolding in due succession as the sunrise stole from flower to flower.
9. Being naturally of a serious turn, my attention was directed to the solid advantages of a residence there.
10. Prince John, who had expected that his own name would have closed the Saxon's speech, started when his brother's name was mentioned.
11. The fact of her having found relief from drinking Marnier's medicine became a matter of common talk.
12. There is no hope of him passing the examination.
13. It would have been worth any statesman's money to have heard the profound discussions.
14. Alarmed by these reports, it was decided to evacuate the fort that night.

15. Egypt would scarcely have been able to have secured her independence unaided.

(Refer to Sections 197-200.)

## ADVERBS

Correct any errors in the following sentences, and **257.** state reasons for changes made.

1. The books haven't come yet, I don't suppose.
2. Such phrases have been carried to an extreme, as have most all things.
3. The effect is that it generally degrades any one that uses it in people's minds.
4. We haven't near finished our exercise yet.
5. A very rough looking man put his head out and asked what I wanted very impatiently.
6. He is only fitted to govern others who is capable of governing himself at all times.
7. How well this man writes when he does not take any pains scarcely!
8. Rosenthal was then at Abazzio, near Trieste, where he was making his final preparations for his coming American tour in a delightful cottage that faces the Adriatic.
9. One of the sailors, a thoughtless man, treated the albatross cruel, and killed it.
10. This monument was erected to the memory of John Jenkins, accidentally shot, as a mark of affection by his brother.
11. It is not improbable that the deceased came to his death by swallowing some drug.
12. Such correction of a child sounds harshly.
13. Loud talking makes the voice sound harsh.

## EXERCISES IN SYNTAX

14. Mr. C. had always been successful in business previous to his coming to our city.
15. Always speak friendly to those you meet.
16. For a real good pair of shoes, or anything in that line, call on Allen and Brown.
17. The exhibition will likely close next week.
18. Immediately after the burial of his wife the other day, Mr. M. B. was married by the preacher who had performed the funeral service to a cousin of his former wife.
19. The servant did not sweep the room good.
20. The poor fellow can't walk hardly.
21. The butter tastes very well, after all.
22. Talk plainer, so we can understand you.
23. Some people only make these errors in conversation, but most every one can correct them.
24. The people heard that the king had abdicated with great astonishment.
25. I merely mention a few of these letters.
26. You this night mentioned a name in the halls where by nature and kindred it should have sounded most acceptably.
27. Uncle has never been to Europe but once.
28. Be careful to open the door wide.
29. She looked around and saw with alarm that she had never been where she was before.

(Refer to Sections 213-215.)

## CONJUNCTIONS

- 258.** Correct any errors in the following sentences, and give your reasons for each correction.

## CONJUNCTIONS

1. Mr. H. will hear a different story than that told him on his last visit to the East.
2. It's a pity but what Solomon lived in our village.
3. What it seemed really wisest for him to do was to try and soften his father's anger.
4. Scarcely had we composed ourselves again than a loud scream aroused us.
5. One of two things appears to us to be certain: that his project has either been misunderstood, or that his talents have been overrated.
6. We were reading in the papers where the floods were disastrous in the Mississippi Valley.
7. The prisoner declared he would not proceed without they promised him better treatment.
8. He treated the court like the king was already a prisoner in his hands.
9. Turning neither to the right nor to the left, he strode on with desperate hardihood.
10. Though less studiously bedecked with ornament, his dress was as rich and his appearance far more striking than that of his companion.
11. But neither as a writer nor statesman can we allot him a very high place.
12. Apposition is when one word not in the predicate explains the meaning of another.
13. Five men can transact business as satisfactorily, and more rapidly than forty or fifty.
14. They put her in a small room that looked like it had been used for a coal house.
15. I do not know as I can tell you the story.
16. The circumstance induced Gurth to believe both that the gang was strong in numbers, and that they kept regular guards about them.

## EXERCISES IN SYNTAX

17. Athelstane had not only determined to deprive the Disinherited Knight of his powerful succor, but to make him feel the weight of his battle-ax.
18. Lady Rowena could not have escaped without Cedric had come when he did.
19. The liberated man now told us how he had been kept in prison a long time with little food and with damp and insufficient clothing.
20. There's never a garden in all the parish but what there's endless waste in it.
21. No sooner had he left the room when the flames burst forth furiously again.
22. My prices will be found as low, if not lower, than can be found elsewhere in the city.
23. He would roam around the country day after day to try and find any honest work.
24. The costly charm of the old literature is that the persons speak simply—speak like persons who have great good sense without knowing it.
25. The natives told us that after traveling all day that we should come to a large lake.
26. Neighbors not only showed a disposition to greet Silas, but to take the trouble of visiting him.

(Refer to Sections 224-227.)

## PREPOSITIONS

**259.** Tell which prepositions are misused in the following sentences, and make needed corrections.

1. Between every pause was heard the voice of the heralds exclaiming, "Fight on, brave knights!"
2. If she goes there, it will be a different sort of life to what she's been used to.



## PREPOSITIONS

3. The painter fell off of a high building.
4. I cannot agree with such an offer.
5. Do not drop your hat onto the floor.
6. The villagers were astonished when the weaver came running in the room so suddenly.
7. After I have examined into the matter, I will tell you whether the money is safe.
8. My cousin and I hope that the reward will soon be divided among us.
9. Can you tell me where the City Hall is at?
10. Gurth did not meet up with anybody until he reached the end of a long, dark lane.
11. He was into all this trouble today.
12. When he reformed, he emptied out all the whisky barrels into the street.
13. The soldiers crowded to the wall, from whence they sent down a cloud of arrows.
14. Though differing in politics, there was a resemblance between the temper of the uncle and nephew.

(Refer to Sections 234-237.)



# ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

**Analysis is the process of separating a sentence into its elements. 260.**

The main matters connected with analysis have been presented in the discussion of parts of speech, and it remains now to arrange these facts in a convenient form and to add a few explanations.

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM

**A sentence is the expression of a thought in words. 261.**

According to the way in which a thought is expressed sentences may be of three *kinds*:

**(1) A declarative sentence is one that makes a statement, as:**

- (a) Necessity is the mother of invention.
- (b) The mill stands by the little creek.

**(2) An interrogative sentence is one that asks a question, as:**

- (a) Who can count the stars?
- (b) Where is last year's snow?

**(3) An imperative sentence is one that expresses a command, an entreaty, or a request, as:**

- (a) Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.
- (b) Go to the ant, thou sluggard.

(4) Any one of these sentences may also be exclamatory. **An exclamatory sentence is one that expresses strong emotion.** This is not a fourth *kind* of sentence, but rather adds the expression of strong emotion to any of the three kinds. When analyzing, specify not only that it is exclamatory, but also whether it is declarative, interrogative, or imperative. Here are exclamatory sentences of all three kinds:

- (1) How are the mighty fallen! [exclamatory declarative]
- (2) Strike for your altars and your fires! [exclamatory imperative]
- (3) Oh death! Where is thy sting! [exclamatory interrogative]

### Exercise

Distinguish the following sentences as declarative, interrogative, or imperative. State which are exclamatory.

- 1. Can such a man succeed?
- 2. Dare to be brave!
- 3. A rare old plant is the ivy green!
- 4. Come to the sunset tree!
- 5. O grave! Where is thy victory!
- 6. Cheerfulness and content are great beautifiers.
- 7. I dare do all that may become a man.
- 8. Honor the light brigade, Noble six hundred!
- 9. Who can estimate the power of gentle influences?

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING  
TO NUMBER OF STATEMENTS:

# 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

The structure of a sentence may be **simple, complex, or compound**, depending on the number of statements. **262.**

**A simple sentence is one that contains only one statement, command, or question.**

The simple sentence is made up of **principal and subordinate elements**. The principal elements are the subject and predicate; the subordinate elements are the objects, complements, modifiers, and independent words.

## THE SYNTAX OF ELEMENTS IN A SENTENCE

The elements of a sentence are always tied together by some relation, each performing an office to form a complete and properly structured thought. The relation of these elements to one another is called the **syntax** of a sentence (cf. Section 43). Syntax is from a Greek word meaning “putting together” or “arranging.” **263.**

Elements of a sentence are put together and related either by **agreement** or by **government**.

The word **agreement** implies a certain sameness, and elements of a sentence *agree* when they name the same thing, or when one helps to assert what the other is or does.

This relation of *agreement* is often reflected by a sameness of one or more aspects of the word, such as number, gender or case. Subject and verb *agree* in person

and number, showing that the verb asserts the action or being of that subject; words in apposition *agree* in case, number and gender, because they name the same person or thing; pronoun and antecedent, adjective and noun likewise *agree* because they stand for, restate, or tell more about the same reality. (Words such as adverbs, which do not change form, are yet said to *agree* with the word they modify.)

The word **government** implies the exertion or imposition of an action or state of being by one element upon another.

There are two relationships of *government* in sentences, and in both relationships, the word *governed* is in the objective case. Verbs and verbals used transitively *govern* direct objects, showing that action is received by the object. Prepositions *govern* objects also, because a preposition determines the relationship of some noun or substantive word with another word in the sentence.

Notice that certain words in a sentence may be in agreement with one element while governing another. For example:

I remember Wordsworth once laughingly *reporting* to me a little personal anecdote. [The participle *reporting* modifies and therefore agrees with *Wordsworth* while governing its object, *anecdote*.]

Prepositions are of this type. Consider the following sentence:

The mighty secret *of the Sierra* stood revealed.

The preposition *of* serves as a kind of hinge, connecting the word *secret* to its own object, *the Sierra*, which it governs. The preposition *of* has a certain modifying force, and thus may be said to *agree with* the word *se-*

## 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

*cret*, but it does so incompletely; the full modifier is the entire expression, *of the Sierra*.

Thus, a preposition governing an object composes what we call a **phrase**. We saw in Section 228 that **a phrase is a group of words, not containing a verb, but used as a single modifier**. A preposition is so closely tied to its object that the whole phrase is considered a single element, either adverbial or adjective.

A verbal with an object or with other words dependent upon it may also compose a phrase, if the words are used together as a single modifier. A phrase is able to act as a single modifier, precisely because its elements are tied together in a relationship of **government** or of **agreement**.

**There are three kinds or forms of phrases, prepositional, infinitive, and participial.**

**NOTE:** Phrases may also be independent elements, which do not modify any element in the sentence but are grammatically *independent*. Often, they help place the sentence itself in a larger context (cf. Section 272).

A substantive word taken with its modifiers (and with its objects, if it is a gerund or an infinitive) does not constitute a noun phrase, because a word used substantively is always a subject, object or complement in a sentence, whereas phrases are always modifiers.

Thus, in the sentence, "He could not help *saying a word* in return," *saying a word* is not a gerund phrase, direct object of *help*; we distinguish the gerund *saying* as direct object of *help*, and *a word* as object of the gerund.

Nonetheless, certain independent elements are sometimes considered "noun phrases" (cf. Section 29 (4) and 272).

## PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

- 264.** The principal elements composing a sentence are *subject* and *predicate*.

**The subject of a sentence names that of which something is asserted**, and which answers the question *who?* or *what?* placed before the predicate, as:

*The lives of our rural forefathers* had a certain pathos in them.

The expression in italics answers the question, "What had a pathos in them?" and is the subject.

**The predicate is that word or expression which asserts something of the person or thing named by the subject.**

In the sentence just quoted, the expression *had a certain pathos in them*, being introduced by the verb *had*, declares something of the thing named by the subject, and hence is the predicate.

- 265.** We may distinguish between **simple subject** and **complete subject**, as well as between **simple** and **complete predicate**.

Generally when the word "subject" is used, the **simple subject** is meant: **the simple subject is the substantive word without any modifiers**, as *lives* in the sentence in Section 263. The term "predicate" usually implies the simple predicate: **the simple predicate is the verb or verb phrase that does the asserting**, as *had* in the sentence quoted.

It is better, however, for the student always to give the complete subject and predicate before giving the simple subject and predicate; then the single words may readily be found.



## 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

Notice that the subject is often found after the verb, in three main cases:

(1) by simple inversion, as for example:

Therein has been, and ever will be, my *deficiency*, – the talent of starting the game.

(2) in interrogative sentences, or

(3) after *It* or *There* used as introductory words (see Section 273 for further mention of cases 2 and 3).

**Exercise.** Write ten simple sentences, each having a subject and a predicate unmodified.

### SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE:

#### 1. OBJECTS

A complete sentence only requires a subject and a predicate, but usually a sentence also contains **subordinate elements**, all related in some way to subject or predicate and helping to express a fuller, more interesting thought. Among the most important subordinate elements are the **objects**, which receive in some way the action of the verb. 266.

There are two kinds of objects: **direct** and **indirect**. **The direct object names the person or thing that directly receives the action of the verb or verbal,** as:

1. A small minority shook their heads.
2. Nancy was capable of keeping her *word* to herself.

**The indirect object is a noun or its equivalent used as the modifier of a verb or verbal to name the person or thing for whose benefit something is done.** We may say that it names the *direction* of an action, which is why it is often found with verbs imply-

ing giving, showing or telling. It is equivalent to an adverbial phrase introduced by *to* or *for*, and usually precedes the direct object, if there is one in the sentence, as in these examples:

1. I may as well tell the *Squire* everything. [I may as well tell everything *to the Squire*.]
2. You chose to be so obliging as to give me the money. [You chose to be so obliging as to give the money *to me*.]

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences, each having a direct and an indirect object. Write D.O. over the direct objects, and I.O. over the indirect objects.

## SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE: 2. COMPLEMENTS

**267.** Another important subordinate element is the **complement**. A complement is a word added to a verb of incomplete predication to complete its meaning.

Such a verb of incomplete predication may be either *transitive* or *intransitive*.

*Intransitive verbs* which express in some way how the subject *is* or *appears* very often have a word to complete their meaning. For example:

1. The transaction became more *complicated*.
2. His opinion is always *original*, and *to the purpose*.
3. The good man was now getting *old*, above sixty.
4. But in general he seemed *deficient in laughter*.

Notice that the words in italics all help the verb to affirm something of the subject. They complete the verb and at the same time complete our idea of the subject.

## 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

*Transitive verbs* also may need a word to help define more fully the action exerted on the direct object.

1. Ye call me *chief*. (In this sentence, *me* is the object; the full action of the verb is to *call chief*.)
2. Absence makes the heart *grow fonder*. (Here, *heart* is the object, and the full action exerted is *makes grow fonder*.)

Verbals (whether from transitive or intransitive verbs) may also be followed by a complement, as in these examples:

1. (**Participle**) He was evidently most solicitous about the musical part of the service, keeping his eyes *fixed* intently on the choir, and beating time with much emphasis. [Here, *eyes* is the object of the participle *keeping*; the full action expressed by the participle is *keeping fixed*.]
2. (**Infinitive**) He tried to make the scene *easier* to himself by rehearsal. [Here, *scene* is the object of the infinitive *to make*; the full action expressed by the infinitive is *to make easier*.]
3. (**Gerund**) He clutched strongly at the idea of the peddler's being the *culprit*. [Here, *peddler* is in the possessive case, modifying the gerund *being*; the two elements do not form a phrase. The word *culprit* is complement of *being*.]

### Exercise

- (a) Write five sentences having complements of intransitive verbs, and five having complements of transitive verbs.
- (b) Write sentences to illustrate complements of the participle, infinitive, and gerund, two sentences for each.

A transitive verb retains its complement when the voice of the verb is changed from active to passive: **268.**

1. *Active*: Ye call me *chief*.

*Passive*: I am called *chief* by you.]

2. *Active*: Absence makes the heart *grow fonder*.

*Passive*: The heart is made *to grow fonder* by absence.

When an active sentence with both a direct and an indirect object is changed to passive, by an idiomatic construction the indirect object may become the subject, while the direct object remains so in both voices.

*Active*: They offered *him* the situation of brakeman.

*Passive*: *He* was offered the situation of brakeman.

**269.** The **subject** or the **direct object** must be a noun or a word used as a noun, that is, used substantively:

(1) A noun, such as:

The old-fashioned *Englishman* sold *houses* for his living, but filled his own *house* with his life.

(2) An adjective used as a noun, as:

*The good* are befriended even by weakness and defect.

(3) A pronoun, such as:

I saw, and marked *him* well.

(4) An infinitive, such as:

*To turn* and *fly* was now too late.

(5) A gerund, such as:

*Further reading and thinking only served to make this inclination more decided.*

## 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

A **complement** may be a substantive word, as in the categories above, but it need not be. Moreover, transitive and intransitive verbs do not have exactly the same range of possible complements.

The complement of an *intransitive verb* may be:

(1) A noun:

She had been an ardent *patriot*.

(2) A pronoun:

This is *she*, the shepherd girl.

(3) An adjective:

Innocence is ever *simple* and *credulous*.

(4) An infinitive:

To enumerate and analyze these relations is *to teach* the science of method.

(5) A gerund:

Life is a *pitching* of this penny – heads or tails.

(6) A prepositional phrase, as in:

His frame is *on a larger scale*.

The marks were *of a kind* not to be mistaken.

Notice that all of these complements have a double office: completing the simple predicate and explaining or modifying the subject.

The complement of a *transitive verb* may be:

(1) A noun:

I will not call you *cowards*.

(2) An adjective:

Manners make beauty *superfluous* and *ugly*. [*Manners* here is pejorative and implies falseness and affectation.]

Their tempers, doubtless, are rendered *pliant* and *malleable* in the fiery furnace of domestic tribulation.

(3) An infinitive:

I hear the echoes *throng*.

(4) A participle or participial phrase:

I can imagine him *pushing firmly on, trusting the hearts of his countrymen*.

(5) A prepositional phrase:

My antagonist would render my poniard and my speed *of no use* to me.

**NOTE:** For subject, object and complement in complex sentences, see Section 277.

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences using as subjects the classes of words in Section 269. two sentences for each use.

## SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE:

### 3. MODIFIERS

**270.** Since the subject and the object are always substantive words, equivalent to a noun, the modifiers of these are **adjectives** or expressions used as such:

(1) An **adjective**; as:

(a) It was a *vast* and *noble* room.

(b) Soon, however, he forgot *these mortifying* failures.

## 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

(2) A **possessive noun or pronoun**; as:

(a) She could hear *his* voice.

(b) He seemed to represent *man's* physical nature.

(3) A **noun in apposition** (modifying by restating; cf. p. 13 and Section 29):

Stimulants—the only *mode* of treatment attempted—cannot quell disease.

(4) A **prepositional phrase**:

(a) The greater part *of the place* is in shadow.

(b) We have strange power *of speech*.

(5) An **infinitive phrase**:

I want breath and time *to discuss* the banquet.

(6) A **participial phrase**, restrictive or appositive:

(a) Overhead is a lofty dome *supported by long rows of pillars*.

(b) *Brom Bones, sorely smitten with love and jealousy, sat brooding by himself in a corner.*

**NOTE:** For clauses used as adjectives in complex sentences, see Section 280.

**Exercise.** Write twelve sentences, two to illustrate each kind of modifier in Section 270.

Since the simple predicate is a verb, any modifier of it **271.** must be an **adverb** or an expression used as such:

(1) An **adverb**:

Their struggle has *long* been over.

(2) A **prepositional phrase**:

They have gone down *amidst the roar* of the tempest.

(3) An **indirect object**, whose meaning is equivalent to an adverbial prepositional phrase with *to...* or *for...*, as explained in Section 266:

I promise *myself* great pleasure in informing him of the fact. (I promise *to myself*...)

I gave *every man* a trumpet. (I gave *to every man*...)

Paint *me*, then, a room seventeen feet by twelve. (Paint *for me*...)

(4) A **participial phrase**; as:

She came *courtesying forth*, with many expressions of simple joy.

(5) An **infinitive phrase**, often of *purpose* or *result*:

(a) Her eye hurried over the ship *to catch some wished-for face*.

(b) They started from their beds, *to be swallowed by the waves*.

(6) An **adverbial objective**—a noun expressing time, value, distance, measure, etc., as explained in Section 30:

*We one day descried some shapeless object floating at a distance.*

**NOTE:** For clauses used as adverbs modifying the predicate in complex sentences, see Section 281.

**Exercise.** Write twelve sentences, two to illustrate each kind of modifier in Section 271.



SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE:  
4. INDEPENDENT WORDS

**The independent elements are not a part of the sentence structure, though they add some meaning to it. Some of them are:** **272.**

(1) A **noun** or a **pronoun of direct address**:

Why, my dear *fellow*, they are old maids, every soul of them.

O *ye*, whom wrath consumes! Shut up your senses.

(2) **Exclamatory words**:

*"Horror! horror!"* exclaimed I.

It was not I! *never! never!*

(3) An **infinitive phrase used loosely**:

*To take familiar instances*, here were the tales of Chaucer.

(4) A **participial phrase used absolutely**:

*His head being turned back*, he passed crook of the road.

(5) **Single words merely introductory**:

*Why*, here we are, all right again!

*Well*, what a strange man you are!

*Now*, are you not a little unreasonable?

(6) **The words *yes*, *yea*, *no*, *nay*, used in answering questions.** They really stand for whole sentences, but are not a part of the sentence structure.

## CHANGES TO THE ORDER OF ELEMENTS

- 273.** The natural order of words is often departed from in the interrogative sentence, and should be restored before the sentence is analyzed; as:

What right had I to exult in his misfortune? [I had what right to exult, etc.]

Sometimes in prose, often in poetry, the transposed order is preferred in an assertive sentence; as:

Sudden had been the call upon us.

Out spoke he then.

In addition, the words *there* and *it* are often used as introductory words, to throw the subject after the verb, for the sake of elegance, emphasis or rhetorical effect. For example:

*There is an emanation from the heart* in genuine hospitality.

*It is gratifying to see that home feeling completely aroused.*

In these examples, *There* and *It* are called the grammatical subject; the *real subject* is placed after the verb (given here in italics). In analysis, the real subject should be distinguished from the grammatical subject, which is in no way to be considered a noun or substantive word but is used merely for the sake of structure.

See Sections 60 and 61 in the chapter on Pronouns for more discussion of the uses of *it*; see Section 207 in the chapter on Adverbs for mention of *there* as an introductory word.

**NOTE:** The *real subject* is also called the *logical subject*.

## COMPOUND ELEMENTS

Frequently in a simple sentence the writer uses two or more predicates to the same subject, two or more subjects of the same predicate, several modifiers, complements, etc.; but it is to be noticed that, in all such sentences as we quote below, the writers of them purposely combined them *in single statements*, and they are not to be expanded into compound sentences. In a compound sentence the goal is to make two or more full statements. (See Section 284.) **274.**

Examples of compound elements are:

1. By degrees Rip's *awe* and *apprehension* subsided. [Compound subject.]
2. He *shook* his head, *shouldered* the rusty firelock, and, with a heart full of trouble and anxiety, *turned* his steps homeward. [Compound predicate.]
3. He caught his *daughter* and her *child* in his arms. [Compound object.]

And so with complements, modifiers, etc.

## REVIEW OF THE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

We can name all of the elements of a simple sentence, not only identifying each word as a part of speech but also telling how it fits into the sentence as a whole. **275.**

(1) First, we consider the form of the sentence and tell what *kind* it is: **declarative**, **interrogative**, or **imperative**. We also tell whether or not it is expressed as an **exclamation**.

(2) We can then consider the sentence in its broadest division, distinguishing between the **complete subject** and the **complete predicate**. Remember that the order of subject and predicate may be inversed.

(3) Within the **complete subject**, we can distinguish between the **noun** or substantive word which is the simple subject, and all the words which are **modifiers** of the simple subject.

(4) Next, we turn to the **complete predicate**, and identify within it the **verb** or verb phrase which constitutes the **simple predicate**, then any **objects** (direct or indirect) receiving the action of the verb, any **complements** completing the meaning of the verb, and any **modifiers** of the verb, objects or complements.

(5) Finally, we can easily identify any **independent** elements, and any **connectives** linking compound elements.

We may analyze the following sentence in this way:

That night, and the following morning, came a further and a heavier fall of snow.

(1) This is a simple declarative sentence. (Its form is not exclamatory.)

(2) The complete subject is, *a further and a heavier fall of snow*; the complete predicate is, *came that night, and the following morning*.

(3) The simple subject is, *fall*; it is modified by the adjectives, *a further* and *a heavier*, and the prepositional phrase, *of snow*.

(4) The simple predicate is, *came*; it is modified by the adverbial objectives, *that night* and *the following morning*; the simple modifiers are *night*, which in turn is modified by the adjective *that*; and *morning*, modified by the adjectives *the* and *following*.

(5) The conjunction *and* connects the adjectives *a further* and *a heavier*, as well as the nouns *night* and *morning*.

## 1. SIMPLE SENTENCES

**NOTE:** If we wish to analyze a phrase, we may treat it as a simple word and tell as much as possible about what it does and what it is. Thus, we would tell its *nature*, that is, the part of speech which it is used as (adjective or adverbial); then we would tell its *form* or *structure* (prepositional, participial or infinitive); and finally, its specific *function* or *office*, namely, the precise *way* it modifies (or adverb class) and the word modified.

### Simple Sentences for Analysis

1. The moonbeams fell through the upper part of the casement, partially lighting up the antiquated apartment.
2. There was a sloping lawn, a fine stream winding at the foot of it, and a track of park beyond, with noble clumps of trees, and herds of deer.
3. He was evidently most solicitous about the musical part of the service, keeping his eyes fixed intently on the choir, and beating time with much emphasis.
4. Therefore, on every morrow, are we wreathing  
A flowery band to bind us to the earth.
5. He pointed with pleasure to the indications of good cheer reeking from the chimneys of the comfortable farmhouses and low thatched cottages.
6. They made the times merrier and kinder and better.
7. The great picture of the crusader and his white horse had been profusely decorated with greens for the occasion.
8. Why should all virtue work in one and the same way?
9. How truly is a kind heart a fountain of gladness, making everything in its vicinity to freshen into smiles!
10. The effigy was said to get up from the tomb and walk the rounds of the churchyard in stormy nights.
11. The worthy Squire contemplated these fantastic sports, and this resurrection of his old wardrobe, with the simple relish of childish delight.

12. My friend and I having stayed nearly four hours, a time quite sufficient to express a proper sense of the honor, we departed.
13. There was a noble way, in former times, of saying things simply, and yet saying them proudly.
14. His varied occupations and amusements had made him well known throughout the neighborhood.
15. I could only hear now and then the distant voice of the priest repeating the morning service.
16. Time is ever silently turning over his pages.
17. Never within my memory has it been my good fortune to spend a pleasanter evening.
18. The ancients called beauty the flowering of virtue.
19. She made a desperate and unhappy attempt to maintain her power over her two sons.
20. This caused me to be placed under Mr. Wilkes, the second master out of four.
21. His only resource on such occasions, either to drown thought or drive away evil spirits, was to sing.
22. Our last midday's repast was taken under a grove of olive trees on the border of a rivulet.

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING  
TO NUMBER OF STATEMENTS:

## 2. COMPLEX SENTENCES

**276.** Our investigations have now included all the machinery of the simple sentence, which is the *unit of speech*.

Our further study will be in sentences which are combinations of simple sentences, made merely for convenience and smoothness, to avoid the tiresome repetition of short ones of monotonous similarity.

## 2. COMPLEX SENTENCES

Next to the simple sentence stands the **complex sentence**. The basis of it is two or more simple sentences, which are so united that one member is the main one – the backbone, so to speak – and the other members are subordinate to it, or dependent on it. These members we call *clauses* (cf. Sections 51 and 96).

**A complex sentence is one that has an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.** These may be called *principal* and *subordinate*.

The elements of a complex sentence are the same as those of the simple sentence; that is, each clause has a subject and a predicate, and may have an object, complement, modifiers, or independent elements.

But there is this difference: whereas the simple sentence always has a word or phrase for subject, object, complement, and modifier, the complex sentence has another *statement* or *clause* for one of these elements.

In beginning the analysis, it is best to treat the main clause as a simple sentence, having the dependent clauses as objects, complements, modifiers, etc. Then treat each subordinate clause as a simple sentences.

Consider the following complex sentence:

Whether Faith obeyed he knew not.

Taken as a simple sentence, *he* is the subject, *knew not* is the predicate, and the clause *whether Faith obeyed* is a subordinate clause acting as the direct object of *knew not*. In the subordinate clause, *Faith* is the subject, *obeyed* is the predicate, and *whether* is a subordinate conjunction connecting the clauses.

Dependent **clauses** are of three kinds: noun, adjective, and adverbial clauses, according as they are equivalent in use to nouns, adjectives or adverbs. **277.**

### DEPENDENT NOUN CLAUSES:

**The noun clause is one having the uses of a noun;** that is, it may be the subject, object, etc.

**(1) Subject:**

*Whatever outrages have happened to a man* may befall a man again.

**(2) Object:**

I will receive from them not *what they have*, but *what they are*.

**(3) Complement:**

The lessons which these observations convey is, "*Be, and not seem.*"

**(4) Appositional term** (cf. p. 13 and Section 29):

The alarm arose *that the English host were coming upon them*.

**(5) Object of a preposition:**

*Let them discriminate between what they remember and what they dreamed.*

**Exercise.** Write ten sentences to illustrate these uses of the noun clause, two sentences for each use.

**NOTE:** In certain clauses, only the connecting word is the object of a preposition. Such clauses are in fact adjective clauses, as in this example:

The upper end of the table was overshadowed by a canopy *beneath which* was a chair.

The words *which was a chair* do not constitute a noun clause, object of the preposition *beneath*; only the pronoun



## 2. COMPLEX SENTENCES

*which* is object of the preposition, and stands for the noun *canopy*. In fact, the entire clause modifies *canopy*.

A clause after introductory *it* and a verb may be analyzed in two ways. The clause may be considered the real subject, and *it* merely grammatical, or *it* may be called the real subject and the clause considered an appositional term. The following is an example: 278.

It seems to me *that you put yourself into the power of the evil*.

A clause used as direct object may follow a passive verb when the indirect object is made the subject, as:

*I was informed by Frank Bracebridge that the parson had been a chum of his father's at Oxford.*

Noun clauses used as subject, object, complement, or in apposition are frequently introduced by the **subordinate conjunctions** *that*, *if* and *whether*. These words are mere connectors and do not play a grammatical role within the clause they introduce. For example: 279.

It seems a pity *that* we can only spend it once.

We do not believe *that* he left any worthy man his foe who had ever been his friend.

Let us see *whether* the greatest, the wisest, the purest-hearted of all ages are agreed in any wise on this point.

Who can tell *if* Washington be a great man or no?

Noun clauses may also be introduced by **conjunctive words which constitute at the same time an element in the clause itself**. Such are the **conjunctive adverbs**, *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*. For example:

I do not remember when I was taught to read. [The conjunctive adverb *when* modifies taught, and also connects the clauses.]

Likewise, the **pronouns** or **pronominal adjectives** *who*, *which*, and *what* may introduce noun clauses while fulfilling an office in the clause. In most cases the last three are used to introduce indirect questions. For example:

His head looked like a weathercock perched upon his spindle neck to tell *which* way the wind blew.

**Indefinite relative pronouns** – *whoever*, *whatever*, etc., having in the context no specific antecedent – may also introduce noun clauses. For example:

*Whoever* has flattered his friend successfully must at once consider himself a knave, and his friend a fool. [*Whoever* is the subject of the noun clause, which is itself the subject of the verb *must consider*; *whoever* has no determined antecedent, but means “anyone who...”]

Often the clause has **no introductory word**, as:

It is said *all martyrdoms looked mean* when they were suffered.

Especially common is the omission when a direct quotation is used as a noun clause, as:

*“Then it is a very foolish question,”* said he.

A conjunctive word is also omitted when the main clause is inserted between two parts of the dependent clause, as:

*Such trifles, I truly feel, afford no solid basis for a literary reputation.*

## DEPENDENT ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

**Adjective clauses** always modify a substantive **280.** word, hence they are not divided into classes.

The connectives introducing them are:

(1) **Relative pronouns**—*who, which, that*, as:

He turned his eyes upon the withered face *that was puckering itself into a smile.*

Notice that the relative pronoun is often omitted:

Every line [*that* or *which*] we can draw in the sand has expression.

(2) **Subordinate conjunctions**—*when, where, why, how, whether, if, that*, etc., as:

*At the hour when I first drew breath this plant sprang from the soil.*

**Exercise.** Write five sentences having adjective clauses introduced by relative pronouns, and five introduced by subordinate conjunctions.

## DEPENDENT ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

**An adverbial clause is one used as the modifier 281.** of a verb, adverb, or adjective, and may modify a phrase or clause in the manner of an adverb.

**Adverbial clauses** are usually introduced by subordinate conjunctions, and a review of these may be helpful:

(1) **Time:**

We had not been long home *when the sound of music was heard from a distance.*

**(2) Place:**

*Wherever the English stagecoach-man may be seen, he can not be mistaken for one of any other craft.*

**(3) Manner:**

*We were put into our bodies as a fire is put into a pan to be carried about.*

**(4) Cause or reason:**

*As it was the only monument of the kind in that part of the country, it had always been regarded with feelings of superstition.*

**(5) Degree or comparison:**

*They all become wiser than they were.*

*Master Simon was in as chirping a humor as a grasshopper filled with dew [is].*

*The more we told of our troubles, the more they clung to the shelter of their houses.*

Of two clauses introduced by *the...the*, the first is usually the subordinate. The articles here mean, "by how much...by so much."

**(6) Purpose:**

*That he might make his appearance in the true style of a cavalier, he borrowed a horse.*

**(7) Result:**

*Every man should be so much an artist that he could report what bad befallen him.*

**(8) Condition:**

## 2. COMPLEX SENTENCES

*If I should ever wish for a retreat, I know of none more promising than this little valley.*

*Were I to adopt a pet idea, it would be that the great need which mankind labors under at this present period is—sleep!*

### (9) **Concession:**

*Though he had seen many specters in his time, yet daylight put an end to all these evils.*

**Exercise.** Illustrate the above classes of adverbial clauses by writing two sentences for each class.

A contracted clause should be completed before the analysis is begun; as: **282.**

Often *while [I have been] picking my way along the street after a heavy shower*, I have been scandalized.

The Hall of Fantasy is likely to endure longer *than the most substantial edifice [will endure]*.

## ANALYSIS OF THE ELEMENTS OF COMPLEX SENTENCE

Since we know all the elements of a simple sentence, we are able to analyze every element of a complex sentence, as well. **283.**

(1) We begin by treating it as a simple sentence and telling what whether it is declarative, interrogative, or imperative, and whether it expresses an exclamation.

(2) Then we identify which words form the principal or main clause, setting aside for the moment those elements which are dependent clauses and treating them as simple modifiers, objects, complements, etc.

(4) Next, we classify the dependent clauses, telling what element each one stands for, or the nature of the clause (noun, adjective, or adverbial clause); we may tell more specifically the form of the clause (the introductory word); and finally the exact office of the clause in the sentence (the office as noun, the class and word modified as adverb, or the word modified as adjective).

(5) Each dependent clause may then be considered as a simple sentence, if we wish to find its subject, predicate, and subordinate elements, following the steps in Section 275.

### Complex Sentences for Analysis

1. People should think of these matters before they trust themselves on a pleasure party.
2. There were circumstances around me which made it difficult to view the world precisely as it exists.
3. "You will think better of this by and by," said his acquaintance, composedly.
4. Now come hints, growing more and more distinct, that the owner of the old house was pining for his native air.
5. All that I had to show were these few tales and essays which had blossomed out like flowers in the calm summer of my heart and mind.
6. When the festivity of the banquet was at its most ethereal point, the Clerk of the Weather was observed to steal from the table and thrust his head between the purple and golden curtains of one of the windows.
7. There is this peculiarity in such a solitude—that the traveler knows not who may be concealed by the innumerable trunks and the thick boughs overhead.
8. The more we kept each other's company, the greater coxcombs we mutually grew.
9. One plant had wreathed itself round a statue, which was thus veiled and shrouded in a drapery of hanging

## 2. COMPLEX SENTENCES

- foliage so happily that it might have served a sculptor for a study.
10. He was trying to discover why one leaf grew in this shape and another in that, and wherefore such and such flowers differed in hue and perfume.
  11. There was one shrub, set in a marble vase in the midst of the pool, that bore a multitude of purple blossoms, each of which had the luster and richness of a gem.
  12. With all the tenderness in her manner that was so strikingly expressed in her words, she busied herself with such attentions as the plant seemed to require.
  13. It vexed him all the more because he could have sworn, were such a thing possible, that he recognized the voices.
  14. As she came down the garden-path it was observable that she handled and inhaled the odor of plants which her father had most sedulously avoided.
  15. Soon emerged from under a sculptured portal the figure of a young girl arrayed with as much richness of taste as the most splendid of the flowers, beautiful as the day, and with a bloom so deep and vivid that one shade more would have been too much.
  16. The elder traveler discoursed so aptly that his arguments seemed rather to spring up in the bosom of his auditor than to be suggested by himself.
  17. You have heard of this daughter, whom all the young men in Padua are wild about.
  18. There is no other feeling like what is caused by the faint, doubtful yet real perception.
  19. They think that to be great is to possess one side of nature—the sweet, without the other side, the bitter.
  20. The fiend in his own shape is less hideous than when he rages in the breast of man.
  21. Thou shalt be paid exactly for what thou hast done.
  22. I no longer wish to meet a good I do not earn, for example, to find a pot of buried gold.

23. What we buy in a broom, a mat, a wagon, is some application of good sense to a common want.
24. We do not see that angels only go out that archangels may come in.
25. Punishment is a fruit that unsuspected ripens within the flower of the pleasure which concealed it.

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING  
TO NUMBER OF STATEMENTS:

### 3. COMPOUND SENTENCES

- 284.** The compound sentence is a combination of two or more simple or complex sentences. While the complex sentence has only *one* main clause, the compound has *two or more* independent clauses making statements, questions or commands.

**The compound sentence is one which contains two or more independent clauses.**

This definition leaves room for any number of subordinate clauses in a compound sentence: the requirement is simply that it have at least two independent clauses.

There are three possibilities for compound sentences:

**1. Simple sentences united:**

He had not left his resting place; their steps on the soundless snow he could not hear.

**2. Simple with complex:**

She paused; she saw the dreadful wildernesses of snow which already she had traversed.

**3. Complex with complex:**



### 3. COMPOUND SENTENCES

Sleep is sometimes the secret chamber in which Death arranges his machinery: sleep is sometimes that deep, mysterious atmosphere in which the human spirit is slowly unsettling its wings for flight.

Compound sentences therefore simply combine elements which we have already studied.

**Exercise.** Write two compound sentences of each types.

A review of Sections 217 and 218 in the chapter on Conjunctions will help the student in the study of compound sentences. Independent clauses are introduced by coordinate conjunctions, such as *and*, *nor*, *or*, *but*, *hence*, *therefore*, and *still*. 285.

However, care must be taken lest a complex sentence be mistaken for a compound sentence; the conjunction may seem to introduce an independent clause when in reality a subordinate conjunction is omitted, the coordinate conjunction then connecting two dependent clauses, as:

These little old volumes impressed me as if they had been intended for very large ones, but [*as if they*] had been blighted at an early stage of their growth.

It is important to judge by the logical connection of the members of the sentence rather than by the form of the conjunction, because certain words may be conjunctions, adverbs or prepositions depending on their use (*but*, *for*, *yet*, *while*, *however*, *whereas*, etc.). Likewise, certain conjunctions may be either subordinate or coordinate.

Section 217 explains that coordinate conjunctions have a certain adverbial quality – expressing opposition in thought, for example, or a causal relation; for this reason, they may mistakenly be thought to introduce subordinate adverbial clauses. It is important to

discern whether the entire clause is used as an adverb modifying an element in another clause, or whether it may stand alone as a complete thought and therefore an independent clause in a compound sentence.

- 286.** The main divisions of the compound sentence, that is, the simple or complex sentences of which it is composed, are called its *members*. The placing of the coordinate conjunctions or the division of the sentence by punctuation will usually guide one in separating the sentence into its main members, as:

*A third day came; and whether it was on that or on the fourth I do not recollect; but on one or the other there came a welcome gleam of hope. [This sentence has three members: simple; complex; simple].*

- 287.** Compound sentences may be contracted by the omission of subject or predicate, or both, as:

1. Yet not that storm was final, nor [*was*] that eclipse total.
2. According to the popular notion, he had no crown for himself; consequently [*he had*] none to lend.

- 288.** To analyze a compound sentence, follow the same steps as for a simple or a complex sentence. We identify the kind of sentence (*declarative, interrogative, or imperative*, and whether or not it is *exclamatory*). Then we separate the sentence into its main divisions, or members, and identify the elements of each simple or complex member as indicated in Sections 275 and 283, respectively.

### Compound Sentences For Analysis

1. Wait a little, my reader; give me time and I will tell you all.

### 3. COMPOUND SENTENCES

2. Upon that opening he spoke to my mother; and the result was that, within seven days from the above conversation, I found myself entering the university.
3. It must have been nearly midnight; but so slowly did I creep along that I heard a clock in a cottage strike four before I turned down the lane to Eton.
4. And now they pause; and the sweet voices of the choir break out into sweet gushes of melody: they soar aloft and warble along the roof, and seem to play about these lofty vaults like the pure airs of heaven.
5. At length all is over; the redoubt has been recovered; that which was lost is found again.
6. He did not wish, it seemed, to mortify me by an absolute refusal; for, after a little consideration, he promised, under certain circumstances, which he pointed out, to give his security.
7. He had been furnished with letters of recommendation to a gentleman who might have assisted him; but when he landed at Fort St. George he found that this gentleman had sailed for England.
8. Painters do not like white cottages, unless a good deal weather-stained; but, as the reader now understands that it is a winter night, his services will not be required except for the inside of the house.
9. By this route they went; and notwithstanding the snow lay on the ground, they reached their destination in safety.
10. No shout, it may be supposed, was ever heard; nor could a shout, in any case, have been heard, for the night was one of tempestuous wind.
11. Few enough, and scattered enough, were these abbeys, so as in no degree to disturb the deep solitude of the region; yet many enough to spread a network or awning of Christian sanctity over what else might have seemed a heathen wilderness.

12. The man certainly did utter the jest, seventeen hundred and fifty years ago; but who it was that he stole it from is another question.
13. The Saxon is the aboriginal element—the basis, and not the superstructure; consequently it comprehends all the ideas which are natural to the heart of man.
14. You, if you are brilliant like themselves, they will hate; you, if you are dull, they will despise.
15. We will not at present go into the general question of education; but will confine our remarks to the subject which is immediately before us.
16. Other men say wise things as well as he; only they say a good many foolish things, and do not know when they have spoken wisely.
17. The only end of teaching is, that men may learn; and it is idle to talk of the duty of teaching truth in ways which only cause men to cling more firmly to falsehood.

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