A GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE
PARTS OF SPEECH
and
ACCIDENCE

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PREFACE

This volume of the Grammar contains Parts of Speech and Accidence. The two subjects are closely related and are here treated together. The purpose of the treatise is to describe fully the parts of English speech and their changes of form to express thought. The word 'form' does not mean today what it did in the Old English period. It was then associated with the idea of a change of endings to express thought. Most of the old endings have disappeared. The old syntactical framework remains intact, but the grammatical forms, case and verbal endings, have been greatly reduced. This was effected by employing simpler means of expression. For instance, today we often express a change of thought, not by changing the endings, but by changing the position of the words: 'The hunter (subject) killed the bear' (object), but 'The bear (subject) killed the hunter' (object). Thus position is an important modern English grammatical form. Often, however, we now express our thought without the aid of a grammatical form: I go, you go, we go, they go. The verb here does not express person or number. We feel that the context makes our thought clear. Thus context plays a rôle in our modern English. In this volume the author has tried very hard to gather together and put into orderly shape everything known to him about English grammatical form or English lack of it.

Form now plays a much less important part in the language than in Old English, but it is playing a greater rôle than in early Modern English. The simplification of our English, our most precious heritage, was carried a little too far in older English, and it was later found necessary to add more forms, and in the present interesting period of development still more are being created. This will become evident from the study of the Parts of Speech and Accidence presented in this volume. The loss of inflection in the adjective in Middle English made it impossible to make from adjectives distinctive pronominal forms, so that it became necessary to create a new grammatical form, namely, 'one,' to indicate the pronominal relation: 'every child,' but 'every one (in older
English simple every) of the children.' This construction first appeared in the thirteenth century, but it is in the modern period that it has done most of its growing. Moreover, it is still growing. In this book there is a good deal said of this 'one.' But the most marked feature in the growth of modern English forms is the amazing activity in the field of the verb, which is carefully described in Accidence. Not only entirely new structures have been reared but new life has been injected into older creations that were living but feebly. In the modern period the English people has shown its love of activity not only by establishing empires all over the world but also by creating new forms of the verb so that it can talk about the things that it is conceiving and doing. And the marvel of it all is the simplicity of these new forms of expression. In order that the reader might get a clear idea of the importance attached to form in the different periods of English, an outline of the Old English and Middle English inflections of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs has been given, also an insight into the reduced condition of adjectival and pronominal forms in early Modern English and their later gradual increase.

In Accidence there has been presented a rather full view of the great fluctuation in the use of our verbal forms earlier in the present period. In a number of cases there is still fluctuation here, and in some words it will be a long while before final results are reached and a uniform usage is attained. The English-speaking peoples have never planned and regulated the development of their language as they do their economic development. They wisely muddle along to greater stability and accuracy of expression. There is in fact here a very fine natural regulation — the survival of the fittest. Aptness of expression has a strong appeal, spreads, and finally becomes fixed in the language. But also caprice plays a rôle here. At a few points the choice of a final form from different competing rivals has fallen out differently in England and America. Moreover, American English sometimes preserves older forms, while British English abandons them for newer ones. In spite, however, of the considerable fluctuation in present usage in the best literature and the many variations in different countries and different social strata, there is much to rejoice over. Looking backward at early Modern English as described in this book, we can plainly see what tremendous gains have been made in the direction of uniformity of usage. There has been much
progress also toward greater accuracy of expression. For a long while the trend has been toward better things.

As an individual grows from childhood to maturity, he has to enlarge his apparel. In the same manner the language of an individual grows with his developing mental power. Similarly, the language of a people unfolds with its developing intellectual strength. Each generation embodies in its speech its own growth and bequeaths the improved means of expression to the next generation for further improvement. Any attempt to check the development of the language and give it a fixed, permanent form is misdirected energy, and, moreover, as foolish as to attempt to arrest physical or mental growth. The great principle of life is growth and development.

Hence, the formulations of usage in Parts of Speech, Accidence, and Syntax are presented, not as fixed rules but as the description of the means employed by English-speaking people to express their thought and feeling. These means are not represented as fixed but as ever changing and developing as the result of the long struggles of the English mind in its unfolding intellectual life to express itself more fully and more simply. Glimpses of important older developments are given here and there throughout the Grammar in order that the reader may obtain an insight into the forces that have been at work shaping English. A careful study of these older developments will enable him to understand his heritage better and will give him a clearer idea of his own relation to it. The story of these older struggles for more complete or more simple expression should be of especial interest to those who are now forming their habits of expression, for this struggle has now become theirs, and the further shaping of the language will soon lie in their hands.

The author has, perhaps, stressed too strongly the conception of English as a development reflecting our inner life and struggles. We are not free to replace older formations by newer ones that express our thought and feeling more fully. It is widely felt as sacrilege to tamper with this inheritance. To countless thousands an inexpressive older type of expression is better than an expressive new one. Fortunately, there are always many who yield to the urge to say just what they think and feel, also many who recognize the charm of well-spoken words. Those who are acquainted with the history of our language know that forceful and accurate expres-
sion, though frequently gaining ground only slowly against prej-
udice and unwise conservatism, often in the course of the centuries
wins recognition.

It is hoped that the many glimpses of older English presented in
this book will help to divest our inherited speech of its mystic
character. These glimpses will reveal our forefathers, not as demigods but as human beings like ourselves, often vacillating, some-
times blundering, even the best of them, but in the main trying to
say what they thought and felt, employing the best means at hand,
at times in their endeavor to attain to greater accuracy or simplic-
ity daring even to make radical changes in their inherited means
of expression, more radical than any we have ever dreamed of.

Everywhere throughout this book the American and the British
literary usage of the immediate present have been put into the
foreground as the principal objects of study, but the usage of the
earlier parts of the Modern English period has been treated with
considerable care, as the great masterpieces of these centuries are
still read and thus belong to our world. English before the six-
teenth century is only occasionally introduced, to throw light upon
present usage or to give an insight into the forces that have shaped
our language. In older English there were two literary standards
—the southern and the northern British standard. Northern
British no longer exists as a common literary language, but before
disappearing it influenced southern British, which was to become
the common British standard. The old northern standard sur-
vives also in many respects in current northern British dialects
and in a considerable body of dialectic literature of permanent
value. Earlier in the present period northern British influenced
our American English through immigrants from the northern part
of Ireland and Great Britain.

The present language of the common people — here called
popular speech — is often treated in this book as presenting inter-
esting features of current English, having on its conservative side
relations with our older literary language and in its newer develop-
ments influencing our present colloquial and literary English.
Considerable attention has been given also to colloquial speech,
which in its place is as good English as the literary language is in
its place. Our expression should vary according to the occasion,
just as our dress varies according to the occasion. Many teachers
would replace colloquial speech by the literary standard. If this
should ever take place there would be no distinctive literary form
for higher purposes, which would be the greatest calamity that
could befall us.

The author's heavy indebtedness to others in the preparation
of *Parts of Speech* and *Accidence* is the same as for his work *Syntax*,
and is described in the preface to *Syntax*, but, moved by a feeling
of profound gratitude, he desires to reacknowledge here his heavy
indebtedness to the great *Oxford Dictionary* and the large English
Grammars of Jespersen, Poutsma, and Kruisinga. As the present
volume rests upon fact it was necessary for its author during the
long period of its construction to be constantly drawing upon these
great stores of fact. For a long period he has himself been dili­
gently reading in the literature of England and America to get a
clear, independent view of present English usage and its historical
development, but he could not have written this book without the
aid of these great European scholars. Of course, he is indebted also
to other scholars, both European and American. The growing
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owes much to his associates and friends, especially Professor
Leopold and Dr. Goedsche of Northwestern University, with whom
he has discussed, over and over again, the difficult problems of this
volume.

The author desires here to thank those who have helped him
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PARTS OF SPEECH
CHAPTER I

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1. There are eight parts of speech: noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

THE NOUN

1. Definition. A noun, or substantive, is a word used as the name of a living being or lifeless thing: Mary, John, horse, cow, dog; hat, house, tree; London, Chicago; virtue.

2. Classification. There are different classes of nouns:

1. **Common Nouns.** A common noun is a name that can be applied to any one of a class of living beings or lifeless things: teacher, student, mayor, president, king, man, lion, tiger, cow; house, tree, city, country, etc. Such nouns are called also class nouns. These nouns usually have a plural.

To emphasize nouns, especially common nouns, and impart feeling to the statement, we often, in colloquial speech, place before the noun some intensive adjective, such as blessed, blooming, deuced, confounded, darn (or darned), or in stronger language damned: 'Not a blessed egg was fresh,' or 'Every blessed egg was rotten.' 'She is a deuced deial cleverer than lots of men.' 'He's a confounded blockhead.' 'He's a damned fool.'

2. **Proper Nouns.** A proper noun is the name of a particular living being or lifeless thing: Mary, John, Longfellow, Shakespeare,
Carlo (name of a dog); Chicago, London, England, Pennsylvania, January, Friday, Christmas, Macbeth (name of a general), 'Macbeth' or Macbeth (name of a drama), Hamlet (name of a prince), 'Hamlet' or Hamlet (name of a drama), etc. 'The Woods (members of the Wood family) are our best friends.' 'The Cummingses (the members of the Cummings family) will give a reception this evening.' 'The Greeks have contributed much to the civilization of the world.' 'The Germans are industrious.'

In the last four examples the proper nouns are in the plural, but they are not on that account common nouns, as claimed by some grammarians. The use of the definite article is significant. It indicates a distinct group in its entirety. In the general class of man each of these groups is a particular group representing something single in kind, a particular family or a particular nation. The members of a particular group are each single in kind, hence not marked by common characteristics. Also 'the rich' and 'the poor' represent distinct groups, but they are not particular groups, for the members of each group are gathered together on the basis of common characteristics.

As described in 5 below, however, proper nouns are often used as common nouns: a Packard (car), a Shakespeare (a great dramatist). Such nouns are common nouns, for we regularly, as in the case of common nouns, drop the article before the plural form when we desire to generalize: 'Packards stand a good deal of rough usage.' 'Shakespeares are not common in every generation.'

We employ the definite article with proper noun plurals when we desire to generalize: 'The Cummingses are always on the side of good government.' 'The Negroes have made a good deal of progress since their emancipation.' 'In earlier centuries the Christians were much persecuted.' When, however, the idea of class, i.e. a division upon the basis of common characteristics, enters into these plurals, the article is dropped, as in common nouns: 'Christians shouldn't do such things.' The definite article with proper noun plurals, often, merely denotes totality: 'The Cummingses have left town for their summer home.' We express the partitive idea by dropping the definite article: 'You will find Cummingses active in the various benevolent activities of our city.' The indefinite article is used for an indefinite reference to one member of a particular group: 'I never knew a Cummings to stand in the way of progress.' But in 'He is a Cummings through and through' Cummings is a common noun, for it represents a person as assigned to a class upon the basis of his having the common characteristics of the class.

Proper noun plurals often represent not particular groups but
particular individuals: the Carolinas (North Carolina and South Carolina). 'There were three Johns and four Marys in our party.'

There are proper noun plurals that have no singular form: the Alps, the Alleghenies, the Rockies, the Hebrides. They represent definite groups.

Many proper nouns were originally common nouns: Baker, Taylor, Smith, Fisher, etc.

3. Mass Nouns. A noun may be not only the name of a thing with a definite form but also the name of a formless mass, a material, here called a mass noun: tea, wheat, sand, water, iron, gold, paper (but with a different meaning in 'this morning's paper'). In 'a pretty lamb' lamb is the name of a definite thing, but in 'We had lamb for dinner' it is a mass noun. Mass nouns do not usually have a plural, but with changed meaning they often have a plural form. See Syntax, 59 4.

4. Collective Nouns. A noun may be the name of a collection of living beings or lifeless things, here called a collective noun: nation, army, crowd, 'a herd of cattle,' 'a row of trees,' 'a chain of mountains,' etc. For the use and the meaning of the singular and the plural of this class of nouns see Syntax, 59 1.

A collective noun may by a change in meaning become a common class noun: 'The principal has a very fine library' (collective noun), but 'The principal discussed the question with the committee in his library' (common noun). On the other hand, a common noun may by a change in meaning become a collective noun: 'A foreign body (common noun) in the ear may be very dangerous' (Grattan, Our Living Language, p. 111), but 'What a fine body (collective noun) of men!' (ib.).

5. Abstract Nouns. A noun may be the name of a quality, state, action, or general idea, here called an abstract noun: force, peace; hardness, kindness, formed from the adjectives hard, kind by the addition of the suffix -ness; warmth (warm + -th); youth (young + -th = young state), but a concrete common noun in a youth and a collective noun in 'the youth of the land'; friendship (friend + -ship), manhood, bondage, servitude, slavery, hatred, fraternity (but a concrete collective noun in 'the members of this fraternity'), formed from nouns; stroke (from strike), throw, growth, growing, singing, scolding, increase, decrease, formed from verbs; many names of general ideas: music, art, chemistry (but concrete in 'the chemistry lying upon the table'), grammar (but concrete in 'the grammar lying upon the table'). Abstract nouns do not usually have a plural, but with changed meaning they often have a plural form: 'The enemy brought up fresh forces' (= troops). For fuller treatment see Syntax, 59 5.
4. Common Noun Used as a Proper Noun. A common noun is often employed as a proper noun: ‘We live at the Eagle’ (name of a hotel). ‘Ask Father whether we may go.’ ‘He is a Wrangler’ (member of the society called ‘Wranglers’). ‘They are both Wranglers.’ ‘He is a Democrat’ (member of the Democratic party), but ‘He is a democrat’ (an adherent of democracy). A common noun often becomes a proper noun through personification: ‘Speak, O Star, thy secrets old.’

5. Proper Noun Used as a Common Noun. A proper noun may often be employed as a common noun: ‘Virgil was the Homer (i.e. great epic poet) of the Romans.’ ‘He was a Napoleon of finance.’ ‘She was a regular Xantippe’ (an ill-tempered woman, originally the name of Socrates’ wife). ‘Lend me your Webster’ (dictionary). ‘He bought a Packard (automobile) yesterday.’ ‘He has just sold two Packards.’ Compare 3 2 above.

6. Compound Nouns. In the case of both common and proper nouns a group of two or more nouns often forms a unit, a compound: toothpick, tablecloth, sidewalk; George Washington, the Black Sea, James Russell Lowell; the White House, the Northshore Hotel, ‘Vanity Fair’ or Vanity Fair (novel by Thackeray), etc. Notice that we do not always write real compounds as one word.

A long stem vowel in the first component of a compound is shortened in a few words where the first component is a monosyllable: bûnfîre (bone + fire), breakfast (brékfast = break + fast), fôrehead (fôre + head), shëpherd (sheep + herd), etc. This principle was once more active in our language than now. There are also elsewhere traces of it. Compare a below, 2nd par.

The formation of compound nouns is treated at considerable length in Syntax, 63 under the head of Group-Words and again in Word-Formation.

a. Derivative Nouns. Similar to compound nouns are derivative nouns, i.e. nouns formed by adding to a common or proper noun, an adjective, or a verb, a suffix which in many cases was originally an independent word. These suffixes are: –ness, –ship, –dom, –th, –er, –ing (suffix of gerund; see 56 3 c), –ess (28), etc.; the diminutive endings –kin, –ling, –ette, –let, –ie, –y, which are also much used to express endearment: darkness, friendship, wisdom, Christendom, warmth, finder, writing, heiress; lambkin, gosling, kitchenette, rivulet, kitty, Kitty, Katzie, Birdie, etc.

A long vowel in a monosyllabic stem is shortened in a few of these derivatives: knôublede (knôw + –ledge), widîth (wide + –th), wis–dom (wîse + –dom), etc. This principle of shortening a long vowel in the stem syllable when another element is added has been illustrated also in 6 (2nd par.). It is most active in verbs: keep,
kēpt, kēpt. Compare 59 2 B c. On the other hand, the long vowel of a monosyllabic word may become short under the influence of a derivative with shortened vowel. In the eighteenth century the noun wind was still pronounced wīnd. A common derivative of this word was wīndy with shortened vowel. Under the influence of wīndy 'wind' has become 'wind.' The old long form survives in the verb wīnd ('wīnd a horn'). Compare wind in 63.

The formation of derivative nouns is treated at considerable length in Word-Formation.
CHAPTER II
THE PRONOUN

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7. Definition and Classification. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. As a pronoun always has the same syntactical functions as a noun some grammarians say it is not a distinct part of speech. But as it often has a marked distinctiveness of form and usually shows peculiarities of usage it is quite clear that it is a distinct part of speech. Although it is never the name of a person or thing, as is a noun, yet it has to do with nouns in that it is used instead of a noun that is used elsewhere or is suggested by the context. Thus it permits us to avoid the unpleasant repetition of a noun or the unnecessary naming of a person that is already known. It is a formal convenience of great importance.

There are seven classes of pronouns, two of them with subdivisions.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

These pronouns are: I, me, thou, thee, he, him, she, her, it; we, us, ye, you, they, them. For politeness' sake the pronoun of the first person stands last when used in connection with other pronouns: 'He, you, and I had better do it.' 'It is important for you and me to be there.'

The speaker employs I or me instead of his own name, or, when he includes others, he uses we or us: 'I know it.' 'He knows me.' 'We know it.' 'He knows us.'

You is used in direct address instead of the name of the person spoken to: 'You know it.'

He, she, it, they, them, are used instead of nouns that have been previously mentioned: 'I shall talk with Henry about the matter this evening and shall discuss it (referring to the antecedent matter) with him' (referring to the antecedent Henry). 'Henry found that he (referring to the antecedent Henry) was mistaken.' 'Henry and James found that they (referring to the antecedents Henry and James) were mistaken.' 'John said that he didn't do it, and I believe it' (referring to the antecedent that he didn't do it).

These pronouns always have an antecedent, i.e. a noun, pronoun, clause, or sentence to which they refer. Sometimes such is used with the force of it, they, or them. See 7 VII c a a. Sometimes it refers to a person: 'Would you like to marry Malcolm? Fancy being owned by that! Fancy seeing it every day!' See 33 b. Sometimes, like the relative which (7 IV a b b), it is used to denote a quality, state, rank, dignity: 'She is a queen and looks it.' Compare 33 b.
My, mine, thy, thine, his, hers, its, our, ours, your, yours, their, theirs, were once used as personal pronouns, as the genitive forms to I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they, and are sometimes still so used. See Syntax, 10 II 2 D (last par.), and Syntax, 57 5 a. They are now usually possessive adjectives (10 1) and possessive pronouns (7 VII e). For fuller information see Syntax, 57 5 a.

a. Demonstrative 'The Same' Used as Personal Pronoun. In older English the demonstrative the same (7 VII b) was often used as the equivalent of a personal pronoun — he, she, it, they: ‘But he who shall endure unto the end, the same (= he) shall be saved’ (Matthew, XXIV, 13). ‘The natives, thinking we were determined to pay not the least consideration, at length ceased to apply for the same’ (Cook’s Voyage, V. 1755, A.D. 1772–1784), now it. This usage survives in legal and commercial language.

b. Adverb Used instead of Personal Pronoun. Where the reference was to things it was common in Old, Middle, and early Modern English to employ a compound adverb instead of a personal pronoun preceded by a preposition: ‘Mr. Sherleys letters were very breefe in answer of theirs this year. I will forbear to copy any part therof’ (Bradford, History of Plymouth Plantation, p. 303, A.D. 1630–1648). Similarly: therewith, therefor, thereon, thereupon, etc. Therefore (= on account of that) has become differentiated from therefór in spelling, pronunciation, and meaning, hence has been retained as a useful new word, but the other compounds, apart from legal and poetical language, are now little used. We feel the pronominal forms as clearer and more concrete. For instance, in the example from Bradford the adverbial form therof, as adverbs in general, cannot express the plural idea contained in the context and is much more abstract than the pronominal form of them, which impresses us today as delightfully concrete as against the vague thereof.

In older English, hence or from hence and thence or from thence often had the force of from it, them, and in literary style are sometimes still so used: ‘My Flora was my sun . . . All other faces borrowed hence Their light and grace’ (Suckling, Love’s World, II, A.D. 1641). ‘They went into one tent and carried thence silver and gold and raiment’ (II Kings, VII, 8). ‘A leopard shall watch over their cities: everyone that goeth out thence shall be torn in pieces’ (Jeremiah, V, 6).

c. Forms Used for Reference to Preceding Idea. When the reference is to the general idea contained in a preceding word, clause, or sentence, the pronoun employed is it, or where there is more or less emphasis to be conveyed the demonstrative pronouns (7 VII b) this, that, or sometimes still as in older English, such, which are
used as emphatic personal pronouns: 'I have more than once had the pleasure of meeting him, but he has doubtless forgotten it.' 'Do thou grant, Lord, That, when wrongs are to be redressed, such (or now more commonly it or this) may be done with mildness' (Bailey, Festus, 77, A.D. 1845). 

'Many were accordingly of the opinion that the army should take this course and abandon the original destination to Caxamalca. But such (now more commonly this) was not the decision of Pizarro' (Prescott, The Conquest of Peru, Book III, Ch. III). 'Both Edith and I were delighted to hear that the trip had already done you and Nannie good. I was sure that such (more commonly this) would be the case' (Theodore Roosevelt, Letter to Henry Cabot Lodge, Aug. 8, 1908). 'I would be entirely willing to be presented privately at court, or call on the leading public men in the different countries, if this did not involve foolish and elaborate functions' (ib.). 'I may have offended, but that (or sometimes such) was not my intention.' 'He does stare dreadfully, though, but I suppose all artists do that.' Compare Syntax, 7 C. If there are two references in the sentence to something that precedes and the idea is felt as important, this is used for the first reference and it is employed for the second since the idea has already been represented as important: 'He could not tell even his daughter that after such a life as this, after more than fifty years spent in the ministration of his darling cathedral, it especially behoved him to die — as he had lived — at Barchester. He could not say this to his eldest daughter; but had his Eleanor been at home, he could have said it to her' (Trollope, Last Chronicle, Ch. XLIX).

In the predicate relation, the adverb so competes here with that, it, and sometimes such: 'How the conversation took that particular turn I do not know, but só (or sometimes such) it was.' 'He is discouraged, and só am I.' 'M. Caillaux's return to the scene as the director of the financial affairs of his country was marked yesterday by the dismissal (for such it was) of M. Robineau, Governor of the Bank of France' (The New York Times, June 28, 1926). Sometimes both so and that or so and it are put to good use in the same sentence: 'Listen, friend — dear, dear friend . . . I may call you so, for you have been that to me.' 'She is shy, but it is a peculiarity of hers that she never looks it and yet is intensely so.' Similarly, so is often used as objective predicate, i.e. is predicated of an object: 'She made life interesting just because she found it so.' Compare Syntax, 7 C.

With reference to the thought contained in a preceding statement both it and so are used in the object relation, but it is positive and definite, while so lacks definiteness and is quite vague: 'He said
she must go, and he said it with a peculiar look of determination in his eyes,' but in answering the question 'Is he going?' we may say: 'He says so,' 'I think so,' 'I suppose so.' So is largely associated with certain verbs — be afraid, fear, believe, hear, hope, say, suspect, tell, think, trust, etc.: 'Are you going to come home late today?' 'I fear so.' So is very common after the pro-verb do, i.e. the do that is employed to avoid the repetition of a verb that has just been used: 'I haven't called on him yet, but I hope to do so soon.' Sometimes the statement referred to by so follows it: 'I have never, when I could have done so, taken the trouble to read original reviews of this little book' (Saintsbury, Essays, quoted from Kruisinga's Handbook of Present-Day English, II, p. 229). Compare Syntax, 11.2 b.

The adverbs or adverbial phrases hence or from hence and thence or from thence were once widely used, and in literary style are sometimes still used, instead of it, this, or that dependent upon a preposition: 'Learn courage hence!' (Pope, Odyssey, XII, 251, A.D. 1725) now usually from it, from this. 'They could present to Parliament everything which favored their own purposes, keep back everything which opposed them; and thence (now usually on account of that) more effectually deceive the nation' (James Mill, British India, II, v, ix, 702, A.D. 1817).

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

These pronouns are: myself, ourself (= myself; see 36 a), thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves. They refer to the subject of the proposition in which they stand, indicating that the action performed by the doer passes back to him, or is associated with him: 'He is worrying himself to death.' 'I am sitting by myself.' For the older forms, me, you, etc., which are still sometimes used here, see 36 and 36 a. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries its self was sometimes used instead of itself. In early Modern English, the older plural forms our self, your self, them self were still lingering, but were a little later replaced by ourselves, yourselves, themselves. Compare 36 a.

The reflexive form can refer only to the subject of the proposition or clause in which it stands: 'I know that he blames Hôward, not himself.' Hence, if the pronoun in the subordinate clause refers to the subject of the principal proposition, a personal pronoun is used: 'He knew that she despised him.' This usage has become well established in English, but it is sometimes disregarded: 'He judged they knew Hôward and not himself' (H. G. Wells, The Sleeper Awakes), instead of him. It is probable, however, that
the author, Mr. Wells, uses *himself* here as short for *him himself* (10 2); but the stress is not so strong but that a stressed simple *him* would suffice. This emphatic form in *-self* is older usage, but it is still quite common: 'Professor Ogburn denied that there had been a feud between *himself* and the chairman of the consumers' board' (The New York Times, Aug. 15, 1933). The more natural form in present usage is a simple personal pronoun. Notice in the subordinate clause of the following sentence the use of both personal pronoun and reflexive, each employed properly: 'When youth desired to become personal, or middle age showed a tendency to grow silly, she chilled them alike, and had the art to leave them not angry with *her*, but with *themselves* (Phillpotts, Beacon, I, Ch. I). Compare Syntax, 11 2 c.

With these reflexives the reference is definite. For indefinite reference we employ *oneself* or *one's self*, which are treated in 7 VII c.

### III. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

These pronouns are: *each other, one another*. They express mutual action or relation on the part of the persons indicated by the subject: 'These two never weary of *each other.*' For a more detailed treatment see 37. In early Modern English, *either other* was sometimes used instead of *each other*. See 37 b. For older forms which are still sometimes used here see 37 and 37 a.

### IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

There are two groups:

a. **Relative Pronouns with Antecedent.** The relative pronouns of this group, like the personal pronouns in I. above, have an antecedent, but they differ from them in two points. The personal pronouns may stand in either a principal or a subordinate clause, but these relative pronouns always stand in a subordinate adjective clause, where they have two offices to fill. They not only perform the function of a pronoun, referring back to the antecedent noun or pronoun, but they have also the function of a conjunction, i.e. they have conjunctive force, linking the subordinate clause to the principal clause. These relative pronouns are *who, which, that, as, but, but that, but what* (colloquial), the indefinites *whoever, whatever, and whichever*, and other less common forms enumerated in Syntax, 23 II 5: 'He makes no friend *who* never made a foe.' 'I have read the book *which* you lent me.' 'I met a *man that I knew.*' 'I had *the same trouble as you [had].*' 'He has *not such a large fortune as my brother [has].*’ 'Not a soul in the
auditorium or on the stage but what (or but or but that) lived consummately in those minutes’ (Arnold Bennett, *Leonora*, Ch. VI). ‘Someone in the crowd, whoever it was, demanded fair play.’ ‘He stumbled over something, whatever it was, and fell.’ ‘I’ll send you one of my boys, whichever of them (or whichever one) you prefer.’ ‘You may use either of the expressions, whichever sounds best to you.’ The antecedent is often the idea contained in some preceding word or words: ‘He is rich, which I unfortunately am not.’ ‘I said nothing, which made him still more furious.’ ‘The rain washed away the tracks, which prevented the trains from running.’ ‘He has a very fine auto, which accounts for his popularity among the girls.’ Compare 8 b (last par.). Where the reference is indefinite, whatever or whichever must be used: ‘He is one of the moderns, whatever that may mean.’ ‘The leper looked or listened, whichever he was doing, for some time.’ Compare Syntax, 23 II 5.

**aa. Older Relative Forms.** In Middle English who that was often used for simple who, and the which, which that for simple which. For detailed discussion of these forms see Syntax, 23 II 1, 2, 3. In early Modern English, the who was sometimes used for simple who, as in Shakespeare’s *Winter’s Tale*, IV, iv, 537, and the which for simple which, and indeed is sometimes still so used. See Syntax, 23 II 6 (4th and 6th parr.).

**bb. ‘Which’ Used for Reference to Persons.** In older English definite which, i.e. which with a definite antecedent, referred to both persons and things. In early Modern English this which could still refer to persons: ‘Our Father which art in heaven’ (Matthew, V, 9). ‘A couple of women, one of which leaned on the other’s shoulder’ (Goldsmith). This which now always refers to things. It often refers to a noun denoting a person, but the reference is not to a concrete person but to some quality in him, so that the reference is in reality to a thing: ‘He is exactly the man which such an education was most likely to form’ (Trollope). Compare Syntax, 23 II 7 (4th par.). On the other hand, the indefinite which in b below may refer to concrete persons. Compare b (last par.).

**cc. Relative Adverbs instead of Relative Pronouns.** We often use the relative adverbs where, whence (in choice language; in plain prose replaced by from which), whither (in choice language; in plain prose replaced by to which), when, why, and in older English also how (now replaced by in which) instead of the relative pronoun which preceded by a preposition: ‘We shall soon come to the house where (= in which) I live.’ ‘The old home is a place whither (in choice language; in plain prose to which) in thought I often go.’ ‘It is difficult to discover the source whence (in choice language;
in plain prose *from which*) these evils spring. 'There are times
*when* (= *at which*) he is very much discouraged.' 'I do not know
the reason *why* (= *for which*) he did it.' 'We perceive not the
ways and manner *how* (now *in which*) they are produc'd' (Locke,
*Human Understanding*, A.D. 1690). In older English, *there, there
as, and where as* were often used instead of *where.* See *Syntax,* 23
II 5 (near end, p. 223). *When* is used with reference to a preceding
statement: 'The whole nation was jubilant, *when,* like a bolt from
the blue, news arrived of a serious reverse.' 'I saw him a month
ago, since *when* I haven't seen anything of him.' In early Modern
English, *whether* was often employed instead of *whither.* In older
English, where the reference was to things, *where* often entered into
compounds with prepositions — *wherewith, whereon, whereupon,
whereof,* etc.: 'the bed *whereon* (now *on which*) he lay'; 'the con-
dition *whereof* (now *of which*) I spake.' Only one of these com-
ounds is a living form, namely, *whereupon,* which is still used in
narrative where the reference is to a preceding statement: 'He
refused to act with them, *whereupon* they ejected him from the
room.' The other adverbial forms, apart from legal and poetical
language, are now little used. Notice that in all these examples
the reference is definite.

The relative adverbs *when, where, whither,* came into common
use here for definite reference in the Middle English period. *When, where, whither,* could not usually be so used in Old English
since they at that time still had only indefinite or general force.
As they, toward the end of the Old English period, gradually ac-
quired more definite force, they became available for definite
reference. In Old English, however, it was not uncommon to
employ determinative adverbs instead of relative pronouns where
there was a reference to definite persons or things. The determi-
native adverb *þær* was used where we now use *where: 'on þære
byrig þær se cyning ofslaegen læg' (Old English Chronicle, A.D. 800)
= 'in the town *where* the King lay slain,' originally 'in the town,
*there: the King lay slain,*' the determinative *þær* pointing forward,
like an index finger, to the following explanatory clause. In wide
use was the determinative adverb *þe,* pointing forward to a follow-
ing explanatory clause. If there was a preposition used, it stood
immediately before the verb: 'mid þæm folce þe he ofer was' =
'with the people that he was placed over, had the command of,'
originally 'with the people, *those: he was placed over,*' the *þe*
pointing forward, like an index finger, to the following explanatory
clause. Compare 39.

dd. Relative Clause without Relative Pronoun. It is quite com-
mon in English to dispense with the relative forms altogether:
'Here is the book you lent me.' In fact, however, such clauses are not without a connective. In this sentence the definite article before book is a determinative that, like an index finger, points to the following explanatory clause. For fuller discussion see Syntax, 23 II.

b. Indefinite and General Relative Pronouns. The meaning here is always indefinite or general, hence there can be no reference to a definite antecedent; but these pronouns have the same conjunctive force as the relatives in a, linking the subordinate clause in which they stand to the rest of the sentence. These pronouns are: who, whoever, whosoever, whoso (archaic), what, whatever, whatsoever, whatso (archaic); what, what one, what ones, what(so)ever one(s), which, which one, which ones, which(so)ever one(s), indefinite relative adjectives (10 5 b) used as indefinite relative pronouns. These pronouns are most common in substantive clauses, i.e. in subject clauses and object clauses. The subject clause is the subject of the principal verb. The object clause is the object of the principal verb or the object of a preposition. Subject clause: 'It is not known to me who did it.' Object clause, object of the principal verb: 'I did not see whom he struck.' 'I do not know to whom he gave it.' 'He knows what I said.' 'But I never touched the cards, I took what were given me.' 'I told him which of the books I wanted.' 'Here are my roses. Pick whichever one(s) you like best.' Object clause, object of a preposition, preposition and object forming a unit called prepositional clause: 'I am glad to get these books, and I shall be grateful for whatever ones you may give me in the future.' A few additional examples follow, illustrating these constructions: 'Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well.' 'The two boys are equally bright, so that it is impossible for me to tell which of them is more promising.' 'The boys in our group are all such fine fellows that I can't tell you which one (or which ones) I like most.' 'I think that all the girls would dance with you, so that you may select whichever of them pleases you most.' 'I think that all the girls would dance with you, so that you may select from among them whichever one (or whichever ones) you like most.' 'As I have not read all the new books, I cannot tell you which (or more accurately which one or which ones) I like most.' 'Here are some new books. You may have whichever one (or whichever ones) you choose.' For other examples see 38 b. Indefinite and general relative pronouns are treated at still greater length in Syntax, 21 (2nd, 3rd, 4th parr.), 23 I, 24 III (3rd par.).

The pronouns in -ever are used also in adverbial concessive clauses: 'I am going whatever he may say.' 'He will find difficulties whichever of these ways he may take.' 'The task will be difficult
whichever of the brothers may undertake it.’ Compare 10 5 b, 15 2 i, 18 B 5.

In contrast to usage in a, which and whichever refer here to either a person or a thing — a survival of once universal usage. Compare a bb.

aa. Older Use of ‘Whether.’ In older English, whether was much used as an indefinite relative pronoun referring to two persons or things, sometimes with reference to three, and this older usage lingers on in archaic prose and in poetry: ‘Whether (now usually which) of the two was the stronger and the fiercer it would be hard to tell’ (Kingsley, The Heroes, II, II, 122, A.D. 1856). ‘We came in full View of a great Island or Continent (for we knew not whether)’ (Swift, Gulliver’s Travels, II, I, A.D. 1726), now ‘we knew not which.’ The form whether is now usually a conjunction. See 18 B 1, 2, 3, 4 a, 15 2 i.

V. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

When we desire to convey an indefinite or general impression, we often avoid the use of a noun and employ instead of it an indefinite pronoun. The following are the most common: somebody, anybody, everybody, nobody; something, somewhat, anything, everything, aught, nothing, naught or nought; a body (now little used, though once common), a person, a man, a fellow (colloquial), a chap (colloquial), all with the force of the indefinite pronoun one; a party, with the force of somebody, a person, originally a technical legal term, which later came into more general literary use with this broader meaning, now confined to employment in popular or jocular language; every man = everybody; no man = nobody; men; people; folks, in England folk, both now less common than formerly, giving place to people; the personal pronouns, we, you, they, as described in 33 g; a thing, things; whatever (see j below); muchwhat = many matters; a whit; a bit, a little bit, a good bit; a good deal; plenty, sometimes in American English and British dialect a plenty, a survival of older British usage; a host (literary); a number, a small number, a good number, a large number, any number (stronger than a good number), numbers, immense numbers; a lot or lots (colloquial); a heap or heaps (colloquial); no end; a world or worlds (colloquial); oceans; a sight (colloquial) = a lot; a heap sight (popular American English); a jolly sight (colloquial British); a smart chance, a smart, a right smart, or right smart, in American dialect = a considerable quantity or part; a hell (colloquial) expressing feeling = considerable; a power, once literary, now popular = a lot; a couple, usually two, but
in loose colloquial speech sometimes = *a small number*. In slang and dialect there are many others: *oodles, scads, stacks,* etc. = *lots*. In the literary language there are a number of pronouns associated with the negative form of statement: ‘He hasn’t the shadow of a claim, the ghost of a chance.’ ‘There’s not a shred of evidence.’ ‘It doesn’t make a particle of difference.’ Of course, some of the pronouns given above may be used after a negative: ‘He hasn’t a blessed (or single) bit of modesty.’ Many of these pronouns, or in the case of compounds their basal components, are old nouns that have in large measure lost their original concrete meaning.

Examples:

There was *somebody* here this morning to see you. 
I’ll offer to go if *anybody* else will. 
*Everybody* knows that. 
The effort to please *everybody* usually results in pleasing *nobody*. 
He has generally seen *something* of foreign countries. 
There was *something* of bustle as well as of sorrow all over the house. 
He liked to hear of their births, marriages, and deaths, and had *something* of a royal memory for faces. 
He was *something* of a humorist and dry joker. 
I must get you into bed at once — instantly or I shall have you down with pneumonia or *something* tomorrow. 
He broke his leg or *something* (i.e. some other part). 
I have *something* important (or ‘of importance’) to announce. 
He is *something* of a philosopher. 
Is there *anything* I can do for you? 
Has *anything* important (or ‘of importance’) happened lately? 
Have you seen *anything* of John lately? 
She is *anything* but (42 c aa) strong. 
*Everything* depends upon that. 
Pace is *everything*. 
The book did *everything* but sell. 
I know *nothing* about it. 
I have seen *nothing* of him recently. 
I have *nothing* important (or ‘of importance’) to report. 
The fire is too hot for *a body* to kneel over (Charles Reade, *The Cloister and the Hearth*, Ch. II). 

If *a person* can’t afford a thing, he must do without it. 
*A man’s* religion is the chief fact about him (Carlyle). 
In such a case what is *a man* to do? 
*A fellow* feels queer under such circumstances. 
You might give *a chap* (referring to the speaker, spoken of as representing people in general) a civil answer. 
There was *a party* (popular = *somebody*) here last evening to see you. 
What is *every man’s* business is *no man’s* business.
Men are blind to their own faults.
People may get a little impatient when their toes are trodden on. That's what folks say.
How folk put up with such a din was a mystery (J. B. Priestley, The Good Companions, Ch. VI).

In ordinary life we use a great many words with a total disregard of logical precision (Jevons).
You can talk a mob into anything (Ruskin).
They say there is no danger.
In Germany they manage things better.
If she says a thing (= something), it must be done (Thackeray, The Virginians, Ch. II).

Things are going better now.
I gave him a bit of my mind.
The question is attracting a good deal of attention.
He has plenty of money.
Remember to let it have a plenty of gravel in the bottom of its cage (Longfellow, Kavanagh, Ch. XV).

He was a host of debaters in himself.
‘There are a large number of things that I want to say,’ or instead of a large number we may repeat the noun: ‘The entrance to the floor given to executive offices was like the lobby of a pretentious hotel — waiting room in brocade and tapestry; then something like an acre of little tables with typists and typists and typists, very busy, and clerks and clerks and clerks with rattling papers’ (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, Ch. II).

There are any number of people who believe that.
Numbers of people from New England and elsewhere have traveled this way (Richard Smith, A Tour of Four Great Rivers, I, p. 23, A.D. 1769).
Numbers of Pen’s friends frequented this very merry meeting (Thackeray, Pendennis, I, Ch. XXX).

There were a large number there.
There were only a small number there.
There is a lot (or lots) of time.
We had a lot (or lots) of fun yesterday, and we shall have a lot (or lots) today.

There are a lot (or lots) of men who can do that.
He has had a heap (or heaps) of trouble.
I have had no end of trouble.

There are no end of people here that I don’t know (George Eliot).
My opponent has made no end of charges.
It will do you a world (or worlds) of good.
He has oceans of money.

It done him a sight of good (Dialect Notes, I, p. 393).
There was a sight of folks at meetin’ today (ib., III, p. 369).
There will be a smart chance of peaches this season (ib., II, p. 330).
There was a smart of things you were doing, too (Hergesheimer, Lonely Valleys, V).
He raises a right smart of cotton (Dialect Notes, III, p. 398).
Directing the work, and Yankee-like, doing right smart of it himself (Tourgee, *Fool's Errand*, p. 88).

Right smart o' (of) fish up there (R. H. Barbour, *Pud Pringle Pirate*, Ch. XII).

They were making such a hell of a noise that I couldn't study.

'But a hell of a lot of good it did me' (Anderson and Stallings, *Three American Plays*, p. 75) (ironical).

I've a power of things to do at home (Mrs. H. Wood, *Dene Hollow*, Ch. IV).

'I lost a couple of dollars' or in loose colloquial speech 'a couple (treated as an adjective) dollars.'

Besides these indefinite pronouns there is another group, given in VII c below as they are of different origin. The two groups of indefinite pronouns compete with each other, some of them without a difference of meaning, as in the case of somebody or someone, some of them with differentiated meaning, as in the case of some (a fair amount) and something (a small amount, a slight trace):

'I should like to have some of his patience.' 'She has something of her mother's sweetness.' On the other hand, something sometimes means something of value: 'There is something in what you say.'

a. Compounds with 'Thing' and 'Body.' Of the forms given above, the compounds with thing arose in the eleventh century and those with body in the fourteenth century, at a time when body was an exact equivalent of person, hence before it developed the tinge of compassion, as in 'She is a poor, feeble, fragile old body.' The old meaning of person still occurs occasionally in the literary language: 'The little children of both sexes were nearly always nice enough to take into a body's lap' (Mark Twain, *A Tramp Abroad*, 2). 'Life was, indeed, a strange thing, and would a body comprehend it, then must a body sit staring into the fire, thinking very hard, unheedful of all idle chatter' (J. K. Jerome, *Paul Kelver*, I, Ch. I). It survives chiefly in dialect, especially Scotch:

'Gin (= if) a body meet a body — coming through the rye, Gin a body kiss a body — Need a body cry?' (R. Burns). It was the concrete meaning of thing and body that at first brought these compounds into use and established them in the language. They distinguished life from the lifeless and were thus more concrete than older some, which competed in part with them. Similarly, the adverbial accusatives (c below) any place, some place, no place, etc., by reason of the concrete force of place are often used in popular speech instead of the literary compound adverbs anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, etc.: 'I can't find it any place.' 'I am going some place today.' The common people employ also com-
pound adverbs here, but they use the more concrete genitive forms *anywheres, somewheres, nowheres*, instead of the literary uninflected forms *anywhere, somewhere, nowhere*.

b. 'Somewhat,' 'Aught,' 'Naught,' 'Nought.' Of the indefinite pronouns in this group somewhat, aught, naught or nought, are in plain prose not now so common as they once were, being now largely confined to archaic or poetic language. As pronouns aught and naught still have a limited field of usefulness in rather choice language: 'for aught (or more commonly *anything* or *all*) I know.' 'Their plans will come to naught' (or more commonly *nothing*). 'Religion was a part of men's daily lives, but the principles of Christianity were set at naught at the first bidding of expediency' (Beerbohm Tree, *Henry VIII*, 12), in this set expression still common, although *nothing* is sometimes used in its stead. As a pronoun naught is now more common than nought, but as a noun, used as the name of the figure 0, nought is the usual form. *Something* is now usually replaced by *something*, aught by *anything*, naught by nothing.

c. Neuter Accusative Used as an Adverb. The neuter accusative singular or plural of a number of these pronouns is employed also as an adverb. *Somewhat* is used both as pronoun and as adverb: 'This argument has lost somewhat (pronoun) of its force.' 'He is somewhat (adverb) better this morning.' The pronoun *muchwhat* (= many matters) has not been used in the present period, but the adverb *muchwhat* formed from it was very common in the seventeenth century: 'God's dealings are muchwhat (now replaced by *pretty much*) the same with all his servants' (Richard Baxter, *Autobiography*, Ch. X, A.D. 1698). Also *nothing* is used as both a pronoun and an adverb: 'He has nothing (pronoun) in him.' 'Nothing (adverb) daunted, he began again.' 'It helps us nothing (adverb) in such a difficulty to say that,' etc. In older English, *nothing* was much more widely used as an adverb than now, often where now some other word or expression must be used: 'For the Indians used then to have nothing so much corne' (Bradford, *History of Plymouth Plantation*, p. 118, A.D. 1630–1648), now 'For the Indians then didn't use to have nearly so much corn.' *Something, anything, aught, naught*, are now little used as adverbs, although this usage was in older English not uncommon. *Something* still lingers as an adverb in certain expressions: 'It was shaped something like a cigar.' 'He walks something like his father.' *Something like, anything like, nothing like*, are employed as compound adverbs: 'He has given the institution something like (= about) $10,000.' 'The $10,000 he has given the institution is not anything like (= nearly) adequate to its present needs.'
'This cloth is nothing like as good' (not nearly so good). A whit, a bit, a good bit, a lot or lots (colloquial), a heap or heaps (colloquial), a sight (colloquial and popular), a heap sight, a good sight, right smart (dialect), plenty, no end, etc., are much used adverbially: 'I don't care a whit for what he thinks of me.' 'Wait a bit.' 'I think a good deal of him.' 'He is a lot (or lots, or a good deal) better.' 'He is heaps better.' 'I'd a sight rather not do it' (Dialect Notes, III, p. 369). 'It will cost a sight rather not do it' (Concise Oxford Dictionary). 'Smallpox is a heap sight worse than measles' (Dialect Notes, III, p. 398). 'He knows it a good sight better than you.' 'He said the water had been on the rise right smart of time already.' 'That is plenty good enough for me.' 'You are no end cleverer and stronger' (Farrar, Eric, 55). 'I heard you rummaging around in there no end' (Albert Payson Terhune, Treasure, Ch. V).

d. Indefinite Pronouns Used as Nouns. Some of the indefinite pronouns in this group are used as nouns: 'They are nobodies, somebodies' (plural nouns). 'She then proceeded to relate the little nothings that had passed since the winter.' 'There was an indefinite something about his manner that always attracted my attention.' Something is often employed as a substitute for a word that is not remembered: 'I just caught the five something train.'

e. 'Else' after Indefinite Pronouns. Some of the indefinite pronouns in this group, though themselves compounds, enter into a close relation to the adverb else, which often follows them, forming with it new compound pronouns: 'somebody else's child,' 'nobody else's business.' Compare 40 (3rd par.). Somebody and something enter into a close relation to the indefinite adjective other, forming with it a compound pronoun with pronounced indefinite force: 'Somebody or other will find something to criticize about it.' 'There is something or other about him that is unpleasant.'

f. 'Whatever.' In Old English, simple what was used as an indefinite pronoun with the force of something, anything. In composition with ever it is sometimes still used, in its strengthened form with the force of anything, usually followed by else: 'The torrent bursts in on me and pours over my wasted bulwarks, resolves high aims and whatever else' (M. Dods, Gosp. John, II, XIV, 218, A.D. 1892). Though this whatever is not much used as an indefinite pronoun, its accusative is widely employed as an adverb with the force of at all: 'I feel no anxiety whatever.' 'I'll agree to anything whatever.' 'I'll support my claim against any man whatever.' This adverbial whatever is much less widely used in the sense of at any rate: 'Thank the Lord you are not a coward,
whatever' (Ralph Connor, Glengarry School Days, Ch. VI). 'Your face and breast seem very badly bruised and cut.' — 'Aye, yes,' said Macdonald, 'the breast is bad whatever' (id., The Man from Glengarry, Ch. V).

VI. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

When the situation is so indefinite that we are aroused to inquire after the exact state of things, we do not use nouns at all but employ certain indefinite pronouns, which we now call interrogative pronouns, since by giving them a peculiar intonation we indicate that they are intended to ask for an explanation of the indefinite situation and that we are expecting an answer. These pronouns are who (whose, whom), what, what one(s), which, which one(s), the last three of which are interrogative adjectives used as pronouns: 'Who did it?' 'What did he want?' 'Here are the books. Which one is yours?' or 'Which are yours?' For fuller treatment and illustration see 41.

In older English, whether was much used as an interrogative pronoun referring to two persons or things, sometimes with reference to three: 'Whether (now which) of them twain did the will of his father?' (Matthew, XXI, 31). 'Whether (now which of the two) would you advise me, to purchase some post by which I may rise in the state, or lay out my wife’s fortune in land?' (Smollett, Roderick Random, Ch. XVI, A.D. 1748). This old pronoun survives in poetry and in archaic prose: 'Whether (now in plain prose which of the two) would ye? gold or field?' (Tennyson, Gareth and Lynette, 333). Whether is now usually a conjunction. See 18 B 1, 2, 3, 4 a, 15 2 i.

a. Interrogatives in Rhetorical Questions. Interrogative pronouns are used also in rhetorical questions, i.e. questions which do not expect an answer but express the indefiniteness or uncertainty present in the mind of the speaker: 'Well, what in the world will happen now?' Such a question, however, often has the force of a negative statement: 'What is the use?' = 'There is no use.' Compare Syntax, 16 3 b.

b. Indirect Questions. The usual interrogative pronouns are used also in indirect questions, i.e. indirect ways of asking a question, or indirect reports of them: 'Tell me who did it,' indirect form instead of 'Who did it?' 'Tell me what he wanted,' an indirect form instead of 'What did he want?' 'Take these hats to John and ask him which one is his,' an indirect way of asking a question through another person. 'I asked him to whom he gave it,' an indirect report of the question 'To whom did you give it?' 'After
my talk on juvenile books he asked me what ones I would recommend for the new town library,' an indirect report of the question: 'What ones would you recommend for the new town library?' Such interrogatives are interrogative conjunctive pronouns (18 B), i.e. they bind the clause to the principal proposition.

c. Origin of Interrogative Pronouns. Notice that the interrogative pronouns who, what, which, are identical in form with the indefinites who, what, which, in IV b above. The interrogatives have developed out of the indefinites and are still indefinites, differing only in that they, by means of a peculiar intonation, indicate that the speaker is asking for an explanation of the indefinite situation and is expecting an answer. Compare Syntax, p. 211.

VII. LIMITING ADJECTIVES USED AS PRONOUNS

In this class there is a tendency for the substantive (43 1, 2nd par.) form of limiting (8) adjectives to develop into pronouns. The reciprocal pronouns in 7 III above were once the substantive forms of limiting adjectives used as pronouns, but they have further developed into real pronouns. The substantive forms of a number of limiting adjectives are used as pronouns. Compare 43 1 and Syntax 57 2, 3.

There are seven groups:

a. Intensifying Adjectives Used as Personal Pronouns. The intensifying adjectives myself, ourself (= myself; see 10 2), thyself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, are often used for emphasis instead of the personal pronouns in 7 I above: ‘Did you ever know a woman to pardon another for being handsomer than herself’ (= she herself is)? ‘Most people do not realize how closely the mute creatures of God resemble ourselves in their pains and griefs.’ ‘You are not yourself today.’ For fuller treatment see 10 2 b. With all these pronouns the reference is definite.

The intensifying adjective oneself or one’s self is often used as an emphatic indefinite pronoun: ‘One is often not oneself’ (or one’s self). ‘If it were said to oneself (or one’s self) one would resent it’ (Oxford Dictionary). Other examples are given in c (pp. 32–33).

b. Demonstrative Adjectives Used as Demonstrative Pronouns. These pronouns point out in various ways living beings and lifeless things. The reference often becomes clear with the help of a gesture or the situation or context. These pronouns frequently point of themselves backward or forward to individuals already mentioned or to be mentioned or described, or point backward to
the idea contained in some word or group of words or in an entire sentence. Some of these pronouns indicate the individual by giving his place in a series or by including each individual in the series. In this important category we employ the substantive forms of the demonstrative adjectives, namely: this, this one, these; that, that one, those; them, once frequently used instead of those in literary language, still common in popular speech; whose (in literary style) = that one's; the one, the ones; such, such a one (in older English such one), such (pl.) or such ones; in older English such (pl.) or suchlike (pl.), now the like; the same, the same one (or ones); the identical one (or ones); the very one (or ones); one and the same; the former, the latter; the first (one), the second (one), etc.; the last (one); both; either; neither; one — one or more commonly the one — the other, t'other (in older English; see 44 C 1), the other one, in older English often simple other instead of the other or the other one; in older English sometimes another with the force of the other, as an once sometimes had definite force; the other ones, always referring to a preceding noun and emphasizing the idea of individual units; the others, sometimes referring to a preceding noun and emphasizing the idea of a definite group, sometimes used absolutely without reference to a preceding noun; each, each one, one and all, each and all; every one (or earlier in the period simple every), in early Modern English also with the forms euerich, euerichone; every soul, every man jack, every mother's son — all = every one but with more concrete force; all; half. Compare Syntax, 57 1, 2, 3.

In older English, either had two quite different meanings — the older with the force of each of two, both, now on account of its ambiguity much less used than formerly, the younger meaning with the force of the one or the other of two, now the common meaning. Examples are given under Examples below.

In older English, each and every had the same meaning, as they were originally forms of the same word, every (a reduction of ever each) being a strengthened form of each. They both originally had individualizing and totalizing force. Now each individualizes, while every totalizes, a fine differentiation as the result of a long development: 'Each (or each one) in the class should bring a friend along, and every one must be at the station by six.' In older undifferentiated usage each was often used where we now employ every, and every was used where we now employ each. As every totalizes, it is not used of low numbers: 'each of the two brothers,' but 'every one in the big class.' There are two every's, the definite every of this group and the indefinite one in c (p. 30): 'We arrived at home at six in the evening, every one as happy as
he could be,' but 'Everyone (general and indefinite) has his troubles.' The parts of definite every one are usually separated, while they are written together in indefinite everyone. In every one and each one there is often double stress for especial emphasis: 'I want every one of you to come.' 'I see new developments in art and life, each one of which is a fresh mode of perfection' (Wilde, De Profundis, 49). Compare Syntax, 571 (6th par.). But when the stress upon one is stronger than that upon the preceding every, one is a numeral pronoun, and every is an adherent (8, 3rd par.) adjective: 'We shall have to go on quietly building ships — two to Germany's every one' (English Review, March, 1912, p. 682).

Examples:

This is the picture of my wife and that the picture of her mother.
This picture is more beautiful than that one.

Is this (= Are you) Mrs. Smith? (addressing a lady).
This is (= I, the speaker, am) Mr. Smith (at the telephone).
That picture is more beautiful than this one.
These pictures are more beautiful than those (or in popular speech them there).

Those (or in popular speech them) are the girls I meant.
This boy and that one coming towards us are brothers.
I have spoken briefly of three scholars. I now desire to direct your attention to another. This one, Henry Sweet, I shall treat at some length.

This is the place our club meets in.
This is a friend of mine, Mr. Smith.
Fold it like this.
This is not fair.

Who is that just came in?
Who is that standing by the window?
Can any of you show me a woman like that?
Don't roll your eyes like that!
I wouldn't give that (a finger-snap) for it!
He talked about responsibilities and all that (similar commonplaces).
It was necessary to act and that promptly.

Would you like to marry Malcolm? Fancy being owned by that! (see 28, 2nd par., 33 b).

He thinks highly of you. This I know.
They would like the present to be like the past; but the present, if it is alive, can never be that.

John, run over to the grocery and get a loaf of bread, that's a good boy.
I never bargained for this. He knows that very well.

Human pride and envy, human ambition and emulation, the desire to shine in the world — these are the main causes of the war.

Our schools are better than those of a generation ago.
This butter is better than that [which] we bought yesterday.
The most triumphant death is that of the hero in the hour of victory. The face before me was that of a young man of thirty years. Vengeance is his or whose (= that one’s) he sole appoints (Milton, \textit{Paradise Lost}, V, 808).

This book is more interesting than the one I lent you last time. These books are more interesting than the ones I lent you last time. His condition is about the same this morning as it was last evening. Instead of getting into separate beds as they thought they were doing, they both climbed into the same one (Jerome, \textit{Three Men in a Boat}, Ch. X).

The same individuals who in 1888 read \textit{Robert Elsmere} with dismay are the same ones who now worship what they once denounced (W. L. Phelps, \textit{Essays on Modern Novelists}, Ch. X).

‘Are you sure it is the same hat?’ — ‘Yes, it is the identical (or very) one.’

These girls are the very ones we met yesterday. The universe is one and the same throughout (Leonard Huxley, \textit{Life and Letters of Thomas Henry Huxley}, I, Ch. XVI).

He never tired in the service of the community. The death of such a one is a great loss.

Look at these two fine large pears! Such ones you don’t often get to see around here.

‘He keeps rats, mice, rabbits, and such, or suchlike, in cages’ (current popular English preserving older literary usage, in literary English now replaced in both cases by the like).

Both of them are good men. John and William are both hard-working students. The former excels in mathematics, the latter in history.

He married her and took her away, the latter greatly to my relief (Pinero, \textit{The Second Mrs. Tanqueray}, 22).

‘Which of these modes of expression is correct?’ — ‘Either is (or Both are) correct.’

I don’t know either of these gentlemen ( = Both of these gentlemen are unknown to me).

There are also in this Islande two famous Universities, the one Oxforde, the other Cambridge. I was my selfe in either (now both) of them (John Lyly, \textit{Works}, II, p. 293, A.D. 1580).

They are both fine houses. I should like to have either ( = the one or the other) of them.

Just above the feet at either (now each) of the three corners is an exquisite female bust (Howells, \textit{Italian Journey}, p. 228).

You may have either (or either one) of these (two) books. You may have either (now usually any one) of these four books.

I have seen neither of the (two) boys.

‘She has style, talent, and money, and in the strict sense of these words Phillis has neither’ (Hocking, \textit{Awakening of Anthony Weir}, Ch. XI). Neither often, on account of its great convenience, is used thus loosely with reference to more than two, but in choice language we avoid it and use none, in the present instance saying none of these things.
These were subjects on which neither ever touched to the other.

Some words, like *envelope* and *avalanche*, have two pronunciations, one English and one as nearly French as possible.

The twins were both so exactly alike that it was impossible to distinguish the one from the other.

‘Eche of them fersly regardyd other’ (Lord Berners, *Huon*, I, p. 41, A.D. 1534), now the other.

‘So aprochyd eche to other (now the other) and so fought eche with another’ (ib., p. 42), now the other.

‘And now let’s go hand in hand, not one before another’ (Shakespeare, *The Comedy of Errors*, V, i, 425), now the other.

These apples are not good; the other ones are better.

Take this book and put it in on the shelf with the others.

I remained in the hotel; the others went to the lake.

The problem has exercised the minds of the two brothers, and each has solved it according to his temperament.

Each (or each one) of us here has just claims.

The whole conversation ran on the breakfast, which one and all abused roundly.

They seemed joyous each and all (Byron, *Prisoner of Chillon*).

‘The fairest children of the blood royal Of Israel he let do gelde anoon, And maked ech (each) of hem to been his thral’ (Chaucer, *The Monkes Tale*, 161), now ‘He (Nebuchadnezzar) soon had the fairest children of Israel’s royal blood delivered up to him, and made them all his slaves or every one of them his slave.’

‘There are in this Isle two and twenty Byshops, which are as it were superintendents over the church, appoynting godlye and learned Ministers in every (now each) of their Seas,’ etc. (John Lyly, *Works*, II, p. 192).

I want every one of you to come.

Every (now every one) of this happy number That have (now has) endur’d shrewd days and nights with us Shall share the good of our returned fortune (Shakespeare, *As You Like It*, V, v, 178).

Go to bed, every soul (or every man jàck) of you, instantly! (Thomas Holcroft, *Road to Ruin*, I, 2).

Every mother’s sôn of them wishes to be considered Samson and Solomon rolled into one (Mrs. Gaskell, *Cranford*, Ch. X).

So I went in and saw ... all the Idols and abominacions of the house off Israel paynted, everychone (now every one of them), rounde aboute the wall (Coverdale, *Bible, Ezechiel*, VIII, 10, A.D. 1535).

She invited her Sunday-school class, and all came.

Half of the speech was good, half of it was very bad.

Half of the speeches were bad.

*aa. ‘Each’ Used as Predicate Appositive.* We should carefully distinguish between each employed as predicate appositive (8, 5th par.) and each employed as subject in an elliptical proposition: ‘They each (predicate appositive) have, in their several ways, done fine service to the community,’ or ‘They have done fine service
to the community, each [has done it] in his own way,' or 'We each (predicate appositive) have, in our several ways, been trying to serve the community,' or 'We have been trying to serve the community, each [has been trying to do it] in his own way.' Each, when used as subject, requires the possessive his (or her), as the reference is always to a singular subject in the third person, while predicate appositive each is often associated with their or our, for it is a part of the predicate, not the subject, hence has nothing to do with the choice of the possessive. These two constructions should not be blended, as in 'You will go each your own way' (instead of the correct each his own way). Mr. Fowler in his Modern English Usage calls attention to such a blending in a hymn: 'Soon will you and I be lying each within our (instead of the correct his) narrow bed.' He remarks facetiously that the author of this blending has failed to observe that he has restricted the application to married couples.

bb. Determinatives. A demonstrative pronoun points out a person or thing in various ways. Often it is accompanied by a gesture; often it refers to a preceding word called antecedent. These uses have been amply illustrated in the preceding paragraphs. There is another kind of demonstrative — the determinative pronoun. It points to a following genitive, prepositional phrase, or relative clause. There are two classes of such pronouns.

The determinative has no antecedent: 'In life I admire most those of a simple contented mind.' 'There was no time, no opportunity for those on board to save themselves.' 'Those (or sometimes they, as in older English; in popular speech them, as in older literary English) who do such things cannot be trusted.' 'Blessed be them (now those) that hath brought that about' (Lord Berners, Arthur of Lytell Bretayne, 393, A.D. 1530). 'But on those of us who are not soldiers the influence of the war broods like the memory of a nightmare.' 'His mother parted her lips to begin some other vehement truth, but on looking at him she saw that in his face which led her to leave the words unsaid.' 'That one of us who is first called away knows the survivor will follow ere long' (Thackeray, The Virginians, Ch. LXXV). In the singular the personal pronouns may be used as determinatives: 'He (or she) who does such things cannot be trusted,' or in colloquial speech 'A man (or a woman) who does such things cannot be trusted.' Similarly before a prepositional phrase: 'She (or more commonly the girl) with the auburn hair.'

The determinative often has an antecedent: 'this hat and that of John's'; 'this book and that one upon the table'; 'this book and that one which you hold in your hand.' 'These books and
those which you hold in your hand.’ In Modern English, that (those) is often replaced by the one(s) except before a genitive: ‘this hat and that of John’s’ rather than ‘this hat and the one of John’s,’ or still more commonly ‘this hat and John’s;’ ‘this book and the one (or that one) upon the table’; ‘this book and the one (or that one) which you hold in your hand’; ‘these books and the ones (or those) which you hold in your hand.’ ‘Of all my nephews and nieces you are the one whose conduct in life has most pleased me.’ ‘Of all my nephews and nieces you and your brother are the ones whose conduct in life has most pleased me.’ ‘These boys are the very ones I saw yesterday in the act of robbing a pheasant’s nest.’ But the one differs from that in that it refers only to class nouns, hence cannot be used at all for reference to mass nouns and abstract nouns: ‘This tea is better than that (not the one) we bought last week.’ ‘The depth of feeling in this book surpasses that (not the one) which I have observed in his other works.’ The determinative the one is usually followed by a prepositional phrase or relative clause, but the construction is sometimes elliptical: ‘Hand me his letter.’ — ‘This one?’ — ‘Yes, that’s the one [I want].’ Compare 10 3 e.

When there is present the idea of kind, quality, we often employ the qualitative determinative such: ‘Associate with such as will improve your mind and manners.’ ‘The studios think lightly of such of their men models as are able to offer nothing but curly hair, good teeth, and a sweet smile’ (Beecher Edwards, ‘Faces That Haunt You’ in Liberty, May 22, 1926). ‘I have had some good teachers, but never such a one as [is] Professor Jones.’ ‘Such as I [am] are free in spirit when our limbs are chained’ (Scott, Quentin Durward, Ch. XVI). When a restrictive clause follows, those is often in colloquial speech used as a qualitative determinative instead of such, since the restrictive clause is felt as indicating with sufficient clearness the idea of quality, and such is avoided as a literary word: ‘Mention especially the intelligent and those who (or in more exact formal language such as) want to study literature as an end, not as a means’ (Sir Walter Raleigh, Letter to Percy Simpson, Dec. 13, 1913). Where there is no preceding noun to which it can refer, the singular determinative such a one is a distinctively literary form, replaced in simple prose by someone or a man (woman, boy, girl): ‘Associate with such a one as you can look up to,’ or ‘Associate with someone, or a man (woman, boy, girl), that you can look up to.’

In older English, such often lost the idea of a particular kind, and pointed, as described for adjective function in 10 3 f, to definite persons or things, just like those: ‘I See no Right the Indians have
to make such a Demand, as those Posts have never been put to a Bad Use against them; but on the Contrary are for their Security as well as Ours: Such as (now those which) have been Destroyed in the upper Country shall be Re Established' (Sir Jeffery Amherst, Letter, written at New York, Sept. 10, 1763). In older English, such was also used referring to a single individual but with indefinite reference: 'I must desire that you will give Orders to such one of the Captains as (now one, the one, or that one of the captains whom) you think most fit to continue after the first of May' (Cadwallader Golden, Letter to Sir William Johnson, written at New York, Apr. 22, 1764). Such is still used with indefinite reference to a preceding abstract noun, where, however, it is now often more common to employ: 'An appeal to philanthropy is hardly necessary, the grounds for such (or it) being so self-evident.' Compare 7 VII c aa. In older English, the neuter singular such was much used referring back to the thought contained in a preceding sentence, clause, or word, and this old usage still lingers. See 7 I c. The plural determinative such was once widely used for general reference: 'Let such as (now in plain prose usually those who) would with Wisdom dwell frequent the house of woe' (W. Cameron in Trans. & Paraphr. Ch. Scott., XIV, I, A.D. 1777). When we desire to use a singular determinative form with general reference, we employ in literary style he (she) and in colloquial language a man (woman, boy, girl): 'He (she), or a man (woman, boy, girl), who would do such a thing is not worthy of confidence.' At one point the old determinative such has been retained alongside of the determinative those, namely, where there is a desire to point, somewhat indefinitely without stating the exact relations, to a definite group of persons or things mentioned either in a following modifying phrase or in a noun or pronoun previously mentioned: 'It seems to have cooled the ardor of such of the Bishops as (or those of the Bishops who) at first tended to favor Sinn Fein as a means of smashing the Irish party' (London Times, Educational Supplement, Nov. 18, 1918). 'The number of those who were thus butchered cannot now be ascertained. Nine were entered in the parish registers of Taunton; but those registers contain the names of such only as (or only those who) had Christian burial' (Macaulay, History, II, Ch. V). The force of such here is often felt as more indefinite than that of those, which leads some to use it to convey greater indefiniteness and has thus preserved it. Similarly, such others is sometimes preferred to the others when it is desired to emphasize the idea of indefiniteness: 'Your Lordship and such others as (or the others that) you may please to consult on the matter, will at once see that my resignation of the wardenship
need not offer the slightest bar to its occupation by another person’ (Trollope, *The Warden*, Ch. XIX). Some use this indefinite *such* instead of the usual *they* or *them* when there is an indefinite reference to things that have just been mentioned: ‘Those who have left parcels can recover *such* (usually *them*) on application.’

c. Indefinite Limiting Adjectives Used as Indefinite Pronouns.

When we desire to convey an indefinite or general impression, we often avoid the use of a noun and employ instead of it an indefinite limiting adjective, treating it as an indefinite pronoun. Indefinite pronouns of a different origin have been treated in 7 V above. The indefinite pronouns made from indefinite limiting adjectives are: *all, any* (sing. or pl.); *anyone* (or earlier in the period simple *any*) = *anybody; any one*, an indefinite reference to a member of a group of individuals, persons or things; *any one* (popular contraction of *e'er a one*) = *one, any one, either one; this and (or or) that = one thing and (or or) another; this one and that, or this and that one, or this one and that one; this, that, and the other; this, that, and the other one; everyone* (in older English simple *every* or in its older form *euerich*), an indefinite reference = *everybody*, but every one (7 VII b, 3rd par.), a definite reference to every member of a group; *each or each one*; *someone = somebody; some one*, an indefinite reference to a particular person or to a member of a group of individuals, persons or things; *some = a fair amount and some people*, earlier in the period also with the meaning of *someone*; in older English, *some other, now someone else; someone or other; one or another or one or other*, usually referring indefinitely to one in a group of more than two; *one or the other*, referring indefinitely to one in a group of two; *one and another*, i.e. two or more in succession; *such (sing. or pl.); such and such a one; such and such ones; such and such = such and such persons, such and such a thing; so and so = such and such a person, such and such a thing; several; many; many a one; a one; a many, once a literary form, now confined to popular speech; a great many; the many; numerous and various, both forms usually employed as adjectives, but in recent literature manifesting a tendency to become pronouns after the analogy of *many* and *several*; *one*, in early Modern English used with the force of *somebody*; *one*, referring indefinitely to an antecedent or a following modifying phrase or clause; *one*, an absolute indefinite pronoun without reference to an antecedent or a following modifying phrase or clause; *oneself* or *one's self* (7 VII a, 2nd par.), both in use, the latter the older form and still often used in America, the former the newer but now more common form, used in the accusative after a verb or a preposition as the reflexive forms of absolute *one*, used also in the nominative or
the accusative as emphatic forms of absolute one; one's own, used as an emphatic genitive of absolute one; none (sing. or pl.), negative form of one, referring to an antecedent or a following modifying phrase or clause; not one (numeral), more emphatic than none; in popular speech nary one, nary a one, emphatic negative forms of none; none or no one, negative forms of absolute one, the former a singular or a plural, more commonly, however, a plural, the latter always a singular, more common than singular none; none, sometimes a neuter singular ('I want none of your impudence'); other or other one, another, others or sometimes still as in older English other (pl.); one — another; some — others; a certain one, certain ones, certain (pl.); sundry (archaic); all and sundry (archaic); considerable (colloquial American); much; more or, in older English where the reference is to number, mo or moe (Old English mā); a little, little; less; few; a few; enough; sufficient.

Examples:

All is not gold that glitters.
I know all about him.
All who have studied this question have come to the same conclusion.
Doth any (now anybody) here know me? (Shakespeare, King Lear, I, iv, 246).
Anyone could do that.
Any one of my boys could have told you where to find him.
Do any of you know him?
Is there among the new books any one that would interest a boy?
Are there among the new books any (plural) that would interest a boy?
Age has not yet dimmed any one (singular), or any (plural), of his senses.
He hasn't any of his father's ability.
Any and Virginny is the deceivingest in their looks ever you seed, and don't any one of 'em look hardly twenty (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. V).
I chatted with this and that one.
We talked about this, that, and the other.
Euerich (an older form of every, now everyone) hadde well eten and dronken raysonably (Caxton, Jason, p. 8, A.D. 1475).
Everyone says so.
I want every one in the class to come.
Each (one) of us (general and indefinite reference) has his several ideal.
I thought I heard some (now someone) stirring in her chamber (Vanbrugh, False Friend, V, I, 411, A.D. 1702).
I heard someone coming up the stairs.
I know some one from whose gentle lips there only fall pure pearls an.
diamonds (Thackeray, The Virginians, Ch. LXX).
I don’t know who did it, but it was some one in the class. I shall not have time tomorrow to treat all of these questions, but I hope to be able to discuss some one (singular), or some (plural), of them.

‘I would she had receaved her punishment by some other’ (Sir Philip Sidney, Arcadia, Book III, Ch. 24, A.D. 1590), now someone else (42 c bb). Some were captured, others were killed. I should like to have some of his patience.

Someone or other is meddling in things that do not concern him. One or another, or one or other, or some one of us (three or more) has to do it.

One or the other of us (two) has to do it. I have heard it from one and another during the week.

Ernestine had already ventured upon several screen tests in one and another of the new studios in New York (Theodore Dreiser, Bookman, Sept., 1927, p. 5).

The stranger is welcome as such. Strangers are welcome as such.

If you want to know who such and such a one, or so and so, is, just ask Jones.

If you review in your mind your favorite friends and your favorite books, you will find that such and such a one stands nearer to you, or such and such ones stand nearer to you.

Don’t listen to everything that such and such say to you. He is always ordering me about and telling me to do such and such, or so and so.

Several, many, of the books were damaged.

Several, many, have inquired after you.

While a many (popular for many) of the first settlers had been knowledgeable men with laming, their offsprings grewed up in the wilderness without none (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. III).

A great many were injured.

To the many who know him the news of his recovery will bring great joy.

Mr. Mick came to and fro from the regiment, and brought numerous of his comrades with him (Thackeray, Barry Lyndon, Ch. I).

The Queen has caused large hampers of the choicest blooms to be forwarded to various of the hospitals (quoted from Fowler’s Modern English Usage, where a number of other examples are given).

Hark! hark! one (now somebody) knocks (Shakespeare, Julius Caesar, II, i, 302).

I lose a neighbor and you gain one.

However, there were serious complications in the case and ones which were quite unforeseen by either the British or the Irish government (G. W. Powell, Donovan’s Island, Ch. XV).

He recommended him as one (literary, replaced in colloquial speech by a man) on whom I could depend.

If one cuts off one’s (genitive of one) nose, one hurts only oneself (or one’s self; reflexive accusatives of one).
One might do that for another, but not for oneself (or one's self; reflexive accusatives of one).

Oneself (or one's self; nominatives, emphatic forms of one) is the last person upon whom one turns the light of comedy (J. W. Beach, *The Comic Spirit in G. Meredith*, Ch. I, p. 10).

One is not always oneself (or one's self; nominatives, emphatic forms of one).

If it were said to oneself (or one's self; accusatives, emphatic forms of one), one would resent it.

It is narrowing to be always occupied with oneself (or one's self; reflexive forms of one) and one's own (emphatic form of one's) affairs.

'Lend me your pencil.' — 'I have none' or 'I haven't any.'

You have money and I have none.

He is none of my friends (*Concise Oxford Dictionary*).

He is none of your canting hypocrites.

None (singular; or more emphatically not one), of his hopes has been realized.

None (plural) of his hopes have been realized.

I ain't goin' to nary one (or nary a one) of them places.

None (or more commonly no one) has beat that.

None (plural) are so deaf as those that will not hear.

It is none of my business.

You may have this book or any other (or other one) you may select.

In these financial difficulties Mr. Broadwood and others of her old friends came to her aid.

The rest of the boys were accommodated at the houses of other (now more commonly others) of the masters (Mrs. Henry Wood, *Orville College*, Ch. I).

One may like it, another may dislike it.

'One hates his enemies and another forgives them,' but absolute one, differing from this one, which has another as a correlative, takes the possessive one's instead of his: 'One hates one's enemies and loves one's friends.'

One man's (the regular possessive of the one that has another as a correlative) misfortune is often another man's fortune.

Some like it, others dislike it.

And some (seeds) fell among thorns . . . But other (now others) fell into good ground (*Matthew*, XIII, 8).

Among the students who pass our house every evening there is a certain one that always attracts (or 'there are certain ones that always attract') my attention.

Certain of the boys were honest enough to tell the truth about the matter.

Most of these books are worthless, but certain ones among them, which I desire here to mention, are worth reading.

'Sundry of the modern languages' (Whitney, *The Life and Growth of Language*, Ch. VII, p. 115), more commonly several.
'When you see the postman coming up the street with the morning's crop of bills and sundry,' etc. (San Francisco Bulletin, July 26, 1927), i.e. various other things.

'He has essayed to make his poet (Browning) comprehensible to all and sundry' (Literary World, 1892), more commonly one and all.

There is considerable to do.

After considerable of a row order was restored.

The book is very large, and considerable of it has been hastily written.

There is much to do today, and there will be more to do tomorrow.

There were more present today than yesterday.

Of these valiant beggers there be in euery place mo (now more) then (now than) a great meny (Langley, Pol. Verg. De Invent., VII, VI, 144, A.D. 1546).

'Unto life many implements are necessary; moe (now more) if we seek such a life as,' etc. (Hooker, Ecclesiastical Polity, I, x, 2, A.D. 1594).

There is enough to do.

Here was sufficient to tax the energies of any man.

That young man was able to depart for the west with sufficient of money to insure the completion of his monumental work (Clarence Buddington Kelland in Saturday Evening Post, July, 5, 1930, p. 36).

aa. Indefinite 'One' Referring Backward or Forward. Indefinite reference is now in the singular expressed by one if it is desired to refer back to a noun that has just been mentioned, but, as in older English, such is sometimes still used here: 'He is a friend, and I treat him as one.' 'Two or three low broad steps led to a platform in front of the altar, or what resembled such' (Scott, Aunt Marg. Mirror, II), or now more commonly one. When the indefinite article a precedes the noun immediately, a one is often used instead of one: 'It was too good a chance to be lost,' or 'The chance was too good a one to be lost.' 'I had only half a piece,' or 'He had a whole piece, but I had only half a one.' Compare Syntax, 57 5 6 (8th par.). Of course, one cannot be used with indefinite reference to an abstract or general conception contained in a preceding noun. Here we use such or now often more commonly the personal pronoun it: 'An appeal to philanthropy is hardly necessary, the grounds for such (or it) being so self-evident.' It, however, cannot be used when the idea of specific character or capacity is prominent: 'Insolence in a child should always be treated as such, and the child should be punished for it.' 'It is difficult for me to appreciate in him the scholar as such apart from the man.' As indefinite one usually has no plural, we still employ here such or now often more commonly a personal pronoun: 'I should like to have some more examples of this construction if such (or perhaps more commonly they) can be found.' Such, however, is used if the idea of specific character or capacity is prominent: 'They are my friends, and I
treat them as such.' But *one* is freely used, in the singular or the plural, if it is employed as a determinative pointing to a following modifying word, phrase, or clause: 'He behaves like *one* frenzied.' 'However, there were serious complications in the case and *ones* which were quite unforeseen by either the British or the Irish government' (G. H. Powell, *Donovan's Island*, Ch. XV). This determinative is especially common when it has qualitative force: 'When you get a new *pen* (new *pens*), get *one* (*ones*) with a sharper point (sharper points).' 'Are not the suggested improvements *ones that* (or *such as*) would be accepted nowadays in any design?' (*Punch*, 1893, p. 165). 'The step you have just taken is *one* of great importance.' See 7 VII b bb (4th par.).

There is another determinative *one*, which is always in the singular and always refers to a person: 'It lost you the love of *one* who would have followed you in beggary' (Sheridan, *The Rivals*, V, i). 'For *one* who can read between the lines there is much that is melancholy in Mr. Tozer's Chronicle.' In the plural, *one* is replaced by *those*: 'For *those* who can read between the lines,' etc. The plural form *those* is common, but the singular form *one* is in general literary, replaced in colloquial language by a *man*, a *woman*, etc.: 'She was *one* (more commonly *a woman*) on whom such incidents were not lost.'

**bb. Absolute Indefinite *One.*** The reference here is quite indefinite and general: 'It hurts *one* to be told *one* is not wanted.' Other examples are given in c (p. 33). Attention is called to the fact that English *one* has a meaning somewhat different from that of the corresponding indefinite in other languages, such as German *man*, French *on*, etc. The force of English *one* is more indefinite. In German and French, *man* and *on* are often used to refer indefinitely to a definite person or definite persons. These German and French forms are very convenient expressions, for they make it possible to refer to a definite person or definite persons without taking the time or the trouble to name or describe the person or persons: 'Man hat viel über diesen Gegenstand geschrieben' = 'Much *has been written* on this subject.' As we have no appropriate indefinite pronoun we have to translate the German statement by employing the passive form of the verb. Thus on account of the lack of an appropriate indefinite pronoun the passive has become a favorite form of expression in English.

**cc. Accusative of Indefinite Pronouns Used Adverbially.** The accusative of a number of these pronouns is used adverbially: 'He is *much* better today.' 'I can't go *any* faster.' 'He has a zeal *little* tempered by humanity or by common sense.' 'I am *none* the less obliged to you.' Compare 42 c aa. Feeling may be imparted
to the statement by placing *ever so* before the adverbial accusative: ‘It’s *ever so much* better to face things cheerfully.’

For fuller treatment of this important accusative see 71 1 a.

dd. Indefinite Pronouns Used as Nouns. A number of indefinite pronouns are used as nouns: ‘He lost his all (or ‘his little all’) in the fire.’ ‘My father bid me pack up my alls (now usually singular) and immediately prepare to leave his house’ (Fielding, *Amelia*, VII, III, A.D. 1752). ‘He was a small grocer and dealer in sundries.’ ‘He is apt to boast of the little he has done, while he utterly forgets the much that he has left undone.’ ‘His little is more than my much.’ On the other hand, such a noun may become a pronoun or an adjective: ‘I should like to have a little (a pronoun = some) of his money.’ ‘A little (an adjective) learning is a dangerous thing.’

ee. ‘One’ with the Force of ‘I.’ There is a tendency in the present period from the feeling of modesty to employ one instead of the sharply precise *I* or *me*: ‘I think I should like to have been with them — for it was very close in the room with that great Mrs. Roundhand squeezing up to one (for me) on the sofa’ (Thackeray, *Samuel Titmarsh*, Ch. IV). ‘His later poems have their great limitations, as one will (for I shall) presently suggest, but they are extraordinarily powerful.’ The present extensive use of one here is justly criticized by some grammarians. It is least objectionable where one may refer to others as well as to the speaker and has thus general force: ‘One doesn’t like to be told one’s faults’ (retort of the speaker to his tormentor). Compare 33 g.

d. Numeral Adjectives Used as Pronouns:

aa. Cardinal Numeral Adjectives Used as Pronouns: ‘There is only one of the four brothers alive.’ ‘There are many new houses going up in our town this year. *Two, three,* were started in our neighborhood today.’ ‘The cake was cut in two.’ ‘The nation was severed in twain by religious faction’ (Buckle, *Miscellaneous Works*, I, p. 84, A.D. 1862). ‘She made one too many in the omnibus’ (*one* who could not be accommodated). ‘He was one too many’ (*one* who was not wanted). ‘He was one too many for us’ (outwitted us). ‘They came in one by one.’ ‘Some one of you must be responsible for this.’ ‘No one of you is equal to this.’ ‘You may select any two of these apples.’ Other examples are given in 42 d aa. Compare ‘No one (indefinite pronoun) can do it’ with ‘No one (numeral pronoun) of you can do it.’ *One* is often used as a pronoun although there is no noun present to which it can refer, the speaker trusting to the situation to make the reference clear: ‘I gave him one (i.e. a blow) in the eye.’ ‘I owe
him one.' ‘The man who wishes to curry favor goes one better on the title.’ Hundred, thousand, and million are distinguished as pronouns from nouns of the same form by the lack of inflection: ‘A hundred (or emphatically one hundred) of these men were arrested.’ ‘Two hundred (two thousand) of the men struck for higher wages.’ ‘He lost five thousand of his men.’ ‘There were five hundred present.’

The cardinals are used also as nouns: ‘The people dispersed in twos and threes.’ ‘The business was over in two twos’ (Stevenson, New Arabian Nights, II, p. 112), colloquial for in a very short time. ‘Please give me five tens (ten-dollar bills) and ten fives (five-dollar bills) for this hundred (hundred-dollar bill).’ ‘To bless this twain that they may prosperous be’ (Shakespeare, The Tempest, IV, i, 104). ‘His wife was a slender sweet-voiced woman in the early thirties.’ ‘I made a shift to creep on all fours’ (in older English four). Pronouns represent separate units, while nouns represent groups: ‘He cut the cake in two’ (pronoun). ‘Two and two (pronouns) is (or ‘are’) four.’ ‘These two (pronoun) are the best students in the class.’ ‘They wandered off in twos’ (noun representing groups of two). Hundred, thousand, and million were originally nouns, but now under the influence of the smaller numbers are felt as pronouns as shown by their lack of inflection: ‘The garrison is not two hundred strong.’ ‘Three hundred, three thousand saw it.’ ‘He gave seventy-five thousand to the university for scholarships.’ ‘STATE AID QUOTA OF 150 MILLION SET FOR JOBLESS’ (headline in New York Herald-Tribune, Sept. 6, 1932). Million, however, differs from hundred and thousand in that with reference to money it is still often felt as a noun and takes a plural in -s: ‘a state aid quota of 150 millions set for the jobless.’ All three words — hundred, thousand, and million — are used as nouns with a plural in -s when employed in the indefinite sense of a large number: ‘Hundreds, thousands, many thousands, millions have felt the truth of it.’ Of course these three words are always uninflected when used as adjectives: ‘Two hundred copies, two thousand copies, two million copies of the book have been sold.’

bb. Ordinal Numeral Adjectives Used as Pronouns: ‘The book has four volumes, of which the third and the fourth are much larger than the first and the second.’ ‘Of the speakers the first (or the first one) was the best.’ ‘Here comes another visitor, and I hope it is the last one today.’ ‘The last of the speakers was my brother.’

Many of these forms are used also as nouns: ‘one third of the books,’ ‘two thirds of the boys.’ ‘I was interested from the first.’

e. Possessive Adjectives Used as Pronouns. The substantive
forms of the possessive adjectives my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, are mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, two of them, his and its, remaining unchanged in the substantive relation. These substantive forms, though originally the genitives of the personal pronouns and sometimes still used as such, are now usually employed as possessive pronouns, standing in any case relation required by the construction of the sentence. Nominative: ‘Her pencil is longer than mine [is].’ ‘Hers is a sad fate.’ ‘The children’s health is poor except the baby’s and its is perfect.’ ‘These books are ours’ (predicate nominative). ‘Women take to a thing, anything, and go (= let them go) deep enough, and they’re its (predicate nominative); they never, never will get away from it’ (A. S. M. Hutchinson, This Freedom, p. 253). Genitive: ‘I gave him the titles of my books, but I couldn’t recall all the titles of yours.’ Dative: ‘I think you know that I lend my books freely to my friends and to yours.’ Accusative object of verbs: ‘As she didn’t have any pencil I lent her mine.’ ‘But the body has its function also, without which the soul could not fulfil its.’ Object of preposition: ‘Yesterday we played in our yard, but today we are going to play in theirs.’

This group of words has become very productive. After the analogy of the possessive pronouns in -s any noun, common or proper, may become a possessive pronoun by assuming the ending -s: ‘Her hair is lighter than her brother’s (subject nominative) [is].’ ‘Mary’s (subject nominative) is a sad fate.’ ‘Of the three autos I like John’s (accusative, object of verb) most.’ ‘I am better pleased with Mary’s work than with her sister’s’ (accusative, object of the preposition with). Similarly, a number of pronouns become possessive pronouns by the addition of -s. These new formations, like the original group of possessive pronouns, are freely used as subject, predicate, object of verb or preposition: ‘His achievements have never measured up to his aims, but then whose (subject nominative) have?’ (Barrett H. Clark, Eugene O’Neill, p. 197). ‘Both boys have a good record, but the younger one’s (subject nominative) is a little better.’ ‘One of the boys has left his hat here. I think it is the younger one’s’ (predicate nominative). ‘Both John and Henry are doing good work, but I regard the latter’s (accusative, object of verb) as a little better.’ ‘The same word may be “popular” in one man’s vocabulary and “learned” in another’s’ (Greenough and Kittredge, Words and Their Ways, p. 21). In the last example another’s is a possessive pronoun in the accusative, object of the preposition in. This construction is one of the finest illustrations of English terseness and is one of the characteristic features of our language. Compare 42 e.
Originally the old group of possessive pronouns were the genitives of the personal pronouns. They gradually developed into possessive adjectives and pronouns. The present difference of form for the two functions is the result of a long development described in Syntax, 57 5 a. The pronominal forms here are peculiar. Elsewhere the common way to make a pronominal form is to add one to the adjective form. In England one is actually coming into use also here: 'Leaning back in his one of the two Chippendale armchairs in which they sat' (Juliana Ewing, Jackanapes, p. 26). One is coming into use also after the newer group of possessive pronouns: 'Her parasol is fine, but her sister's one is finer' (heard by Jespersen from an English gentleman). The use of one here is an absolute proof that these new formations in -s are now felt as pronouns. For fuller treatment see 42 e (2nd par.).

aa. Origin of Possessive Pronouns and Adjectives. Mine and thine developed out of the genitive of the personal pronouns I and thou. At first both forms were used as possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns. In the twelfth century they began in adjective function to lose their -n before consonants: 'min arm,' but 'mi fot' (foot). Gradually my, thy, became established as the adjective form before vowels and consonants and mine and thine were restricted to pronominal use.

Also his, her, our, your, their, were originally genitive forms, the genitives of he, she, we, you, they. They were at first used as possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns. About 1300 -s began to be added to these forms so that hers, ours, yours, theirs, began to be used alongside of the older shorter forms. No -s was added to his as it already ended in -s. Gradually the two forms began to be differentiated, so that her, our, your, their, were employed as adjectives and hers, ours, yours, theirs, as pronouns. His was used for both functions.

His at first referred not only to persons but also to things. His could refer to things until towards the close of the sixteenth century, when its (in older English often with the apostrophe, it's) began to replace it here: 'Ye are the salt of the earth: but if the salt have lost his (now its) savor,' etc. (Matthew, V, 13). This old usage lingered on until the close of the seventeenth century. The new form its developed out of the old possessive it, which about 1600 began to be common. A little before this date its new form its came into use, which by reason of its distinctive genitive ending soon gained favor and supplanted older it and still older his. The older form it occurs in the Bible of 1611: 'of it own accord' (Leviticus, XXV, 5; changed to its in the edition of 1660).

The possessive forms in -s were originally northern English,
which later spread southward. In the South and Midland the
possessive forms originally followed the analogy of my (adjective),
mine (pronoun): my, mine; thy, thine; his, hisn; her, hern; our,
ourn; your, yourn; their, theirn. These forms survive in British
and American dialect, and whosen has been added to the list:
'If it ain't hisn, then whosen is it?'

bb. Possessive Pronouns Used as Nouns. The possessive pro-
nouns are used also as nouns: 'Yours (= your letter) of the 18th
has just reached me.' 'Kind regards to you and yours' (= your
family). Compare Syntax, 57 5 a.

f. Indefinite Relative Adjectives Used as Pronouns. These
pronouns are treated in 7 IV b and 38 b.

g. Interrogative Adjectives Used as Pronouns. These pro-
nouns are treated in 7 VI and 41.
# CHAPTER III

## THE ADJECTIVE

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8. Definition, Classification, and Function. An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or pronoun, i.e. a word that is used with a noun or pronoun to describe or point out the living being or lifeless thing designated by the noun or pronoun: a little boy, that boy, this boy, a little house. There are two classes, descriptive and limiting. A descriptive adjective expresses either the kind or condition or state of the living being or lifeless thing spoken of: a good boy, a bright dog, a tall tree; a sick boy, a lame dog. The participles of verbs in adjective function are all descriptive adjectives, since they indicate either an active or passive state: running water, a dying soldier, a broken chair.

A limiting adjective, without expressing any idea of kind or condition, limits the application of the idea expressed by the noun to one or more individuals of the class, or to one or more parts of a whole, i.e. points out persons or things: this boy, this book, these boys, these books, my house, each house, many books; this part of the city, his share of the expense, etc.

In all the examples given above, the adjective stands before the noun. The adjective in this position is called an adherent adjective (Syntax, 10 I 1). In this position a descriptive adjective has less stress than the noun when it is desired to describe: 'this little boy.' When we desire to distinguish or classify we stress the descriptive adjective more than the noun: 'the little boy, not the big one' (distinguishing stress); 'Big words seldom go with good deeds' (classifying stress). But when we desire to stress a descriptive adjective and at the same time impart to it descriptive force we place it after the noun: 'a laugh musical but malicious.' In this position the adjective is called an appositive adjective. For fuller treatment see Syntax, 10 I 1.

In all of the examples given above, the adjectives are used attributively, i.e. are attributive adjectives, i.e. they stand before the noun or after it in direct connection with it; but the adjective can stand also after a linking (12 3) verb as a predicate, i.e. a word which says something of the subject: 'The tree is tall.' Here the adjective can be used also with a pronoun: 'John isn't here today; he is sick.' The predicate adjective stands also after the passive form of certain transitive verbs: 'He was found sick.' 'He is reported sick.' The predicative use of the adjective is discussed in Syntax, 7 B. As explained in 12 3, the linking verb is lacking when the adjective or participle predicates something of an object:
'I found him sick.' 'She boiled the egg hard.' 'I started the clock going.' 'I have some money coming to me yet.' 'They caught him cheating.' 'He kept me waiting.' 'I at last got the machine running.' 'I got my work done before six,' but with a different meaning with a change of accent: 'We get (or háve) our work done.' 'I had (or got) my leg hurt in an accident,' but 'I had (or g6t) a new suit made.' 'I consider the matter settled.' The predicate here can be also an adverb or a prepositional phrase with the force of a predicate adjective: 'She wished him here.' 'She wished him in better circumstances.' In all these examples the adjective, participle, adverb, or prepositional phrase is called an objective predicate. The subject of such a predicate is the preceding object. The objective predicate is now sometimes joined to its subject by a linking verb: 'She wished him to be here.' 'She found him sick' (or him to be sick). Compare 47 5 a (8th par.). In the passive the object becomes subject and the objective predicate becomes predicate: 'He was found sick.' 'He was caught cheating.'

A predicate adjective is often used as an appositive to a predicate noun — the predicate appositive: 'He is a good neighbor, always ready to lend a helping hand.' The predicate appositive is frequently joined to a verb of complete predication as a supplementary, modifying predication: 'I came home tired.' 'She ran into the house crying.' 'He was drowned bathing in the river.' The predicate appositive adjectives tired, crying, bathing, modify the verb of the sentence in which they stand and are thus adverbial elements. An adjective does not usually modify a verb, but a predicate adjective in this very common construction regularly does so, for one predication can modify another. In two of these three examples the predicate appositive is an adjective participle. The exceedingly frequent use of adjective participles as predicate appositive alongside of a verb of complete predication, as in the preceding examples, is one of the most conspicuous features of our language. Compare 47 4 and 15 2 (2nd par.).

An adjective or participle is often used as a noun: 'the dead and dying.' For fuller treatment see 43 3.

a. Noun, Adverb, Phrase, or Sentence Used as an Adjective. A noun, an adverb, a phrase, or a sentence is often used as an adjective: 'a stone (noun used as an adjective) bridge'; 'obvious printer's (or printers' genitive of a noun used as an adjective) errors'; 'the above (adverb used as an adjective) remark'; 'the then prime minister' (Trollope, Barchester Towers, I) (adverb used as an adjective); 'an up-to-date (prepositional phrase used as an adjective) dictionary'; 'a go-ahead (sentence used as an adjective) little city.' The use of a noun, a prepositional phrase, or an adverb
as an adjective is especially common in the predicate: 'He was fool enough to marry her.' 'He turned traitor.' 'The car is in good condition.' 'I am in favor of the measure.' 'He is always at strife with the world.' 'He was quite at ease.' 'He is not in.' 'The secret is out.' 'How are you today?' 'The struggle is over.' 'He is already up.' 'He is about (at the point, ready) to take the step.' 'How could it be otherwise?' 'She has her faults, but I should not wish her otherwise' (objective predicate). 'No further threats, [whether they be] economic or otherwise, have been made.' Compare Syntax, 7 A e, 7 B a aa, 7 F, 10 I 2, II 2 F a, b. Expressions like 'thoughts [which are] wise or otherwise' have led to incorrect expressions like 'the financial wisdom or otherwise of such undertakings,' 'the truth or otherwise of the statements.' We should say here: 'the wisdom or unwisdom of such undertakings,' 'the truth or untruth of the statements.' Also after passive verbs these forms are used as predicate adjectives: 'The car was found in good condition.'

There is a strong tendency for a predicate of-genitive modified by an adjective to drop its of, as noun and adjective are felt as a group of words with the force of an adjective: 'We are [of] the same age, the same size.' 'The door was [of] a dark brown.' 'The ring is [of] a pretty shade.' 'It's [of] no use to fret about it.' 'What price are potatoes today?' Likewise in the objective predicate relation: 'He made the two planks [of] the same width.' 'He painted the door [of] a green color.'

The use of nouns, adverbs, phrases, or sentences as adjectives has brought a large number of new, often very expressive, adjectives into the language: 'a baby boy,' 'a cat-and-dog life,' 'an up-to-date dictionary,' 'a dry-as-dust study,' 'a pay-as-you-go policy,' etc. Sometimes the new adjective is used alongside of an older adjective but with a different meaning. The new adjective is concrete, the older form abstract: 'a girl cashier,' but 'girlish ways'; 'a boy actor,' but 'a boyish trait'; 'a winter day,' but 'a wintry day'; 'Milton's prose works,' but 'a prosy talker' and 'a prosaic life'; 'a gold watch,' but 'a golden opportunity' and, in accordance with older usage, 'the hen that laid the golden (now gold) eggs.' Sometimes the two forms are differentiated in other ways: 'a stone bridge,' but 'a stony farm.' Sometimes there is no difference of meaning between the two forms — adjective or adjectival; substantive or substantival: 'adjective, or adjectival, elements.' In this last category the adjective with the distinctive adjective ending -al is the newer of the two forms, and often has not become thoroughly established yet. In a number of cases, however, the form with the distinctive adjective ending has
become established: ‘the adverbial (more common than adverb) suffix -ly,’ ‘a prepositional phrase,’ ‘the verbal ending,’ etc. We usually say ‘autumn woods,’ etc., but ‘autumnal equinox.’ Adjectives in -en are often used when the stem is simple, while the noun form is employed if the adjective is a compound or is modified: ‘wooden chairs,’ but ‘maple-wood chairs’; ‘woollen shawls,’ but ‘Shetland wool shawls.’ We use beech, flax, hemp, lead, leather, oak, etc., as adjectives, or in more formal language we may employ the form in -en; beechen, flaxen, etc.

b. Adjective Elements. Although a genitive or an appositive prepositional phrase may have adjective force, they are not adjectives in a formal sense, for they have marked peculiarities of form, or they do not have the usual position of an adjective. In ‘John’s book’ John’s, though formally the genitive of a noun, has the force of a limiting adjective. The fact that John’s has an ending shows that it is not an adjective, for adjectives do not take endings. In ‘a boy of the same age’ of the same age, though formally an of-genitive, has the force of a descriptive adjective; it has neither the form nor the usual position of a descriptive adjective. When of the same age becomes formally a predicate adjective it drops of: ‘We are the same age.’ Similarly, an adverb and a prepositional phrase often have the force of adjectives, though formally they are not adjectives, as is revealed by their position after the governing noun: ‘the room above,’ ‘the book on the table.’ Here above and on the table have the force of limiting adjectives, but their position shows that formally they are not adjectives. An infinitive often modifies a noun with the force of a descriptive adjective: ‘An opportunity to advance came.’

A relative clause, though it has a peculiar grammatical structure of its own, modifies, like an adjective, a noun or pronoun, pointing out or describing some person or thing: ‘The boy who is leaning on the fence is my brother.’ ‘He is a boy who loves play and hates work.’ The relative clause with a finite verb, as in these examples, is often replaced by a participial or infinitival relative clause: ‘The circus was all one family — parents and five children — performing (= who performed) in the open air.’ ‘He is not a man to be trifled with’ (= who can be trifled with). Also a conjunctional clause may modify a noun with the force of an adjective: ‘The day after (or before) he came was very beautiful.’

There is adjective force also in an appositive noun or clause: ‘And these footsteps dying on the stairs were Charley’s, his old friend of so many years.’ ‘These words were Cicero’s, the most eloquent of men.’ ‘I bought the book at Smith’s, the bookseller and stationer.’ ‘I bought the book at Smith’s, the bookseller on Main
Street.' ‘I bought the book at Smith’s, the bookseller’s [store].’ ‘I bought the book at Smith’s the bookseller.’ ‘We stopped at Mr. Barton the clergyman’s house for a drink of water.’ Similarly a whole clause may be an appositive: ‘The thought that we shall live on after death in a better world is a solace to many.’ An appositive clause of the nature of a loose comment upon some idea contained in a preceding word or group of words is now introduced by the indefinite relative pronoun which: ‘To know a thing, what we can call knowing, a man must first love the thing’ (Carlyle). ‘Brown has always envied the creative life force in Dion — what he himself lacks’ (Barrett H. Clark, Eugene O’Neill, p. 161). The appositive may precede its head-clause or be embedded in it: ‘What was very unusual with him, he arrived on time.’ ‘She would never change unless, what was absurd, he changed first.’ ‘And, which (now what) is worse, all you have done Hath been but for a wayward son’ (Shakespeare, Macbeth, III, v, 10). Compare 7 IV a. On the other hand, a modified noun may serve as an appositive to a preceding statement: ‘I, like many another, am apt to judge my fellow men in comparison with myself, a wrong and foolish thing to do.’

9. Compound Adjectives. On account of the loss of its endings the modern English adjective has acquired a great facility to form compounds: ‘an up-to-date dictionary,’ ‘a cut-and-dried affair,’ ‘a plain-clothes policeman,’ ‘my next-door neighbor,’ ‘a large-scale map,’ ‘the quarter-past-seven train,’ ‘this, that, and the other newspaper.’ Notice that English compounds are not always written together as one word. Compare 8 a and Syntax, 10 I 2.

a. Derivative Adjectives. Similar to compound adjectives are derivative adjectives, i.e. adjectives formed by adding to a noun, an adjective, or a verbal stem a suffix, which in most cases was originally an independent word. These suffixes are: –en, –fold, –ful, –ish, –less, –ly, –some, –y, –able, etc.: wooden, manifold, hopeful, childish, friendless, manly, lonesome, stony, bearable, etc.

The formation of derivative adjectives is treated in detail in Word-Formation.

10. Classes of Limiting Adjectives. Descriptive adjectives are so simple in nature that they do not form classes. Limiting adjectives, on the other hand, form distinct groups:

1. Possessive Adjectives. They are: my (in older English mine before a vowel), thy (in older English thine before a vowel), her, its (in older English it and in still older English his), our, your, their. Examples: my book, my books; thy kindness to us, O Lord; his book, his books; her book, her books; the little baby and its mother; our book (one book owned by two or more per-
sons), *our* books (the books owned in common or those owned separately); *your* book (one book owned by the person addressed); *your* book (one book owned by the two or more persons addressed); *your* books (the books owned in common by the two or more persons addressed, or the books owned by them separately); *their* book (one book owned by the two or more persons spoken of); *their* books (the books owned in common or the books owned separately). Examples of older usage: 'Shall I not take *mine* (now *my*) ease in *mine* (now *my*) inn?' (Shakespeare, *I Henry the Fourth*, III, iii, 93). ‘It had *it* (now *its*) head bit off by *it* (now *its*) young’ (*id.*, *King Lear*, I, iv, 236). ‘Ye are the salt of the earth: but if the salt have lost *his* (still lingering in the seventeenth century, though older than *it*; both later replaced by *its*) savor,’ etc. (*Matthew*, V, 13, edition of 1611). For the history of the possessive adjectives see 7 VII e aa.

a. Lively Tone in Possessive Adjectives. Possessive adjectives are often employed, not to express possession, but to convey the idea of appreciation or depreciation: ‘He knows *his* Shakespeare.’ ‘The boy has just broken *his* third glass.’ ‘*Your* true rustic turns his back upon his interlocutor’ (George Eliot). The writer or speaker often employs *your* to direct the attention of his readers or hearers to his own view: ‘I should like to believe it (i.e. that the greatest writers have never written anything); but I find it hard. *Your* great writer is possessed of a devil over which he has very little control’ (Huxley, *Vulgarity*, p. 7). *Our* often denotes a lively interest present in writer or speaker or to be evoked in reader or listener: ‘*Our* hero,’ ‘*Our* young friend,’ ‘*our* young scapegrace.’ ‘We must now introduce *our* reader to the interior of the fisher’s cottage’ (Scott, *The Antiquary*, Ch. XXVI, A.D. 1816).

b. Personal Pronoun Instead of Possessive Adjective. In the language of American Quakers *thee* is often used instead of *thy*: ‘Look, Margaret, *thee’s* (33 f, last par., and 54, close of 2nd par.) tearing the skirt of *thee* dress’ (*American Speech*, Jan., 1926, p. 118). The use of a personal pronoun instead of a possessive adjective is common in southern American dialect: ‘He roll *he* (= *his*) eyeballs “roun”’ (Joel Chandler Harris, *Nights with Uncle Remus*, p. 69). Similarly, *who* for *whose*: ‘SCIPIO. “I been to de trial.” VOICE. “*Who* trial?”’ (Edward C. L. Adams, *Congree Sketches*, p. 4). Of course also in British dialect, for our dialect was brought here by early British settlers: ‘arter *we* horses’ (Gepp, *Essex Dialect Dictionary*, p. 131) = *after* *our* horses; ‘at *us* (= *our*) own fireside’ (Lancashire).

c. Use of Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns with In-
DEFINITES. *He, his, him,* correspond to the numeral *one,* to *one — another,* and to *no one,* *someone,* *everyone,* *anyone:* ‘One of these men hates *his* enemies.’ ‘One hates *his* enemies and *another* forgives *his.*’ ‘If *someone* (or *anyone*) should lose *his* purse, *he* should apply to the Lost Property Office.’ ‘No *one* likes what doesn’t interest *him.*’ The corresponding reflexive is *himself:* ‘One of the boys fell and hurt *himself.*’ ‘No *one* can interest *himself* in everything.’

On the other hand, the possessive corresponding to absolute indefinite *one* (7 VII c bb) is *one’s:* ‘One never realizes *one’s* blessings while *one* enjoys them.’ The corresponding reflexive is *oneself* or *one’s self:* ‘One cannot interest *oneself* (or *one’s self*) in everything.’ We often, however, hear *himself* instead of *oneself* or *one’s self,* as in older English: ‘One might fall and hurt *himself,*’ ‘No *one* can interest *himself* in everything.’

2. Intensifying Adjectives. They are: *myself,* *ourself* (= *myself,* *thyself,* *yourself,* *himself* (in dialect *hisself*), *herself,* *itself* (in seventeenth and eighteenth centuries *its self*), *ourselves* (in older English *ourself*), *yourselves* (in older English *yourself*), *themselves* (in older English *themself*; in current dialect *their selves*), *oneself* or *one’s self* (the latter the older form and still often used in America, the former now the more common form). They intensify the force of a preceding noun or pronoun, making it emphatic: ‘Father *himself* admits it.’ ‘I saw it *myself.*’ ‘We think we have hinted elsewhere that Mr. Benjamin Allen had a way of becoming sentimental after brandy. The case is not a peculiar one as we *ourselves* can testify’ (Dickens, *Pickwick*, Ch. XXXVIII). ‘I heard it from a lady who *herself* was present.’ ‘They admit it *themselves.*’ ‘One must decide such things *oneself*’ (or *one’s self*). ‘That one should do right *oneself* (or *one’s self*) is the great thing.’ *Oneself* or *one’s self* intensifies the force of indefinite *one.* In infinitive clauses an indefinite subject is never expressed. Here indefiniteness is indicated merely by the suppression of the subject. Thus in such clauses intensifying *oneself* or *one’s self* stands alone without a preceding *one:* ‘To do right *oneself* (or *one’s self*) is the great thing.’

In case the governing word is a noun, we often use *very* instead of these adjectives, but it always precedes the noun: ‘He drew me out of the very jaws of perdition.’ To increase the intensity here we put *very* in the superlative: ‘You have bought the veriest rubbish.’ We always use *very* when we desire not only to intensify the force of the word but also to emphasize the idea of identity or coincidence: ‘You are the very man I am looking for.’

a. ORIGIN OF INTENSIFYING ADJECTIVES. Originally, as ex-
plained more fully in *Syntax*, 56 D, the *him* in *himself* and *her* in *herself* were datives: 'He saw it *himself*,' literally *for himself*, on *his own account*. In 'She saw it *herself*' *her* was originally a dative, like *him* in *himself*, but it was construed as a possessive adjective modifying the noun *self*. Other intensifying adjectives assumed a form to conform to this new conception: *myself*, *ourself*, *thyself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *one’s self*, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries *its self*, and in dialect *hisself*, *theirselves*. *Himself*, *itself*, *oneself*, *themselves*, follow the older type, in fact also *herself*, although we now feel it as belonging to the younger type. In this struggle between the two types *its self* has disappeared and *hisself* and *theirselves* have thrived only in dialect. *One’s self* is still often used in America, but it has yielded in England to the younger form *oneself*, which, however, is formed according to the old type. The younger form is now getting the upper hand also in America.

Although these adjectives fall into two different groups each with a different type of formation, they all now perform the same function — they are adjectives intensifying the noun or pronoun to which they belong. Near the end of the Middle English period these adjectives, like adjectives in general, were uninflected, hence had no distinctive plural form: 'we *ourself*,' 'you *yourself*,' 'they *themself*.' Of these forms *ourself* and *yourself* were often ambiguous. Before the beginning of the modern period -s began to appear in the plural to make the grammatical relations clear: 'we *ourself* (sing.), 'we *ourselves* (pl.); 'you *yourself* (sing.), 'you *yourselves* (pl.). About 1570 *themself* became *themselves* after the analogy of *ourselves*, *yourselves*. Compare 43 1.

6. INTENSIFYING ADJECTIVES USED AS PRONOUNS. The pronoun before an intensifying adjective sometimes drops out so that the intensifying adjective must assume the function of the pronoun in addition to its own, thus becoming an emphatic pronoun. This construction is most common in elliptical sentences: 'Did you ever know a woman to pardon another for being handsomer than *herself*' (= she *herself* was). It sometimes serves as the predicate of a sentence: 'You are not *yourself* today.' A feeling of modesty often suggests its use instead of the pompous *I myself*, *me myself*: ‘General Lee surrendered the Army of Northern Virginia this afternoon on terms proposed by *myself*’ (U. S. Grant, *Telegram to E. M. Stanton*, Apr. 9, 1865). This old construction is not so common as it was in early Modern English. It is more widely employed in England than in America: ‘His stable had caught fire, *himself* (in America *he himself*) had been all but roasted alive’ (Meredith, *The Ordeal of Richard Feverel*). Compare 7 VII a.

In early Modern English the intensifying adjective was often
used as an ordinary unemphatic personal pronoun: ‘*Himself* (now simple *he*) and Montmorin offered their resignation’ (Thomas Jefferson, *Autobiography*, p. 138). This older usage lingers in the literary language of England: ‘There’s only *myself* and Louisa here’ (Hugh Walpole, *The Duchess of Wrex*, Ch. XIII) = ‘There are only Louisa and *I* here.’ It is a feature of American colloquial speech: ‘John and *myself* (for *I*) were there.’ ‘He went with John and *myself* (for *me*).’ In older English this form could be used alone in the subject relation unaccompanied by another subject: ‘But *himsel*fe (now *he*) was not satisfied therwith’ (Bradford, *History of Plymouth Plantation*, p. 363, A.D. 1630–1638). This construction is receding in American English in this position, but it is well preserved in Irish English and occurs also in British English: ‘MILDRED. Dear me, what’s the matter with Jack? — BRIDGET. *Himself* (= *he*) is vexed about something’ (Lennox Robinson, *Harvest*, Act II). ‘*Herself* (= *she*) looked bewitching. She knew that she did’ (Hugh Walpole, *Harmer John*, Ch. VII).

For fuller treatment see *Syntax*, 56 D.

3. **Demonstrative Adjectives.** These adjectives point out living beings or lifeless things. The reference often becomes clear with the help of a gesture or the situation or context. These adjectives often point of themselves backward or forward to individuals already mentioned or to be mentioned or described. When they point forward to a following explanatory phrase or clause they are called determinatives. This important group is treated in e (p. 53). Some demonstrative adjectives indicate the individual by giving his place in a series or by including each individual in the series.

The adjectives of this important category are: *this,* *these; that,* *those;* in popular speech instead of *those* the forms *they* or more commonly *them,* both of which were once employed in the literary language; *the* (see e, p. 53), the definite article, the weakened form of an old demonstrative adjective now represented by *that; yonder,* in early Modern English also *yond* and *yon,* the latter of which is still common in American popular speech; *other; the same; one and the same; the identical,* sometimes an equivalent of *the same,* sometimes differentiated in meaning from it; *the very* (see 2 above, last par.), with the force of *identical; such;* in older English *suchlike,* now replaced by *such; a* (see e, p. 53), indefinite article; *former, latter; either; neither; both;* often also *each,* *every, all, half,* which frequently point to definite individuals and hence are not always indefinite, as they are usually classed. A number of these words often experience a change of form when used as pronouns. Their use as pronouns is treated in 7 VII b and 42 b.
Examples:
You may have this book and that one.
You may have these books and those.
Did you ever see anything finer than those (or in popular speech them or they) peonies?
I ain’t saying nothing agin they ( = those) bars — only that they ain’t as fresh as I like ’em (Hugh Walpole, Harmer John, Ch. IV).
This railway strike is a serious business.
The warres and weapons are now altered from them (now those) dayes (Barret, Theor. Warres, I, I, 4, a.d. 1598).
What is that noise?
I have just read Galsworthy’s dramas. I find these works as interesting as his novels.
He hasn’t returned yet those books which I lent him last summer.
These books which I hold in my hand need binding very much.
I want to impress upon you this one thing, Don’t impose upon your friends.
Among yonder hills there are some beautiful little lakes.
See how yond justice rails upon yond simple thief (Shakespeare, King Lear, IV, vi, 155).
Nerissa, cheer yon stranger (id., Merchant of Venice, III, ii, 239).
Yon plank will do (Dialect Notes, III, 101).
One of them is my brother. I do not know the other boy.
I am using the same Latin dictionary that I used as a boy.
Captain Absolute and Ensign Beverley are one and the same person (Sheridan, The Rivals, I, i).
Even at one and the same period different writers did not always use the letters with the same value (Henry Bradley, English Place Names, p. 9).
He is wearing the identical (or the same, or the very same) hat that he wore five years ago.
I am the identical man you met twenty years ago, but I am not the same man any more.
You are the very (see 2, 2nd par., p. 48) man I was looking for.
There are few such boys as he.
I have been using John’s dictionary. I wish I had such a dictionary of my own.
There is such confusion that I can’t collect my thoughts.
The confusion is such (predicate adjective) that I can’t collect my thoughts.
We need some such (adherent adjective; see 8) rule in every school.
Some such (adherent adjective) boys can be found in every neighborhood.
‘No such (adherent adjective) offer has ever been made before, and none [that is] such will ever be made again,’ or more commonly ‘none [that is] of the sort will ever be made again.’
‘Cultivated men — professors and others [that are] such’ (Herbert Spencer, Autobiography, I, p. 486), or others of the sort.
He always gives this excuse or another [that is] such, or another of the sort.  
He is a bad boy. I didn’t know we had one [that is] such, or one of the sort, in the neighborhood.

These are bad boys. You will find some [that are] such, or some of the sort, in every neighborhood.

‘These are bad boys. I didn’t know we had any [that are] such, or any of the sort, in the neighborhood,’ or ‘I hope we haven’t many such, or many of the sort, in the neighborhood.’

In the last examples such is a predicate adjective and the form before it is a pronoun. In older English and sometimes still the form before such is an adherent (8) adjective and such is a pronoun: ‘Tis plain enough, he was no such’ (Butler, Hudibras, I, I, 44, A.D. 1663), now none such. ‘Setting aside the hideous vulgarity of the well-to-do stockbrokers and other such’ (W. Morris, News from Nowhere, Ch. XXII), now usually others such or others of the sort. In early Modern English, after any, many, other, we sometimes find the like or suchlike instead of such here: ‘as for these objections or any the like’ (H. Smith, Works, II, 97, A.D. 1592); ‘and many the like’ (Bacon, ‘Of Seditions and Troubles,’ Essays, A.D. 1625); ‘these scriptures and many suchlike’ (George Fox, Journal, p. 250, A.D. 1656).

a. ‘Every’ and ‘Each.’ Be careful to use every and each properly: ‘There were blackboards between the windows,’ not ‘There was a blackboard between each window.’ We should say, ‘pausing between the sentences’ or ‘pausing between every sentence and the next’; not ‘pausing between every sentence’ (George Eliot, Adam Bede).

After a possessive adjective or the genitive of a noun every and each may be employed as an attributive adjective instead of being used as a pronoun before a partitive genitive: ‘She indulged his every whim,’ or every one of his whims. ‘We indulged the baby’s every whim,’ or its every whim, or every one of its whims. ‘She blocked his each new effort at being articulate’ (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, Ch. XXIV), or each of his new efforts. Compare Syntax, 10 II 2 H b (last par.).

As every totalizes (7 VII b, 3rd par.), it forms individual units into a higher unit: ‘He comes every three days.’ Hence its meaning is often very comprehensive with the force of all possible: ‘There is every prospect of success.’

Each and every are often used together, each individualizing and every totalizing, thus strengthening the statement by the two different points of view: ‘We will examine carefully each and every complaint.’
b. 'Both,' 'All,' 'Half,' 'Each.' With these words there are peculiarities of word-order: 'Both brothers, or both the brothers, are dead,' or 'The brothers are both dead.' 'Both my friends saw it,' or 'My friends both saw it.' 'All the boys saw it,' or 'The boys all saw it.' 'All the boys were there,' or 'The boys were all there.' 'I saw them all (predicate appositive adjective) there,' or 'I saw all (pronoun) of them there.' 'Half the boys were there.' 'I had only half (predicate appositive adjective) a piece,' or 'I had only half (pronoun) of a piece.' 'I have only half (predicate appositive adjective) what I need,' or 'I have only half (pronoun) of what I need.' 'Each brother has done his full duty,' or 'The brothers each have done their full duty.' 'Each boy received a penny,' or 'The boys received a penny each' (or apiece, adverb = severally). 'I gave each boy a penny,' or 'I gave the boys a penny each.' For fuller treatment see Syntax, 6 C.

c. 'Suchlike' in Older English. Older literary use of suchlike as an adherent (8) adjective survives in popular speech: 'Panoramas and suchlike (in the literary language now replaced by such) exhibitions have delighted us as well as our fathers.' It even lingers here and there in the literary language: 'Read the records of these and other suchlike words in this little treatise' (Edward Gepp, An Essex Dialect Dictionary, Introduction, p. 4, A.D. 1920).

d. Meaning of 'Either.' This form has two quite different meanings — the older with the force of each of the two, both, now on account of its ambiguity much less used than formerly, the younger meaning with the force of the one or the other of the two, now the more common meaning: 'Much may be said on either side' (or now more commonly each side or both sides). 'I received no reply to either question' = 'Both questions remained unanswered.' 'You may take either side' (= one side or the other).

e. Determinatives. When demonstrative adjectives and demonstrative pronouns (7 VII b) point forward to a following explanatory phrase or clause, they are called determinatives: 'the book on the table'; 'the book I hold in my hand'; 'such books as instruct'; 'this book and the one on the table'; 'these books and the ones on the table'; 'this book and the one (or that one) you hold in your hand'; 'those (or in popular speech they or them) books that you lent me'; 'every book on the table.' Compare 7 VII b bb.

Such, a, like that, like those, and, in loose colloquial speech, simple like are often used as qualitative determinatives to indicate kind or degree: 'We'll each of us give you such a thrashing as, a thrashing such as, or a thrashing that you'll remember.' 'Such meat as is the most dangerously earned is the sweetest.' 'He is not a
man that can be trifled with,' or 'He is not a man to trifle with.'
'Scrooge was not a man to be frightened by echoes.'
'John is a boy that you can depend upon.'
'John and William are such boys as, or boys that (with the omission of a in the plural), you can depend upon.'
'I am working tonight amid such confusion (= confusion so great) that I can't keep my thoughts together.'
The confusion was such (predicate adjective) that I couldn't keep my thoughts together,' or 'The confusion was such as to render it impossible for me to keep my thoughts together.'
'Nowadays we don't get pies such as Mother used to make;' or like those (or colloquially simple like) Mother used to make. Compare 7 VII b bb (4th par.). Compare also Syntax, 56 A (7th par.).

In older English and sometimes still, this or those is used instead of such as a qualitative determinative or demonstrative to indicate a kind or degree: 'I have not from your eyes that (now usually such) gentleness as I was wont to have' (Shakespeare, Julius Caesar, I, i, 33).
'The town was reduced to those (now usually such or so great) straights that, if not relieved, it must have surrendered in two daies time' (Luttrell, Brief Rel., I, 567, a.d. 1689).
'Katia was a great fight. It's those (now usually such) fights (the odds against us) that have really daunted the Germans' (Sir Walter Raleigh, Letter to Lady Wemyss, Jan. 13, 1917).
'Those is still regularly so used after the indefinite pronoun one: 'Mrs. William Morrison was one of those people who always speak decisively' (L. W. Montgomery, Chronicles of Avonlea, Little Jocelyn).

'SUCH' WITH THE FORCE OF 'THAT,' 'THOSE,' 'THIS,' 'THESE,' 'THE.' In older English, such often lost the idea of a particular kind and pointed to definite persons or things, just like that, those, this, these, without any difference in meaning: 'That the reader, therefore, may not conceive the least ill opinion of such a (= this) person, we shall not delay a moment in rescuing his character from the imputation of this guilt' (Fielding, Tom Jones, Book VII, Ch. XV).
'But we are sure that the judgment of God is according to truth against them which commit such things' (Romans, II, 2), here with the force of this thing, or simply this or it, for the reference is to a definite thing, namely, passing judgment upon others, mentioned in the preceding verse. 'Thow shalt conceyve a child . . . And his name shalle 3ou Ihesu calle . . . Suche (= these) wordis were seid to Mary' (Cursor Mundi, 10869, about a.d. 1300). Such, followed by a relative as-clause, is still often used with almost the force of those, but it has a meaning a little more indefinite than those — which differentiation has preserved it: 'Major Pendennis spent the autumn passing from house to house of such country friends as were at home to receive him' (Thackeray,
Pendennis, II, Ch. XXX). Compare 7 VII b bb (last par.). Similarly, such is often used instead of this referring back to a preceding noun where the reference is indefinite: ‘A gratuity awarded to any clerk shall be estimated according to the period during which such clerk has served’ (Act 41 Vict. c. 52). We now often prefer the, this, or that here to such: ‘That there is a void in a millionaire’s life is not disproved by anyone showing that a number of millionaires do not recognize such (or the, this, or that) void.’

g. Intensive ‘Such.’ Such or such a is often used as an absolute intensive without an expressed comparison, indicating in a general way a high degree of a quality, sometimes standing alone before a noun, sometimes followed by an adjective which expresses the quality more accurately: ‘I have never seen such a storm,’ or more accurately such a terrible storm, or with the adverb so instead of the adjective such: so terrible a storm. The adjective construction is the usual one before a plural noun: ‘I have never seen such children,’ or more accurately such good children or such bad children.

h. Redundancy. In older English, same is used redundantly after a demonstrative — this, these, that, those, yon: ‘If this same palmer will me lead from hence’ (Scott, Marmion, I, XXV). This usage is still common in popular speech, especially in Negro dialect: ‘I’m gwine ter larrup that same Mr. Man’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 35). In current popular speech here and there are similarly used: ‘Look at this here (or this ’ere) book!’ ‘Do it thisa (= this here) way!’ ‘I never saw it done thata (= that there) way.’ Compare Syntax, 56 A (2nd par.).

i. Emotional ‘That’ and ‘This.’ That and this are often employed unaccompanied by a gesture and marked by a peculiar tone of voice expressing praise or censure, pleasure or displeasure: ‘And then I sit and think of that dear wife of mine that I lost a quarter of a century ago’ (De Morgan, Joseph Vance, Ch. XXXIII). ‘Do you think the girls would consider it narrow if I asked them to stop that dancing and whooping’ (Sidgwick, Severins, Ch. III). ‘Upon my word, of all the horrid men that I ever heard of this publisher of yours is the worst’ (R. Haggard, Meeson’s Will). Compare 27 4 A b (3).

j. ‘Yea.’ The definite article the is sometimes still for archaic effect written ye, the y representing older ð and hence pronounced th: ‘ye old town.’

4. Numerical Adjectives. They indicate number. There are three classes:

a. Cardinal Numerical Adjectives. They are employed in counting: ‘two (or in older English twain or tway) men,’ ‘the first
three years,’ ‘three dollars,’ ‘four dollars,’ ‘fifty-five dollars,’ ‘one hundred and fifty dollars’; ‘three years and a half,’ or ‘three and a half years’; ‘one pound and a half,’ or ‘one and a half pounds’; ‘thirty-one and two-thirds inches,’ ‘thirty-one and three-eighths inches,’ etc., but quarter is always uninflected as adjective: ‘thirty-one and three-quarter inches.’ ‘The house cost a hundred thousand dollars.’ ‘Two million copies of the book have been sold.’ ‘I have a hundred and one (or a thousand and one) things to look after.’ In early Modern English it was usual to say one-and-twenty, one-and-thirty, etc.

Other adjective forms often take the place of the regular cardinal adjectives: ‘a dozen eggs,’ ‘two dozen eggs,’ ‘three score years.’ Odd (or sometimes and odd) is added to a cardinal to indicate an indefinite surplus, cardinal and odd (or and odd) together forming a compound numeral: ‘There were fifty odd (or and odd) boys there’ (i.e. between fifty and sixty boys). ‘The book has five hundred odd (or and odd) pages.’ The indefinite adjective some (10 6) is often placed before the cardinal to indicate the idea of approximation: ‘The club consists of some forty members.’ These numerals are called cardinals (from Latin cardo ‘hinge’) because they are the most important words of number on which the others hinge.

The numerals one, only, sole, are used in many idiomatic expressions to indicate oneness: ‘Some one man must direct.’ ‘No one man can do it.’ ‘I don’t know any one house that has so many good points as this.’ ‘He has the one fault that he is not punctual.’ ‘There is one napkin too many’ (one napkin which is not needed). ‘This line has a (reduced form of one) foot too much’ (Note to Merchant of Venice, II, vii, 2, in Clarendon Press ed.; more commonly a foot too many). ‘He is an only child.’ ‘This is the only instance known.’ ‘This is my one and only hope.’ ‘That was his sole reason.’

b. Ordinal Numeral Adjectives. They denote position or order in a series: ‘the first, second, third, last day of the month.’ ‘He had now attained his twenty-fifth (in older English five-and-twentieth) year.’ ‘After the twenty-somethingth attempt to go to sleep I decided to lie where I fell.’ From another point of view these adjectives may be classed as demonstratives (10 3).

In early Modern English, fift, sixt, twelft, were still in use, but were later replaced by fifth, sixth, twelfth, to bring the form of these ordinals into harmony with that of the other ordinals from fourth onwards. In Middle English, French second supplanted English other. The older English ordinal survives in ‘every other day.’

c. Multiplicatives. They indicate multiplication, twofold,
Relative Adjectives

10 5 Relative Adjectives. There are two groups:

a. Definite 'Which.' This form often points backward to a definite antecedent: 'We traveled together as far as Paris, at which place we parted.'

b. Indefinite Relative Adjectives. Which, what (more indefinite than which), which(so)ever, what(so)ever, are widely used as relative adjectives without definite reference. Although these adjectives never refer to a definite antecedent, they are genuine conjunctives in that they link the clause in which they stand to the principal proposition. They introduce a substantive clause, i.e. a noun clause in the relation of a subject or object of the principal verb or an appositive to a noun: 'It is not known which, or what, course he will pursue' (subject clause). 'I do not know which, or what, course he will pursue' (object clause). 'The question which, or what, course he will pursue (appositive clause) has not yet been settled.' 'I will approve whichever, or whatever, course you decide upon' (object clause). 'I have lost what little confidence in him I ever had' (object clause). 'He was not a man given to much talking, but what little he did say (subject clause) was generally well said.' 'He has very few books, but what few he has (object clause) he reads and rereads.' The object clause may be the object of a preposition, preposition and object clause forming together a unit called a prepositional clause: 'You can rely upon whatever promises he may make.' 'Let's hold on to what certainties we can.'

The adjectives in -ever and simple which are used also in adverbial concessive clauses (15 2 i, 18 B 5): 'I am going to pursue this course, whatever sacrifices it may demand.' 'He will find difficulties whichever course he may take.' 'Sometimes, turn my head whichever way I would I seemed to see the gold' (George Eliot, Silas Marner, Ch. XIX).

In older English, whether was often used here with the force of which of the two: 'Yet whether side was victor note (57 4 A e) be ghest' (Spenser, The Faerie Queene, V, VII, III, a.d. 1590) = 'Yet which side [of the two] was victor could not be determined.'

6. Indefinite Adjectives. They are: a, an; not a, no (in older
58  INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES

English none before a vowel: 'to none effect,' now 'to no effect'),
nary (popular for ne'er a, from never a); all; any; any (popular for
e'er a) = any; this and (or or) that; this, that, and (or or) the other;
every; a(n) — or so; several; some; some or another or some or
other; one or another or one or other; one or the other; many; many a;
the many; a many, now archaic or poetic though once common,
but the modified forms a good many, a great many, are still common;
numerous; innumerable; countless; myriad; various; other, an-
other; a certain, certain; divers (archaic); sundry (archaic); all
and sundry (archaic); considerable (of things immaterial; in
American colloquial speech also of things material); much; more
or, in older English where the reference is to number, mo or moe
(Old English ma); little, a little; less; few, a few; enough; sufficient;
plenty, plentier, plentiest, now most common in the predicate rela-
tion, but in general obsolete in adjective use in the literary language,
though common in all adjective functions in dialect, especially
Scotch and Irish; such (10 3 f); such and such, such or such.

Examples:
There was a (an old) man here to see you.
Not a boy was absent.
Not a muscle of his face moved.
Tibbits is not a (= nô, i.e. quite other than a) scholar, a genius (Lytton,
Caxtons, IV, Ch. III).
I am nô (= ndt a, i.e. quite other than a) genius (ib.).
I have no secret. I am not a (= nô, i.e. quite other than a) quack
(Shaw, The Doctor's Dilemma, I, 32).
This is nô (= ndt a, i.e. quite other than a) part of my plan.
I am in no hurry = I am not in any hurry.
Nô (= not any) occasion could be more appropriate than this.
He did it in nô (= hardly any) time.
All boys are not alike.
It took all the strength I had to do it.
I haven't any money left.
There aren't any boys in our neighborhood.
She takes larning easier than ary young un ever I seed (Lucy Furman,
The Glass Window, Ch. III).
Truth must not be measured by the convenience of this or that man
(Berkeley).
Idle people jot down their idle thoughts, and then post them to this,
that, and the other newspaper.
She spends a week or so every summer with her friend.
Several books were damaged.
All of us in our several (= respective) stations have our work to do.
Each has his several (= individual) ideal (Concise Oxford Dictionary).
The joint and several (= separate) efforts of all three may be safely
left to the contemptuous indifference of the nation (London Times).
Some people believe it.
We have some good butter today.
We went some miles out of our way.
They were some little (or considerable) distance ahead of us.
They were some fifty yards away from us.
Hardly a day passes in which we do not have some visitor or other.
Some idiots or other have been shooting all night.
Some time or other we may be at leisure.
For some cause or other (or another) he was not at home.
Every man has, one time or other (or another), a little Rubicon.
Most applicants are deficient in one or other qualification.
You must go one way or the other.
He has helped many men, many a man.
Of the many men I have met this summer he is the most interesting.
Many (predicate adjective) are the afflictions of the righteous
(Psalms, XXXIV, 19).
Many's the tale he has told us.
Your gentle, genial letter is as kind and indulgent to me as a favorite relative, and my thanks in return are many (predicate adjective) and most fervid (James Whitcomb Riley, Letter to Frank S. Sherman, Jan. 8, 1891).
They have not shed a many tears, Dear eyes, since first I knew them well (Tennyson, The Miller's Daughter, 219).
A great many mistakes have been made.
The plan has numerous advantages.
His visit to the old home called up myriad (innumerable or countless) scenes of his childhood.
There were riots in various places.
I met him the other day on the street.
I am hunting a few other examples of this construction.
The little prince's education teaches him that he is other (predicate adjective) than you (Meredith, Egoist).
I do not want him other (objective predicate) than he is.
I will do it another time.
That is quite another thing.
There was there a certain John Smith.
I felt a certain reluctance to do it.
There was an incredible frivolity about her sister at certain moments.
The old gentleman made divers (now more commonly several) ineffectual efforts to get up (Smollett, Peregrine Pickle, Ch. LXVI, A.D. 1751).
There are sundry (more commonly various) weighty reasons why I should go.
'He, this school autocrat, gathered all and sundry reins into the hollow of his one hand' (Charlotte Brontë, Villette, Ch. XV), more commonly each and every rein.
He has considerable influence.
He has invested considerable (colloquial American) money in it.
He has much patience, land, property.
Soul, thou hast much (now many) goods laid up for many years (Luke, XII, 19).

They taught much (now many) people (Acts, XI, 26).
Older 'Much oats is grown here' is now replaced by 'Large quantities of (or in colloquial speech lots of) oats are grown here,' as much cannot now stand before a plural mass noun that requires a plural verb.

Send out moe (now more) horses (Shakespeare, Macbeth, V, ii, 34).
We need one more (= additional) teacher.
We need two more teachers.
He has little patience, land, property.
He needs a little patience, a little money, a little salt.
I can do with less money, less clothes, less troops.
The public wants more action and less (better than fewer, for here the idea of totality is more prominent than that of separate individuals) words (review of a drama).

We can get along with one less (after the analogy of more) teacher.
Have you enough money with you?
There was just sufficient water for drinking.
'They (i.e. the factory girls) can earn so much when work is plentiful' (Mrs. Gaskell, Mary Barton, Ch. IX), now usually plentiful.
Poets would be plentier (J. R. Lowell, My Study Windows, 22).
Although there are plenty (now usually in the literary language plenty of) other ideals that I should prefer (R. L. Stevenson, Inland Voyage, 8).
There was plenty (in literary English plenty of) food of all descriptions (Irish English).

I will meet you at this or such other place as shall be deemed proper.
Such and such a cause has such and such an effect.
Such and such causes have such and such effects.
The question which we contend is of so transcendent moment is, not whether such or such knowledge is of worth, but what is its relative worth? (Spencer, Education).

a. MEANS OF IMPARTING FEELING. Feeling may be imparted to the statement by placing ever so before certain of these adjectives: 'I've taken ever so much trouble, but it's no good' (W. E. Collinson). 'I'm afraid I've made ever so many mistakes' (id.).

b. AMERICAN 'SOME' WITH FORCE OF DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVE. In American slang some is widely employed as a descriptive adjective expressing a high degree of excellence: 'She is some girl.' Often ironically: 'That is some car.' This intensive use of some has developed out of the literary language, where this force is often to be observed: 'a Person of good Sense and some Learning' (Steele, Spectator, No. 106, par. 5). In American speech this force has been extended to the adverb some described in 42 c aa (3rd par.).

c. FORM OF INDEFINITE ARTICLE. The indefinite article a or
an, the reduced form of the numeral one, has preserved the n of the original word only before a vowel sound: a boat; a house; a union (yúnynən); not a one (wun); but an apple; an heir (with silent h).

There is fluctuation of usage before an initial h where the syllable is unaccented. In the literary language of England it has long been usual to place an here before the h: an historical character; an hotel; etc. At the present time, however, this usage is not universal in England. The British scholar H. W. Fowler in his Modern English Usage even calls it pedantic. In America it is usual to employ a here, although some follow the prevailing British usage. The difference of usage here rests upon an older difference of pronunciation. In America, Ireland, Scotland, and the extreme northern part of England initial h has been preserved. In the English dialects it has for the most part been lost, but in standard English under the influence of the written language and Scotch and Irish usage it has been restored. For a long time, however, it was pronounced weakly or not at all in unaccented syllables, which gave rise to the spelling an in ‘an historical character,’ ‘an hotel,’ etc. Older spelling, such as ‘an hundred crowns’ (Shakespeare, Taming of the Shrew, V, ii, 128), ‘an hill’ (Matthew, V, 14), shows that in early Modern English initial h was not always pronounced in England even in accented syllables.

7. Interrogative Adjectives. They are: what (indefinite) and which (more definite). Like other adjectives, they modify nouns referring to persons or things: ‘What boy (or ‘boys’) in our neighborhood would do such a thing?’ ‘What (how much) pudding is there left?’ ‘What price are eggs today?’ ‘What (pred. adj.) are eggs today?’ ‘What (of what nature) is the real situation?’ ‘What (how great) is the extent of the damage?’ ‘Which book (or ‘boy’) did you finally choose?’ In indirect questions (7 VI b): ‘I asked her what girls were going along with her.’ ‘I asked him what the real situation was.’ ‘I asked him what book (or ‘books’) I should read.’ These indirect interrogatives are interrogative conjunctive adjectives (18 B), i.e. they bind the clause to the principal proposition.

8. Proper Adjectives. Proper adjectives, i.e. adjectives derived from a proper noun, often do not denote a kind or a condition, but are limiting adjectives, identifying a being or thing: ‘a Harvard student,’ ‘the United States flag,’ ‘the German universities,’ ‘the English navy,’ ‘the Chicago post office,’ ‘the Presbyterian church,’ ‘a Shakespearean scholar,’ ‘the Smith residence,’ etc. On the other hand, they, of course, often have the force of descriptive adjectives: ‘very clever, with a little of the Tennysonian leaven in
them' (Longfellow's comment on Matthew Arnold's poems). 'The acting of Kean is Shakespearean' (Keats). 'He has Smith pluck and energy' (words of Mr. Smith, speaking of his oldest son). Notice that proper adjectives begin with a capital. They, of course, are written with a small letter when they lose their specific application: 'hermetic seal,' 'quixotic sentiments,' 'china dishes,' 'italic type,' etc.

As can be seen by the examples, proper adjectives are of two kinds—true adjectives and proper nouns used as adjectives. The latter class is quite common: 'the great Mississippi flood of 1927,' 'Rocky Mountain goats,' 'the Rockefeller Foundation,' 'the Field Museum' (at Chicago). 'He was very Herries (family name) in some things: in his passion for England—he had all the Herries ignorant contempt for foreigners' (Hugh Walpole, Rogue Herries, p. 194). As seen in the last example, proper nouns are used as adjectives not only attributively but also predicatively.

9. Exclamatory Adjectives. In exclamations what and what a are used: 'What nonsense!' 'What a shame!' 'What a beautiful day!' 'What people!' 'What (how great) babies you are!' 'What (how many) hours I have spent on these useless exercises!' 'What (predicate adjective = how great) was my surprise when I heard that he had resigned!' In these examples what with the peculiar tone of voice associated with it indicates that there is something of a surprising or striking nature in the person(s) or thing(s) to which it points.

Such is often used in exclamations with the force of great: 'We have had such sport!' Often with intensive force: 'We have had such a wonderful time!'
CHAPTER IV
THE VERB

11. Definition. The verb is that part of speech that predicates, assists in predications, asks a question, or expresses a command: 'The wind blows.' 'He is blind.' 'Did he do it?' 'Hurry!

12. Classes. There are four classes — transitive, intransitive, linking, and auxiliary.

1. Transitive Verbs. A transitive verb is a verb that requires an object (27 2 a) — noun, pronoun, or clause — to complete its meaning: 'The boy struck his dog.' 'The girl loves her doll.' 'The cat sees a bird, and is watching it.' 'They raise chiefly corn in this section of the country.' 'I see by the tracks in the snow that somebody has been here.' 'I believe that he is honest.' In 'He struck me' the object me indicates a person toward whom the activity is directed, but in 'He struck a light' the object light indicates the result of the action. In other sentences the object may have other meanings. The characteristic thing about an object is that it stands in a close relation to the verb, completing its meaning: 'I heard a groan.' Compare 27 2 a.

Where the action passes back to the doer we call the transitive verb a reflexive: 'She is dressing herself.' 'He hurt himself.' 'I usually shave myself.' The object here is always a reflexive pronoun (7 II).

Verbs which are usually intransitive often become transitive by taking a cognate object, i.e. a noun of a meaning cognate or similar to that of the verb, repeating and explaining more fully the idea expressed by the verb. The cognate object is usually modified by one or more adjectives or by an of-genitive, which makes it possible to describe the action still more accurately: 'He died a
violent death.’ ‘He is living a sad and lonely life.’ ‘He laughed a little short ugly laugh.’ ‘He sighed a sigh of ineffable satisfaction.’ Of course, a large number of other verbs usually intransitive become transitive when they take an object to complete their meaning: ‘Many workless are walking the streets.’ ‘He went the shortest way.’ ‘He looked daggers.’ ‘She wept bitter tears.’ ‘He ran errands.’ ‘They sat out the dance.’ ‘He slept off his vexation.’ ‘She cried herself to sleep.’ ‘He smoked himself into calmness.’

a. CAUSATIVES. There is in our language, as a survival of a once much wider usage, a little group of causatives formed from intransitives and now distinguished from them by a change of vowel or by a change of vowel and a change of consonant: ‘The baby is sitting (intrans.) on a chair by the windows,’ but ‘The mother picks up the baby and sets (trans. caus.) it on a chair by the window’ (i.e. makes it sit on a chair). ‘The baby is lying (intrans.) in the cradle,’ but ‘The mother lays (trans. caus.) the baby into the cradle.’ ‘The tree falls’ (intrans.), but ‘The woodman fells (trans. caus.) the tree.’ ‘He always rises (intrans.) to the occasion,’ but ‘Her family is rearing (or raising; both trans. caus.) a sumptuous mausoleum over her remains.’ ‘He drinks (intrans.) hard,’ but ‘The storm is drenching (trans. caus.) our clothes’ (i.e. is making them drink).

Today we have little feeling for the construction just described. We often simply use an intransitive as a transitive causative without a change of form, in accordance with the common English principle of using the same form as an intransitive or a transitive: ‘The horse swam (intrans.) across the river.’ ‘He swam (trans. caus.) his horse across the river.’ ‘The snow is melting (intrans.).’ ‘The sun is melting (trans. caus.) the snow.’ ‘Here once stood (intrans.) a huge oak.’ ‘I stood (trans. caus.) my rifle against the oak.’ ‘She flew (intrans.) across the Atlantic and flew (trans. caus.) her own plane.’

In most cases, however, the causative idea is expressed by placing an auxiliary — cause, make, have, get, and let — before the infinitive or the past participle of the verb to be employed: ‘Black spot (disease) is causing the rosebush to drop its leaves.’ ‘He didn’t want to do it, but I made him do it.’ ‘I shall have him cut the grass soon.’ ‘I had (or got) a new suit made.’ ‘I finally got him to do it.’ ‘He soon let his power be felt.’ ‘He let it be known to only a few friends.’ Compare 49 2 e.

There is another quite different group of causatives, which have come into wide use in the modern period. They are formed by suffixing -en to adjectives: ‘Travel broadens our view of life.’ ‘Suffering deepens our feeling and widens our sympathy.’ ‘A few
kind words lighten our burdens.' Some of these forms are used either transitively or intransitively: 'Exposure hardens (trans.) this stone.' 'This stone hardens (intrans.) with exposure.' The suffix -en is sometimes added to nouns to form causatives: 'A little encouragement often heartens us to further effort.' 'Discouragements from outside only serve to heighten his determination.'

2. Intransitive Verbs. An intransitive verb denotes a state or simple action without any reference to an object: 'John is sleeping.' 'I dream every night.' 'He often acts rashly.' 'The sun is melting (trans.) the snow,' but 'The snow is melting' (intrans.).

Transitive verbs are often used intransitively without an object when the thought is directed to the action alone: 'Mary is dressing (herself).’ ‘He hid (himself) behind a tree.’ ‘He overeats (himself).’ 'He likes to give.' 'We wash (the linen) every Monday.' Compare Syntax, 46.

A large number of our present-day intransitives were once transitives with a reflexive object: 'Which way will I turne me?' (Lyly, Euphues and His England, Works, II, p. 142, A.D. 1580). 'At the breach of day we six made us for the mountaine' (Lithgow, Travels, VI, p. 377, A.D. 1632), i.e. set (or headed) ourselves for. Gradually the reflexive disappeared, as the verb seemed to the English mind sufficient of itself. This development started very early, even in the Old English period. In English it has become perfectly natural to employ a reflexive verb as an intransitive: 'I dressed and shaved as quickly as I could.' 'She bowed to me.' 'I must wash before dinner.' In some cases, however, the old reflexive object still lingers: 'Behave!' or 'Behave yourself!' In some verbs the reflexive pronoun is still always used: bestir, betake, pride, etc.: 'She prides herself on her cooking.' Sometimes the simple and the reflexive form are both used, each with a difference of meaning: 'He proved himself worthy of the position,' but 'He had made acquaintance with a lady who proved to be the countess of Drogheda.' There is the same fluctuation with the use of the reciprocal pronoun. The pronoun may be used or dropped, with a strong tendency for it to disappear: 'The two had never met each other before' or more commonly had never met before. 'We soon came to a place where two roads crossed each other' or more commonly crossed. In 'They kissed each other tenderly' we still feel the force of the pronoun, but we say 'Kiss and be friends' without the pronoun as we desire to express action pure and simple. Compare Syntax, pp. 438, 439.

Many intransitives — both the original stock and those developed from the reflexive form — have developed passive force:
'Snow is blowing (= is being blown) in at the window.' 'His hat blew (= was blown) into the river.' 'The grave had closed (= had been closed) over all he loved.' 'Some letters of a typewriter get more worn than others, and some wear (= get worn) only on one side.' 'Some builders prefer receiving the graystone lime ground dry as it mixes (= gets mixed) more readily when it is made up into mortar.' 'These pears don't cook (= can't be cooked) well.' 'This cloth won't wash' (= can't be washed). 'This wood doesn't split (= can't be split) straight.' 'The boat steers (= can be steered) well under all circumstances.' This usage is most common, as in these examples, where the action seems to take place of itself. We think of the activity pure and simple when we use these verbs and those in the two preceding paragraphs. See also 49 4. For more examples compare Syntax, p. 440.

3. Linking Verbs. Although we very commonly make assertions and ask questions by means of verbs, they are not absolutely necessary, and in fact we often do without them: 'A sad experience!' 'Our sister dead!' 'John a cheat!' 'Everything in good order.' This is an old type of sentence, once more common than now. It is employed when the thing predicated of the subject is an adjective, noun, adverb, or prepositional phrase. It was originally thought sufficient to place the predicate adjective, noun, adverb, or prepositional phrase alongside of the subject, before it or after it. This old type of sentence is called the appositional type as the predicate lies alongside of the subject and predicates of itself without the aid of a finite verb. It is still quite commonly employed when something is predicated of an object: 'I found him reconciled to his lot.' 'I have always found him a true friend.' 'I found him in poor health.' 'She boiled the egg hard.' Even in the earliest records of the oldest languages in our family a new style of predication had begun to appear. The predicate adjective, noun, adverb, or prepositional phrase was joined to the subject by means of the copula be, as in the following modern English sentences: 'The boy is tall.' 'He is a carpenter.' 'He is up already.' 'Everything is in good condition.' The copula be performs here merely the function of announcing the predicate. It does not itself predicate; it only links the predicate to the subject. We can still often dispense with it and after a direct object it is still for the most part lacking, although it is now sometimes used here, as illustrated in 8 (4th par.). In the prehistoric period there was a time when there was no such thing as a copula. Later it gradually came into use, but even in the earliest records of the oldest languages it was not freely used as today. Its use spread because there was an absolute need of such a linking word. Its
introduction into our family of languages was one of the greatest events in the history of our family. It has a quality of great value. It has tenses. This copula, like all copulas, was once a full verb with concrete meaning. Later it lost its concrete meaning and developed into a copula, but fortunately it retained its old tenses which it had when it was a full verb. The original appositional type of sentence has no tense forms and hence has only a limited field of usefulness. It can be employed only where the context or the situation makes the thought clear. The introduction of the copula be opened up new possibilities of human expression.

We have about sixty copulas in English. Their wide and varied use is the most prominent feature of our language. They have been springing up for centuries and within the modern period have been especially active. As these copulas have all with the exception of be come into use within the historic period we can study them and see what they are. Become in the ninth century meant come to a place, arrive, with concrete meaning. In the twelfth century the old concrete meaning began to fade away and go over into the abstract sense of come to be something, become something — so abstract that become could serve as a copula: 'He became blind.' The oldest copula, be, was once, like become, a concrete verb and later gradually lost its concrete meaning and developed into a copula. In our own time a cow not only runs into the barn, but it also runs (= becomes) dry. For centuries run has been becoming more abstract, but its old concrete meaning is still common, so that it has not yet become a pure copula. Similarly, come is still widely employed as a concrete verb and at the same time is widely used as a copula: 'He came (concrete verb) home at ten,' but 'His prediction came (copula) true' and 'My shoestring came (copula) untied.' With such copulas, especially feel, smell, taste, sound, ring, care should be taken that the form following the copula should be an adjective, not an adverb: 'I feel sad' (not sadly). 'It smells bad.' 'His excuse sounds hollow.' 'His words rang true.' The long list of copulas given in Syntax, 6 B contains many words in different stages of development toward the state of copula. No other language shows such a vigorous growth of copulas. As many of them are used also with their old concrete meaning they naturally retain something of it when employed as copulas, so that these words, though copulas, are variously shaded in meaning, thus greatly enriching English expression. Each of these copulas has two forms, the common form and the expanded (47 2) form, each with a different shade of meaning: 'He soon gets tired.' 'He is getting tired.' Thus the use of two forms with differentiated force increases the
number of shades in the meaning. The usefulness of these different shades of meaning will become apparent in the next two paragraphs.

Our two participles, present and past, though often true verbs in force, frequently remain adjectives in function, so that they, like any adjective, can serve as predicate after a copula: 'He is working in the garden.' 'He got married yesterday.' 'This paper on account of its public-spirited editorials and its good news service has become widely read by both political parties.' Thus the copulas are used to form our active and passive verbal systems. Compare 4 below.

The copulas not only link a predicate adjective, noun, etc., to the subject but also, on account of the different meanings of the different copulas, give various shades of meaning to the predication. They indicate a state, continuance in a state or the continuance of an activity, entrance into a state or the beginning of an activity, a becoming something represented as the outcome of a development or of events or the closing stage of an activity. Simple state: 'He is sick.' Continuance in a state: 'He keeps still.' Continuing act: 'He is working in the garden.' Entrance into a state: 'He got sick.' Beginning of an act: 'He is just getting up.' Outcome of a development: 'He became (or went) blind.' 'He has lived down a youthful escapade and has become respected by everybody.' The ideas now expressed by copulas were in Old English expressed by verbal prefixes: a-deafian to become deaf, ge-ealdian to grow old, etc. The later wholesale introduction of French and Latin words replacing native verbs with prefixes greatly reduced their number and blunted English feeling for the native prefixes. Moreover, the large Danish population in England had no feeling for the common English prefix ge- and dropped it. Conditions were ripe for the development of copulas. In the twelfth century become arose followed by seem, wax, grow, turn, and look. This new development proved so useful that new copulas kept springing up. One of the most handy of the later comers is intransitive get, which arose in Shakespeare's day.

We have become so fond of the copula construction that we often use it even when there is a verb which expresses the same thing as copula and predicate noun or adjective: 'There was a heavy snow last night,' instead of 'It snowed heavily last night.' 'I am fond of (= like) fruit.' The noun snow and the adjective fond bring pictures before the mind. The English mind is fond of such concrete expression. The predicate adjective, however, is not so common as it once was. Many of the expressions are now only literary: 'You are forgetful of (= forget) the fact that,' etc. 'I
was ignorant of (= didn’t know) these facts.’ ‘It was a contest fruitful of (= that produced) animosity and discontent.’ ‘On every side Oxford is redolent of (= suggests) age and authority.’ Of these predicate adjectives only fond of is widely used in colloquial speech. On the other hand, the predicate noun has become very common in colloquial language. A verb is often replaced by a copula and a predicate noun, not only when the noun has a concrete meaning, as snow in the example given above, but frequently also when the noun is a verbal noun after the transitive copulas have, get, do, give, or make: ‘After dinner we had a quiet smoke,’ instead of ‘After dinner we smoked quietly.’ ‘We had several falls,’ instead of ‘We fell several times.’ ‘I had a look at her just now,’ instead of ‘I looked at her just now.’ ‘I got a good shaking up,’ instead of ‘I was shaken up thoroughly.’ ‘I have not done much walking since I saw you last,’ instead of ‘I haven’t walked much since I saw you last.’ ‘She gave, or made, no answer,’ instead of ‘She didn’t answer.’ We feel that have, get, do, give, and make have a little concrete meaning left. They are not quite like the copula be. Be is intransitive, while have, get, do, give, and make are transitives, but they are all copulas, though in different stages of development. Often their main function is, as copulas, to link the predicate noun to its subject. To English feeling a predicate verbal noun is felt as more concrete and forcible than a pure verb.

4. Auxiliary Verbs. An auxiliary verb is one that, although originally independent, now only helps other verbs, transitive, intransitive, or linking, to form some of their parts. Tense auxiliaries: ‘He has done it.’ ‘He has been sick.’ ‘He will come tomorrow.’ Compare 64-68. Modal auxiliaries: ‘He shall do it whether he will [do it] or not.’ Compare 57 4, 57 4 A h. One of the characteristic forms of English is the auxiliary do employed in the so-called do-form. The do-forms are given in 69 C. The uses of the forms with do are described at length in 47 3. We often use a causative auxiliary with a dependent infinitive or participle instead of a simple causative: ‘I had him cut the grass.’ Compare 12 1 a (3rd par.). There are other common auxiliaries of quite a different type — the copulas. These forms link a predicate participle to the subject. The great importance of these auxiliaries for English expression has been shown in 3 above. Their use as auxiliaries of aspect is described in 52 2 a, b, c. Their use as passive auxiliaries is described in 49.

13. Compound Verbs. A verb often enters into a close relation with an adverb, preposition, prepositional phrase, or object, forming with it a unit, a compound. There are three classes:

a. Adverb and verb often form a firm, inseparable compound
in which the stress rests upon the verb, often with figurative meaning: upróot, uplít, undernóurish, overchárge, etc. A preposition often forms such a compound with a verb: ‘The river is overflowing its banks.’ Compare 16 2 (last par.). Where the preposition or adverb is no longer in use outside of these compounds, as in the case of be- (= over, upon), it is called a prefix: ‘to bemóan (= moan over) one’s fate,’ ‘befríénd (= bestow friendly deeds upon) one,’ etc., but with privative force in behéad. Such verbs are called derivative verbs.

Such compounds and derivatives are very common in verbs of foreign origin: pervade, coöperate, proceed, precede, etc.

b. The verb often enters into a close relation with a more strongly stressed element, usually an adverb, prepositional phrase, or object, forming with it a unit in thought, a real compound, although the parts are often separated and are not written together: ‘His father sêt him up in business.’ ‘I tòok him to tásk for it.’ ‘He tòok párt in the play.’

c. A newer group of compounds is described in 17 (3rd par.).
CHAPTER V

THE ADVERB

14. Definition, Function, Position. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. An adverbial modifier may assume the form of an adverb, a prepositional phrase or clause, or a conjunctive clause: ‘He entered quietly.’ ‘Polish it well.’ ‘He entered in haste’ (prepositional phrase). ‘I could see the bird’s loaded beak from where I stood’ (prepositional clause). In the last example a preposition and its dependent clause together form an adverbial element. It is very much more common for a clause to form an adverbial element with the help of a subordinating conjunction: ‘He entered as soon as he had taken off his overcoat.’ The adverbial conjunctive clause is treated in 15 §2 b–k, 18 B 5, Syntax, 25–34.

An adverb, as indicated by its literal meaning, joined to a verb,
is an appositive to a verb, i.e. is placed before or after a verb to explain its meaning in the case at hand more clearly, much as an adjective as an appositive is placed before or after a noun to explain it: ‘The girl is improving remarkably.’ The same form is used as an appositive to an adjective or another adverb and here is also called an adverb, although of course it is here not true to its name: ‘The girl is remarkably beautiful.’ ‘The girl is improving remarkably fast.’ An adverb, however, modifies not only thus a single word, but often also a prepositional phrase, a subordinate clause, or an independent statement as a whole: ‘He has traveled entirely around the world.’ ‘He is almost across the river.’ ‘He lives a mile (adverbial accusative) beyond our house.’ ‘I arrived soon after it happened.’ ‘I did it only because I felt it to be my duty.’ For sentence adverb see 15 1 b.

An adverb that modifies an adjective or adjective element or an adverb or adverbial element usually precedes the modified word: ‘She is very pretty.’ ‘She sings very beautifully.’ An adverb that modifies a verb precedes the verb if it itself has a weaker stress but follows the verb if it itself has the stronger stress: ‘It’s too bad! I utterly forgot it.’ ‘He acted promptly.’ After the analogy of ‘She would utterly forget her past’ many people say, ‘She wishes to utterly forget her past.’ They feel that the adverb should stand before the more heavily stressed verb. Others think that the second sentence is incorrect, as the adverb stands between the preposition to and its object the infinitive forget. They call this construction the ‘split infinitive’ and studiously avoid it, saying here: ‘She wishes utterly to forget her past.’ Those who use the split infinitive feel that to is no longer a preposition, but a mere formal introduction to the infinitive clause (47 5, 2nd par.) and that consequently the adverb should stand here as elsewhere immediately before the more heavily stressed verb. Almost everybody, however, puts not before the to of the infinitive, because not is felt as modifying not the verb but the infinitive clause as a whole: ‘He promised not to do it again.’ The question of the split infinitive is discussed in detail in Syntax, 49 2 c. As copulas and auxiliaries are usually unstressed an adverb follows them. ‘I am always careful.’ ‘We shall soon know.’ ‘He doesn’t care.’ ‘I have always trusted your judgment.’ But with change of stress: ‘I always am careful.’ ‘I always have trusted your judgment.’ ‘I slept beside a spring last night, and I never shall like a bedroom so well’ (Meredith, Amazing Marriage, Ch. VI). For fuller treatment of the position of adverbs see Syntax, 16 2.

a. Adverbs in Compounds and Derivatives. Adverbs often occur as the first component of compounds: uproot, overturn, under-
done, outlying, tight-fitting, misjudge, return, coöperate, etc. The adverb not is usually replaced here by un–: unable, etc. In many foreign words the negative here is in– (or im–) or dis–: inconvenient, impossible, disobey. Some of these adverbs, mis–, un–, re–, co–, etc., which are not used outside of compounds, are called prefixes. Such compounds are termed derivatives.

b. Adverbs Used as Other Parts of Speech. Adverbs are often used as nouns: ‘the ups and downs of Life’; ‘the ins (the party in power), the outs’ (the party out of power). ‘He knows the ins and outs (details) of every political move.’ Nouns made from adverbs are very common in prepositional phrases: until tomorrow, after tomorrow, since yesterday, etc. Compare 16 2 (2nd par.).

Adverbs are often used as pronouns: ‘I saw him a year ago, but since then (used as demonstrative pronoun) we haven’t met.’ ‘I saw him a year ago, since when (used as relative pronoun) I haven’t seen anything of him.’ Compare 16 2 (2nd par.). In older English, adverbs were often used as pronouns in prepositional phrases in which the preposition followed the adverb, adverb and preposition usually being written together as parts of a compound: therein, now in it; therewith, now with it; wherein, now in what (interrogative) or in which (relative); wherewith, now with what (interrogative) or with which (relative); etc. A few of the old adverbial compounds, however, have survived in common use where they have acquired a special meaning, such as therefore (7 I b), whereupon (7 IV a cc). In poetical and legal language the old adverbial compounds are still widely used in their original meaning and function. Compare 7 I b and 7 IV a cc.

Adverbs are often used as adjectives. See 8 a, b.

On the other hand, adherent (8, 3rd par.) and appositive (8, 3rd par.) adjectives which modify verbal nouns are in a formal sense adjectives, but they have the force of adverbs: ‘his late arrival,’ ‘his last visit here.’

15. Classes. Adverbs may be classified from different points of view:

1. Classification by Function: There are four groups:

a. Simple Adverbs. A simple adverb modifies a single word or a group: ‘He came yesterday.’ ‘He is very industrious.’ ‘He runs very fast.’ ‘He walked almost five miles’ (adverbial accusative). The simple adverb often modifies a prepositional phrase employed as an adjective or an adverb: ‘He is almost across the river.’ ‘He swam almost across the river.’ The simple adverb often modifies an adverbial clause: ‘I arrived soon after it happened.’

b. Sentence Adverbs. A sentence adverb modifies a sentence
as a whole: ‘You perhaps (or possibly) underrate my ability.’
‘You are probably (or ‘probably are’) right about it.’ ‘He must surely (or ‘surely must’) be there by this time.’ ‘He has evidently (or ‘evidently has’) made a mistake.’ ‘He will doubtless (or ‘doubtless will’) discover his mistake soon.’ ‘Unfortunately, the message failed to arrive in time,’ or ‘The message, unfortunately, failed to arrive in time,’ or ‘The message failed to arrive in time, unfortunately.’ Negatives are common sentence adverbs: ‘I never do such things.’ ‘He doesn’t do such things.’ ‘He promises not to do it again.’ The sentence adverb usually stands before a full verb and after or before a copula or auxiliary. Not infrequently, however, in the case of certain adverbs it may stand also at the beginning or the end of the statement, as in the sixth example. The negative not precedes an infinitive. For fuller treatment see Syntax, 16 2 a.

There is a peculiar group of sentence adverbs — distinguishing adverbs: not, only, solely, simply, just, particularly, especially, even, also, at least, exactly (or precisely), etc. These adverbs refer to the thought of the sentence as a whole, but at the same time call especial attention to a particular part of it. This particular part — a word or a group of words — is distinguished by placing one of these distinguishing adverbs before it or after it: ‘Only Jóhn (or ‘Jóhn only’) passed in Latin.’ ‘John only (barely) passed in Latin.’ ‘I have been influenced solely by this consideration.’ ‘I came just to see you.’ ‘Almost all of them arrived on time, even Jóhn’ (or ‘Jóhn even’). ‘None of them will go; at least Jóhn (or ‘Jóhn at least’) will not.’ ‘Exactly what (or ‘What exactly’) paganism was we shall never know.’ ‘Hé did it, not I.’ ‘He hit mé, not him.’ ‘He did it for the love of the cause, not for personal gain.’ In ‘Two points in his criticism are especially deserving of notice’ especially is an ordinary adverb modifying the following adjective, but in ‘Several of the boys deserve praise, especially Jóhn’ (or ‘Jóhn especially’) it is a distinguishing adverb.

Nouns are often used as sentence adverbs to express feeling — irritation, surprise, etc.: ‘What the hell (or the devil or the deuce) do you want?’ ‘He is dead.’ — ‘The devil he is.’ They often express negation: ‘Devil a one!’ = ‘Not one!’

c. Conjunctive Adverbs:

aa. Coördinating Conjunctive Adverbs. A conjunctive adverb not only modifies some word in the proposition in which it stands, but also links the proposition in which it stands to the rest of the sentence or to a preceding sentence: ‘We are both without money; there comes in the difficulty.’ ‘We played an hour; then we went home.’ ‘There was no one there; so I went away.’ ‘I have had
In the strict sense these forms are always simple adverbs, for they always perform the function of a simple adverb in the proposition in which they stand. No formal connective links this independent proposition to the preceding independent proposition. The two propositions lie side by side without a formal binding tie. This is a form of parataxis, described in 18 (5th par.), but yet there is a slight difference. These adverbs, like personal pronouns, not only perform their own function in the proposition in which they stand but also bind it to the preceding proposition. This construction is as old as our language and still has a vigorous life. Alongside of it is coördination with and: 'I forgot my pen; so I had to use my pencil,' or 'I forgot my pen, and so I had to use my pencil.' 'We ate lunch in the park, then went rowing,' or 'We ate lunch in the park, and then went rowing.'

66. Subordinating Conjunctive Adverbs. The two adverbial forms where and when are often used to introduce a subordinate adverbial clause: 'I sat where I could see them both plainly.' 'She was very despondent when I spoke with her last.' Here where and when are conjunctive adverbs, i.e. adverbs that have the force of subordinating conjunctions and at the same time perform another important function, namely, they modify as adverbs the verb of the subordinate clause in which they stand.

In reading books from our older literature we often find in such adverbial clauses there and then where we now employ where and when: 'The erthe tremelyd there (now where) Wylyam stood' 
*Merch. & Son,* 92, in Hazl. E. P. P. I. 139, sixteenth century). 'Then (now when) hys howndys began to baye, That harde (heard) the jeant there (now where) he laye' (Sir Eglam., 286, A.D. 1440). As can be seen by the words in parentheses the old demonstrative conjunctives there and then have been replaced by the indefinite conjunctives where and when. There and then were replaced by where and when also in the adjective clauses described in 7 IV a cc. What caused this change in English expression in adverbial and adjective clauses? There and then were used also as coördinating conjunctions, as described in aa above for modern usage. Thus they were not so appropriate for the subordinate clause as where and when, which were employed in the substantive (noun) clause, a common subordinate clause. Where and when had for many centuries been widely used in substantive clauses and are still widely employed there, as is illustrated in the second paragraph after this one. Gradually they became established also in the adverbial and the adjective clause.
If the meaning is quite indefinite ever is added to *where* and *when* in adverbial clauses: ‘She is happy *wherever* she is.’ ‘He always helps me *whenever* I need him.’

The adverbial forms *where*, *when*, *how*, *why*, *whither*, etc., are still common, as they have always been, in substantive (noun) clauses, i.e. in subject (18 B 1), object (18 B 3), attributive substantive (18 B 2), and prepositional (18 B 4) clauses. Here as elsewhere they are conjunctive adverbs, i.e. adverbs that have the force of subordinating conjunctions and at the same time perform another important function, namely, they modify as adverbs the verb of the subordinate clause in which they stand. These conjunctives are either indefinite conjunctives or interrogative conjunctives. Interrogatives are merely a peculiar kind of indefinites, which often assume the special function of calling for an answer in an indefinite situation. As interrogative conjunctives always stand in a subordinate clause they are only indirect interrogatives employed in indirect questions. Examples of indefinite and interrogative conjunctive adverbs: ‘It is immaterial to me *where* and *when* (indef.) he goes.’ ‘It has often been asked *where* and *when* (interrog.) he went.’ ‘I do not know *where* (indef.) he is.’ ‘He asked me *where* (interrog.) I had been.’ ‘I do not know *when* (indef.) he went.’ ‘She asked me *when* (interrog.) he went.’ ‘I saw *how* (indef.) he did it.’ ‘I asked *how* (interrog.) he did it.’ ‘I asked *why* (interrog.) he did it.’

In older English, alongside of *where*, differentiated in meaning from it, were two other related indefinite forms in common use as indefinite conjunctive adverbs, *whither* and *whence* (or often *from whence*), the former indicating motion toward, the latter motion from. They are still in use in choice language, but in plain prose are replaced by *where* and *where* . . . *from*: ‘I do not know *whither* (in plain prose *where*) he went.’ ‘I do not know *whence* (or *from whence*) he came’ (in plain prose *where* he came from). These forms are used also as interrogative conjunctive adverbs: ‘Then she asked me *whither* (in plain prose *where*) he went.’ ‘Then she asked me *whence* (or *from whence*) he came’ (in plain prose *where* he came from). In older English, *whether* was often used instead of *whither*.

d. **Interrogative Adverbs in Principal Propositions.** In indefinite situations where we desire to ask for information, we employ indefinites, not only as interrogative pronouns (7 VI) and interrogative adjectives (10 7), but also as interrogative adverbs, namely, *when*, *where*, *whence* (or in plain prose usually *where*—*from*; see 16 2, 2nd par.), *whither* (or in plain prose usually *where*), *why*, *how*: ‘*When* did he go?’ ‘*Where* does he live?’ ‘*Whence* did
he come?' or more commonly 'Where did he come from?' 'Whither (or more commonly where) did he go?' 'Why did he do it?' 'How did he do it?' In older English, whether was often used instead of whither.

In older English, as is sometimes placed before the interrogative adverb how as a mere formal introduction: 'It is indeed a twofold Grief and a twofold Pleasure.' — "As how, my Dear?" said he' (Richardson, Pamela, II, 362, A.D. 1785).

2. Classification by Meaning. An adverbial element modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb by expressing some relation of place, time, manner, attendant circumstance, degree, restriction, extent, cause, inference, result, condition, exception, concession, purpose, or means. Though usually different in meaning from a genitive, dative, accusative, or prepositional object it always performs the same function, i.e. it modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb. The adverbial modifier differs from an object in that its relation to the modified word is less close. For illustrative example see 27 2 a.

A prominent feature of English is the wide use of the predicate appositive construction (8, 5th par.) with adverbial force. An adjective, adjective participle, or a noun is placed near the verb, before or after it, to modify it as to some relation of time, manner, attendant circumstance, cause, condition, concession, etc.: 'Tired and hungry (= As we were tired and hungry) we went home.' 'Going down town (= As I was going down town) I met a friend.' 'A younger son in a proud family (= As he was a younger son in a proud family), Hume was really disinherited.' 'She ran into the house crying' (manner). 'He came home tired' (attendant circumstance). 'He was shunned as a man of doubtful character' (cause). As is shown by the many examples given below, the participle is a favorite in this construction.

a. Adverbs of Place, Direction, Arrangement. They are. here; hence or from hence (archaic, poetic, or literary), now usually from here, away, from now; thence, or from thence (archaic, poetic, or literary), now usually from there, away; there; yonder; hither (poetic or literary), now usually here, to this place; hither, in older English sometimes used instead of hither; thither (poetic or literary), in plain prose now there, to that place; thither, in older English sometimes used instead of thither; in, out, up, down, around; first(ly), secondly, etc.; where (interrog.); whither (interrog.; in poetry and choice prose) or now more commonly where; whence (interrog.; in poetry and choice prose) or now more commonly where — from; etc.: 'He lives here.' 'Hence (now usually from here) might they see the full array of either host' (Scott, Marmion,
VI, xxiii). ‘From hence (now from here) I went to the Card Manu-
factory’ (George Washington, Diary, Oct. 28, 1789). ‘We must
think of what the family needs will be five years hence’ (literally
from here, from this point of time). ‘I have relatives five miles
hence’ (older English, now from here or away). ‘Barry followed the
route taken by the others, along the platform to the corner of the
station and thence across an area of sun-smitten gravel to the main
thoroughfare of Wessex’ (R. H. Barbour, Barry Locke, Ch. I).
‘Two miles thence is a fine waterfall.’ ‘I live in Chicago; I was
born there. My brother lives in Seattle. I intend to go there some
day to visit him.’ ‘Yonder among the hills are some beautiful
little lakes.’ ‘Harry Esmond, come hither’ (Thackeray, Henry
Esmond, IV, Ch. XI), now here. ‘The old home is a fine place to
think of; thither in memory I often go.’ ‘Is your father in?’ —
‘No, sir, he has just gone out.’ ‘He went in.’ ‘Where does he
live?’ ‘Where did he come from?’ for otherwise the thought would not
be clear. We use where and a preposition (at, to, or from),
where ceases to be an adverb and becomes a noun (16 2).

In colloquial speech any place, some place, no place, every place,
are often used instead of the literary forms anywhere, somewhere,
nowhere, everywhere (7 V a).

In older English, as was often placed before an adverb or other
expression of place as a mere formal introduction: ‘Let hym go
and marry her, for as here he hath no thynge to do’ (Berners,
Huon, CLVI, 602, A.D. 1534).

The adverbial element here often has the form of a prepositional
phrase: ‘He lives in that house.’ The object of the preposition
may be a substantive clause introduced by the conjunctive (15 1
c bb) adverb where: ‘I walked over to where they were standing.’
Here the preposition to forms with its object, the substantive clause,
an adverbial prepositional clause. Compare 18 B 4 b.

Where often introduces an adverbial clause: ‘One likes to live
where one has congenial neighbors.’ Compare 18 B 5.

b. Adverbs of Time. They are: now, now and then, then,
formerly, yesterday, today, tomorrow, immediately, hence, henceforth,
henceforward, thence, thenceforth, thenceforward, when (interrog.),
etc.: ‘It is not raining now.’ ‘I visited him a few days ago; he
seemed as well as usual then.’ ‘Five years hence, a fortnight
thence.’ ‘When will he arrive?’
The accusative of a modified noun is often used as an adverb of time: *this morning, last week*, etc. See 711a. Also the genitive is used adverbially: *always*, etc. See 711a.

In older English, *as* was often placed before an adverb or other expression of time as a mere formal introduction: 'a provence untoucht in a manner, and new to us *as till then*.' (Bolton, *Florus*, 163, A.D. 1618). This old usage survives in *as yet*: 'He hasn’t come *as yet*.' It is much better preserved in British dialect: 'I expect him *as next week*.' A little earlier in the period it was still lingering in the literary language: 'I heard that Mr. Carlyle would be in town *as today*.' (Lady Levison in Mrs. Henry Wood's *East Lynne*, III, 223, A.D. 1861).

The adverbial element here often has the form of an adverbial clause introduced by the conjunctive adverbs *when, whenever*, etc. For examples see 151cbb, 18B4b.

The form of the adverbial element is often that of a prepositional phrase or a prepositional gerundial clause: 'We are going *after dinner* or *after finishing (or having finished) our dinner*.'

The form is very frequently that of a conjunctional clause: 'We are going *after we have had dinner*. 'We must finish our work before we go.' 'He hasn’t written me since he went away.' 'I shall come as soon as I can.' 'I turned homeward directly (British English for *as soon as*) it began to rain.' 'John worked *while Henry played*.' 'While (or whereas or at the same time that, all with adversative force) in applied physics we hold our own, in applied chemistry we have lost much ground.' 'Stay here *until (or till) I come back*.' 'Until (preferred to *till* when its clause stands first, as here) he told me, I had no idea of it' (Concise Oxford Dictionary). 'I met him *as he was coming out of his house*.' For a much larger list of the conjunctions used in this clause see *Syntax*, 27.

Instead of a conjunctional clause we often employ a participial clause: 'Going down town I met a friend.' 'Having finished my work I went to bed.' Compare 474.

Time is sometimes expressed by the absolute nominative construction described in 271: 'The preparations for supper having been completed, the hungry children were called in.'

c. ADVERBS OF MANNER. They are: *well, slowly, fast, neatly, how, somehow, someway*, etc.: 'He walked slowly.' 'How did you do it?' 'How does it strike you?' 'I forget how Mrs. Nightingale came into the conversation, but she did *somehow* (or *someway*).

The adverbial element often has the form of a prepositional phrase or a prepositional gerundial clause: 'She does it *in this way*.' 'It strikes me *in an entirely different way*.' 'She spends her evenings *in practising on the piano*.'
The adverbial element often has the form of a conjunctional clause: 'Do it how (indef. conjunctive adv. = in whatever manner) you can.' 'He differs from his colleagues in that he spends his spare time in reading.' 'It struck me that the whole thing was ridiculous,' or in the form of a predicate appositive (8, 5th par.) adjective introduced by as: 'It struck me as ridiculous.' 'Do at Rome as the Romans do.' 'He looks as if (or as though) he were about to speak.' In colloquial speech like is widely used instead of as: 'They don't know you like (= literary as) I do' (Hergesheimer, Balisand, p. 36). In older English, like was used with the force of as if (or as though), and elliptically with the verb suppressed it is still used with this meaning: 'I ran like mad.' 'The dress looks like new.' 'Bring in your old faded pictures. They will be made like new' (advertisement). As if or as though is more common here: 'She hurriedly left the room as if (or as though) angry.' Compare Syntax, 28 1, 2 a, b.

The form is sometimes that of an infinitival clause: 'Thus ever about her rooms she moved on this mournful occupation until the last thing had been disposed of as either to be sent back or to be destroyed' (Allen, Mistletoe). 'He raised his hand as if (or as though) to command silence.' Manner is very frequently expressed by a participle or a participial clause: 'She came in singing.' 'He stood leaning against the gate.' 'He beat me jumping.' 'He was busy fixing his fence.' 'It was kind of you to bother yourself asking her.' 'Please do not understand me as having lost hope.' Compare Syntax, 28 1 a.

Manner is sometimes expressed by the nominative absolute construction described in 27 1: 'He put on his socks wrong side out.' 'They walked along arm in arm.' 'They sat side by side.'

d. ADVERBIAL ELEMENTS OF ATTENDANT CIRCUMSTANCE. The form here is often that of a prepositional gerundial clause: 'He never passed people without greeting them.' 'He never passed people without their greeting him.' Compare Syntax, 28 3 a (3rd par.).

Attendant circumstance is sometimes expressed by a conjunctival clause: 'The enemy devastated the country as he retreated.' 'He never passed anybody on the street that he didn't greet him' (or but or but that or in colloquial speech but what he greeted him). 'He was drowned while he was bathing in the river.' Compare Syntax, 28 3.

This idea is expressed also by a participial clause: 'He was drowned bathing in the river.' Compare Syntax, 28 3 a.

Attendant circumstance is often expressed by the absolute nominative construction described in 27 1: 'He left for the continent, all his family accompanying him.' 'He entered upon the new
enterprise cautiously, his eyes wide-open.' 'We intend to hold a concert, the proceeds to be devoted to charity.' 'They decided to start out at random the first day, each man to use his own best judgment in prospecting.' The preposition with is often placed before the absolute nominative construction, so that the expression in a formal sense becomes a prepositional clause but in spirit remains unchanged: 'He lay on his back, his knees in the air,' or with his knees in the air.

e. Adverbial Elements of Degree, Restriction, Extent, Amount, Number. The form here is often that of a simple adverb: very, nearly, almost, about, only, much, little, so, once, twice, etc. Examples: 'She is very kind.' 'We are nearly there.' 'He almost died.' 'It is about empty.' 'I have been there only twice.' 'He shot better than his father.' 'He shot best.' 'He worries much.' 'He works little.' 'I didn’t expect to find him so weak.' 'He struck me twice.' The accusative of a noun or pronoun is much used to express degree, extent: 'Is he any better this morning?' 'He lives a mile from here.' 'He lived there three years.' Compare 71 1 a (3rd par.).

Certain intensifying adverbs impart feeling to the statement: 'I don’t see why people should get up so déucedly early.' 'It’s damned hot today.' Compare 43 2 B a.

The adverbial element of degree is often a prepositional phrase: 'He is taller by two inches.' 'He is by far more industrious.'

The different categories of degree are frequently expressed by different kinds of adverbial clauses:

A conjunctional clause of simple comparison: 'I am as tall as she [is].' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A a.

A conjunctional clause of proportionate agreement: 'This stone gets the harder the longer it is exposed to the weather.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A b.

A conjunctional clause of restriction: 'So far as I could see they were all satisfied with the arrangement.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A c. The full clause is sometimes replaced by a prepositional phrase: 'He may be dead for all I know.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A c aa. The restriction is sometimes expressed by a participial clause: 'The inquiry, so far as showing that I have favored my own interests, has failed.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A c bb.

A conjunctional clause of extent: 'I have stood it as long as I can.' 'I have walked as far as I can.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A d. The full clause can be replaced by an infinitive clause: 'I have gone as far as to collect statistics for my investigation.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 A d aa. As far as in this example is a conjunction. As it is used also as a preposition, it can introduce a prepositional
gerundial clause: 'I have gone as far as collecting statistics for my investigation.'

A conjunctural comparative clausal: She is better than [she was] when I wrote you last. 'I regard her more highly than he [does],' but 'I regard her more highly than [I do] him.' Compare Syntax, 29 1 B.

f. Adverbs of Cause. They are: why (interrogative), for what reason (interrogative), etc.: 'Why did you do it?'

The adverbial element here often has the form of a prepositional phrase or a prepositional gerundial clause: 'He was punished for disobedience or for disobeying his mother.'

The commonest form is that of a conjunctional clause: 'He was punished because he disobeyed his mother.' 'Now that he is sick we shall have to do his work.' 'How convince him when he will not listen?' 'Once (or after) you have made a promise you should keep it.' 'He cannot be tired since he has walked only half a mile.' 'The girls could not speak for fear or for fear that or lest the tears should come and choke them.' 'As he refuses we can do nothing.' 'I saw that I had done something wrong as they all laughed.' 'The act was the bolder that he stood utterly alone.' 'We were sorry (that) you couldn't come.' 'I am glad (that) he is going.' 'I am astonished that you believe such a thing.' 'He rejoiced that he should have received the esteem of his sovereign.' 'My conscience troubles me that I have been so remiss.'

Cause is often expressed by an infinitival or participial clause: 'I was pained to hear it.' 'You ought to be ashamed stealing from a poor widow.' 'Having run for an hour, we were almost exhausted.' Compare Syntax, 30 b (last par.).

Cause is sometimes expressed by the absolute nominative construction described in 27 1: 'The bridge across the chasm being only a single tree trunk, we hesitated to attempt the passage.' 'There being no objections, the minutes were adopted as read.' The absolute nominative may be a clause: 'We bought some more, what we had not proving sufficient.' The preposition with is often placed before the absolute nominative construction, so that the expression in a formal sense becomes a prepositional clause but in spirit remains unchanged: 'With knowledge increasing by leaps and bounds we have reached a time when we must be content with specialisms.' 'She is lonesome with her husband so much away.'

g. Adverbial Elements of Inference and Result. Simple adverbs: therefore, consequently, hence, thence, so, thus, then, etc.

Examples: 'No man will take counsel, but every man will take money; therefore money is better than counsel' (Swift). 'His means are limited, hence he is compelled to economize.' 'There
was no one there; so I went away.' 'I have had enough.' — 'Then let us go.' Compare 18 A 5.

The adverbial element here is often a prepositional phrase: 'It has been raining all week; on that account (or for that reason; both = consequently) we have not been able to do our plowing.'

In all these cases the propositions are coordinated. The second proposition is introduced by an adverb or adverbial element with the force of a coordinating conjunctive adverb (15 1 e aa).

Result is often expressed by a subordinate adverbial clause. Pure result: 'A man ought to have a settled job, with an office in some fixed place, so that (in colloquial speech often simple so) you always know where he is.' 'I must have been blind that I didn't see that post.' 'He never played with the children that he didn't stir up a quarrel' (or but, but that, or colloquially but what he stirred up a quarrel; or in the form of a prepositional gerundial clause: without stirring up a quarrel). Compare Syntax, 28 5 (6th and 7th parr.). Manner clause of modal result: 'He has always lived such a life that he can't expect sympathy now.' Compare Syntax, 28 5 (1st and 2nd parr.). Degree clause of modal result: 'She worried so that she couldn't go to sleep.' Compare Syntax, 29 2.

Frequently result is expressed by an infinitival or participial clause. Pure result: 'Put on your gloves so as to be ready.' Compare Syntax, 28 5 d (3rd par.). Manner modal result: 'He has never lived so as to inspire respect.' 'This is not such weather as to encourage outdoor sports.' Compare Syntax, 28 5 d (1st par.). Degree modal result: 'He was so kind as to help me.' 'He was too tactful to mention it.' 'He was old enough to know better.' Compare Syntax, 29 2 a. The infinitive is the usual form where the result is represented, not as the effect of the cause indicated in the principal proposition, but as coming from some independent cause: 'They parted never to see each other again.' 'He awoke to find all this a dream.' Participial clause of result: 'He mistook me for a friend, causing me some embarrassment.' Compare Syntax, 28 5 d (3rd par. from end).

After an accusative object, result is often expressed by a prepositional phrase, which, however, is not an adverbial element but an objective predicate (8, 4th par.): 'She rocked the baby to sleep' (= 'She rocked the baby so that it went to sleep'). 'He smoked himself into calmness.'

h. Adverbial Elements of Condition or Exception. The form for condition is sometimes that of a simple adverb, a prepositional phrase, or a prepositional gerundial clause: 'Suppose you had never a farthing but of your own getting; where would you
be then?' (= in that case). 'Without him I should be helpless.' 'He can't walk without my helping him.'

The most common form is that of a conjunctonal clause: 'If it were not for him I should be helpless.' 'I would have done it before if I had had time.' 'I would come, only that (or were it not that) I am engaged.' 'I shall go unless it rains.' 'You may go on condition that you come home early.' 'We should have arrived earlier but that we met with an accident.' 'I will come provided (or provided that) I have time.' 'In case it rains I can't go.' 'You may go where you like so that (or in colloquial speech just so or simple so) you are back by dinner time.' Compare Syntax, 31.

The conjunctonal clause is sometimes replaced by an independent proposition in the form of a question or a command, which is used with the force of a subordinate clause introduced by if: 'Is any among you afflicted? let him pray' (James, V, 15). 'Should you find them (interrogation sign now usually suppressed, as in this example), kindly let me know.' 'Do it at once, you will never regret it.'

Condition is sometimes expressed by a participial or infinitival clause: 'Left to herself (= if she had been left to herself) she would have been drawn into an answer.' 'This same thing, happening in wartime (= if it should happen in wartime), would amount to disaster.' 'One would think, to hear them talk (= if one should hear them talk), that England is full of traitors.' Compare Syntax, 31 2.

Condition is sometimes expressed by the absolute nominative construction described in 27 1: 'Our ship sails tomorrow, weather permitting.' 'Other things being equal I prefer an August vacation.' Compare Syntax, 17 3 A c.

Exception is often expressed by a conjunctonal clause: 'I don't believe that God wants anything but that we should be happy.' 'Nothing would content him but I must come.' 'My boy is as naughty as yours except that he always begs my pardon.' The elliptical clause is still more common: 'Who can have done it but I?' (Hardy, The Return of the Native, V, Ch. I), in colloquial speech often but me. 'All save he and Murray have pleaded guilty' (Chicago Tribune, Nov. 12, 1924). 'Everyone except me (or less commonly I) seems to dislike him.' Here I shows that except under the influence of but is felt as a subordinating conjunction. The more common me here indicates that except is more frequently regarded as a preposition or as the imperative of the transitive verb except. The usual me after but in colloquial speech shows that but is here felt as a preposition. Compare Syntax, 31, p. 319.

i. Adverbial Elements of Concession. The form is some-
times that of a simple adverb: 'That is how I look at it, anyway' (or anyhow; both = 'however the case may be'). 'There is something wrong somewhere. Anyway, nothing will ever induce me to believe that' (Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael, p. 29).

The form is more commonly that of a prepositional phrase or a conjunctional clause: 'We are going in spite of the rain.' ‘For all his learning he is a mean man.’ ‘For all he laughs and pooh-poohs, he really suffers.’ ‘We are going even if it rains.’ ‘Although he seems rough he is really tender-hearted.’ ‘Notwithstanding (that) he is being lionized, he still keeps a level head.’ ‘It is true whether you believe it or [whether you do] not [believe it].’ ‘Whether he succeed(s) or fail(s), we shall have to do our part.’ An indefinite relative pronoun, adjective, or adverb + ever often serves as the conjunction in this clause: ‘I am going whatever he says.’ Compare 7 IV b (2nd par.), 10 5 b, and 18 B 5.

The conjunctional clause is often replaced by an expression of will, which, though independent in form, is logically dependent: ‘Laugh as much as you like, I shall stick to my plan.’ ‘Come what may, I am bound to see him.’ ‘Home is home, be it ever so homely.’ ‘Detest him as we may, we must acknowledge his greatness.’ ‘Hurry as you will, you are sure to be late.’

Concession is sometimes expressed by a participial or infinitival clause: ‘From dawn to dark in this car, driving or riding (= whether you drive or ride), you'll never feel that you have put a whole day’s miles behind you’ (advertisement). See Syntax, 32 2 (4th par.). ‘You couldn't do that to save your life’ (= even if you would save your life by it). Compare Syntax, 32 2 (last par.).

Concession is sometimes expressed by the absolute nominative construction described in 27 1, usually with the predicate of the clause before its subject: ‘Granted the very best intentions, his conduct was productive of great mischief.’ The absolute nominative may be a clause: ‘Granted that he did so, what are you going to do?’

j. Adverbial Elements of Purpose. The form is often that of a prepositional phrase, a prepositional gerundial clause, or a conjunctional clause: ‘I bought the book for reference.’ ‘John works for grades.’ ‘I came with the intention of helping you.’ ‘They are climbing higher that (or in order that or so that or in colloquial speech simple so) they may get a better view.’ ‘He is keeping quiet that he may not disturb his father’ (or for fear or for fear that or lest he should or might disturb his father). Compare Syntax, 33.

Quite frequently the form is that of an infinitival or participial clause: ‘I am waiting to go with John.’ ‘I am waiting for them to go before I speak of the matter.’ ‘I am going early so as (or in
order) to get a good seat.' ‘Axmen were put to work getting out timber for bridges.’ Compare Syntax, 33 2.

k. Adverbial Elements of Instrument, Means, Agency, Association. The form is usually that of a prepositional phrase or clause. Instrument: ‘He cut it with a knife.’ Means: ‘By industry and thrift he has amassed a fortune.’ ‘He reached the top by means of a ladder.’ ‘All strove to escape by what means they might.’ ‘By using our time and our strength properly we may become happy and useful.’ Agency: ‘The trees were trimmed by a gardener.’ Association: ‘He votes with the Democrats.’ ‘Blue does not go with green.’ ‘I walked to town with him.’ There was once in our family of languages an especial case form of nouns and pronouns — the instrumental case — to express all these relations except that of agency. Compare 27 5.
CHAPTER VI

THE PREPOSITION

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16. Definition, Function, Form. A preposition is a word that indicates a relation between the noun or pronoun it governs and another word, which may be a verb, an adjective, or another noun or pronoun: ‘I live in this house.’ Here in shows a relation between the noun house and the verb live. The preposition in, as prepositions in general, has a meaning. It expresses here the idea of place. There are in our language a large number of prepositions, which enable us to express ourselves quite accurately. A rather complete list of these prepositions is given in Syntax, 621. Some of the most important ones are treated in the following articles.

In ‘I live with him’ the preposition with shows a relation between the pronoun him and the verb live. The form him shows that the preposition today requires its object to stand in the objective case. In Old English different prepositions governed different cases. Now the object of the preposition is always in the objective case, which is an indistinctive form employed for either the dative or the accusative relation. After prepositions we now usually think of the objective case form as an accusative. But this matter of case is of little importance as only a few pronouns have a distinctive form for the object relation. A preposition standing before a noun or pronoun marks the noun or pronoun as an object. Here, as so often elsewhere, position is the distinctive feature.

The preposition does not function singly, but forms a grammatical unit with its object, i.e. the word or words following it: ‘I live in this house.’ This unit is called the prepositional unit. Where the object of the preposition is a single word, as in this example, the prepositional unit is a prepositional phrase. Where the object of the preposition is a clause, as in ‘He spoke of what he had done,’ the prepositional unit is a prepositional clause.
adverb is closely related to a preposition, but differs from it in that it functions singly, i.e. it does not take an object. ‘He is in’ (adverb), but ‘He is in the house’ (prepositional phrase).

The prepositional unit, phrase or clause, has, like a simple word, a function to perform in the sentence. In ‘I live in this house’ the prepositional phrase in this house modifies the verb live, hence it performs the function of an adverb.

In the following articles the functions and the constituent elements of the prepositional unit, i.e. the functions and the forms of the prepositional unit, will be discussed in detail.

1. Functions of Prepositional Phrase or Clause. The prepositional unit performs the functions of (1) an adverb; (2) a noun in the objective relation, object of a verb or an adjective or participle; (3) an adjective in the predicative or the attributive relation.

a. Employed as Adverb. This is a common function: ‘He stood by the window.’ ‘He stood behind me.’ In the first example the preposition by connects the intransitive verb stood with the noun window. In the second example the preposition behind connects the intransitive verb stood with the pronoun me. In each of the examples the prepositional phrase forms an adverbial element modifying the intransitive verb. The adverbial prepositional phrase is common also in connection with a transitive verb and its object: ‘He is writing a letter by the window.’ ‘We sent a boy after water.’

The adverbial prepositional phrase or clause indicates some relation of place, time, manner, result, degree, extent, cause, condition, concession, purpose, means, instrument, agency, association: ‘I live in Chicago’ (place). ‘I can see him from where I stand’ (place). ‘I wrote a letter before breakfast’ (time). ‘I read in bed (place) before going to sleep’ (time); but before is an adverb in ‘I hadn’t seen him before’ and a subordinating conjunction in ‘I had not seen him before I met him today.’ ‘I wrote the letter with care’ (manner). ‘He never plays with the children (association) without stirring up a quarrel’ (result). ‘I am taller than you by three inches’ (degree). ‘I have gone as far as collecting statistics for my investigation’ (extent). ‘We feel kindly toward him for his waiting so patiently under such trying circumstances’ (cause). ‘He couldn’t have done it without my having helped him’ (condition). ‘His wife clings to him with all his faults’ (concession). ‘In spite of his untiring devotion to the community (concession) he has not received the recognition he deserves.’ ‘I bought the book for reference’ (purpose). ‘By industry and thrift he has amassed a fortune’ (means). ‘He cut it with a knife’ (instrument). ‘The trees were trimmed by a gardener’ (agency). ‘Blue does not go
with green' (association). 'I walked to town with him' (association). The adverbial use of the prepositional phrase or clause is illustrated more in detail in 15 2 a–k.

b. Employed as Object. In 'She shot at him twice' the prepositional phrase made up of the preposition at and its object him stands in a little closer relation to the intransitive verb than an adverbial element, forming the necessary complement of the verb, which we call a prepositional object. As the preposition here is often in a closer relation to the intransitive verb than to its own object, it is often felt as a part of the verb, forming with it a compound, a transitive compound verb, as in 17 (last par.). This can be seen in passive form, where the preposition remains with the verb: 'He has been shot at twice.' 'He can be depended upon.' 'He is easily imposed upon.' 'He is not a man to be trifled with.' The fact that the passive can be used here shows that the intransitive has become a transitive verb. This passive construction is a marked characteristic of English. On the other hand, the preposition is often in closer relation to the noun than to the verb, so that the verb remains intransitive and cannot be put into the passive: 'She went about her duties as usual.' 'This obligation devolves upon you.' 'This case admits of no doubt.' 'This borders on the commonplace.' 'This book teems with blunders.' 'The bottle smelled of brandy.' 'I don't fall for that kind of conduct' (American slang = 'I don't believe in, favor,' etc.). This prepositional object is common after an accusative object: 'He wrote a book on his experiences in the war.' The noun in this prepositional object is often an infinitive: 'His father forced him to make his own living.' 'I persuaded him to do it.' 'I can't bring myself to speak to him about it.' 'I will leave you to imagine my embarrassment.' The to of the infinitive in these examples is not a mere sign of the infinitive but a real preposition governing the following infinitive, which is here still a verbal noun although it now takes an accusative object. Compare 47 5, also Syntax, 24 IV a and 49 4 C (1) d. The object of the preposition is often a substantive (noun) clause introduced by an indefinite relative pronoun, adjective, or adverb: 'He often spoke of what he had done and how he had done it.' 'He told me all about what had been done, who the leading spirits of the enterprise were, and what valuable experiences they all had had.' Compare Syntax, 24 IV (1st and 5th parr.).

The prepositional phrase is much used also as the object, i.e. as the necessary complement, of an adjective or a participle: 'She is fond of music, of skating, of reading.' 'She is dependent upon her children.' 'She is devoted to her children.' 'He is engaged in writing about his experiences in Australia.' After the preposition
to the noun is often an infinitive: 'I am eager to go.' Compare Syntax, 24 IV a and 49 4 C (1) d. The object of the preposition is often an indefinite relative clause: 'She is proud of what she has done.' 'She is fully informed as to who did it.' Compare Syntax, 24 IV (1st and 5th parr.). The expression is often elliptical: 'I am sure [of it] that he did it.' Compare 18 B 4 a.

c. EMPLOYED AS ADJECTIVE. The prepositional phrase is employed as an adjective element in the predicative and the attributive relation.

The prepositional phrase is much used in the predicate relation. After a copula (12 3): 'The country is at peace' (= peaceful). Compare 8 a and Syntax, 7 F (2nd par.). There is no copula when the prepositional phrase is predicated of an object: 'I found him at home.' 'I found him at peace with himself.' For an explanation of this old construction see 12 3. Compare 8 (4th par.).

In 'The girl with dark hair is my sister' the preposition with connects the noun hair with the noun girl. The prepositional phrase with dark hair is an attributive adjective element since it modifies the noun girl. It is here equal in force to the descriptive (8) adjective dark-haired: 'The dark-haired girl is my sister.' The prepositional phrase here often has the force of a limiting (8) adjective, pointing out one or more individuals: the tree behind the house.' After verbal nouns (i.e. nouns made from verbs) the prepositional phrase, though in a formal sense an adjective element, often has the force of an object or an adverb: 'a mother's love for her children' (with the force of an object); 'a walk in the evening' (with the force of an adverb of time).

2. Constituent Elements of the Prepositional Unit. The object of the preposition is always a noun or a pronoun, which is uniformly in the accusative: 'He went with my brother and me.' The preposition usually stands before its object, but it may stand at the end of the sentence or clause: 'Whom (or in colloquial speech who — object of the preposition with) do you play with?' Though the preposition here is separated from its object, the unity of preposition and object is distinctly felt. The thought holds the parts together. For other examples of this construction see 38 a (last par.).

The object of the preposition is often an adverb, a phrase, or a clause which is used as a noun or a pronoun. As a noun: 'for ever,' 'until now,' 'after today,' 'between now and then.' 'Where did he come from?' 'Many place-names do not go back to before the Norman Conquest' (W. J. Sedgefield, Introduction to the Survey of the English Place-Names, Ch. I). 'I have little insight into what he is doing.' 'He wrote me about what he is planning.' As
a demonstrative pronoun: 'I promised him yesterday that I would go with him tomorrow, but since then I've had to change my plans.' Relative pronoun: 'I saw him a month ago, since when (7 IV a cc) I haven't seen anything of him.'

In the preceding examples the preposition either stands before a noun or pronoun forming with it a phrase, or stands at the end of the sentence or clause. These are the most common uses of the preposition; but with a number of words the preposition is the first component of a compound verb, and its object stands after the verb: 'The enemy overran the whole country.' 'A great principle underlies this plan.' 'Water permeates the ground.' Compare 13 a.

17. Inflectional Prepositions. Prepositions have played a conspicuous rôle in the development of our language. Their numbers are ever increasing. In Syntax, 62 1, a list of those now in use is given. There are now so many of them that we have a wide range of choice in shading our thought. Some do not differ from others in meaning, as with regard to, or with respect to; they simply serve to vary our expression.

Some prepositions, however, are in certain grammatical relations perfectly rigid, and cannot be replaced by others with the same or a similar meaning. They have often lost a good deal of their original concrete meaning and are no longer felt as prepositions, for they have developed into inflectional particles which indicate definite grammatical relations, often taking the place of older inflectional endings. Thus we now can say 'I gave the book to my friend' instead of 'I gave my friend the book.' The words my friend are in the dative and once had a distinctive ending to indicate the dative relation. Now, as adjectives and nouns have lost their old distinctive dative ending, we often employ the preposition to to indicate the dative relation. Similarly, we often use the preposition of as an inflectional sign to indicate the genitive relation: 'the father of the boy' instead of 'the boy's father.' Compare Syntax, 14 (last par.).

The inflectional preposition is not only placed before words, but often also after them in case of verbs: 'You can depend upon him.' The preposition, as upon in this example, which once belonged to the word following it, is now often felt as belonging to a preceding intransitive verb, serving as an inflectional particle with the office of converting the intransitive into a transitive. That the preposition and the verb have fused into one word, a real compound, can be seen in passive form, where the preposition remains with the verb: 'He can be depended upon.' Compare 16 1 b.
CHAPTER VII

THE CONJUNCTION

18. Definition and Classification. A conjunction is a word that joins together sentences or parts of a sentence: 'Sweep the floor and dust the furniture.' 'He waited until I came.'

There are two general classes — coördinating and subordinating. A coördinating conjunction, as and in the first example, binds together two independent propositions. A subordinating conjunction, as until in the second example, joins a subordinate clause to the principal proposition, modifying it in some way. The first example is called a compound sentence, the second example a complex sentence.

The members of a compound sentence, however, are not always complete, each with subject and finite verb, for a natural feeling for the economy of time and effort prompts us, wherever it is possible, to contract by employing a common verb for all members, so that the conjunctions connect only parts of like rank: not 'John is writing and Mary is writing,' but 'John and Mary are writing,' or 'John and Mary are both writing,' or 'Both John and Mary are writing.' 'I bought paper, pen, and ink.' 'John writes fast but neatly.' Care must be taken in contracting when one subject is
used with two different verbs each of which stands in a different compound tense: ‘All the debts have been or will be paid,’ or ‘All the debts have been paid or will be,’ but not ‘All the debts have or will be paid.’ Sentences containing these conjunctions, however, are often not an abridgment of two or more sentences, but a simple sentence with elements of equal rank, connected by a conjunction: ‘The King and Queen are an amiable pair.’ ‘She mixed wine and oil together.’

Coördinating conjunctions also link together subordinate clauses of like rank: ‘The judge said that the case was a difficult one and that he would reconsider his decision.’

Conjunctions, though often useful in binding sentences and joining clauses to the principal proposition, are not absolutely necessary. In the earliest stage of language development there were no conjunctions at all. This original state of things is still common: ‘I came, I saw, I conquered.’ Here the close connection of the thoughts holds the different independent propositions together. But such propositions are not always independent. One statement may be subordinate to another in thought, though there is no formal subordination. We place one statement alongside of another, leaving it to the situation to make the relation between them clear: ‘Hurry up; it is getting late.’ In more formal language we say, ‘Hurry up because it is getting late.’ The construction without a conjunction we call parataxis, i.e. placing alongside of. The construction with a subordinating conjunction, as in the last example with the subordinating conjunction because, we call hypotaxis, i.e. subordination of one statement to another. As the intellectual life of the English people unfolded, it developed newer and finer hypotactical forms for fuller expression of its thought and feeling, but it wisely retained a good deal of its older paratactical forms for daily practical use. Parataxis, however, by reason of its elegant simplicity is often employed also in various fields of the literary language. For fuller information about parataxis and hypotaxis see Syntax, 19 3.

When there are three or more coördinated parts of a sentence, usually only the last part is linked by a conjunction: ‘He enjoys tennis, golf, and baseball.’ ‘I brought in a basketful of red, pink, white, and yellow roses.’ The commas between the different words of the series indicate a slight pause and consequently the independence of the parts. The independence is still more marked when the conjunction at the end of the series is lacking: ‘She is a wise, sympathetic, hard-working teacher.’ On the other hand, this independence disappears in an unlinked series of adherent (8, 3rd par.) adjectives that are not separated by pauses. The
last adjective is subordinated to the others in that it stands in a closer relation to the governing noun: ‘He lives in the first white house from here.’ ‘The saddest of lots is that of an indigent old man.’

Nothing in English grammar has changed so much within the Modern English period as our conjunctions. There was in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries a strong tendency to effect a greater simplicity and accuracy of expression by shortening and differentiating some forms and eliminating others as useless. These developments are described at length in Syntax.

In Syntax a full list of our English conjunctions is given in connection with a detailed account of their use. The subject is treated here only in outline.

A. COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

The coördinating conjunctions and conjunctive (151c aa) adverbs fall into six classes.

1. Copulative Conjunctions and Conjunctive Adverbs. They are: and; both — and; as well as; neither — nor; nor — nor (in poetry and older English); not — nor . . . either; no — or (or often nor when it is desired to call especial attention to what follows and thus emphasize); not only — but also (or but . . . too); too; moreover; besides; again; likewise; further, furthermore; there; then; in the first place; first; secondly; finally; now — now; sometimes — sometimes; partly — partly; etc.

Examples:

Money is lifeless and possessions are vain.
My brother and my sister are both married.
He can both sing and dance.
‘He must irrevocably lose her as well as the inheritance,’ or ‘He must irrevocably lose her and the inheritance as well.’
Neither he nor his brother is to blame.
‘Neither she nor I am to blame,’ but ‘Neither you nor he is to blame.’
It hasn’t done me much good, nor anyone else either.
I can get no rest by day or night.
I want no promises nor notes (more emphatic than or notes); I want money.
‘There is not only concision in these lines, but also elegance’ (or ‘but elegance too’).
We both are without money; there comes in the difficulty.
We played an hour; then we went home.

 Conjunctive adverbs, as there and then in the last two examples, not only join two independent statements but play the part of an
adverb in the proposition in which they stand. Similarly, a
demonstrative pronoun or a possessive adjective performs in its
own proposition its own part as demonstrative pronoun or posses­sive adjective and at the same time binds two principal propo­sitions together: ‘In this crisis I have often thought of the old
home, of Father, of Mother. That was a good place to start out
in life from. Their lives have been an inspiration to me.’

Notice in the case of neither — nor where there are subjects of
different persons that the verb agrees with the nearer subject, as
in the sixth example. On the other hand, if neither be construed
as a pronoun with two appositives following it the verb is of course
in the third person singular: ‘Neither, she nor I, is to blame.’

a. ‘And’ Employed to Express Number, Repetition, Duration.
And is often placed between identical forms of a noun or a verb,
ot as a conjunction to connect thoughts, but merely as a means
to express number, repetition, or duration: ‘The entrance to the
floor given to executive offices was like the lobby of a pretentious
hotel — waiting room in brocade and tapestry; then something
like an acre of little tables with typists and typists and typists,
very busy, and clerks and clerks and clerks with rattling papers’
(Lewis, Dodsworth). ‘We insisted and insisted and insisted, not
once but half a dozen times, at the beginning of the war, on Eng­
land’s adoption of the Declaration of London’ (W. H. Page, Letter,
Aug. 4, 1918). ‘I’ve tried and tried, but I’ve not succeeded.’
‘My heart ached and ached and ached.’

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions. They are: or; either — or; or
— or (in poetry or older English); the disjunctive adverbs else,
otherwise, or, or else:

Examples:
Is he guilty or innocent?
‘Either John or William is to blame,’ but ‘Either John or I am to blame.’
Seize the chance, else (or otherwise, or, or or else) you will regret it.

Notice in the case of either — or where there are subjects of
different persons that the verb agrees with the nearer subject, as in
the second example, or it may be repeated with its own subject:
‘Either John is to blame or I am.’ On the other hand, if either be
construed as a pronoun with two appositives after it the verb is
of course in the third person singular: ‘Either, John or I, is to
blame.’ Compare 53 a.

3. Adversative Conjunctions and Conjunctive Adverbs. They
are: but, but then, only (= but, but then, it must however be added
that); still, yet, and yet, however; on the other hand, again, on the
contrary, conversely; rather; notwithstanding; all the same; though;
after all, for all that; at the same time; and withal, yet withal, or but withal (= at the same time, for all that); notwithstanding; in the meantime, meanwhile; etc.

Examples:

He is small but strong.
The commander-in-chief has not been quite successful, but then he has essayed a difficult task.

He makes good resolutions, only he never keeps them.

'I want to go very much; still I do not care to go through the rain,' but still is an adverb in 'It is raining still.'

'I miss him, yet I am glad he went,' but yet is an adverb in 'It hasn't quit raining yet.'

'He has sadly disappointed me. However, as a mother I shall not give up hope' or 'As a mother, however, I shall not give up hope' or 'As a mother I shall not give up hope, however.'

'The sheep which we saw behind the house were small and lean; in the next field though (coordinating conjunction), there were some fine cows,' but though is a subordinating conjunction in 'Though it never put a cent of money into my pocket, I believe it did me good.'

The book is stimulating and sound to the core — yet difficult reading withal.

'Charles is usually cheerful; sometimes, again, he is very despondent,' but again is a copulative conjunction in 'Again (often, as here, at the beginning of a paragraph, continuing the discussion), man is greater by leaning on the greatest' (Emerson, Trust). Again is an adverb of time in 'It is raining again.'

'I denied myself everything. Notwithstanding, the old skinflint complained without ceasing,' but notwithstanding is a preposition in 'I am going notwithstanding the rain.'

4. Causal Conjunction 'For.' Example: 'This is no party question, for it does not touch us as Republicans or Democrats but as citizens.' For the difference between coordinating for and subordinating as or since see Syntax, 30 a (next to last par.).

5. Illative Conjunctive Adverbs. They are: therefore (7 I b), on that account, consequently, accordingly, for that reason, so, then, hence, thence (= from that source, hence also for that reason), etc.

Examples:

No man will take counsel, but everybody will take money; therefore money is better than counsel (Swift).
The thing had to be done. Accordingly we did it.
There was no one there, so I went away.
'I am here, you see, young and sound and hearty; then don't let us despair' (or 'don't let us despair, then'), but then is a copulative conjunction in 'First think, then act.'
His means are limited, hence he is compelled to economize. (Fernald, Connectives in English Speech, p. 299).

'Guilt has been variously understood, thence (resulting therefrom) have arisen endless disputes about sin, responsibility,' etc. (ib.).

6. Explanatory Conjunctions. They are: namely, to wit, viz. (short for Latin videlicet), that is (often written i.e. for Latin id est), that is to say, or, such as, like, for example (often written e.g. which is for Latin exempli gratia), for instance, say, let us say, etc.

Examples:
There were only two girls there, namely, Mary and Ann.
My wife suggested my going alone, i.e. with you and without her.
I passed some time in Poet's Corner, which occupies an end of one of the transepts, or cross aisles, of the Abbey.
Take a few of them, say a dozen or so.
Any country, let us say Sweden, might do the same.

B. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Some of these forms are pure conjunctions; others are real conjunctions, but at the same time play in the clause the part of an adverb, pronoun, or adjective. Such adverbs, pronouns, and adjectives are called conjunctive adverbs, pronouns, and adjectives. Conjunctive adverbs fall into two classes — indefinite conjunctive adverbs and interrogative conjunctive adverbs, as described in 15 1 c bb. Conjunctive pronouns and adjectives fall into three classes — indefinite relative pronouns (7 IV b) and adjectives (10 5 b), interrogative conjunctive pronouns (7 VI b) and adjectives (10 7), and definite relative pronouns (7 IV a) and adjectives (10 5 a).

The first four of the following groups of conjunctions introduce substantive (noun) clauses. The fifth group introduces adverbial clauses. The sixth group introduces adjective clauses.

1. Conjunctions Introducing Subject and Predicate Clause. The most common conjunctions for the subject clause are: that (or in popular speech as); frequently because instead of that; lest after nouns expressing fear, sometimes still as in older English used instead of that; an illogical but, but that, or in colloquial speech but what, instead of the more common that after not impossible, not improbable, cannot be doubted; whether or if (especially common in colloquial speech); the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive adverbs where, when, why, how; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive pronouns who, whoever, what, whatever; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive adjectives which, whichever, what, whatever; the conjunctions since, before.
Examples:

'It is to be hoped that nothing has happened,' or 'It is to be hoped [that] nothing has happened.'

It is only natural as (popular form for that) I shuden't git things clear at fist as you've kept me in the dark this two months (Sheila Kaye-Smith, *Green Apple Harvest*, p. 49).

Because (better that) they enjoy it is no proof that it is good for them.

My only terror was lest my father should follow me (George Eliot, *Daniel Deronda*, I, III, Ch. XX).

It could not be doubted that (or now less commonly but, but that, or but what) his life would be aimed at.

It is doubtful whether (or if) he is coming.

It is not known whether he did it or not.

It is not known how (indef. conj. adv.) he came by it.

It has often been asked how (interrog. conj. adv.) he came by it (indirect question).

What (indef. rel. pron.) you say is quite true.

It is not known who (indef. rel. pron.) he is.

The question I want to ask is who (interrog. conj. pron.) he is (indirect question).

It is not yet known which, or more indefinitely what (indef. rel. adj.), road he took.

It is marvelous what (indef. rel. adj.) mistakes they continue to make.

It is many months since I have seen him.

It will be weeks before his disappearance will attract attention.

It was a week ago that we first met.

Many other examples are given in *Syntax*, 21 a, b, c.

On account of the handiness of the infinitive and the gerund we often prefer an infinitival or gerundial subject clause to a conjunctival clause: 'It is stupid of you to say it' (= that you say it). 'For (47 5 a, last par.) us to delay (= That we should delay) would be fatal to our enterprise.' 'It is no use for (47 5 a, last par.) you to say anything,' or your saying anything. 'He is saying he is wrong alters the case.'

The nominative absolute (27 1 a, 3rd par.) construction is often used as a subject clause. The predicate of the clause is a present participle, the subject of the clause is a nominative absolute, usually a noun, much less commonly a pronoun: 'It is vilely unjust, men closing two-thirds of the respectable careers to women' (Sir Harry Johnston, *Mrs. Warren's Daughter*, Ch. III). 'He saying he is wrong alters the case.' The accusative is sometimes used here: 'It's no use him wiring back to me' (J. B. Priestley, *The Good Companions*, p. 594). When the subject is a personal pronoun the usual construction is a gerundial clause. The gerund is the predicate of the clause, its subject is a possessive adjective,
which historically is the old genitive of a personal pronoun: ‘It’s no use his wiring back to me.’

The conjunctions for the predicate clause are: as, before, after, because; the indefinite relative pronouns who (= man, boy, woman, etc.) and what; the indefinite conjunctive adverbs where, when, why, etc. Compare Syntax, 22.

Examples:
Things are not always as they seem to be.
It was before her mother died that I first met her.
He is not who (= the man) he seemed to be.
We are not what we ought to be.
That is where you are mistaken.
Now is when I need him most.

2. Conjunctions Introducing Attributive Substantive (Noun) Clause. The conjunctions are: that (or in popular speech as); an illogical but, but that, or in colloquial speech but what after no question, no doubt instead of the more common that; whether; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive adverbs where, when, why, how; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive pronouns who, whoever, what, whatever; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive adjectives which, whichever, what, whatever.

After these conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, pronouns, and adjectives the attributive substantive (noun) clause often stands as an appositive to the noun preceding it. When a conjunctive adverb, pronoun, or adjective is used the attributive element modifying the preceding noun may have also the form of an of-genitive or a prepositional clause. As all these clauses are attributive, i.e. modify a noun, they have the force of an adjective.

Examples:
The thought that we shall live on after death in another better world consoles many (appositive clause).
I am troubled by another fear, that Silvio will send out a search-party (appositive clause).
‘I’d a feeling as (popular form for that) maybe you cud give me,’ etc. (Sheila Kaye-Smith, Green Apple Harvest, p. 35) (appositive clause).
There is no doubt that (or sometimes but, but that, or but what) he will come (appositive clause).
I have often asked myself the question whether I have the right to do it (appositive clause; indirect question).
Now arises the question when (interrog. conj. adv.) we should go (appositive clause).
I have no information as to when (indef. conj. adv.) he will come (prepositional clause).
I have just read his description of how (indef. conj. adv.) he did it (of-genitive clause).
We have as yet no information as to why (indef. conj. adv.) he did it (prepositional clause).

We have as yet no information as to who (indef. rel. pron.) did it (prepositional clause).

'Now arises the question who (interrog. conj. pron.) the proper person is to do it' (appositional clause; indirect question), or in the form of a direct question: ‘Now the question arises, Who is the proper person to do it?’ (appositional clause).

As yet we have no instructions as to which, or more indefinitely what (indef. rel. adj.), course we are to pursue (prepositional clause).

I haven’t the least interest in what (indef. rel. pron.) he is doing, in what (indef. rel. adj.) views he holds (prepositional clause).

Examples of a little different kind of appositional clause are given in 8 b (last par.). For other details see Syntax, 23 I.

We sometimes prefer an infinitival or gerundial clause to a conjunctival clause: ‘The time to do something (= that we should do something) has come.’ ‘I sent him the money in time for it to reach him (= that it should reach him) by Monday.’ ‘That is just our way, always arriving too late’ or always to arrive too late. ‘The hope of John’s visiting us soon (= that John will visit us soon) cheers us.’ Compare Syntax, 23 I a.

3. Conjunctions Introducing Accusative Clause. This clause is the object of a verb: ‘He told me that he had done it.’ After a passive the clause is retained: ‘I was told that he had done it.’ The conjunctions are: that (or in popular speech as); how = that; lest, sometimes still, as in older English, used after verbs of fearing instead of that; but, but that, or in colloquial speech but what, often used instead of that not after a negative or interrogative proposition containing a verb of knowing, thinking, believing, expecting, fearing, or saying; an illogical but, but that, or in colloquial speech but what, sometimes used instead of the more common that after a negative or interrogative proposition containing a verb of doubting, wondering; whether or if (especially common in colloquial speech); the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive adverbs where, when, why, how; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive pronouns who, whoever, what, whatever; the indefinite or interrogative conjunctive adjectives which, whichever, what, whatever.

Examples:

‘I know that he has come’ or ‘I know [that] he has come.’
I don’t know as (popular form for that) I should want you should marry for money (W. D. Howells, The Minister’s Charge, Ch. XX).
I saw that (or how) he was falling behind in the race.
He feared that (or lest) it might anger her.
I don't know but (or but that or but what) it is all true (= that it isn't all true).

Who knows but (or but that, or but what) it is all true? (= that it isn't all true).

Who doubts that (or now less commonly but, but that, or but what) he will win?

I doubt whether (or if) the catastrophe is over.

I don't know when (indef. conj. adv.) he bought it.

He asked me when (interrog. conj. adv.) I bought it (indirect question).

I do not know who (indef. rel. pron.) did it.

He asked me who (interrog. conj. pron.) did it (indirect question).

I couldn't hear what (indef. rel. pron.) he said.

He has not told us yet which, or more indefinitely what (indef. rel. adj.) course he will pursue.

On account of the handiness of the infinitive and the gerund we often prefer an infinitival or gerundial accusative clause to a conjunctional clause: 'I desire him to go at once' (= that he go at once). 'I don't remember ever being scolded (= that I was ever scolded) by her.' Compare 47 5 and 47 6. Notice the peculiar idiom 'We could not help but laugh' or more commonly help laughing. See Syntax, p. 252.

4. Conjunctions Employed in Prepositional Clause. This clause is composed of two elements — a preposition and its object, which here is always a substantive (noun) clause. The substantive clause is introduced by a conjunction or an indefinite conjunctive adverb, pronoun, or adjective. These conjunctions are: that, whether; the indefinite conjunctive adverbs where, when, why, how; the indefinite relative pronouns who, whoever, what, whatever; the indefinite relative adjectives which, whichever, what, whatever. The preposition and its object, the substantive clause, form a grammatical unit — the prepositional clause. This clause serves usually as a prepositional object (16 1 b) completing as a necessary complement the meaning of a verb or an adjective or participle. Sometimes the relation between the verb and the prepositional clause is less close; then the prepositional clause becomes an adverbial element. Compare 16 1 a.

The relative adverbs, pronouns, and adjectives here are always indefinites, never interrogatives.

a. Prepositional Clause as Object. The expression here is often elliptical.

Examples:

I took his word for it that he would make an effort.

He boasted [of it] that he did it.

I insist upon it that you go at once.
You may depend upon it that he will do it.
I will see to it that he does it.
I am sure [of it] that he will do it.
He was afraid [of it] that they would discover his dishonesty.
Veblen was right [about it] that ideas of this sort are opposed to the chaos of competitive enterprise.
She couldn't make up her mind [to it] that the price would have to be lowered.
He was perfectly at a loss [as to] what measure he should take.
We are not always conscious of why we do things.
I don't care [for] what people say.
Be careful (as to) how you do it.
She hesitated (as to) whether she should break in on his affliction.
I am not informed (as to) whether he went.
I am not informed (as to) when he will come.
I am curious as to how he is going to do it.
He gets furious against whoever opposes him.
He never speaks of what he has gone through.
I am not informed as to which (or more indefinitely what) course he will pursue.
He traded with what capital he had.

As shown by the above examples, the preposition stands immediately before a clause introduced by an indefinite conjunctive pronoun, adjective, or adverb; but if the clause is introduced by that it becomes necessary to place after the preposition the anticipatory object it, which points to the following clause, the real object. The it, however, is in certain expressions usually dropped.

The conjunctional clause is here often replaced by an infinitival or gerundial clause: 'His father forced him to make his own living.' 'I am accustomed to do (or to doing) it this way.' 'He is inclined to take offense easily.' 'I am looking forward with pleasure to seeing you again.' 'He is dead set against doing anything for me.' The infinitive clause here is very interesting. The to before the infinitive is still a pure preposition and not a mere sign of the infinitive, as elsewhere. Compare 16 1 b, 47 5. In a number of cases the infinitival clause is older than the conjunctional clause. In the newer construction the preposition is always suppressed: 'They are anxious to win' and 'I am anxious for (47 5 a, close of last par.) them to win,' but 'They are anxious that they should win' and 'I am anxious that they should win.'

b. Prepositional Clause as Adverbial Element.

Examples:
The light came straight towards where I was standing (place).
But you do as you like with me — you always did, from when first you begun to walk (George Eliot, *Silas Marner*, Ch. XI) (time).
5. Conjunctions Introducing Adverbial Clause. The adverbial clause modifies the principal verb by expressing some relation of place, time, manner, degree, cause, condition, exception, concession, purpose, means. The more common conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs are: where, when, after, before, till, until, while, as, as if, as though, according as, so that, but that, but (= but that), so far as, as far as, than, that, because, since, if, unless, provided (that), in case, only that, except that, though, although, in order that, etc. In concessive clauses an indefinite conjunctive pronoun, adjective, or adverb + ever is often used as a conjunction.

Examples:

I live where the bridge crosses the river.
When you go home let me know.
Let me know when you are ready.
Do at Rome as the Romans do.
I went early so that I got a good seat.
He was more shy than [he was] unsocial.
I am sorry that you can't go with us.
The crops failed because the season was dry.
They will not go tomorrow if it rains.
In case it rains we cannot go.
I would come only that I am engaged.
Although he promised not to do so he did it.
They are climbing higher that (or so that or in order that) they may get a better view.
He was resolved to defend himself whoever should assail him.
He will find difficulties whichever way he may take.
However sick he is, he always goes to work.

Other examples of the adverbial clause are given in 15 2 a–j.
The conjunctual adverbial clause is very frequently replaced by a participial (47 4), infinitival, or gerundial clause. Examples are given in 15 2 b–j. Compare 47 4, 47 5, 47 6.
The conjunctual adverbial clause is sometimes replaced by the nominative absolute (27 1 a, 3rd par.) construction: 'Thou away (= When thou art away) the very birds are mute' (Shakespeare). 'My knife slipping (= Because my knife slipped) I cut myself severely.' Other examples are given in 15 2 b, c, d, h, i. A still fuller treatment will be found in Syntax, 17 3 A.

There is still another adverbial clause — the prepositional clause described in 4 and 4 b above.

6. Relative Pronouns Introducing Adjective Clause. The relative adjective clause modifies a noun or pronoun: 'The boy who is leaning on the fence is my brother.' 'The boy whom you see leaning on the fence is my brother.' Here who, though an inflected
pronoun, is as much a conjunction as any of the conjunctions in the preceding lists, for it, like a conjunction, links the clause in which it stands to the preceding principal proposition. It is at the same time a conjunction and a pronoun, hence a relative pronoun. The uninflected form which is used similarly: 'My brother owns the car which we rode in yesterday.' The relative pronouns are treated in 7 IV a and 38 a.

The relative clause with finite verb is often replaced by a participial clause: 'The circus was all one family — parents and five children — performing (= who performed) in the open air.'

The relative clause with finite verb is often replaced by an infinitive clause: 'He is not a man to be trifled with' (= that can be trifled with).

The definite relative which is sometimes used as a conjunctive adjective introducing an adjective clause: 'We traveled together as far as Paris, at which place we parted.' Compare 10 5 a.
CHAPTER VIII

THE INTERJECTION

19. An interjection is an outcry to express pain, surprise, anger, pleasure, or some other emotion, as Ouch! Oh! Alas! Why! In general, interjections belong to the oldest forms of speech and represent the most primitive type of sentence. Thus they are not words but sentences. Sentences are older than words (Syntax 1 a). For fuller treatment see Syntax, 17 1.
ACCIDENCE
ACCIDENCE

20. Accidence is the study of the inflection and order of words, i.e. the change of form and order in words to indicate the part they play in the sentence. In English, the inflection is not so important a factor in the expression of our thought as it once was. The part a word plays in the sentence is now often indicated, not by its form, but by its position in the sentence. The subject of the sentence usually stands before the verb, the object after it: 'The mother (subject) loves her child' (object). Verbs once had many more endings than they now have: Old English ic lufie, we lufiath, now I love, we love. Today the singular and the plural of the verb have the same form in the first person, while in Old English the endings of the verb indicated singular or plural. We now feel that the subjects I and we are sufficient to make the thought clear. In the Old English period, as can be seen in 29 and 44 A, nouns and adjectives had endings for case and gender and the case endings varied according to the gender so that English expression at that time was quite complicated. The many endings were, of course, intended to make the grammatical relations clear, but the great complexity of the forms to a certain extent hid these relations, i.e. stood in the way of an easy discernment. The later reduction of the forms and the simplification of the word-order made the grammar visible and the thought easy to understand.

On the other hand, we now often use more words to express ourselves than our ancestors. In Old English the superlative of the adjective always was a single word with a superlative ending, -est or -ost. We now often put most before the simple adjective to form the superlative: 'Mary is the most beautiful and Jane the most beloved,' but 'The sisters are all beautiful, but Mary is the most beautiful.' Notice the accents. To emphasize the quality, we stress the adjective, but we stress most to emphasize the idea of degree. This shading of the thought is impossible in Old English, since there is only one word there. Alongside of the new superlative, however, we still often employ the old simple form: 'Of the sisters Mary is the prettiest.' Thus in English we often find the old and the new side by side. The simple form with an ending we
call a synthetic form, the new form with an additional word an analytic form. The old synthetic forms are, in general, best preserved in poetic language, where there is usually a strong tendency to prefer the old, as hallowed by the use of our older masters.

The most remarkable case of an increase in the forms of our language is the introduction of the expanded form of the verb: 'He is working in the garden.' It came into the language in the Old English period under the influence of church Latin. At first it was not differentiated in meaning from the common form of the verb, but later in the modern period it gradually acquired distinctive functions of its own, greatly enriching the language. The development and extensive use of the expanded form clearly show that the English people is not averse to the increase of the forms of the language where they add to its power of expression.

In this treatise on accidence, the inflection of words, i.e. their forms or lack of form, is treated in the usual order of the parts of speech, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections. In Syntax, the manner of using these forms is described more fully. Accidence and syntax are closely related in actual speech, in fact inseparable, but for practical purposes they are separated in this book as much as possible. It is thought helpful to the student to arrange for him in systematic shape all the forms of the language, the bare forms, free from syntactical discussion as much as possible, so that he may always have for ready reference a complete outline of all the formal means of expression in the language. And yet a certain amount of explanation must often be introduced to make the grammatical character of a form clear. At many points a good deal of explanation must be given, for it is important to know all the functions of the form if we are really to know it. In Syntax we get to see the form at work in different categories scattered throughout the book and cannot there become acquainted with it as a grammatical form in its entirety. Only in Parts of Speech and Accidence can we acquire an intimate acquaintance with the forms of the language as means of expression. Hence it often occurs that the important forms of the language are discussed thoroughly here.
# Chapter IX

## Inflection of Nouns

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21. Purposes of Inflection. Nouns are inflected to indicate number, case, and gender.

NUMBER

22. Number is that form of a word which indicates whether we are speaking of one or more than one.

English nouns have two numbers — the singular and the plural: 'The bird (singular) is singing.' 'The birds (plural) are singing.'

NATIVE ENGLISH WAYS OF FORMING THE PLURAL

23. The plural is formed in different ways.

1. Plural Formed by Adding -S. In Old English, nouns fell into a number of groups each with a different type of plural. The s-plural was only one of these types. Gradually throughout the centuries many nouns from the different groups abandoned their
old form and assumed the s-plural. Today this is the only living type. We always employ it with new words. As will be seen below, a few small groups of nouns still preserve their old plural form.

In older English the plural ending was -es, but we now shorten it to -s wherever it will unite with the singular without forming an extra syllable: 'head, heads'; but 'box, boxes,' as simple s will not unite with the simple form. The -es is here a survival of older general usage. As we now suppress the e of the older ending -es whenever we can, it is evident that simple -s is now the natural normal plural ending. Only in the written language, however, is -s here a single thing. In spoken English it is two things: (1) arms, sons, hills, rivers, baths, boys, fleas; (2) hats, backs, wraps, cliffs, gates, safes, etc. We should note that the -s is voiced after a voiced consonant or a vowel, as in the first group of nouns, but it is voiceless after a voiceless consonant, as in the second group.

There are many such nouns as the last two in the second group, in which the e before the -s is a silent letter belonging to the spelling of the singular, hence not a part of the plural.

In one group of words there is a little formal irregularity. Letters, figures, signs used in writing, and parts of speech other than nouns when used as nouns take -s in the plural instead of -s: 'Dot your i's and cross your t's.' 'There are two 9's in 99.' 'The I's and my's and me's in his speech pass beyond the bounds of modesty and good taste.'

Little irregularities in the pronunciation or the spelling of the plural ending are discussed below.

a. Plural of Nouns Ending in Sibilants. After sibilants (s, ss, c, sh, tch, ch, g, dq, x, z) the plural ending is -es (pronounced øz), which forms a distinct syllable: gases, masses, vices, dishes, ditches, churches, ages, edges, boxes, topazes. Similarly in proper nouns: Perkins, the Perkinses, etc. The foreign noun fracas is pronounced frācas in American English and has the regular plural fracases, while in British English it is pronounced frācəh and remains unchanged in the plural. In words in which a silent e follows a sibilant, as in rose, horse, we add only -s in the plural, but we pronounce øz: roses, horses.

The -s or -z should be doubled in the plural after a short vowel in the few words ending in -s or -z, but this does not always take place: bus, busses or busses; quiz, quizzes; fez, fezzes; but gas, gases; plus, pluses; yes, yeses. The s in unaccented -us, -is, is never doubled: omnibuses, crocuses, irises, etc.

In some dialects, as in Essex and in certain American dialects, -es is found not only after sibilants but also after -sk, -sp, -st:
cask, caskes; wasp, waspes; beast, beastes; fist, fistes; nest, nestes; post, postes.

In dialect there is often a double plural -(e)s + es: folkses, fisteses, gallowses (suspenders) or more commonly galluses. The double plural in -(e)n + s occurs. See 2 below.

b. Plural of Nouns Ending in -Y. In nouns ending in -y preceded by a consonantal sound, y is changed to i before the addition of -es in the plural: lady, pl. ladies; soliloquy, pl. soliloquies; fly, pl. flies. But the plural of dry, fly (carriage), stand-by, why, and proper names in -y is regular: drys, flys (also flies), stand-lys, whys (the whys and wherefores of it), Marys, Murphys. In accordance with a general principle, y after a consonantal sound becomes ie before the plural ending; but, of course, in the case of proper names the y of the singular is retained in the plural before the ending -s, since we feel that the identity of the name must be preserved. Certain geographical and historical proper names in -y, however, have the plural form in -ies where the different individuals form a distinct group: 'the Alleghenies,' 'the Canaries,' 'the Rockies,' 'the Two Sicilies,' 'the Ptolemies,' etc.

Notice that the plural -es here does not mean a distinct syllable, as in a. The e of the plural ending is silent.

c. Final Consonant of Certain Nouns Ending in -F, -Th, -S, Voiced in the Plural. In native English nouns ending in the spoken language in -f preceded by l or a long vowel or diphthong, f becomes v in the plural: calf, calves; elf, elves; half, halves; self, selves; shelf, shelves; wolf, wolves; knife, knives; leaf, leaves; life, lives; loaf, loaves; sheaf, sheaves; thief, thieves; wife, wives. Beef, though a French word, follows this model: beeves, beeves. Notice that the plural -es here does not mean a distinct syllable as in a. The e of the plural ending is silent.

Some native and many borrowed words have a regular plural: beliefs, chiefs, fifies, guls, griefs, hoofs (also hooves), oafs (also oaves), loafs (noun made from the verb loaf: 'to obtain surreptitious smokes and loafs' — Captain F. Shaw, Cassell's Magazine of Fiction, April, 1912, quoted in Krusinga's Handbook, II, p. 7), proofs, reefs, roofs, safes, spoofs, strifes, etc. These words do not follow the model of the native words in the preceding paragraph even though the f follows an l or a long vowel or diphthong. Where the vowel is short or the f is doubled, the plural is usually regular: chefs, cliffs, tiffs, whiffs, etc.

Scarf forms the plural with -fs or -ves. The plural of wharf is wharves or wharfs. The plural of dwarf is dwarfs. Staff has two plurals with different meaning: staffs, staves. Compare 25. Tipstaff has the plural tipstaves.
In early Modern English, final / became v before singular genitive -es just as before plural -es, in both cases the -es appearing in the written language as ues: ‘his wives brother.’ This older genitive singular may survive in ‘an old wives’ tale’, where wives’ is now construed as a genitive plural. In England, the older genitive singular is often preserved in ‘calves-foot jelly.’ The American form here is ‘calf’s-foot jelly.’ The genitive singular -’s is now added directly to the singular: wife’s, calf’s, wolf’s, etc.

Similar to the change from a voiceless f to a voiced v in ‘calf, pl. calves’ is the change from a voiceless th to a voiced th: bath, pl. baths; lath, pl. laths; mouth, pl. mouths; oath, pl. oaths; path, pl. paths; wreath, pl. wreaths. In many words, however, there is no change in the pronunciation of th in the plural, the sound remaining voiceless: death, pl. deaths; health, pl. healths; one sixth, two sixths. In a number of words there is fluctuation of usage, the th in the plural being pronounced voiced or voiceless: truth, pl. truths; youth, pl. youths (in America more commonly with a voiceless th in the plural, while in England the th is usually voiced here). Similar to the change from voiceless th to voiced th in the plural is the change from voiceless s to voiced s in the plural: house, pl. houses. This is the only word in -s that shows this change. In all other words voiceless s remains voiceless in the plural: horse, pl. horses. The changes discussed in this paragraph, though realities, are not indicated by the spelling.

d. Plural of Nouns Ending in -0. A number of common nouns in -o preceded by a consonant take -es in the plural, especially bilbo, buffalo, cargo, dado (in England pl. dados), dingo, domino (pieces in a game dominoes, in other meanings with the pl. dominos), echo, embargo, go, hero, innuendo, jingo, manifesto, mosquito, motto, mulatto, Negro, no, potato, tomato, tornado, torpedo, veto, volcano. Archipelago, bravado, bravo (bravoes ‘daring villains’; bravos ‘shouts of applause’), calico, desperado, flamingo, fresco, grotto (pl. more commonly grottoes), halo, hobo, mango, memento, peccadillo, portico, stucco (pl. more commonly stuccoes), zero (pl. more commonly zeros) take either -s or -es. There is a good deal of fluctuation here. All nouns in -o preceded by a vowel and a large number preceded by a consonant take -s, as baboo, bagno, bamboo, boo, cuckoo, cameo, curio, embryo, folio, kangaroo, nuncio, oratorio, pistachio, portfolio, punctilio, ratio, rodeo, seraglio, shampoo, studio, trio, zoo, etc.; albino, alto, auto, banjo, basso, bolero, broncho, burro, caballero, canto, capriccio, casino, cello, chromo, commando, contralto, diminuendo, ditto, duodecimo, dynamo, gaucho, gazebo, ghett, gringo, guanaco, gyro, hidalgo, inamorato, junto, kilo, kimono, ladino, lasso, major-domo, merino, mestizo, octavo, palmetto, piano,
piccolo, poncho, pro and con (pl. pros and cons), proviso, quarto, radio, rancho, ridotto, rondo, salvo (pl. in England salvoes), scenario, scherzo, set-to, silo, sirocco, solo, sombrero, stiletto, stylo, tobacco, torso, tuxedo, violoncello, zemstvo. Proper names in -o and -oo take -s: Lothario, Nero, Eskimo, Filipino, Hindoo, etc. In general in all the different groups the trend, except in the case of very common words, is toward the plural in -s.

Notice that the plural -es here does not mean a distinct syllable as in a above. The e of the plural ending is silent.

2. Plural Formed by Adding -En: Ox, pl. oxen. This plural, common in older English, is now in its simple form restricted to ox. Children, brethren, kine (archaic plural of cow), are double plurals, resulting from adding the plural ending -en to an old plural once in use, cildru, brothru, cy (old plural of cu cow).

In early Modern English, eye, shoe, hose, still had a plural in -en: ‘Hermia’s eyne’ (Shakespeare, A Midsummer-Night’s Dream, I, i, 142), ‘in clouted shoon’ (id., Henry VI, Second Part, IV, ii, 195), ‘their hosen’ (Daniel, III, 21). In the British dialects a number of nouns still preserve the old plural ending -en. In northern New Jersey the plurals shoon and housen are still heard in mountain dialect.

In dialect the plural of certain words has a double plural ending -(e)n + s: sheens (shoes), breechens (breeches), etc.

3. Plural Formed by Change of Vowel. This once common plural form is now confined to the following nouns: foot, feet; goose, geese; louse, lice; man, men; woman, women; mouse, mice; tooth, teeth.

The plural of four-foot is four-foots: ‘Man on his snowshoes has most wild four-foots at his mercy’ (E. T. Seton, Rolf in the Woods, Ch. XL). The plural of goose, a tailor’s smoothing iron, is gooses.

The plural of Northman is Northmen, but Norman has the regular plural Normans. The foreign words Mussulman, Ottoman, Turkoman, Talisman, have nothing to do with English man and hence have regular plurals: Mussulmans, Ottomans, Turkomans, Talismans.

a. The change of vowel in the plural in this little group of nouns is technically called mutation. It was caused by the presence of an i that once stood after the final consonant of the stem: Old English fot ‘foot,’ plural fèt (from still older fòti). For the effects of mutation in verbs see 59 1 b.

4. Plural with Form of Singular. This plural goes back to an Old English neuter type of inflection described in 29 I C. There was no distinctive plural sign for the nominative and accusative
plural. There are only two of the original group of neuters that have preserved their old endingless plural form — *deer*, *sheep*: 'two *deer,*' 'two *sheep.*' Shakespeare still uses *horse* with its old indistinctive plural: 'the galloping of *horse*’ (Macbeth, IV, i, 140). This old type of plural lingered into the modern period with nouns denoting measurement: 'Some of them weie fuen hundred *pound*’ (Pory, Leo’s Africa, Introduction, p. 39, A.D. 1600). In older English this plural spread in measurements to words originally masculine: 'The indigo Plant grows about two *Foot* high’ (Pomet’s History of Drugs, I, p. 89, A.D. 1712). In certain expressions this plural is still employed: 'ten *hundredweight*'; 'a German liner having 9000 *horse power*'; 'five *brace* of *birds*'; 'ten *gross* of *buttons*'; 'a gross = ten *dozen*'; often 'forty *head* of *cattle*'; 'ten *yoke* of *oxen.*' 'These lamps must be at least 40 *candle power.*' We often hear 'He is *five foot ten.*' The spread of this plural with measurements shows that a new idea had become associated with it, namely, a collective idea. With measurements this plural has in general passed out of the literary language. It still lingers, however, in colloquial and popular English: 'a couple of *year*’ (dialect in the mountains of Kentucky).

In other directions the old plural with the new collective idea has taken a fresh start and is flourishing vigorously. It is especially common in nouns denoting gregarious animals: 'a boatload of *fish,*' 'a string of *fish,*' 'five *bass,*' etc. The old, once common plural *fishes* is now largely confined to reference to different species: 'a large book on our freshwater *fishes,*’ 'an illustrated article on our American *basses.*' The old plural with the new collective idea is now widely employed by hunters and is characteristic of their language: 'A farmer raises *ducks,* but a hunter shoots *duck.*' Even in the literary language we usually speak of a jungle abandoned to water *fowl,* but a farmer speaks of the *fowls* going to roost. In books on sport the plurals *lion, elk, antelope, partridge,* etc., are common. Although the American usually thinks of domestic animals as individuals, *hogs, pigs, ducks,* etc., it is quite common to employ *swine* as a collective plural: 'There are millions of *swine* in our country — one-half of a hog for every being in the nation.' In the generic sense *swine* is used also as a singular: *a swine, the swine.* In England the collective plural is used not only in the case of *swine,* but sometimes also in the case of *chicken:* 'Do you keep *chicken?*’ (Dean Alford, The Queen’s English). (This collective plural of *chicken* is given in the Concise Oxford Dictionary). There is a tendency to use this plural with names of insects: 'The great thing is to prevent the *moth* from getting into it between seasons’ (Galsworthy, Swan Song, Part II,
Vermin is often used as a collective plural. There is also a tendency to use the old plural with the new collective idea with names of trees, shrubs, flowers: 'woods of oak and beech.' 'In spring and early summer, daffodils, primroses, honeysuckle, cowslips, are seen on every side' (Calendar of Historic and Important Events, p. 41, A.D. 1930). This plural is spreading to other categories: 'We traveled on ski,' but 'Two broken skis were lying on the ground.'

For the differentiation between folk and folks see 26 1.

The use of a plural with the same form as the singular, once more common than now, is still common in the second component of compounds: 'a ten-pound baby,' 'a ten-foot pole,' 'a three-year-old,' 'a fortnight' (i.e. fourteen nights), 'a twelve-month,' etc.

Nouns that are plurals used as singul ars, as described in Syntax, 59 2, do not usually change their form in the plural: 'a wheezy old bellows' or more commonly 'a pair of wheezy old bellows' (pl.), 'two bellows' or more commonly 'two pairs of bellows' (pl.); 'a high gallows,' 'two gallows'; innings, in British usage singular and plural, as in 'the ninth innings' (sing.), 'two innings,' but in American English the singular is now inning, the plural innings except in such figurative expressions as 'The Democrats are now having their innings' (sing.) and 'It is your innings (= opportunity) now'; 'a sure means,' 'these means'; 'this (in early Modern English usually these) news,' 'a piece of news,' never a news; pains (sing. and pl., usually pl., but sometimes sing., as in 'Much pains has been taken'); 'a scissors' or more commonly 'a pair of scissors,' 'the scissors' (usually pl., but sometimes sing.), 'two scissors' or more commonly 'two pairs of scissors'; 'a lazy-bones,' 'all you lazy-bones'; 'a daddy-long-legs,' 'two daddy-long-legs'; a wood or the woods (pl. referring to one 'wood' or more). We say 'There is a wood (not a woods) about a mile away.' 'The woods are about a mile away,' or 'The wood is about a mile away.' 'You should see the many beautiful woods (pl.) of our county.' In colloquial and popular speech it is common to say: 'There is a fine spring in a woods (for literary wood) near by.' In popular speech the plural ending -es is sometimes added to certain of these nouns to indicate the plural idea more clearly: bellow ses, gallow ses, etc.

Many nouns made from adjectives and participles have a plural with the same form as the singular: 'the dead and the dying,' 'the poor,' etc. A rather full treatment of this important group of nouns is given in 43 3.

In early Modern English, nouns ending in an s-sound often had the singular and the plural alike, such as corpse (older spelling
FOREIGN PLURALS

24. Nouns that have not been thoroughly naturalized retain their original plurals. The tendency to employ the foreign plural is still strong in the technical language of science, but elsewhere in the literary language there is an evident inclination to give to certain words the regular English plural form in -s — a tendency that should be encouraged. Foreign words that are the names of favorite flowers and shrubs and common things in general and are thus known to wide circles have become naturalized or are manifesting a tendency to become so in spite of their foreign form: crocus, crocuses; nasturtium, nasturtiums; fuchsia, fuchsias; libretto, librettos or libretti (24 8); soprano, sopranos or soprani (24 8). The tendency to naturalize names of common things is found even in scientific language, though in much less degree.

There are different groups:

1. Latin words in -a with a plural in -ae (pronounced as e in react): alga, algae; alumna, alumnae; ameba, amebae or amebas; antenna, antennae; camera, cameras (photographic apparatus), camerae (‘chambers,’ term used in anatomy); cesura, cesuras or cesurae; cicada, cicadas or cicadae; corona, coronae or coronas; curia, curiae; differentia, differentiae; drachma, drachmas or drachmae; fauna, faunas or faunae; fibula, fibulae or fibulas; flora, florae or florae; formula, formulas or formulae; gemma, gemmae; lacuna, lacunae; lamella, lamellae; lamia, lamiae or lamias; lamina, laminae; larva, larvae; ligula, ligulae or ligulas; macula, maculae; mammilla, mammillae; mamma, mammæ or mammæ; maxilla, maxillae; minutia, minutiae; nebula, nebulae; papilla, papillae; papula, papulæ; pelta, peltæ; pinna, pinnae; pleura, pleuræ; plica, plicae; pupa, pupae; quadriga, quadrigæ; retina, retinae or reinæ; scintilla, scintillae; scoria, scoriae; stria, striæ; struma, strumæ; taenia, taeniae; tesseræ, tesseractae; tibia, tibiae; tracheæ, tracheaæ; ulna, ulnae; umbra, umbrae; ungula, ungulæ; vagina, vaginæ; verruca, verrucae; vertebra, vertebrae; vesica, vesicae; vitta, vittæ; etc.

Many nouns in -a from the Latin have become naturalized and now have the regular plural in -s, and of course there are from other languages many nouns in -a that have become naturalized, so that there are a large number of nouns in -a that have the regular plural in -s: acacia, area, arena, camellia, cedilla, chimera, cinema, cornucopia, corolla, cupola, dahlia, encyclopedia, era, fistula,
fuchsia, hyena, idea, lama, llama, panacea, peninsula, propaganda, quota, replica, sofa, sonata, subpoena, umbrella, unila, veronica (shrub), villa, vista, wisteria, etc.

2. Latin words in -us with a plural in -i (pronounced as i in mine): abacus, abacuses or abaci; acanthus, acanthuses or acanthi; alumnus, alumni; alveolus, alveoli; bacillus, bacilli; bronchus, bronchi; cactus, cacti (in science) or cactuses (in general use); calculi, calculi; cirrus, cirri; colossus, colossi or colossuses; cothurni; cumulus, cumuli; discobolus, discoboli; esophagus, esophagi or esophaguses; eucalyptus, eucalypti (in science), eucalyptuses (in general use); famulus, famuli; focus, focuses or foci; fucus, fucae; fungus, fungi or funguses; gladiolus (gladiolus, gladious, or, in England, often gladialus), gladialuses, gladious, gladoli, or gladioluses; hippocampus, hippocampi; hippopotamus, hippopotamuses or hippopotami; humor, humeri; iambus, iambi; latus, lata or latae; magnus, magi; modulus, moduli; narcissus, narcissus or narcissi; nautilus, nautiluses or nautili; nidus, niduses or nidi; nimbus, nimbuses or nimbi; nodus, nodi; nucleus, nuciei or nuclei; obelus, obeloi; ocellus, ocelli; papyrus, papyri; plesiosaurus, plesiosauri; polypus, polypt or polyptes; radius, radii; ranunculus, ranunculuses or ranunculi; scyphus, scyphii; senarius, senarii; stimulus, stimuli; stratus, stratii; syllabus, syllabi or syllabuses; talus (anklebone), tali, but talus (slope), taluses; tarsus, tarsi; terminus, termini; thalamus, thalami; thesaurus, thesauri; torus, tori; tumulus, tumuli; umbilicus, umbilici; uterus, uteri; vitellus, vitelli; etc.

But some nouns from the Latin have a plural in -us, -ora, or -era, as in Latin: apparatus, apparatus or, especially in England, apparatuses; corpus, corpora; genus, genera; hiatus, hiatuses or hiatus; ictus, ictuses or ictus; lusus, lusus; meatus, meatuses or meatus; nexus, nexus or nexuses; opus, opera; plexus, plexi or plexuses; rictus, rictuses or rictus; saltus, sinuses or sinu; viscus, viscera; etc.

Some nouns in -us from Latin and other languages have become naturalized and now take the regular -es in the plural: bolus, bonus, callus, campus, caucus, census, chorus, circus, Columbus, conspectus, convolvulus, crocus, fetus, excursus, hibiscus, ignoramus, impetus, incubus, isthmus, lotus, mandamus, minus, mittimus, octopus, omnibus, platypus, plus, prospectus, rebus, rhombus, vidimus, virus, etc. Ignoramus (i.e. we do not know), mandamus (i.e. we command), mittimus (i.e. we send), vidimus (i.e. we have seen). are Latin verbs used as nouns. Omnibus is a Latin dative
plural = for all. *Rebus* is the Latin ablative plural of *res* ‘thing.’ These six words never take *-i* in the plural. *Rumpus* is an English word and, of course, takes *-es* in the plural.

3. Latin words in *-um* with a plural in *-a*: *addendum*, *ad­enda*; *agendum*, *agenda*; *animalculum*, *animalcula*, sometimes *animalcula* (plural construed as singular), *animalculae* (new plural), but now in the singular usually *animalcule*, which has a regular plural; *antrum*, *antra* or *antrums*; *aquarium*, *aquaria* or *aquaria*; *arboretum*, *arborea* or *arboretaums*; *arcanum*, *arcana*; *audi­torium*, *auditoriums* or *auditoria*; *bacterium*, *bacteria*; *candelabrum*, *candelabra* or *candelabrums*; *cerebellum*, *cerebella* or *cerebellums*; *cerebrum*, *cerebra*; *compendium*, *com­pendiums* or *compendia*; *corrigendum*, *corrigenda*; *cranium*, *crania* or *craniums* (jocular use for heads); *curriculum*, *curricula* or *curriculums*; *datum*, *data*; *desideratum*, *desiderata*; *dictum*, *dicta*; *effluvium*, *effluvia*; *emporium*, *emporiums* or *emporia*; *epithala­mium*, *epithalamiums* or *epithalamia*; *erratum*, *errata*; *exordium*, *exordiums* or *exordia*; *frenum*, *frena* or *frenums*; *frustum*, *frustums* or *frusta*; *fulcrum*, *fulcrums* or *fulcra*; *gymnasium*, *gymnasiums* or *gymnasia*; *gymnasium* (German classical school), *gymnasia* or in German form *gymnasien*; *honorarium*, *honoraria* or *honorariums*; *interregnum*, *interregna* or *interregnums*; *labium*, *labia*; *lustrum*, *lustrums* or *lustra*; *mausoleum*, *mausoleums* or *mausolea*; *maximum*, *maxima* or *maximums*; *medium*, *mediums* (of things and persons, always so of persons) or *media* (of things); *memorandum*, *memoranda* or *memorandums*; *menstruum*, *menstrua* or *menstruums*; *millennium*, *millennia* or *millenniums*; *minimum*, *minima* or *minim­ums*; *momentum*, *momenta*; *moratorium*, *moratoria* or *moratoriums*; *operculum*, *opercula*; *opusculum*, *opuscula*; *ovum*, *ova*; *palladium*, *palladia*; *phylum*, *phyla*; *planetarium*, *planetaria* or *planetariums*; *plectrum*, *plectra*; *podium*, *podia*; *propylaeum*, *propylaea*; *pro­ceniun*, *procenium*, *procenia*; *pudendum*, *pudenda* (usually em­ployed in the plural, but the singular is sometimes used with the same meaning); *residuum*, *residua*; *rostrum*, *rostra* (ships’ beaks) or *rostrums* (pulpits, platforms, in these meanings sometimes also *rostra*); *sacrarium*, *sacri­aria*; *sanatorium*, *sanatoriums* or *sanatoria*; *scholium*, *scholia*; *scrinium*, *scrinia*; *scriptorium*, *scriptoria*; *scutum*, *scuta*; *septum*, *septa*; *simulacrum*, *simulacula*; *solarium*, *solaria*; *solatum*, *solatia*; *spectrum*, *spectra* or *spectrums*; *speculum*, *specula*; *sputum*, *sputa*; *stadium*, *stadia*; *sternum*, *sternas* or *sternums*; *stratum*, *strata*; *substratum*, *substrata*; *sudatorium*, *sudatoria*; *symposium*, *symposia*; *tintinnabulum*, *tintinnabula*; *trapezium*, *trapeziums* or *trapezia*; *triclinium*, *triclinia*; *triforium*, *tri­foria*; *tripudium*, *tripudia*; *tripetrum*, *tripeta*; *tympanum*,
tympana; ultimatum, ultimata or ultimatums; vacuum, vacuums or vacua; vasculum, vascula; velamentum, velamenta; velum, vela; vexillum, vexilla; vibraculum, vibracula; vinculum, vincula; vivarium, vivariums or vivaria; etc. A number of scientific terms occur only in the plural: carnivora, herbivora, infusoria, mammalia, etc.

Some nouns in -um, whether of Latin or other origin, usually take -s in the plural: album, antirrhinum, asylum, chrysanthemum, decorum, delphinium, Elysium, encomium, factotum, forum, geranium, hoodium, lyceum, museum, nasturtium, nostrum, pandemonium, pendulum, petroleum, premium, quorum, referendum, serum, Tar- gum, vellum, viburnum, etc. Quorum (i.e. of whom) is a Latin genitive plural and hence cannot take -a in the plural.

The Latin neuter stamen had the plural stamina. In English, stamen has a regular plural, stamens. The old Latin plural stamina has become in English a singular, an abstract noun without a plural.

4. Words in -ex, -ix, -yx, -trix, -is, -sis, with a plural in -es. The plural -es is not added to the singular, but to an altered or shortened form of it, or, on the other hand, -es is often after English fashion added to the regular singular form: apex, apexes or apicës; codex, codicës; cortex, corticës; index, indexes (25) or indicës (25); murex, muricës or murexes; vertex, verticës or vertexes; vortex, verticës or vertexes; appendix, appendicës or appendicës; helix, helicës or helixes; radix, radicës or radixes; calyx, calyxes or calycës; administratrix, administratricës; cicatrix, cicatricës; executrix, executricës or executrices; heritríx, heritrícës or heritríxes; inheritríx, inheritrícës or inheritrícës; matrix, matricës or matrixes; mediatrix, mediatricës or mediatrixes; prosecutrix, prosecutricës or prosecutrices; testatrix, testatricës or testatrices; amanuënsis, amanuënsës; analysis, analysës; apodosis, apodosës; arsis, arsës; axis, axës; basis, basës; chrysalis, chrysalises or chrysalïdes; crisiis, crisiis; diagnosis, diagnosës; dieresis, dierësës; ellipsis, ellipsës; emphasis, emphasiis; hypothesis, hypothesës; metamorphosis, metamorphosës; matathesis, matathëses; metempsychosis, metempsychosës; narcosis, narcosiis; neurosis, neurosës; oasis, oasës; parabasis, parabasës; parenthesis, parenthesës; periphraasis, periphrasës; proboscis, proboscisës or proboscïdes, but not proboscïis; prognosës, prognosës; protasis, protasës; psychosis, psychosës; sclerosis, sclerosës; syllepseis, syllepseïs; synopsis, synopsës; synthesis, synthëses; thesis, theses, etc. There are other words with the plural in -ës: pàriës, parëtës; vibrio, vibriónës.

Iris, metropolis, usually have English plurals, irises, metropolis, but the former sometimes has the foreign plural iridës. Calliopsis, coreopsis, clematis, and often iris remain unchanged in the plural. See 23 4 (2nd par.).
5. Greek words in -on with a plural in -a: anacoluthon, anacoluthons or anacolutha; asyndeton, asyndeta or asyndetons; automaton, automatons or automata; criterion, criteria; ganglion, ganglia or ganglions; hyperbaton, hyperbata or hyperbatons; nounemon, nounema; organon, organa or organons; oxymoron, oxymora or oxymora; perispomenon, perispomena; phenomenon, phenomena; prolegomenon, prolegomena (usually in plural); etc. Instead of ephemeron (pl. ephemera or ephemerons) we may use ephemera (pl. ephemeras).

There are a number of naturalized nouns in -on — from this Greek declension and from others, also from other languages — so that there are now many nouns in -on that have the regular plural in -s: anion, archon, canon, cation, colon, semicolon, cotyledon, demon, electron, lexicon, mastodon, pylon, rhododendron, siphon, skeleton, tenon, etc.

6. Greek words in -roa with a plural in -mata: anathema, anathemas or anathemata; diploma, diplomas or sometimes in the rarer meanings diplomata; dogma, dogmas or now rarely dogmata; fibroma, fibromata; gumma, gummata or gummas; miasma, miasmata or miasmas; neurama, neuromata; sarcoma, sarcomata or sarcomas; scleroma, scleromata; stemma, stemmata; stigma, stigmata or, in ecclesiastical and scientific senses, stigmata; stroma, stromata; zeugma, zeugmata or zeugmata; etc.

Dilemma and panorama have the regular plural in -s: dilemmas, panoramas.

7. Species, series, superficies, abatis, have the same form for singular and plural. Chamois, corps, patois, rendezvous, and Dumas (name) have the same spelling for singular and plural, but in the spoken language the final s is silent in the singular and spoken in the plural. Forceps is either a singular or a plural: 'this or these forceps,' 'a pair of forceps.'

Cyclōps has a variant form Cyclōp. Cyclōps has the plural Cyclōpes or Cyclōpēs. Cyclōp has the plural Cyclōps.

Sioux has the same form for singular and plural, the final z silent in the singular and in the plural either silent or pronounced z. Thus it is treated either as a noun made from an adjective or as a pure noun. Iroquois has the same form for singular and plural, always with silent final s, both in the singular and the plural. Thus it is treated as a noun made from an adjective. Compare 23 4 and 43 3 (4th par.).

Larynx and meninx have the plurals larýngēs and meníngēs. The plural of phalānx is phalāngēs in anatomy and botany, elsewhere phalānces. The singular of phalāngēs is also phalānge.

8. Italian words with the plural in -i (pronounced as e in react):
bandit, bandits or banditti; carbonaro, carbonari; cicerone, ciceroni or cicerones; conversazione, conversaciones or conversazioni; dilettante, dilettanti or dilettantes; Facista, Facisti or in English form Fascist, pl. Fascists, as adjective always Fascist, as in 'Fascist doctrine'; graffito, graffiti; intermezzo, intermezzos or intermezzi; lazzarone, lazzaroni; libretto, librettos or libretti; niello, nielli or niellos; sbirro, sbirri; sopran, sopranos or soprani; virtuoso, virtuos or virtuosos. The plural of the compound prima donna is prima donnas or prime donne.

9. French. Madâme, monsiéuv have the plurals mesdâmes, messiéurs. The following nouns — accented in the case of words of more than one syllable upon the last syllable except in bureau, flâmbeau, tableau (tableau or tableau), portmântau, and rondeau (rondeau or rondéau) — take in the plural -s or -x, which is pronounced as s in rose: adieu, adieux or adieux; beau, beaux or beaux; bureau, bureaus or bureaux; chateau, chateaux or chateaus; flambeau, flambeaux or flambeaus; plateau, plateaux or plateaux; portmanteau, portmanteaux or portmanteaus; rondeau, rondeaux or rondeaus; rouleau, rouleaux or rouleaus; tableau, tableaux or tableaus; trosseau, trousseaux or trousseaus. Purlieu always has the plural purlieux.

The contracted form Messrs. (mësrz) is used as the plural of Mr. In direct address the plural of Madam is Ladies.

Chassis has the same spelling for singular and plural, but it is usually pronounced shâsê in the singular and shâsêz in the plural. It is sometimes pronounced chasis in both singular and plural. In England the usual pronunciation is shâsê for singular and plural.

10. Hebrew: cherub, cherubim or cherubs (in the sense of 'darlings' always cherubs; in older English with the singular cherubin or cherubim and the plural cherubins or cherubims); seraph, seraphim or seraphs; sephardi, sephardim. Teraphim is used as a collective plural = 'the household gods.' This form is sometimes used as a singular with the plural teraphims. The singular is sometimes teraph with the plural teraphs. The plural of rabbï is rabbïs.

11. Latin: triumvîr, triumvîrs or triumvi; naiad (nâyâd or nâyâd), naiads or naiâdes.

12. Japanese. The Japanese coin yen has the same form for the singular and the plural.

13. Arabic: fellah, fellaheen or fellahs. The usual plural of Moslem is Moslems, but the Arabic form Moslemin is sometimes employed. Some use Moslem also as a plural in a collective sense: 'All Moslem (more commonly Moslems) are bound to study it' (i.e. the Koran) (Carlyle, Heroes and Hero-Worship, II, 104).
TWO PLURAL FORMS WITH DIFFERENTIATED MEANING

25. When different plural forms arise, there is a tendency to differentiate them in meaning. Notice the following differentiations: brother, pl. brothers (by blood), brethren (of a religious or secular order or community); cherub, pl. cherubs (darlings), cherubim (angels); cloth, pl. cloths (different pieces or kinds of cloth), clothes (collective pl., one's garments); die, pl. dies (stamps), dice (cubes used in games); genius (person of high mental power; in this meaning pronounced jēnyūs), pl. geniuses; genius (pronounced jēnī-ūs) or genie (pronounced jēnī), both in the sense of a good or evil spirit with the plural form genii, or instead of genie the Arabic form jinnī is sometimes used with the plural jinn; penny, pl. pennies (individual coins), pence (collectively, as in 'Can you give me six pennies for this sixpence?'), the latter of which can be used as a singular noun with a regular plural, as in a sixpence, two sixpences; index, pl. indexes (tables of contents), indices (algebraical signs); seraph, pl. seraphs (sweet singers), seraphim (angels); staff, pl. staves (musical term), staffs (military or newspaper staffs, flagstaffs, etc.).

In older English, pease is a singular as well as a plural. The old singular form is still sometimes used in pease-pudding (now usually pea pudding, pea soup, etc.). From the plural pease was formed the new singular pea, a so-called back-formation. To this new singular there were for a long time two plurals, peas (individual peas), and pease (for a mass of peas), now usually peas.

For further discussion see Syntax, 59 1.

PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS

26. There are three groups:

1. Old Compounds. Our oldest compounds and most of our newer ones are forms representing a unit of thought, hence are treated as simple nouns, the final element, if a noun, assuming the plural form that it would have as a simple word: toothpick, toothpicks; horseman, horsemen; housetrap, housetraps; woman-hater, womanhaters; washerwoman, washerwomen; bird's-nest, bird's-nests or birds' nests; crow's-foot, the crow's-feet about his eyes; Peter's penny, Peter's pence; etc. If the final element is not a noun, the plural usually ends in -s: bucketfuls, handfuls, spoonfuls, breakdowns, drawbacks, setbacks, hold-ups, stop-overs, stowaways, godsend, merry-go-rounds, go-between, forget-me-nots, cure-alls, four per cents (last element a phrase), four o'clocks, etc.
Inflection usually takes place only in the final element, but in certain compounds containing two nouns as components both nouns have plural form: maid servants, girl cashiers, woman (more commonly women) clerks, chief justices, lieutenant colonels, lieutenant governors, etc., but men servants, men friends, gentlemen boarders, women students, women singers, etc. It would be more in accordance with our modern feeling, as described in Syntax, 10 I 2, to construe the first element in many such expressions as an adjective, and the following word as the governing noun. Some of these expressions, however, such as chief justice, lieutenant governor, etc., are real compounds.

In a few words a difference of accent is associated with a difference of meaning: mankind (the human species), mankind (the males of a household, the male sex) or sometimes still in accordance with older usage menkind. In America the colloquial expression is men folks. Womenkind has the force of all women, while womankind or womenkind means women folks (‘our, his, etc., women folks’). In England the forms menfolk and womenfolk are used instead of men folks and women folks. Americans often employ menfolk, womenfolk in literary style: ‘As the wife of a celebrated senator, mother of his successor in the Senate and of the Governor of Wisconsin, her (i.e. Belle Case LaFollette’s) personality along with her work was merged in the fame of her menfolk’ (The New York Times, Editorial, Aug. 20, 1931). Similarly in formal language we say ‘my (his, etc.) kinsfolk,’ but colloquially we use more commonly ‘my (his, etc.) relatives,’ ‘my (his, etc.) people,’ or ‘my (his, etc.) folks.’ ‘My (his, etc.) folks,’ however, refers most commonly to the members of a single household. Compare Syntax, 59 1.

2. Syntactical Compounds. Although in the old compounds in the first component stands in a syntactical relation, the relation is often not indicated by their form; hence we can easily add the plural sign at the end of the group. But in many compounds where the syntactical relation is indicated by the form, especially where the first component is a noun which is modified by a genitive, prepositional phrase, adverb, or adjective, we plainly feel the force of the noun and give it plural form if there is a reference to more than one: men-of-war, mothers-in-law, brothers-in-law, sons-in-law, daughters-in-law, heirs-at-law, commanders-in-chief, editors-in-chief, aides-de-camp, autos-da-fé, lookers-on, goings-on or sometimes on-goings (both usually in the plural), passers-by, coatsof-mail, justices-of-the-peace, postmasters-general, governors-general, attorneys-general, courts-martial, notaries public, poets laureate, knights-errant, billets-doux. In a number of such compounds,
however, the concrete force of the noun is felt so little and the oneness of the compound is felt so strongly that the regular plural ending -s is added at the end: will-o'-the-wisps, good-for-nothings, jack-in-the-pulpits (American plant), brigadier generals, major generals, lieutenant generals, attorney-generals (perhaps more common than attorneys-general), etc.; often court-martials instead of courts-martial; in popular speech often mother-in-laws, etc. While we say in the literary language 'my brothers-in-law' we must, on the other hand, say 'my brother-in-law's house.'

When in compounds the second component is a noun in apposition with the preceding component, both components usually have plural form: Knights Templars, Knights Hospitalers, Lords Justices, Lords Lieutenants, Lords Chancellors, etc. But there is considerable fluctuation in usage with some of these words: Lord Lieutenants (both components felt as a unit), Lords Lieutenant (second component felt as an adjective), etc.

3. Plural of Titles: 'Messrs. (mĕzarz) Smith' or 'the Messrs. Smith'; 'Messrs. Smith and Brown'; 'the two Mr. Smiths'; 'Mr. Paul [Smith] and Mr. John Smith' or 'Messrs. Paul and John Smith'; 'Master Smith'; 'the two young Master Smiths' or 'the two young Masters Smith'; 'Drs. William Smith and Henry Brown'; 'Professors Smith and Brown'; 'the two Miss Smiths' or 'the two Misses Smith,' but only 'the two Mrs. Smiths'; 'the Miss Smiths' or in more formal language, as in addressing a letter, 'the Misses Smith'; 'the Misses Mary and Ann Brown'; 'the Misses Smith, Brown, and Reed.'

CASE

27. Case is that form of a noun or pronoun which marks it as the subject of a verb, or as the object of a verb, adjective, or preposition, or as playing the part of an adjective or an adverb. Once the Germanic (German, English, etc.) languages, in large measure, indicated these grammatical relations by inflectional endings, i.e. endings which the nouns, pronouns, and adjectives assumed to show the part they were playing in the sentence. Of the many case endings once used English has, in nouns, preserved only one, namely the -s of the genitive. Apart from the genitive relation, these grammatical relations are now indicated by the position of the noun with regard to the verb or preposition, or by means of inflectional prepositions (17), which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings, or often by the context alone; that is, the context without the aid of word-order or inflectional preposition suggests the grammatical relation, as illustrated in 3 a below.
In the genitive relation we still frequently employ the genitive ending \(-s\), but employ also frequently the inflectional preposition of, as described in 4 A b (2) (p.134).

There are now four cases, nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, and in Old English as a fifth case the instrumental. The cases other than the nominative are called the oblique cases.

**NOMINATIVE**

1. Functions. The nominative performs three functions. It plays the rôle of subject, predicate, and direct address.

   a. Subject. The subject relation is shown by a clear nominative form only in the case of a few pronouns: I, he, she, we, they, who. Nouns and most pronouns can no longer show by their form that they are performing the part of subject, but they become clear subject nominatives through their position, i.e. by being placed before the verb, and even the pronouns that have a distinctive nominative form have this position: ‘The wind blows.’ ‘The winds blow.’ ‘He is industrious.’ ‘They are industrious.’

   In transferring a sentence with active verb to a form of statement with passive verb the accusative object of the active becomes nominative: ‘He beat me in tennis today’ (active). ‘I was beaten by him in tennis today’ (passive). If there are a dative and an accusative object in the active there will be a double form in the passive. Active form: ‘He gave them ample warning.’ In the passive the accusative of the active becomes nominative and the dative is retained, or the dative of the active becomes nominative and the accusative is retained: ‘Ample warning was given them’ or ‘They were given ample warning.’ Notice that in questions the retained accusative may introduce the sentence: ‘What was he paid?’ Compare Syntax, 15 I 2 a.

   The subject nominative usually, as in the preceding examples, stands before a finite verb, i.e. a verb that agrees with its subject in number and person. In subordinate clauses, however, the subject nominative sometimes stands before a predicate participle, adjective, noun, adverb, or prepositional phrase: ‘Off we started, he remaining behind’ (= while he remained behind). ‘It is doubtful if he had quite listened — he having (= because he had) so much to not listen to at the Home Office that the practice was growing on him’ (Galsworthy, Freeland, Ch. XVI). ‘We sail on Tuesday, weather permitting’ (= if the weather permits). ‘He lay on his back, his knees in the air, his hands crossed behind his back.’ ‘Thou away, the very birds are mute’ (Shakespeare). In colloquial speech the accusative is often used instead of the nominative: ‘You wouldn’t expect anything else, would you, me (instead of
choice I) being here like this, so suddenly, and talking face to face with you’ (Arnold Bennett, Sacred and Profane Love, Act I, p. 25). This style of predication without the aid of a finite verb is the old appositional type of predication explained in 12 3. The literary nominative employed in these clauses is called the nominative absolute. The construction is described in detail in 18 B 1, 15 2 b, c, d, f, h, i, also in Syntax, 17 3 A, B, C.

On the other hand, in infinitive clauses the subject of the infinitive, as explained in 47 5 a, is often a dative, an accusative, or for + an accusative: ‘I told him (dative) to do it.’ ‘I begged him (accusative) to do it.’ ‘For me to back out now would be to acknowledge that I am afraid.’ The subject in gerundial clauses is a genitive or an accusative: ‘I do not approve of my son’s (or son) doing such a thing.’ The form of the subject of the gerund is discussed in 47 6 a. Thus it is evident that the subject of a verb is not always a nominative. In the course of the development of English other cases have come into use here in certain constructions.

b. Predicate. The predicate nominative is recognized by its position after a linking (12 3) verb: ‘It is he.’ ‘She is my sister.’ Here the subject of the sentence is a nominative. Where something is predicated of an accusative object the predicate is an accusative. See 2 c below.

Only a few personal pronouns have a distinct nominative form for the predicate relation: I, he, she, we, they. In choice English these forms are the usual ones for the predicate nominative relation, but in colloquial speech they are replaced here by the corresponding accusatives: ‘It was me, him, her, us, them,’ instead of the literary forms I, he, she, we, they. Compare Syntax, 7 C a.

The predicate nominative is found not only after a linking verb, i.e. a copula, as in the preceding examples, but also after the passive forms of certain transitive (12 1) verbs: ‘He was made a general.’ ‘He was proclaimed king.’ ‘He is considered the best man for the place.’ The predicate nominative is often introduced by the particle as: ‘She is regarded as the best teacher in the school.’ The predicate nominative in the passive form of statement corresponds to the predicate accusative in the active form of statement: ‘The President made him a general.’ Compare 27 2 c (2nd par.).

c. Direct Address. The nominative of address is known by its peculiar intonation and its independent position in the sentence, having a close relation to the thought, but without any relation to the grammatical structure: ‘O Mary, go and call the cattle home!’ In older languages the noun in direct address often had a special case form called the vocative.
2. Functions. The accusative has three functions. It plays the rôle of object, adverb, or objective predicate (i.e. the noun that predicates something of an object).

a. Accusative Object. The accusative of a noun or pronoun is widely used to modify the verb closely — here called accusative (or direct) object. Its relation to the verb is a little closer than that of an adverbial element. The pause between verb and adverb is greater than that between verb and object, but, of course, in both cases the pause is slight. We might say that there is no pause between verb and object and a slight one between verb and adverb. Jespersen in The Philosophy of Grammar (p. 103) tells the story of a boy who in reading a passage understood ‘Job cursed the day (object) that he was born’ as meaning ‘Job cursed (slight pause) the day that he was born.’ If cursed and the day are closely connected in thought, the day is an object. If there is a slight pause between cursed and the day, what follows the pause is an adverbial element. The boy, pausing in thought where he ought to have read straight on, got a wrong idea of the sentence.

An interesting variety of this object — the cognate object — has come into wide use in English: ‘He lives a sad and lonely life.’ For a fuller description see 12 1 (3rd par.).

But a noun or a pronoun may be the object of another part of speech than a verb. It may serve also as the object of a preposition or an adjective. The object function is indicated by placing the noun or the pronoun after the verb, preposition, or adjective: ‘The dog bit my brother and me.’ ‘He is sitting by me on the sofa.’ ‘This book is worth (adjective) reading.’

A full discussion of the use of the accusative as the object of verbs is given in Syntax, 11 1, 2. The various uses of the accusative as the object of prepositions have already been given in 16 1 b. Worth is the only adjective that takes an accusative object: ‘He isn’t worth a dollar.’ ‘It is worth while, doing, having, troubling oneself about.’ ‘What is the house worth?’ Adjectives usually have as object a prepositional phrase, a so-called prepositional object consisting of a preposition and its object: ‘She is fond of music.’ ‘He is eager for gain.’ Compare 16 1 b (2nd par.). Also an intransitive (12 2) verb may have a prepositional object: ‘He is shooting at a mark.’ Compare 16 1 b.

b. Adverbial Accusative. The accusative of a noun or pronoun is often used adverbially as a modifier of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb: ‘He stayed an hour.’ ‘This pole is a foot longer.’ ‘He stayed a day longer than I did.’ ‘He died the next day.’ ‘He died
that year.' The adverbial accusative of time is common with the relative pronoun that: ‘The day that he died was a momentous one for America.’ That is sometimes an adverbial accusative of manner: ‘This is not the way that you are expected to act.’ Certain of these accusatives impart feeling to the statement: ‘I don’t care a damn’ (or ‘a tinker’s cuss’). This force is often conveyed, not by the accusative but by the adjective that stands before it: ‘He doesn’t care a blessed thing for us.’ ‘She is a deuced deal cleverer than lots of men.’ Compare 7 VII c cc. For fuller treatment see 71 1 a.

c. Predicate Accusative. A noun or pronoun which is predicated of an accusative object is in the accusative and is called an objective predicate or a predicate accusative: ‘They supposed us to be them.’ ‘A boy whom I believed to be him just passed.’ Compare 47 5 a (8th par.).

A clear accusative form, of course, is found only in the case of pronouns that have a distinctive accusative, as in the preceding examples. Usually only the function shows that we have to do with a predicate accusative: ‘The president made him a general.’ ‘The king dubbed his son a knight.’ ‘They elected him temporary chairman.’ ‘We thought the fellow a coward.’ ‘We consider him a very fine teacher.’ ‘They named him John.’ ‘He called me a liar.’ The predicate accusative is often introduced by the particle as: ‘They represent him as a reliable man.’ The objective predicate may be also a clause: ‘His rigid discipline has made me what I am.’

The predicate accusatives in the first paragraph are linked to their accusative subjects by the copula (12 3) be. The predicate accusatives in the second paragraph are a much older type of predicate, a predicate without the aid of a copula, as explained in 12 3.

DATIVE

3. Function and Forms. The dative modifies the verb closely and is thus an object. To distinguish it from the accusative (or direct) object (27 2 a), with which it is often connected, we call it the dative (or indirect) object. The dative object indicates that an action or feeling is directed toward a person or thing to his or its advantage or disadvantage. This function is indicated in two ways — by a simple noun or pronoun, or by a preposition + the noun or pronoun. The preposition here is a mere formal sign to mark the following noun or pronoun as a dative.

We usually call this case the dative of advantage or disadvantage, as in ‘He offered (or ‘refused’) me his support,’ but we often
call it the dative of reference where the related idea of personal reference is prominent: 'He offered (or 'refused') me his support, but he didn’t offer (or 'refuse') it to my brother.' ‘It doesn’t seem fair to me.’ ‘His hat is too large for me.’ ‘He bowed to me.’ As in the last three examples, the dative of reference is often used with intransitives (12 2). Compare Syntax, 12 1.

a. Simple Dative. We still often employ the simple form of the noun or pronoun: ‘This woman is making her little son a new coat.’

The dative is recognized by its position before the accusative, the direct object of the verb. It has held its position before the accusative for thousands of years, and its position is so much a characteristic feature of it that we can often recognize it by its position although it often does not have a distinctive form. Sometimes, however, the context alone indicates that the noun or pronoun is performing the dative function: ‘The woman who makes a man (dative = to the advantage of a man) a good wife also makes him (accusative, direct object of the verb) a good husband.’ ‘They chose him (dative) a wife,’ but ‘They chose him (accusative) king.’

English is here at its simplest. Form disappears entirely. The context alone distinguishes dative and accusative. Compare Syntax, 11 1.

b. Prepositional Dative. This dative has the same force as the older simple dative. As the older dative has lost the distinctive endings that it had in older English the newer form is often preferred as a clearer dative form. It is made by placing the inflectional preposition (17) to or for before the simple noun or pronoun: ‘The mother is making a new coat for her boy John. She will give his old one to his little brother.’ ‘The mother is sewing for her boy; she is making a new coat for him. She will give it to him when he comes home from school.’ The prepositional dative forms with for and to both express advantage here, but the same forms may express also discomfort, disadvantage: ‘I set a trap for the mouse.’ ‘She gave the scolding this time to the girls, where it properly belonged.’ Thus for many centuries the same forms have been used for both advantage and disadvantage. There is a tendency at present to differentiate English expression here — to employ to and for for advantage and on for disadvantage. On cannot be freely used for disadvantage, but in the colloquial language of our time it is playing an important part: ‘He played his father (old simple dative) a mean trick,’ or ‘He played a mean trick on his father’ (new prepositional dative of disadvantage). ‘She hung up [the receiver] on him.’ ‘He turned the light out on them.’ ‘They raised the rent on us.’ The on-dative is common in Irish English, which at this point may be influencing American English.
But for many hundreds of years there has been a similar *on* in the literary language. It is used for advantage or disadvantage: 'She smiled on me.' 'He turned his back on me.' But the idea of disadvantage is ever becoming more prominent in *on*; so that *on* + noun (or pronoun) is developing into a dative of disadvantage worthy of use in choice language: 'His pursuers are gaining *on* him.' 'This strain is beginning to tell *on* her.' This distinctive form for disadvantage enables us to express our thought more accurately than in older English. For fuller discussion see *Syntax*, 11 1, 12 1 B a, b, c.

**Genitive**

4. Functions, Forms, Meanings. The genitive has three functions, four forms, and a number of distinct but related meanings. These things will be discussed in the following articles.

A. Attributive Genitive. This genitive is treated at considerable length in *Syntax*, 10 II. Attention is directed here chiefly to matters of form and an outline of its functions.

a. Function and Meaning. The attributive genitive modifies a noun or pronoun and thus plays the part of an adjective. It expresses many related ideas, *origin*, *possession*, *subject*, *object*, *material*, *composition*, *characteristic*, *measure*, *apposition*, a whole from which a part is taken: 'Shakespeare's (origin) dramas'; 'John's (possession) hat'; 'mother's (subject) love for us'; 'Caesar's (object) murderers'; 'an idol of gold' (material); 'a flock of birds' (composition); 'a child's (characteristic) language'; 'an hour's (measure) delay'; 'the gift of song' (apposition); 'a piece of bread' (whole from which a part is taken). These meanings are described at length in *Syntax*, 10 II 2.

b. Form. There are four forms of the genitive.

(1). *s-Genitive. An 's is added to a noun not ending in an s-sound: 'the girl's hat,' etc. Of course we write *Descartes's*, *Dumas's*, for the *s* and *es* before the genitive ending are silent. An 's is added also to plurals not ending in -s: 'men's clothing.' The 's in all these examples is pronounced as a simple *s*.

An 's is usually added to nouns ending in an s-sound: 'James's hat.' The 's here is never pronounced as a simple *s* but always as *ės*. This is the survival of older usage when all nouns could take *ės* in the genitive singular. This older usage was still lingering in Shakespeare's day: 'as white as whale's bone' (*Love's Labor's Lost*, V, ii, 332). The *e* of the old genitive ending began to disappear about 1380 and finally in the early part of the Modern English period disappeared entirely except in the case of nouns ending in an s-sound, where it in general survives although it is
not written. In the Middle English and early Modern English periods the s of the genitive ending was often suppressed in nouns ending in an s-sound. This older usage lingers: ‘Cards’ pride’ (Hugh Walpole, Fortitude, p. 80), ‘greatly to Charles’ surprise’ (Hergesheimer, The Bright Shawl, p. 20). This older usage survives especially in a few set expressions and a few foreign names difficult to pronounce with the genitive s-ending: for old acquaintance’ sake, for goodness’ sake, for conscience’ sake, Jesus’, Xerxes’, Socrates’, etc. In general, however, the ’s of the genitive ending is more common in nouns ending in an s-sound than it was in early Modern English, and is gradually becoming established. On the other hand, s is never added in the genitive plural to nouns ending in –s in the plural: ‘the ladies’ club,’ ‘the girls’ hats,’ ‘the Joneses’ garage.’

In compounds the genitive ’s is added to the last component: ‘Hop-o’-my-thumb’s mother,’ ‘my brother-in-law’s new house.’ In such compounds as the latter of these examples the plural ending –s, in contrast to the genitive ending –’s, is added to the first component: ‘my two brothers-in-law.’

In older English, when there were two s-genitives connected by a coördinating conjunction, the genitive ending was often added only to the second genitive, while present usage requires each genitive to take the ending: ‘My wife (now wife’s) and children’s ghosts will haunt me still’ (Shakespeare, Macbeth, V, vii, 16).

The apostrophe is not found with the s-genitive in older English: ‘in Gods care’ (Chettle, Kind-Hartes Dreame, p. 22, A.D. 1592), ‘Gods grace’ (Bradford, History of Plymouth Plantation, p. 32, A.D. 1630–1648). The apostrophe began to appear about 1680, gaining ground at first only slowly. Its use cannot possibly rest upon a careful observation of the spoken language. In ‘James’s hat’ the vowel before the second s in James’s is not suppressed. The apostrophe before the second s here probably arose from the misconception that James’s is a contraction of James his, the old his-genitive (see (4) p. 136), which was still employed at the time when the apostrophe came into use. This theory does not explain the use of ’s after a feminine or a plural noun. The ’s spread by analogy from masculine nouns to feminines and plurals. The old s-genitive without an apostrophe survives in his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.

(2). Of-Genitive. This form is composed of the inflectional preposition of (17) and a noun. This prepositional phrase indicates exactly the same grammatical relation as the simple s-genitive, and historically has taken the place of the old simple s-genitive and the other old inflectional genitives that in Old English stood after
the governing noun. As originally, the of-genitive still always follows the governing noun. The simple s-genitive originally stood either before the governing noun or after it but is now restricted to the position before it, so that now the simple s-genitive stands before the governing noun and the of-genitive stands after it: ‘the man’s son’ or ‘the son of the man’; ‘the fox’s tail’ or ‘the tail of the fox.’

The simple s-genitive and the of-genitive always have the same grammatical function but do not always have exactly the same meaning. When there are two forms for the same thing there is a tendency for them to become differentiated. Today the s-genitive has become associated with life and cannot usually be used with nouns that denote lifeless things. Thus today we say ‘a boy’s leg’ but not ‘a table’s leg.’ For things we usually employ the of-genitive: ‘the leg of the table.’ The s-genitive is used with names of things only when in lively language they are thought of as having life: ‘the ocean’s roar,’ ‘Duty’s call,’ ‘for the sake of the mind’s peace.’ ‘A book’s chances depend more on its selling qualities than its worth.’ On the other hand, with reference to persons and other living beings both genitive forms are used without a difference of meaning: ‘the man’s son’ or ‘the son of the man.’

It is interesting to see how we lost the old s-genitive that in the Old English period stood after the governing noun. In Old English it became ever more common for the s-genitive to stand after the governing noun, and in this position it was at that time a perfectly clear form: ‘þæ leaf þæs treowes’ = ‘the leaves of the tree.’ In Old English the article þæs before the s-genitive was inflected, had an s-genitive form itself, so that the thought was clear. When the article later lost its inflection the old s-genitive in this position disappeared, since its reduced form — ‘the leaves the trees’ — conveyed no meaning. It was replaced by the of-genitive: ‘the leaves of the tree.’ In (3) below we shall see that the s-genitive in somewhat changed form later came back into use in the position after the governing noun. It cannot, however, be so freely used in this position as the of-genitive. See (3) below.

(3). Double Genitive. The s-genitive that in the Old English period stood after the governing noun disappeared in Middle English, as described in the last paragraph of (2) above. It had scarcely disappeared when its loss was keenly felt. About 1300, attempts were made to restore it. To avoid the lack of clearness that had come into the s-genitive in the position after the governing noun the new genitive sign of was placed before the old s-genitive so that there arose a clear new somewhat changed s-genitive, a double genitive, a form having the same force as the simple
s-genitive and, like it, referring to persons: 'a friend of my father's,' 'this only son of our mayor's,' 'this remark of Carlyle's,' 'after quoting a word or two of Shakespeare's,' 'an admirer of Mary's.' This form is common also with possessive pronouns, which are old genitive forms: 'He is no friend of mine.' 'That is no business of yours.' 'What business is that of yours?' We say 'a beautiful picture of hers' (i.e. belonging to her) in contrast to 'a beautiful picture (i.e. likeness) of her.' The double genitive is often associated with emotional this and that (10 3 i), so that it is a common feature of lively language expressing praise and censure, joy and displeasure: 'that dear little girl of yours,' 'that old dog of yours,' 'this broad land of ours,' 'that ugly remark of her father's,' 'that kind wife of yours,' 'that ugly nose of his.'

(4). His-Genitive. In older English instead of an s-genitive a genitive formed with his, her, their, was often used: 'John his book,' 'Mary her book,' 'the boys their books.' This genitive was occasionally used in Old English. It became common between 1500 and 1700, and later gradually disappeared from the literary language. It survives in popular speech. Compare Syntax, 10 II 1 (5th par.).

B. Predicate Genitive. After the verbs be, become, seem, feel, a predicate genitive is used to express several ideas found also in the attributive genitive, namely, characteristic, origin, possession, material, and the partitive idea: 'I am quite of your opinion.' 'We are of the same age.' 'He was not of the poor class.' 'Render therefore unto Caesar the things which are Caesar's, and unto God the things which are God's' (Matthew, XXII, 21). 'The floors are of tiles.' 'But ye believe not because ye are not of my sheep' (John, X, 26).

The genitive is used also as objective predicate: 'He showed himself of noble spirit,' or 'He showed himself to be of noble spirit.'

The predicate genitive is treated more fully in Syntax, 7 A e.

C. Adverbial Genitive. In Old English the s-genitive of nouns was often used adverbially: 'He com to him anes nihtes' = 'He came to him one night.' As can be seen by the translation we now employ the accusative here. But the old genitive survives here and there: always, nowadays, must needs, etc. The old s-genitive survives in many adverbs: once (from ones), twice (from twies), thrice, unawares, afterwards, etc. The old s-genitive has been replaced in certain expressions by the newer of-genitive: 'of late years,' 'of a Sunday afternoon,' etc.: 'He often comes in of an evening.' Compare 71 1 a.

Notice that there is now, as originally, no apostrophe with the s-genitive in adverbial use.
INSTRUMENTAL

5. Function, Form, Meaning. The central idea of the old instrumental case was that of association. In Old English, it indicated that something was associated with an act in the way of an instrument or a cause: ‘Sweorde sweban’ ‘to kill with a sword’; ‘lustfullien paes bicopes wordum’ ‘to rejoice on account of the words of the bishop.’ It was used also with adjectives to indicate in what respect a quality could be associated with a person or thing: ‘feðrum strong’ ‘strong with respect to its wings.’ The old instrumental survives in adverbial the (71 1 c), the old instrumental case of demonstrative that: ‘We are the better for mastering difficulties,’ literally, ‘We are better on that account — for our mastering difficulties.’ The instrumental has ceased to be felt as a case, although it in fact is used as much as ever. As can be seen by the translations of the Old English instrumentals just given, we express the ideas contained in the old instrumental by prepositional phrases, the different prepositions now used conveying the thought more accurately than the old instrumental. In Old English, the instrumental case no longer had a special case form for nouns, the dative here performing the functions of dative and instrumental. Thus the dative was overburdened by functions, so that later, in order to make the thought clearer, it was felt as expedient to relieve the dative of its instrumental functions and at the same time express these ideas more accurately by employing prepositions. Compare 15 2 k. The modern instrumental phrase, like the old instrumental case, has adverbial force. Compare 15 2 k.

GENDER

28. Gender is the distinction of words into masculine, feminine, and neuter. Our nouns follow natural gender. Names of male beings are masculine: man, father, uncle, boy, etc. Names of female beings are feminine: woman, mother, aunt, girl, etc. The names of inanimate things are neuter: house, tree, street, stone, whiteness, etc. Some feminine nouns, as duck, goose, and many masculine, as dog, horse, teacher, editor, are often used to denote either sex where there is no desire to be accurate. Such nouns are said to be of common gender.

In modern English sex is usually indicated by the meaning of the noun itself, much less commonly by a formal sign: man, woman; boy, girl; uncle, aunt; king, queen. By a formal sign: Joseph, Josephine; Francis, Frances; deacon, deaconess; hero, heroine; aviator, aviatriz; sultan, sultana. The list of such words is given in full in Syntax, 60 1 c. Some of the formal signs are of foreign
origin and still felt as such. The commonest of the formal signs that have been in use a long time is -ess. The list of words in -ess (Syntax, 60 1 c), though still long, has been steadily decreasing for centuries. Teacheress, singeress, etc., sound strange to us today. Formal signs are losing their hold on English feeling. The present tendency is to employ a noun or a personal pronoun used as an adjective: girl cashier, woman clerk, man friend, men friends, girl friend, girl friends, women voters, she bear, he bear, billy goat, nanny goat, tom cat, tabby cat, buck rabbit, doe rabbit, hen pigeon, etc. Fuller list in Syntax, 60 1 b. Also adjectives are employed here: male cat, female cat, fair readers. The necessities of life require us still in a large number of cases to indicate sex, but in the literary language and in our daily life there is a marked and growing disinclination to do this with reference to man or beast. With such nouns as editor, lecturer, leader, teacher, doctor, etc., we avoid the use of a feminine sign for fear it might suggest the idea of inferiority. On the other hand, when we desire to speak disparagingly there is always a handy word for each sex: frump, dowd, slattern, termagant, virago, minx, hussy, prude, etc.; dude, fop, masher, bruiser, ruffian, etc. We can hit hardest with the pronouns that and it for reference to males: ‘Would you like to marry Malcolm? Fancy being owned by that! Fancy seeing it every day!’ (Elinor Glyn, Vicissitudes of Evangeline, p. 127). Compare 33 b.

In plain normal English every gender form indicates sex or sexlessness. Thus modern English gender is of a character radically different from that of the other languages that belong to our family and radically different also from that of the oldest stage of English itself. In Old English there was grammatical gender, i.e. for grammatical purposes the names of lifeless things were often masculine or feminine. Stone was masculine, book feminine, sun feminine, moon masculine, etc. A similar order of things is found in all the related languages ancient and modern. In the early periods of the oldest languages of our family the imagination may have played an important rôle in assigning gender to nouns. Even much later in the Old English period the imagination was still active, but for the most part the gender forms in both nouns and adjectives had become mere grammatical devices to link adjectives to the nouns that they modified. In Old English, adjectives had more distinctive forms for gender and case than nouns had. As they stood before the nouns that they modified they indicated not only their relation to the noun but indicated also the part that the noun played in the sentence, i.e. they showed whether the noun was subject or object.
In the course of the Middle English period the English people utterly destroyed the old system of distinctive endings for gender and case in noun and adjective and replaced it by a system of distinctive position for noun and adjective. In the subject relation the noun was placed before the verb, in the objective relation it was placed after the verb, and the adjective was left in its old position before the noun. As position now indicated the function of noun and adjective, the old endings for gender and case — except the -s of the genitive of nouns — disappeared as useless forms.

With the gender forms disappeared also in serious prose the conception of life which had been associated with many nouns that denoted lifeless things. Thus serious English prose changed its character somewhat. It became more composed. Elsewhere, however, the old association of life with lifeless things survived, and became a characteristic feature of animated English. The older conceptions of gender could not be preserved intact because the gender forms had disappeared and there was nothing left to recall the older order of things. The old gender of certain very familiar things lingered a long while, for instance the conception of the sun as feminine, but the older gender could not be maintained. Foreign ideas of gender as found in French and Latin suggested themselves and came into wide use in animated language. Ship was treated as feminine under the influence of the corresponding Old French word. Sun finally became established as masculine under the influence of the corresponding Latin noun. In the choice animated language of poetry and higher diction the following usage is widely observed. Sun, time, ocean, love, anger, discord, murder, rivers, mountains, winds, seasons, are treated as masculine. Earth, moon, church, nature, religion, soul, night, charity, liberty, victory, mercy, cities, countries, ships, etc., are treated as feminine. But the gender of animation has its widest boundaries in colloquial and popular speech. Here usage differs in the different sections of a country and in different countries, but there is a general trend toward the feminine gender. In America the feminine gender has long been such a favorite that the masculine has almost disappeared: It is used for everything without regard to literary usage: ‘Sun she rise up en shine hot’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 34). ‘That helps the blood to draw the wart, and pretty soon off she comes’ (Mark Twain, Tom Sawyer). ‘My fiddle? — Well, I kind o’ keep her handy’ (James Whitcomb Riley, Neighborly Poems, p. 36). In literary English, Americans usually follow literary usage: ‘The sun moves steadily northward, and with him come hepatica and wake-robin’ (The Chicago Daily News, Editorial, Feb. 29, 1932).

OLDER INFLECTION OF NOUNS

29. Old English Inflection of Nouns. The Old English inflections of nouns are presented here in only general outlines, for our present inflections are not in a large measure developed out of them, but represent almost an entire break with the older systems. But as certain of the older types of inflection have been in part preserved, a study of the older systems is helpful in understanding our inheritance. Some of the irregularities and peculiarities in current usage become intelligible to us only in the light of these older conditions. This brief study of the older inflections of nouns will serve another useful purpose. It will enhance the appreciation of our present improved means of expression, whose simplicity and clearness should become evident in contrast to the complexity and not infrequent ambiguity of the older inflections.

I. STRONG INFLECTION

A. Masculine Nouns

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B. Feminine Nouns

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<tr>
<td>tale</td>
<td>talu, -ō</td>
<td>heord</td>
<td>hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>heord</td>
<td>hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>heorde</td>
<td>handa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>heorde</td>
<td>handa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>heorde</td>
<td>handa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>tala, -e</th>
<th>heorda, -e</th>
<th>handa</th>
<th>bēc</th>
<th>mōdor,</th>
<th>mōdrum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tala, -e</td>
<td>heorda, -e</td>
<td>handa</td>
<td>bēc</td>
<td>mōdor,</td>
<td>mōdrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>talum</td>
<td>heordum</td>
<td>handum</td>
<td>bōcum</td>
<td>mōdra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tala, -ena</td>
<td>heorda, -na</td>
<td>handa</td>
<td>bōca</td>
<td>mōdra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### C. Neuter Nouns

#### Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>word</th>
<th>hole</th>
<th>wonder</th>
<th>knee</th>
<th>child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>word</td>
<td>hol</td>
<td>wundor</td>
<td>cneo(w)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>word</td>
<td>hol</td>
<td>wundor</td>
<td>cneo(w)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>worde</td>
<td>hole</td>
<td>wundre</td>
<td>cneowe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wundres</td>
<td>cneowes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>word</th>
<th>holu, -o</th>
<th>wundor</th>
<th>cneo(w)</th>
<th>cild,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>word</td>
<td>holu, -o</td>
<td>wundor</td>
<td>cneo(w)</td>
<td>cild,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>wordum</td>
<td>holum</td>
<td>wundrum</td>
<td>cneowum</td>
<td>cildrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>worda</td>
<td>hola</td>
<td>wundra</td>
<td>cneowa</td>
<td>cildra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that in this old period the apostrophe was not used with the genitive ending -s.

### II. Weak Inflection

#### Masculine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>naman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>naman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>naman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Feminine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tunge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tunge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tunge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Neuter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>eage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eagum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>eagum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>eagen</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
30. Middle English Inflection of Nouns

I. Strong Inflection

A. Masculine Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stone</td>
<td>stön</td>
<td>sön</td>
<td>stön(e)</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son</td>
<td>sone</td>
<td>sone</td>
<td>sone</td>
<td>sones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>fōt</td>
<td>fōt</td>
<td>fōt(e)</td>
<td>fōtes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>man(ne)</td>
<td>mannes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>brōther</td>
<td>brōther</td>
<td>brōther</td>
<td>brōther(es)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>stōnes</th>
<th>sones</th>
<th>fēt</th>
<th>men</th>
<th>{brēther</th>
<th>brētheren</th>
<th>brētheres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fēt</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>{brēther</td>
<td>brētheren</td>
<td>brētheres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fēt</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>{brēther</td>
<td>brētheren</td>
<td>brētheres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fētes</td>
<td>menes</td>
<td>{brēther</td>
<td>brētheren</td>
<td>brētheres</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Feminine Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tale</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>herde</td>
<td>hand</td>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>herd</td>
<td>herde</td>
<td>hand</td>
<td>hand(e)</td>
<td>bōkes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand</td>
<td>hand</td>
<td>bōk</td>
<td>bōk(e)</td>
<td>möder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
<td>bōkes</td>
<td>möder</td>
<td>möder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>möder</td>
<td>möder</td>
<td>möder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>tales</th>
<th>herdes</th>
<th>handes</th>
<th>bōkes</th>
<th>möder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tales</td>
<td>herdes</td>
<td>handes</td>
<td>bōkes</td>
<td>möder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tales</td>
<td>herdes</td>
<td>handes</td>
<td>bōkes</td>
<td>möder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tales</td>
<td>herdes</td>
<td>handes</td>
<td>bōkes</td>
<td>möder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| möder | möder | möder |
| möder | möder | möder |
| möder | möder | möder |
C. Neuter Nouns

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>word</th>
<th>hole</th>
<th>wonder</th>
<th>knee</th>
<th>child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>word</td>
<td>hole</td>
<td>wonder</td>
<td>knē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>word</td>
<td>hole</td>
<td>wonder</td>
<td>knē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>word(e)</td>
<td>hole</td>
<td>wonder</td>
<td>knē(e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>wordes</th>
<th>holes</th>
<th>wondres</th>
<th>knēes</th>
<th>children, childer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>wordes</th>
<th>holes</th>
<th>wondres</th>
<th>knēes</th>
<th>children, childer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Weak Inflection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>name</td>
<td>tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>name</td>
<td>tonge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>name</td>
<td>tonge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>name, -es</td>
<td>tonge, -es</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>namen, -es</td>
<td>tongen, -es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>namen, -es</td>
<td>tongen, -es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>namen, -es</td>
<td>tongen, -es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>namen(e), -es</td>
<td>tongen(e), -es</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. In all the above Middle English groups only the synthetic genitive—the genitive formed by an ending—is given, but alongside of it was in wide use the newer of-genitive, which arose in Old English, at first employed in only a few categories, but gradually spreading to others. Notice that in this older period the apostrophe was not used with the genitive ending -s.

b. The Old English gender of the above Middle English words has been given merely for the purpose of comparison with the Old English. In fact Middle English nouns no longer had grammatical gender (28 3rd par.). The breaking up of the older inflections of nouns and adjectives and the consequent loss of distinctive endings had contributed a good deal to its final elimination from the language. Compare 31 and Syntax, 60 2. This disintegration of the older inflections began in the North at the close of the Old English period and gradually spread southward. There was little left of the old grammatical gender in the Midland at the beginning of the
thirteenth century; it had disappeared from the Southern dialects by the
close of the fourteenth.

31. General Principles at Work in the Development of the Inflec-
tion of English Nouns. As can be seen by a glance at the Old English
inflections there was in this early period of our language an intricate sys-
tem of indicating number, case, and gender. But Old English expression
of number, case, and gender, in spite of the multiplicity of their forms,
often lacked clearness, and, by reason of this multiplicity, always lacked
simplicity. The peculiar circumstances of the Middle English period
facilitated a marked development in the direction of greater simplicity.
In the early formative part of the period English was not a widely used
literary language with firmly fixed usage. It had been abandoned by
people of culture in their literary expression and was used by them only
in their practical everyday life. Thus the development of English was
largely left to the plain and practical common people, who stood close to
the present with its pressing needs and had little to do with the literary
language of the past and hence were little influenced by its fixed usage.
The weakening of the older full vowels to e in the unstressed Middle
English case endings rendered unclear the grammatical relations in the
genitive singular and throughout the plural. The common people, un-
trammeled by literary tradition, chose from among the different endings
used to mark the genitive singular and the four cases of the plural the
common ending -s as the clearest of the available forms to mark the gen-
itive in the singular and all the cases of the plural. In Middle English in
the South of England, the en-plural manifested for a time a tendency to
spread, but it too was finally for the most part supplanted by the s-plural.
The en-plural survives in only a few words, oxen, children, brethren, etc.
Compare 23 2.

Other Old English types of expression have become fixed in certain
words: man, men; foot, feet; sheep, sheep; one fish, a boatload of fish; etc.
In the first two examples the retention of the old form is explained
by the great frequency of the words. In the last two examples the old
form has been retained as we have put into it a new meaning and thus
made it useful. The identity of form in the singular and the plural here
suggests the employment of this plural form when we desire to indicate
that the idea of mass is more prominent in our feeling than that of separate
individuals. For fuller discussion see 23 4.

One of the outstanding features in the Middle English period was the
persistent struggle to secure a clear uniform plural for nouns. In Old
English, the nominative and accusative plural was often the same as
case forms of the singular. The plural idea was frequently expressed by
the plural form of the adjective that stood before the noun, so that the
adjective was not only a word that modified the meaning of the noun but
also a grammatical form that indicated the number and the case of the
noun: 'pa ping be ge hyrdon' 'the things that you have heard.' Here the
article pa has distinctive plural form, while the noun ping, though in
the plural, has the same form as the singular. As can be seen by the trans-
lation, the noun now has plural form, while the preceding adjective is un-
inflected. Since the noun now has a clear plural form, there is no need of inflecting the adjective, so that the adjective, once characterized by its rich inflection, has become invariable. This development began in Middle English and by the close of the period was an accomplished fact. Of the many Old English inflected adjectives only two now have forms to indicate the plural: that, those; this, these. A number of adjectives, such as many, five, six, few, etc., indicate a plural idea by virtue of their meaning. But in general we now feel that the plural idea should be expressed by the noun alone, for it has nothing to do with the meaning and the function of most adjectives. This development has greatly simplified the structure of our language.

Another important step was taken in the direction of simplicity when grammatical gender was entirely discarded. By a glance at the Old English inflections in 29 it will be seen that many nouns designating inanimate objects, such as stone, tale, book, etc., were once masculine or feminine. The beautiful and useful simplicity that has resulted from the disappearance of grammatical gender in Middle English is the result of a long development. A feeling for natural gender in contrast to grammatical gender began to manifest itself in Old English. Even in this early period the selection of a masculine or feminine personal pronoun in harmony with sex was quite common when the reference was to a neuter noun denoting a living being. This strong sense of sex helped develop the idea of sexlessness, so that a neuter personal pronoun was sometimes used when the reference was to a masculine or feminine noun denoting a lifeless thing. The development of the feeling for sex and sexlessness was greatly facilitated by the loss in Middle English of distinctive adjective endings to mark the gender. Compare 28 (4th par.).

One of the most marked developments in the Middle English period was the suppression of the adjective and noun endings that were employed to indicate the case relations of nouns. Except in the case of the -s of the genitive of nouns all the case endings of nouns and attributive adjectives disappeared. The new word-order, subject before the verb and object after it, made the grammatical relation here so clear that endings in nouns and attributive adjectives were felt as unnecessary.
# CHAPTER X

## INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS

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</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Editorial ‘we’</td>
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<td>‘We’ = ‘you’</td>
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<td>Personal pronouns for indefinite reference</td>
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<td>Origin of the feminine form ‘she’</td>
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<td>Relative pronouns</td>
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<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Who’ and ‘who’-forms</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case of the relative and its agreement with its antecedent</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality and form</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive and restrictive clauses</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite relatives</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older forms</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite pronouns</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative pronouns</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limiting adjectives used as pronouns</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensifying adjectives used as personal or indefinite pronouns</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative pronouns</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
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<td>Indefinite pronouns</td>
<td>173</td>
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<td>Neuter forms used adverbially</td>
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<td>‘Else’ after indefinites</td>
<td>176</td>
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<td>Use of the apostrophe in the genitive</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeral adjectives used as pronouns</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
32. Purposes of Inflection. Pronouns, like nouns, are inflected to indicate number, case, and gender. There are now only two numbers — the singular and the plural. In Old English, personal pronouns (33 I) had a third number — the dual, for reference to two persons. Compare 34. Later, the plural number was employed to express reference to two persons or things as well as reference to more than two.

The means employed in English to express number in nouns are in general simple, but the means employed to express number in pronouns lack this simplicity and vary from class to class. The variety of expression here comes from the fact that the different classes are of different origin. A number of the indefinites (7 V) — numbers, lots, worlds, etc. — have an s-plural, as they were originally nouns. The plurals of the personal pronouns (33 I) are peculiar old forms that stand all alone. In older English many pronouns that were formed from adjectives ended in the plural in the unstressed vowel e, the adjective plural ending. Today many of these pronouns are without an ending in the plural, as this old plural ending has disappeared: many, both, some, etc. In the case of many, both, etc., the meaning shows that the forms are plurals. In other cases the context indicates the number: 'some (sing.) of the sugar,' 'some (pl.) of the men.' 'Which (sing.) of the books is the most interesting?' 'Which (pl.) of the books are the most interesting?' Where the context does not indicate the number we now often employ a one-form to make the thought clear: 'I saw him looking over the books, but I don't know which one (sing.), or which ones (pl.), he selected.' For the development of the one-form see 43 1 (2nd par.).

The cases of pronouns have the same force as those of nouns, as described in 27 1, 2, 3, 4. The inflectional forms, however, are in part different. Personal pronouns (33 I) and relative, interrogative, and indefinite who (38 a) have more distinctive case forms than nouns, preserving certain older features of their inflection. The means employed to indicate the case relations vary from class to class, as described in detail below.

In general pronouns cannot indicate sex, but personal pronouns (33 I) have special forms for this purpose. The pronoun who has a still older feature. It cannot distinguish sex, but it distinguishes life from lifeless. It now indicates a person or persons.

The seven classes are presented here in the same order as in 7.
I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

33. These pronouns have three persons: the first person representing the speaker; the second the person spoken to; the third the person or thing spoken of. The forms for the third person have in the singular three genders (28), masculine, feminine, neuter.

Their inflection is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second Person</th>
<th>Third Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>thou</td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>she</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to me</td>
<td>to thee</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for me</td>
<td>for thee</td>
<td>for it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>thine</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of me</td>
<td>of thee</td>
<td>hers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural for All Genders:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the dative forms is described in 27 3 a, b. Compare Syntax, 12 1, 12 1 B a, b, c.

Of the above forms the simple genitives were formerly used as personal pronouns, but they are now employed as possessive adjectives (10 1) and possessive pronouns (7 VII e, 7 VII e aa, 42 e). Compare Syntax, 10 II 2 D (last par.).

Notice that, in accordance with older usage, there is still no apostrophe before the genitive -s in these pronouns. Compare 42 c cc. Differing from the other personal pronouns, its, earlier in the present period, often took the apostrophe: it's or its, now only its.

a. Use of the Third Person for the Second. Sometimes, as an especial mark of respect, a noun in the third person is employed instead of a personal pronoun in the second person: 'How is the
Captain this morning? or more commonly 'How are you this morning, Captain?' The pronoun it is often, in playful humor, used instead of you: ‘What's the matter, sweet one?’ coming up and caressing Molly. ‘Is it worrying itself over that letter?’ (Mrs. Gaskell, *Wives and Daughters*, III, p. 69). This is often used instead of you or I. Compare 7 VII b, p. 24.

b. Use of 'It' for Reference to Things, Persons, Animals, Ideas. It is the usual form for reference to things. It is often used also for reference to a baby or a little child: ‘As I came up to her little baby it stretched out its little arms to me.’ This it, thus closely associated with the idea of the lack of personality, is often used disparagingly of persons, similarly also that and what: ‘Would you like to marry Malcolm? Fancy being owned by that! Fancy seeing it every day!’ (Elinor Glyn, *Vicissitudes of Evangeline*, p. 127). ‘Well — [she is] the sort that takes up with impossible people — you really never know What you may meet in Agnes Hyde's rooms’ (Mrs. Cecily Sidgwick, *The Severins*, Ch. XVI).

It often has the abstract idea of estate, rank, dignity: ‘She is a queen and looks it.’ It can be used for reference to animals, although he and she are also employed. See Syntax, 60 1 d.

It is often used as subject referring to some person or thing that is disclosed to us not by words but by the situation — situation it: ‘It's John, or Anna, or the boys’ (uttered by someone upon hearing approaching steps). ‘Somebody sat behind him. A little later I saw that it was his brother.’ ‘Somebody sat behind him, but I couldn’t see who it was.’ Compare Syntax, 4 II A.

Situation it is often used as predicate: ‘In the dance it (= the important thing) is grace. In a cigarette it is taste’ (advertisement). ‘In mathematics he is it’ (superior). ‘He thinks he is it.’ Compare Syntax, 7 C (last par.).

Situation it is often used as object, as a convenient complement of transitive or intransitive verbs without definite reference, leaving it to the situation to make the thought clear: ‘You will catch it.’ ‘They had to fight it out.’ ‘That's going it rather strong.’ ‘We footed it.’ ‘She (the typist) dons her freshest blouse and shadiest hat, and with her girl friend tubes it to Hampstead or trams it to Kew, there to forget for a time the carking cares of business’ (Everyman, Feb. 28, 1913). Compare Syntax, 11 2 b.

It is widely used as anticipatory subject: ‘It is necessary that you exert yourself’ (logical subject) or to exert yourself. ‘It was my two brothers who did it’ (logical subject). ‘It is immaterial what names are assigned to them’ (logical subject). ‘It is vilely unjust, men closing two-thirds of the respectable careers to women’
It is marvelous what mistakes they continue to make' (logical subject). The main verb is in the singular because the logical subject is a clause, a grammatical and logical unit. Compare 18 B 1 and Syntax, 4 II C.

It is widely used as anticipatory object: 'I found it difficult to refuse him his request' (logical object). Compare 18 B 4 a, also Syntax, 11 2 b.

It is often employed as an impersonal subject: 'It snows, rains, hails.' Compare Syntax, 4 II B.

It often refers to the thought contained in a word or a group of words. See 7 I c.

c. Editorial 'We.' The first person plural is often used by authors and speakers instead of the first person singular, and the possessive our instead of my, the author or speaker thus modestly turning the attention away from himself by representing his readers or hearers as accompanying him in thought: 'Thus far we have been considering only the outward condition of things at Luther's birth, now we are to turn (or 'let us turn') our attention to his early home influences.' A speaker or writer often modestly employs we since he speaks also for those associated with him: 'We (the editor speaking for the editorial staff) owe an apology to the public for not noticing this work on its first appearance.' In these examples we still has the original associative force, but it now often refers to only one: 'We (the reviewer of the book) do not say that everything in these essays is as good as what we have quoted.' 'It will be easier to explain this later on, when we have said something about what is called the history of language' (Wyld, The Growth of English, Ch. I, 8). The Plural of Modesty in its earliest forms is very old, for we find a quite similar usage in classical Latin.

Instead of we some authors employ here a noun with the third person of the verb: 'The author would remark,' etc.

d. Plural of Majesty. Of later origin than editorial we is the associative we first used in the third century in imperial decrees, in that period of Roman history when two or three rulers reigned together and hence were associated in the official proclamations. Later, whenever the political power was centered in one emperor the old we was retained, so that although the associative force was present, since the ruler included his advisers, the associative we developed into royal we, the Plural of Majesty, since the ruler spoke of himself in his official announcements in the plural instead of the singular, as 'We decree' instead of 'I decree.' This usage spread to the different European courts and was common in the Old English period.
e. ‘We’ = ‘You.’ We is often used with the force of you: ‘Are we downhearted today?’ Often sarcastically: ‘How touchy we are!’ ‘Oh, ain’t we select since we went to that hen college!’ (Sinclair Lewis, Babbitt, Ch. II, II) (retort of a boy to his sister, who has graduated from Bryn Mawr, and on the occasion in question has spoken to him sarcastically).

f. ‘Thou,’ ‘Thee,’ ‘Ye,’ ‘You.’ In Middle English, it was still possible to express the idea of number in the personal pronouns of the second person. In the singular, thou was used as subject and thee as dative and accusative object, while in the plural ye served as subject and you as dative and accusative object. These grammatical functions for ye and you were widely observed until the middle of the sixteenth century, and survive in the biblical and higher poetical language of our time. In the fourteenth century, however, the form you — with reference to one or more — sometimes replaced ye in the subject relation in the usual intercourse of life, and later in the course of the sixteenth century became more common here than ye. Occasionally we find the opposite development in older English — ye was used instead of you in the object relation: ‘I do beseech ye’ (Julius Caesar, III, i, 157). In older English, ye is thus not infrequently used in both the subject and the object relation, often in the form of ee: ‘D’ee (do ee) know this crucifix?’ (Middleton and Rowley, The Spanish Gipsie, III, III, 40, A.D. 1661). ‘I commend me t’ee, sir’ (Chapman, The Gentleman Usher, III, II, 208, A.D. 1606). This usage survives in British dialect. The outcome of this development for the literary language is you for nominative, dative, and accusative. In biblical language ye is now uniformly employed as nominative and you as dative and accusative, as can be seen in the present text of the King James Version of the Bible. In the original text of this version this usage was not so uniform, as there were in it a number of you's where we now find ye. Both ye and you are here still always plural forms as originally.

The use of the plural forms ye and you for reference to one person is closely related to the use of the Plural of Majesty we described in d above. As a ruler often spoke of himself in the plural, others in addressing him felt that they should employ the plural form. After this model it became general in continental Europe to address by a plural form every person of high rank in church and state. At last, plural form became a mark of politeness in general and was used in speaking to an equal as well as to a superior. The use of the plural form for reference to a single person began to appear in the written language in the second half of the thirteenth century. This usage arose under the influence of
French, which here followed continental Latin usage. The new polite form of addressing one person by the plurals *ye* and *you* did not at once displace the older usage of employing *thou* and *thee* here. For a long while the old and the new forms often alternated with each other, but gradually the new form was distinctly felt as more polite. Thus, in older English, the forms were often differentiated. *Thou* was used in familiar intercourse, and *you* employed as a polite form in formal relations. In Pecock's *Donet* (about A.D. 1449) the father, throughout the book, addresses his son by *thou* and *thee*, while the son out of deference uses *ye* and *you* to his father. The British dialects of the South and South Midland still distinguish between *thou* or *thee* used in intimate relation and *you* or *ye* (often written *ee*) employed in polite language in more formal intercourse. In the eighteenth century, Richardson in his *Pamela* lets Lady Davers use *thou* to her brother in moments of strong emotion and employ *thou* to Pamela in moments of anger and tenderness. This usage survives in British dialects.

In the standard prose English of the eighteenth century, *thou* and *thee* were entirely replaced by *you*, so that the form of polite address became general in the common intercourse of life, the one form *you* serving without distinction of rank or feeling for one or more persons and for the nominative, dative, and accusative relations. The lack of clearness here has called forth in the popular speech of America, Australia, and Ireland a plural ending for this form to indicate more than one, *yous* (or *youse* and in Ireland also *ye*, *yees*, *yez*, *yiz*): 'He'll settle *yous* (= *you kids*), *yous guys*.' It is not unknown in British English. Horace Walpole in a letter to Miss Mary Berry, March 27, 1791, in speaking of her and her sister Agnes writes playfully: 'I have been at White Pussy's (i.e. Lady Amherst's) this evening. She asked much after *yous*.' This advantage, however, is sometimes lost through the popular tendency to simplify, i.e. to employ *yous* also as a singular: 'So! At last I found *youse*!' (cartoon in *Chicago Tribune*, Sept. 16, 1923).

In the southern states, *you all* is used as the plural of *you*: 'He'll settle *you all*.' The genitive *you all's* is also in use: 'you all's business.' *You all* may be addressed to a single person provided the form is felt as a plural comprising a definite group of individuals: 'Do *you all* (addressed to a clerk representing the different members of the firm) keep fresh eggs here?' (Alphonso Smith, *The Kit-Kat*, IX, p. 27). The *all* in *you all* is often reduced to 'll, as it is only weakly stressed: 'Boys, I want you'll to stop that noise' (ib.). In the literary language *you all* is used, but the stressed *all* indicates that the thought is different from the normal
southern use of you all, which is simply a plural of you: ‘You all are wrong,’ or ‘You are all wrong.’ In popular speech you uns is often used as the plural of you. The genitive is you uns’. In certain British dialects you together is used as plural of you. In the literary language and in ordinary colloquial speech we bring out the plural idea here by placing some plural noun after you: ‘you gentlemen,’ ‘you boys,’ ‘you kids,’ etc.

The older universal use of thou and thee in the singular and ye and you in the plural for all persons has survived in the higher forms of poetry and elevated diction, where the thoughts soar, but in the realistic forms of poetry the actual language of everyday city and country life holds almost complete sway, even where the thoughts rise somewhat from earth, the poet forgetting that the language of earth keeps us on earth: ‘Oh, when I was in love with you, Then I was clean and brave, And miles around the wonder grew, How well did I behave’ (Housman, A Shropshire Lad, XVIII). Thus the old poetic forms, long used to elevate thought and feeling, are in our own time breaking down; it may be because the poetic elevation of thought and feeling that once gave them meaning is no longer present.

In older English, thee is sometimes seemingly used as a nominative subject, where in fact it may be an ethical dative (Syntax, 12 1 B c): ‘Hear thee (possibly an ethical dative, but now felt as a nominative), Gratiano!’ (Merchant of Venice, II, II, 189). This same form is also sometimes found in older English as a real nominative, perhaps after the analogy of you, which has one form for all the cases: ‘How agrees the devil and thee about thy soul?’ (Shakespeare, I Henry the Fourth, I, II, 127). ‘What hast thee done?’ (Marlowe, Jew, 1085, about A.D. 1590, ed. 1636). ‘If thee wilt walk with me, I’ll show thee a better’ (words of a young Quaker to Benjamin Franklin, as quoted in Franklin’s Autobiography, Writings, I, p. 255). This usage lingered much later in popular speech: ‘I know thee dost things as nobody ‘ud do’ (George Eliot, Adam Bede, Ch. IV).

Thou and thee are still used by Quakers, often with the nominative form thee in connection with a verb with the personal ending -s, as explained in 54 (close of 2nd par.): ‘Thou knowest (or now more commonly Thee knows) better.’ The Quaker address originally had a deep meaning in that it was used toward all men irrespective of rank, and hence emphasized their equality, but it has become a mere symbol of sect since society in general recognized this democratic principle by the employment of you without respect to social station.

\textit{g. Personal Pronouns for Indefinite Reference.} The personal
pronouns usually refer to definite persons, but now and then the reference is indefinite. On the other hand, the indefinite pronoun one (7 VII c ee) is occasionally used for I. One, we, you, are sometimes employed with the same general or indefinite force: 'As long as one is young, one easily acquires new friends.' 'We don't like to be flatly contradicted.' 'You don't like to be snubbed.'

We often use they here, but with a somewhat narrower meaning, since it usually refers to a smaller circle or one remote, always excluding the speaker and the person addressed, hence often used by the speaker to assert something modestly, representing it as coming from others: 'In fashionable society they talk of the impending nuptials of the Duke of Clarence.' 'In that crowd they mostly play cards.' 'In Japan they generally marry without love.' 'They say best men are moulded out of faults' (Shakespeare).

When a writer or speaker desires to refer to himself modestly, there is a tendency at present to employ the indefinite one instead of the sharply precise I or me: ‘One (or a person, a fellow) doesn’t (instead of I don’t) like to be treated that way.’ ‘Under such circumstances you might offer to help one’ (or a fellow instead of me). Compare 7 VII c ee.

OLDER INFLECTION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

34. Old English Forms of the Personal Pronouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mec, mč</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mč</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mın</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dual</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Person</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. þū</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. þęb, þē</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. þē</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. þin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dual</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Third Person</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. hē</td>
<td>hio, hēo</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. hine, hiene</td>
<td>hie</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. him</td>
<td>hiere, hire</td>
<td>him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. his</td>
<td>hiere, hire</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neuter</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Older Inflection of Personal Pronouns
### 35. Middle English Forms of the Personal Pronouns:

#### First Person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ic, ich, i</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mine, myn, mine, myne, mî, mîy</td>
<td>us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>min, mijn, mine, myne, mî, mîy</td>
<td>ûre, oure, our(e)s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Second Person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>thou, thou, thow</td>
<td>3é, ye(e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>thee</td>
<td>3ou, you, yow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>thee</td>
<td>3ou, you, yow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>thin, thynn, thine, thynë, thi, thîy</td>
<td>3ûre, youre, your(e)s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Third Person

**Masculine**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>he, ha, a</td>
<td>hit, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>schle (shee, she, sse)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>schle (sco, sso)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire, hir, here, her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire, hir, here, her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>hire, hir, her, her(e)s, her(e)s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Feminine**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hë, hë, 3hë, 3hîö</td>
<td>hit, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>schle (shee, she, sse)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>schle (sco, sso)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire, hir, here, her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire, hir, here, her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>hire, hir, her, her(e)s, her(e)s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Neuter**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hit, hei, thei, they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hem, them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>hem, them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>her(e), hire(e), theire, their(e)s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

a. The feminine form *she* probably comes from Middle English *schë*, which, though used as a personal pronoun, was in fact not a personal pronoun at all but a Middle English form corresponding to Old English *sêo* (44 C 1), the feminine form of the demonstrative pronoun. The Middle English feminine personal pronoun was *hë*. Some recent scholars, however, are not satisfied with this explanation of the origin of *she*. They regard our modern personal pronoun *she* as naturally developed from the Old English feminine personal pronoun *hîö* (34), which suffered a change of pronunciation when it followed a verbal form in –s, the –s of the verb...
being carried over to the following personal pronoun: was hio becoming was sio, finally developing into was she. Whatever the origin of this she may be, its establishment as the regular feminine personal pronoun was facilitated by the fact that the masculine and the feminine of the original personal pronoun had fallen together in the form he. The old order of things — he for reference to male or female — has survived in the British dialects of the East and South, where, however, he is now pronounced ee. Also preserved in America in the Gullah Negro dialect: ‘Doll (name of a woman) is de luckiest ’oman I ever seen. E (= she) got de finest man ever was for a husband’ (Julia Peterkin, Scarlet Sister Mary, Ch. XXI). ‘Unex (name of a boy) is gone. E (= he) went off and left me’ (ib., Ch. XXVI).

b. The accusatives him and her are old datives. At the close of the Old English period the datives him and her began to be used as accusatives, so that the datives served for both the dative and the accusative relation.

On the other hand, the old masculine accusative hine, reduced to un, en, or 'n, continued to be used for centuries in the South of England as a colloquial form for the accusative and the dative relation: ‘I expect un (acc.) every minute’ (Fielding, Tom Jones, Book VI, Ch. VII, A.D. 1749). ‘Why, gi’ un (dat.) thy hand this minute’ (ib., Book XVIII, Ch. XII). This usage survives in the South of England in popular speech.

Similarly, the Old English neuter accusative hit survived in Middle English, and later in the Modern English period in its reduced form it supplanted the old dative him, so that it now serves both for the accusative and the dative relation: ‘See how nice the old house looks since I have painted it (ace.) I have given it (dat.) two coats of paint.’ The initial h disappeared between the twelfth and fifteenth centuries. In certain dialects the h is still often heard, as in Scotland and the mountains of Kentucky, often also in Negro dialect.

The Old English neuter genitive his began to be replaced in Middle English by hit, it; and later, in the seventeenth century, it was replaced by it’s, later its: ‘Ye are the salt of the earth, but if the salt have lost his (at this time also it and it’s, later replaced by its) savor,’ etc. (Matthew, V, 13). The old genitive it survives in British dialect: ‘Put th’ orse mobs (blinkers) on it yed’ (head) (Huddersfield dialect).

c. About 1300 there began to appear, in the South, genitives in -n corresponding to the northern s-forms, after the analogy of the genitives min, thin, namely, hisn, hern, ourn, yourn, theirn. These n-genitives sur-
vive in the southern British dialects and here and there in American popular speech. Compare 7 VII e aa.

d. About 1200 the Middle English plural *hi* began to be replaced by the Danish (Scandinavian) demonstrative plural *thei*, at first in the nominative and later also in the other cases. The fact that such a common form of speech as a personal pronoun could be borrowed from the invaders indicates very clearly that the Danes must have settled in England and lived long in close, intimate relations with the English.

e. In dialect and colloquial speech, the old third person plural *hem* survives in the form of 'em in unaccented positions: ‘Call ’em.’

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

36. These pronouns (7 II), myself, yourself, etc., have no change of form in the accusative, and in the dative take to or for before them except before an accusative, where they still have their old simple form: ‘She is dressing herself.’ ‘He is true to himself.’ ‘He bought a new hat for himself,’ or ‘He bought himself a new hat.’ The form itself indicates the number and person and in part also the gender.

In older English, the personal pronouns were used as reflexive pronouns. This older usage lingers on in Shakespeare, although the newer forms are more common: ‘A (= he) bears him like a portly gentleman’ (Romeo and Juliet, I, v, 68). ‘Let every soldier hew him down a bough’ (Macbeth, V, iv, 4). The long forms have become established in the third person on account of the ambiguity of the short forms: ‘She bought herself a new hat.’ The old short forms, however, linger in popular speech: ‘Rutheney she never even stops to ax Link may she ride in to town — she jest ketches her a nag and lights out’ (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. II). In the first and second persons the short forms are often heard also in colloquial speech: ‘I bought me (or myself) a new hat.’ ‘Did you buy you (or yourself) a new hat?’

The older short forms, however, are still the usual ones in adverbial prepositional phrases which express local relations in a literal sense: ‘He looked about him, around him, ahead of him, above him, beneath him.’ ‘He had no money with him.’ ‘He shut the door behind him.’ ‘She sat looking before her.’ ‘The horse sprang over the precipice bearing its rider with it.’ But in a figurative sense, the fuller forms are the usual ones here: ‘Look into yourself.’ ‘You can’t do that by yourself.’ ‘They will succeed in the special aim they have put before themselves.’ Compare Syntax, 12 2 c.

a. Origin of Reflexive Pronouns. As described in 36 (2nd and 3rd parr.), we sometimes still use the accusative form of the per-
sonal pronouns *me, him, etc.*, as reflexive pronouns. This was nor­
mal usage in Old English and long remained so. To distinguish
reflexive from personal pronouns and thus emphasize the reflexive
idea, intensifying *self* was in Old English often added to the per­
sonal pronoun. These old intensive forms have become the
modern normal reflexive pronouns *himself, herself, itself, themselves*
(until about a.d. 1550 *themself*). This usage, once found with all
the reflexives, is now confined to these four words. As early as
the thirteenth century *herself*, which originally consisted of *her*, the
accusative form of the personal pronoun *she*, and intensifying
*self*, was sometimes construed as being the possessive adjective *her*
and the noun *self*. This conception affected other reflexive pro­
nouns, so that we now employ several reflexives of this type: *myself, thyself, ourself* (after the Plural of Majesty and editorial
*we = myself*), *ourselves* (in older English *ourself*), *yourselves* (in
older English *yourself*), instead of *meself, theeself, usselves, you­
selves*. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries *its self* was in
limited use, but is now replaced by *itself*. In popular speech *his­
self, theirselves*, are common forms. In England the indefinite
reflexive is *oneself*. In America the older form *one's self* is still
used, but is yielding to the newer form *oneself*.

The simple form *self* survives as a noun made from the old ad­
dj ective *self*: ‘a truth which purifies from *self*’; ‘love of *self*.’ ‘The
next morning all the guests at the hotel except *us* (or *ourselves*, or
*our two selves*) went back.’ ‘Have you hurt your little *self*?’
‘Baby fell and hurt its dear little *self*.’ ‘I hope you are your old
*self* again.’ ‘You must not blame anybody but your own *self*.’
‘A man's better *self* should lead him.’ ‘Sometimes one must think
of one's own *self*.’ The compound forms are sometimes needlessly
used here instead of the simple form: ‘*Himself* is the only con­sideration with *himself*’ (Meredith, *The Egoist*, 231), instead of
‘*Self* is the only consideration with him.’

III. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

37. These pronouns (7 III), *each other, one another*, have the
old s-genitive, but in the dative have only the newer form with *to*
or *for*: ‘The two never weary of *each other's* (or *one another's*)
company,’ or ‘the company of *each other*’ (or *one another*). ‘All
true friends bear *one another's* (or *each other's*) burdens.’ ‘The two
are kind to *each other*’ (or *one another*). In the object relation these
pronouns follow a verb or a preposition: ‘The two love *each other*
(or *one another*) dearly.’ ‘The three gentlemen looked at *one
another* (or *each other*) with blank faces when these words were
uttered.’ There is a tendency to employ each other for reference to two persons and one another for reference to more than two, but this has not yet become fixed usage. Sometimes one another is employed for reference to two persons and each other for reference to more than two.

In older English, the long reflexive pronouns were sometimes used for reciprocal pronouns: ‘Get thee gone; tomorrow We’ll hear ourselves (instead of each other) again’ (Shakespeare, Macbeth, III, iv, 31). Although this old usage has in general passed away, it is still often found after the prepositions among and between, perhaps prevails here: ‘They quarreled among themselves’ (but with one another). ‘We are still quarreling among ourselves.’ ‘They resolved between themselves to start immediately.’

a. Older Use of ‘Each Other’ and ‘One Another.’ Each other and one another are now felt as compound plural pronouns, but each element in the present compounds was originally a separate word with its own grammatical function, each and one being in the nominative singular and other and another being in the accusative, dative, or genitive according to the structure of the sentence. Other could be singular or plural. Either the newer form others or the older form other could serve as plural. Another could serve as singular or plural. A peculiarity of this older usage was the absence of the definite article before other for definite reference, as still observed in the case of proper names and such abstract nouns as justice, honesty, youth, etc. In this old time, as illustrated also in 7 VII b, the an in another could have the definite force of the, referring to a definite single individual. On the other hand, another often pointed to a number of individuals taken two by two. Other or another referring to a single definite individual: ‘Eche of them fersly regarded other’ (Lord Berners, Huon, I, p. 41, a.d. 1534), now the other. ‘So aprochyd eche to other (now the other) and so fought eche with another’ (ib., p. 42), now the other. ‘They wer so nere togyder that eche of them understode others (now the other’s) langage’ (id., Froyssart, I, LXI, 83, a.d. 1523). ‘When we are married and have more occasion to know one another’ (Shakespeare, The Merry Wives of Windsor, I, i, 255), originally = one the other, but now felt as a compound reciprocal pronoun. Others referring to a number of more or less definite individuals: ‘Pages blush’d at him, and men of heart look’d wond’ring each at others’ (Shakespeare, Coriolanus, V, vi, 100, First Folio, a.d. 1623). Later editions often have here other, the older plural. Another referring to a number of individuals taken two by two: ‘A plague upon it when thieves cannot be true one to another’ (Shakespeare, I Henry the Fourth, II, ii, 28).
Where the reference is more or less definite, the old usage described above still lingers, now, however, with the definite article before other or others: 'Each blamed the other,' or negatively 'Neither blamed the other.' 'Each blamed the others,' or negatively 'No one blamed the others.' 'There were two old cats there, each ready to tear out the other's eyes,' but 'There were three old cats there, each ready to tear out the others' eyes.' Notice here the position of the apostrophe before or after the final s in the other's, the others' according as the reference is to one or more. In the compound each other, however, the apostrophe is always before the genitive -s since each other is always a plural form and consequently the genitive -s takes the apostrophe before it as after other plural forms, as in men's, children's, etc.: 'The two, or three, old cats were tearing out each other's (not others') eyes.' Notice also that we can say, 'We each know what the other wants,' but we should not say, 'We know what each other wants,' for the compound each other cannot be used in the subject relation, a reciprocal pronoun always standing in an oblique (27) case. Only in poetry does the old form with simple other survive: 'For many a petty king, ere Arthur came, Ruled in this isle, and ever waging war, Each upon other, wasted all the land' (Tennyson, The Coming of Arthur, 7).

b. 'Either Other' instead of 'Each Other.' In early Modern English, the compound reciprocal pronoun either other was sometimes still used instead of each other: 'Thus both were bent to deceive each other, and to take the advantage of either others (now each other's) disadvantage' (Sir Philip Sidney, Arcadia, Book III, p. 47, A.D. 1593).

Originally each member of the compound was a separate word with its own grammatical function, as in the case of each other, described in a above: 'Membres helpen eyther other' (Trevisa, Bartholomaeus, V, I, 99, A.D. 1398). There was no definite article here before other, as in the case of each other, as explained in a above. Where the old original construction still lingers, there is now a definite article before other: 'the rights of either to disturb the other' (Morley, Compromise, 103, A.D. 1874). 'Either was ready to help the other.'

c. Less Common Substitutes for 'Each Other.' In older English or in poetry there are still other words that may be used instead of each other:

In older English, either sometimes has the force of each other: 'Treason and murder ever kept together, As two yoke-devils sworn to either's purpose' (Shakespeare, Henry the Fifth, II, ii, 105).

In poetic language each — either is sometimes used instead of
each other: ‘And each at either dash from either end’ (Tennyson, Gareth and Lynette, 535).

In poetic language each — each is sometimes used instead of each other: ‘Then each, dishorsed and drawing, lash’d at each’ (Tennyson, The Marriage of Geraint, 563).

In poetic language either — either is sometimes used instead of each other: ‘“We two were born together, and we die Together by one doom,” while he spoke Closed his death-drowsing eyes, and slept the sleep With Balin, either lock’d in either’s arms’ (Tennyson, Balin and Balan, last stanza).

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

38. There are two groups:

a. Relative Pronouns with Antecedent. These pronouns (7 IV a and 8 b, last par.), who, which, that, what (8 b, last par.), etc., have all except who and the who-forms, as whoever, etc., lost their old inflectional forms, even the genitive ending —s, which is still common in nouns. Hence the case relations here are indicated by modern means. The subject stands before the verb, and the dative and the genitive have inflectional prepositions (17) before them as case signs, to or for before the dative and of before the genitive: ‘He is the boy that (nom.) gave it to me.’ ‘He is the boy to whom I gave it,’ or ‘that (dat.) I gave it to,’ or with the suppression of the relative pronoun: ‘He is the boy I gave it to.’ ‘He is the boy for whom I bought the new coat.’ ‘He is the boy that (dat.) I bought the new coat for.’ In the case of the relative pronoun that, the case sign to or for stands at the end of the clause, as explained in Syntax, 62 4 (3rd par.).

The of-genitive here often follows the governing noun, indeed always when the governing noun stands in a prepositional phrase: ‘This is the tree in the shade of which we often rest.’ That, however, has no genitive form.

The relative pronouns proper all have the same form for singular and plural.

Relative pronouns which are the object of a verb have a position in the sentence different from that of all other objects. As they have conjunctive force, i.e. as they link the clause in which they stand to the rest of the sentence, they must stand at or near the beginning of the clause, hence cannot follow the verb. They indicate the grammatical relations here by a peculiar word-order. If the verb follows the relative immediately or soon, the relative is a nominative: ‘He is the boy that (nom.) did it.’ ‘That is the
man who (nom. sing.) did it.' 'The things that (nom. pl.) have often been censured as Shakespeare’s conceits are completely justifiable.' 'The things that (nom. pl.) chiefly count at national elections are the shibboleths of party.' If a noun or pronoun follows the relative, the relative is in the object relation: ‘He is the boy that (acc.) I saw do it.’ ‘That is the book that (acc.) he wants.’ ‘He is the boy that (acc.) the dog bit.’

If the relative pronoun is the object of a preposition, it stands at the beginning of the clause after the preposition, or it stands in the first place in the clause and the preposition in the last place: ‘This is the pen with which I write,’ or ‘This is the pen which I write with,’ or ‘This is the pen I write with’ (Syntax, 23 II, 62 4).

aa. ‘Who’-Form. This relative originally had indefinite force, like the who in b below, from which it has developed. It gradually acquired definite force, and can now refer to a definite antecedent. It has inherited from indefinite who a valuable property which is making it a favorite among the definite relatives. It indicates clearly that the reference is to a person or persons. But it does not indicate the sex.

It inflects as follows, each form serving as singular and plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to whom, for whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>whom, of whom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

bb. Case of Relative and Its Agreement with Its Antecedent. The relative pronoun performs a double function: It is a pronoun in the clause in which it stands and is also a connective joining the clause in which it stands to the governing noun. As a pronoun it has the case required by its function in the relative clause, i.e. is subject, direct or indirect object, or a genitive limiting some noun in the clause: ‘The man who (subject) was sick is now well.’ ‘The boy whom (object of the verb of the clause) I trusted has proved worthy of my confidence.’ ‘The boy of whom (object of the preposition of) I spoke yesterday will soon be here.’ ‘The boy to whom (indirect object) I gave a knife has lost it.’ ‘The boy whose (genitive limiting knife) knife was lost has bought another.’

In loose colloquial speech we sometimes hear who as accusative instead of the correct whom.

As a connective or conjunctive pronoun the relative has relations to its antecedent, with which it agrees as far as possible in gender, number, and person. Gender: ‘The boy who is standing by the
gate is my brother,' but 'The book which lies upon the table is a history.' That is the appropriate form where the reference is to two or more antecedents representing both persons and things: 'The cabmen and cabs that are found in London.' However, we use also which here and this form must be used where a preposition stands before the relative: 'The Company had indeed to procure in the main for themselves the money and the men by which India was conquered.'

As relative pronouns have the same form for both numbers and all three persons, their number and person can be gathered only from the number and the person of the antecedent. This becomes important wherever the relative is the subject of its clause, for it then controls the number and person of the verb: 'I, who am your friend, tell you so,' where am is in the first person singular agreeing with its subject who, which agrees with its antecedent I. 'For help I look to thee who art all-powerful and able to help.' 'The road that leads to the shore is sandy.' 'The roads that lead to the shore are sandy.' An antecedent which is in the vocative, i.e. in the case of direct address, is felt as being in the second person: 'Dark anthracite, that reddest on my hearth!'

The relative often in loose colloquial speech, sometimes even in the literary language, agrees incorrectly with some word closely connected with the antecedent instead of agreeing with the antecedent itself, since this word lies nearer the thought of the speaker or writer than the grammatical antecedent, with especial frequency in the case of a plural partitive genitive that is dependent upon the numeral one, which is erroneously felt as the antecedent: 'That is one of the most valuable books (true antecedent but here not felt as such) that has (instead of the correct have) appeared in recent years.' 'Tyranny is one of those evils which tends (instead of tend) to perpetuate itself' (instead of themselves) (Bryce, American Commonwealth, Second Edition, II, p. 344). The singular form of the verb here is quite old: 'Thauriso, pat is a full fair cytee and a gret and on (one) of the beste pat is in the world for merchandise' (Mandeville, Travels, Ch. XVII, fourteenth century, MS. Cotton, a.d. 1410–1420).

cc. Personality and Form. Current English stresses the idea of personality much more than older English. Even a little earlier in the period who was used of animals, while we today usually employ that or which here since we feel the absence of personality: 'Though the weather is raw and wintry and the ground covered with snow, I noticed a solitary robin, who (now that) looked as if he needed to have his services to the Babes in the Woods speedily requited' (Thoreau, Journal, I, p. 21). The relative is always near
the antecedent, hence the incongruity of placing a personifying form alongside of a noun designating a being without personality is more keenly felt than in the case of personal pronouns, which stand farther away: 'We have one cow that (or which) we highly prize. She is a Jersey.' With children the idea of individuality increases with their age. We say 'the last child which was born,' but 'our only child who is now at college.'

The idea of personality varies considerably in collective nouns denoting persons. We employ which here wherever the idea of oneness or a mass or masses is more prominent than that of a number of independent individuals: 'The Garth family, which was a large one,' etc. (George Eliot, Middlemarch, p. 217). 'His mother had ten children, of which he was the oldest' ('Scribner's Magazine, XXXV, 114), but 'Every faction is attended by a crowd of camp-followers, an useless and heartless rabble who prowl round its line of march' (Macaulay). 'He instructed the crowds which surrounded him,' but 'People who have enjoyed good educational opportunities ought to show it in their conduct and language.'

In older English, after the names of cities, countries, and other organizations implying persons, who was often used as relative, but it has been entirely replaced here by which, since the idea of organization is now uppermost in the mind: 'France, which is in alliance with England'; 'that party in England which,' etc.

Similarly, we often employ which after a noun denoting a person where we desire to express the idea of estate, rank, dignity rather than to speak of a person: 'He is exactly the man which such an education was likely to form' (Trollope, The Warden, Ch. II). 'He was surprised to find that he had come out upon quite a different Clark from the one to which he had been accustomed' (Barry Pain, The Culminating Point). 'He did not understand, and could not without giving up his own idea of her, the May Gaston which, as she said, he had made for himself' (A. Hope). 'Most of the critics have been kind. I only saw one which was not' (Sir Henry Jones, Letter, May 29, 1919). Which is especially common here in the predicate relation: 'Like the clever girl which she undoubtedly was' (Benson, Relentless City, 84). 'He is not the man which his father wants him to be.' That might be used instead of which in all of these examples. Although which and that are both used here, which is the more distinctive form and is, in general, winning out, but in the predicate relation that and also as are still quite common: 'But Hilda, like the angel of mercy that she was, whispered,' etc. (Grant Allen, Hilda Wade, Ch. I, p. 19). 'I will do my best to stop you, madman as you are'
(Thackeray, The Newcomes, I, Ch. XXIX). We often omit the relative here where it would not impair the thought: 'It is a part of Torrence's business to counsel widows, which he does like the honorable man [that] he is' (Meredith Nicholson, Lady Larkspur, Ch. II, p. 69).

When the relative refers to both persons and things we cannot, of course, in one word indicate both personality and lack of it, hence we here choose the colorless that, which can refer both to living beings and lifeless things: 'He spoke largely of the men and the things that he had seen.' Of course we cannot use that after prepositions, where we must use which. See bb (2nd par.) above.

When the reference is to a person we always employ after the indefinite pronoun one the form who as relative to make it clear that we have to do with a person: 'one who (not that) has gone through such an experience will never forget it.'

In sharp contrast to the principle of indicating personality or the lack of it, which now prevails in the use of the nominative and objective cases of the relative, as described above, is the employment of the genitive whose for reference to persons, animals, and living and lifeless things: 'the man whose watch was stolen,' 'a dog whose name is Carlo,' 'the tree whose top was trimmed,' 'the house in whose shade (or in the shade of which) we sit.' Where the reference is to lifeless things, colloquial language prefers the new prepositional genitive of which, although the convenient old form whose is still not infrequent. In poetry and choice prose the old form is still the favorite: 'a little white building whose small windows were overgrown with creepers' (Galsworthy, The Patrician, p. 40). The use of whose for persons and things is the survival of older usage, which knew nothing of the differentiation described above. In the genitive the convenient agreeable simple form has thus far proved stronger in our feeling than the logical distinctions which sway us in the nominative and objective relations. Even in choice language, however, the simple genitive is only in limited use, for it cannot be used at all in the relation of an objective genitive: 'In its sensuous purity this woman's face reminded him of Titian's 'Heavenly Love,' a reproduction of which (not whose reproduction) hung over the sideboard' (Galsworthy, The Man of Property, p. 301).

Descriptive and Restrictive Relative Clauses. There is a tendency in English at present to distinguish between descriptive relatives, introducing a descriptive, independent fact, and restrictive relatives, introducing a clause confining or limiting the application of the antecedent. Descriptive clauses stand in a loose relation to the antecedent and hence are separated by a pause,
indicated in print by a comma, while restrictive clauses are quite closely linked to the antecedent in thought, so that they follow immediately without pause, and hence are not usually cut off by a comma: ‘I like to chat with John, who (not that) is a clever fellow,’ but ‘What is the name of the boy that (or who) brought us the letter?’ ‘Next winter, which (more common than that) you will spend in town, you know, will give you a good opportunity to work in the library,’ but ‘The next winter that (or which) you spend in town will give you a good opportunity to work in the library.’ There is often a double restriction, the second relative clause restricting the antecedent as restricted by the first relative clause: ‘How seldom do we find a man that has stirred up some vast commotion who does not himself perish, swept away in it’ (Carlyle, Heroes and Hero-worship, 127). The descriptive relative clause is in a formal sense a dependent clause; but it does not in any way limit the application of the antecedent, so that it is logically an independent proposition. Compare Syntax, 201 (3rd par.). In a descriptive relative clause the relative pronoun must be expressed, for its suppression might change the thought or obscure the expression: ‘This fact, which you admit, condemns you,’ not ‘This fact, you admit, condemns you,’ which is another thought. Compare Syntax, 23116.

6. Indefinite and General Relative Pronouns. Of the indefinites in 7 IV b who and what have each a marked peculiarity. Who refers indefinitely to a person or persons. What points indefinitely to something that is without life. Today what is an uninflected form. Who and the who-forms inflect as follows, the same form in each case serving as a singular and a plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>who</th>
<th>whoever</th>
<th>whosoever</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>whom</td>
<td>whomever</td>
<td>whomsoever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to whom</td>
<td>to whomever</td>
<td>to whomsoever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for whom</td>
<td>for whomever</td>
<td>for whomsoever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>whose</td>
<td>whose-ever</td>
<td>whosessoever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of whom</td>
<td>whoever's</td>
<td>whosoever's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(colloquial)</td>
<td>(colloquial)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we have abandoned the use of the old case forms in relative pronouns — except the who-forms given above — and now indicate the grammatical relations by means of the word-order, there is a strong tendency in colloquial speech to abandon also these special who-forms and employ non-inflection also here: ‘I don’t know who (instead of whom) he plays with.’ ‘I will go with whoever I like,’ instead of whomever I like [to go with]. But of course: ‘I will go with whoever is or are going my way.’ ‘I do not
know who was or were there.’ The relative pronoun always has the case form required by the construction of the clause in which it stands. Thus in the last two examples it is nominative since it is subject. In the preceding example it is the object of the preposition with understood. We should withstand the strong drift here toward the modern forms and use the more expressive older ones. One old who-form, the genitive whose, is well preserved: ‘I don’t know whose child it is.’ ‘I will not hurt a hair of her head, whose- ever (or, colloquially, whoever’s) daughter she may be’ (Goldsmith, Good-nat. Man, V, 155). ‘It’s mine now, whose-ever (the usual form when, as here, there is no noun following) it was a while back’ (Hergesheimer, Mountain Blood, 294).

The who-forms are often followed by the appositive adverb else: ‘I don’t know who else (i.e. distinct from him) could have done it.’ Relative pronouns often enter into a close relation to else, forming with it a compound. ‘I don’t know whose else (older usage), or now usually who else’s, child it could be.’ ‘If it isn’t his child, I don’t know whose else (still in use when there is, as here, no noun following), or who else’s, it could be.’ ‘His love will never fail, whoever else’s (or whosoever else’s) may.’ Notice that in accordance with older usage there is still no apostrophe before the genitive -s in whose, while in whoever’s, whosoever’s, who else’s, whoever else’s, whosoever else’s, the apostrophe is employed in harmony with modern usage. Compare 42 c cc.

There are four indefinite relative pronouns that have been formed from indefinite relative adjectives — what and whatever with quite indefinite force, especially the second form, and with less indefinite force which and whichever. Differing from all other relative pronouns these words are limiting (8) adjectives used as pronouns, hence they may have the one-form, like other limiting adjectives in substantive (43 1, 2nd par.) function: ‘I haven’t much butter, but what (singular) I have is good.’ ‘My father is a man of few affections, but what (plural) he has are very strong’ (Mrs. Gaskell, Wives, I, Ch. XVIII). ‘Every day he questions us on some particular grammatical point, but we never know in advance what one he will bring up.’ ‘I desire to profit from these experiences and what ones, or whatever ones, I shall encounter in the future.’ ‘Here are two hats, but I don’t know which one is mine.’ ‘Here are some new books. I don’t know which ones to select.’ ‘I want to give you one of these books. You may have whichever one you may select.’ ‘I want to give you several of these books. You may have whichever ones you may select.’ Which and whichever refer not only to things but also to persons: ‘We have two fine speakers in our class. We do not yet know which of them
will represent us." 'There are several very able men in our community. We shall be well represented whichever one of them we may select.' Other examples are given in 7 IV b.

The one-form cannot be used when, as in the first example of the preceding paragraph, the reference is to an indefinite mass that has no fixed individuality. Compare 43 I (3rd par.). In the second example of the preceding paragraph either what or what ones might be used. The reference is indefinite but points to fixed individualities. Simple what is still often used here when the reference is to more than one individual thing.

The one-forms have a genitive singular in -s, which has the force of a possessive pronoun, for it can be used, like a possessive pronoun, as subject or object: 'All three boys have a good record at school, but I do not know which one's (subject) is the best.' Compare 7 VII e (2nd par.).

39. Older Inflection of Relative Pronouns. In Old English, where there was a reference to a definite antecedent, the demonstrative forms, se, sio, þæt were used also as relative pronouns, with the same inflection as in demonstrative function, as described in 44 C 1: 'Me wæs lareow Albinus, se wæs wide gefaren and gelæred' (Bede) = 'My teacher was Albinus, who had traveled much and was learned,' originally 'My teacher was Albinus, that one, [he] had traveled much and was learned,' the demonstrative, or rather determinative (7 VII b bb), se pointing to the following explanatory clause. After the determinative (se, sio, or þæt) there often stood the determinative adverb þe (= there): 'Albinus, se þæs wæs wide gefaren' = 'Albinus, who had traveled much,' originally 'Albinus, that one there: [he] had traveled much.'

In Middle English, the demonstrative se lost its inflection here, so that the old neuter form that now serves for all cases, genders, and numbers: 'the boy that I play with'; 'the girl that I play with'; 'the pencil that I write with'; 'the boys that I play with.' Compare Syntax 23 II.

In Old English, the determinative adverb þe often served alone as a relative pronoun: 'ealle þe þing þe þanon cumæþ' = 'all the things which come from there.' Compare 7 IV a cc (last par.).

In Old English, the indefinite relative pronouns who and what inflected as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hwā</td>
<td>hwæt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hwone</td>
<td>hwæt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>hwæm, hwām</td>
<td>hwæm, hwām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hwæs</td>
<td>hwæs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr.</td>
<td>hwý, hwí</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Middle English, what became an uninflected form. Who inflected: whô (nom.), whôm (dat. and acc.), whôs (gen.).

The old simple indefinite relative pronoun is still widely used in sub-
stantive (i.e. noun) clauses (18 B): 'Who goes light travels fast.' 'It is not known who did it.' 'I do not know who did it.' The old instrumental form, indicating association, instrument, cause, survives in why in causal function: 'I do not know why (= on account of what) he did it.' It is also used in questions, direct and indirect, as indefinite what is in general used also interrogatively: 'Why (= on account of what) did you do it?' 'He asked me why I did it.' Compare 7 VI b, c.

In Old English, the adverb so (Old English swa) was often placed before and after who and what, thus forming a compound indefinite to emphasize the idea of indefiniteness: swa hwa swa, now whosoever, whoever; swa hwæt swa, now whatsoever, whatever.

Out of the old simple and compound indefinites hwa and swa hwa swa has developed the common relative pronoun who with a definite antecedent. This development took place in the Middle English period. Compare Syntax, 23 II 1.

Out of the old simple indefinite pronoun who has developed also the interrogative pronoun who. But this development is very old, having taken place before the time of historical records. In Old English, the indefinite and the interrogative pronoun had the same inflection. Compare Syntax, 23 II 1 (last par.).

In the Middle English period, the accusative of the relative and the interrogative who disappeared, the dative early assuming the accusative function in addition to its own.

In Old English, which (Old English hwilc) was often, as today, an indefinite relative, but it could not be used for reference to a definite antecedent to point to a definite person or thing, as later in Middle English. Today we may use it to point to a definite thing, but not to a definite person, as in Middle English and early Modern English. The development of which into a relative pronoun referring to a definite person or thing is described in Syntax, 23 II 3.

In Old English, which was inflected like a strong adjective, as described in 44 A 1. In the Middle English period it became uninflected except that it often took an e in the plural: which (sing.), whiche (pl.). Later the plural -e disappeared.

V. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

40. Of these pronouns (7 V) the forms in -body, i.e. somebody, anybody, everybody, nobody, have preserved the old genitive in -s, which they retain alongside of the newer of-form: 'I don't want anybody's help,' or 'the help of anybody.' The other compound forms have preserved the old s-genitive only when used as the subject of the gerund: 'I haven't heard of anything's (or anything, an accusative; see 47 6 a) being wrong.' Elsewhere we employ the modern means of expressing the grammatical relations: subject before verb and object after it; to-dative or for-dative; of-genitive. Most of these indefinite pronouns have no plural. On the other
hand, a few — men, people, folks, we, you, they — as indefinite pronouns are used only in the plural. See 7 V. A number of these indefinite pronouns — numbers, lots, heaps, etc. — have an s-plural, as they were originally nouns. In the case of a lot and lots, a heap and heaps, a world and worlds, there is often no essential difference of meaning between singular and plural, both numbers indicating a large quantity or number. The plural is perhaps more emphatic.

The compound somebody or other has the old genitive in -s or the newer of-genitive: ‘It is odds that you touch somebody or other’s sore place,’ or ‘the sore place of somebody or other.’

The compound pronouns are often followed by the appositive adverb else, which has the force of a predicate adjective: ‘Did he want anything else?’ (additional). ‘It couldn’t mean anything else’ (different). ‘It wasn’t he; it was somebody else’ (i.e. distinct from him). These compound pronouns often enter into a close relation with else here, forming with it a compound indefinite pronoun: ‘It can’t be anybody else’s hat,’ instead of older ‘anybody’s else hat.’ ‘That is my business and nobody else’s,’ or sometimes as in older English nobody’s else. Older usage usually survives here only when there is no noun following else, as in the last example.

For the use of the apostrophe before the genitive -s of these compounds see 42 c cc.

The accusative of a number of these pronouns is used adverbially. See 7 V c.

VI. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

41. There are five interrogative pronouns: who, what; with quite indefinite force what one(s); with less indefinite force which, which one(s). The last three of these are limiting (8) adjectives used as pronouns; hence, like other limiting adjectives in substantive (43 1, 2nd par.) function, they have a one-form: ‘Of the innumerable effects or impressions, of which the heart, the intellect, or (more generally) the soul is susceptible, what one shall I on the present occasion select?’ (Poe, Philosophy of Composition, p. 2). ‘All the words belong to some attitude or other — all but one.’ — ‘What one is that?’ (Bernard Shaw, Plays Unpleasant and Pleasant, II, p. 133). ‘Good idea, if we had a play . . . but we — No, by Jinks, we have got one.’ — ‘What one?’ asked Lillie de Lisle (Alice M. Williamson, Lord Loveland Discovers America, Ch. XXXIV). ‘We must add some new juvenile books to our collection. What ones would you suggest as appropriate?’ ‘Which
of the two brothers is the stronger?’ ‘Here are two hats. Which one is yours?’ ‘You have read Tarkington’s novels. Which, or which ones, are the best?’ These pronouns formed from limiting adjectives have a genitive singular in -s, which has the force of a possessive pronoun, for it can be used, like a possessive pronoun, as subject or object: ‘All three brothers have a good record at school.’—‘Which one’s (subject) is the best?’ Compare 7 VII e (2nd par.).

The pure interrogative what is not inflected. The grammatical relations are shown by the word-order: subject before the verb; the object before a verb which is followed by the subject: ‘What (subject) is worrying you?’ ‘What (subject) are their names?’ ‘What (object) does he want?’ What and who are often predicates when they stand before a linking (12 3) verb which is followed by the subject: ‘What is he?’ ‘Who is he?’ Often also in exclamations: ‘What was my astonishment when I saw her there!’ Predicative exclamatory what, as found in this example, is now felt as an adjective. See 10 9.

When what is the object of a preposition it stands at the beginning of the sentence after the preposition, or much more commonly it stands in the first place, and the preposition in the last place: ‘About what are they talking?’ or ‘What are they talking about?’

The pure interrogative pronoun who inflects as follows, the same form in each case serving as a singular and a plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to whom or for whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>whose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The older inflection of who is given in 39.

As we have in general abandoned the use of the old inflectional endings in favor of modern means of expression, there is also here in colloquial speech a strong tendency to employ modern forms — except in the genitive relation, where the old form is well preserved: ‘Who (instead of whom) did you meet?’ ‘Who did you give it to?’ instead of ‘Whom did you give it to?’ or ‘To whom did you give it?’ ‘Who did you get it from?’ instead of ‘Whom did you get it from?’ or ‘From whom did you get it?’ In choice language the tendency is to withstand the very strong drift here toward the modern forms and use the more expressive older ones. In the genitive relation we always use the older form: ‘Whose car is it?’ This old genitive form is often used as a possessive pronoun, for it can be used, like a possessive pronoun, as subject or object: ‘His achievements have never measured up to his aims, but then
whose have?’ (Barrett H. Clark, *Eugene O’Neill*, p. 197). Compare 7 VII e (2nd par.).

The *who*-forms are often followed by the appositive adverb *else*, which has the force of a predicate adjective: ‘Who else (i.e. distinct from those mentioned) were there?’ The interrogative often enters into a close relation to *else*, forming with it a compound: ‘Whose else (older usage), or now usually *who else’s*, son should he be?’ ‘It is my book; whose else (still widely used when there is, as here, no noun following), or now also *who else’s*, should it be?’ We sometimes say here: ‘Whose should it be else?’ Also what is followed by *else*: ‘What else (further, more) do you want?’ ‘What else (with the force of different) could it mean?’

Notice that in accordance with older usage there is still no apostrophe before the genitive –*s* in *whose*, while in *who else’s* the apostrophe is employed in harmony with modern usage. Compare 42 cc cc.

VII. LIMITING ADJECTIVES USED AS PRONOUNS

42. The five groups given in 7 VII a, b, c, d, e are inflected as follows:

a. Intensifying Adjectives Used as Personal or Indefinite Pronouns. The intensifying adjectives (7 VII a), *myself, ourselves yourself, yourselves, themselves*, etc., have all lost their old case endings and even when used as pronouns must indicate the case relations by modern means: *e.g. yourself*, a subject when standing before the verb, but an object when following a preposition or any verb except a linking (12 3) verb, where it is a predicate; *to, and for, yourself*, dative. For examples see 7 VII a.

The form of these pronouns always indicates the number and the person.

b. Demonstrative Pronouns. Of the words in this group (7 VII b) *this one, that one, the one, such a one, the same one, the former, the latter, the first one, the second one*, etc., *the last one, either, either one, neither, neither one, each one, and every one* still have in the singular the old *s*-genitive alongside of the newer of-genitive: ‘John and Sam and the latter’s sister,’ or ‘the sister of the latter.’ ‘I should be welcome at either’s house,’ or ‘at the house of either of them.’ ‘Two men applied for the place, but neither’s looks pleased me,’ or ‘the looks of neither of them pleased me.’

Most of the other forms in this group indicate the case relations by modern means, also the forms given above when used in the plural: ‘I know most of the students present, but I don’t know the names of these,’ or ‘the names of the last ones in the row.’
The genitive of other is other's in the singular and others' in the plural: 'the other's record,' or 'the record of the other'; 'the others' records,' or more clearly 'the records of the others.'

For the use of the apostrophe before the genitive -s of these pronouns see c cc, p. 176.

Some words indicate the singular and the plural by their forms: this, these; that, those; the one, the ones; the other, the others or the other ones; such a one, such ones; the same (one), the same (ones); the first (one), the first (ones); the last (one), the last (ones). The meaning of both indicates the plural: 'Both of the men, both of the speeches, are good.' All, half, the former, the latter, are either singular or plural: 'All of the speech was good.' 'All of the speeches were good.' 'Half of the speech was good, half of it was very bad.' 'Half of the speeches were good.' 'The cake was cut in half (or two, both forms limiting adjectives used as plural pronouns) or into halves' (plural noun). 'He has a whole apple, but I haven't even half a one.' 'John and William both spoke well, only the former spoke a little too long and the latter didn't speak quite long enough.' 'I am going either today or tomorrow; the latter is more likely.' 'I prefer milk to coffee; the latter is more pleasant to the taste, but the former is more wholesome.' 'The struggle between Alfred and the Danes resulted in the overthrow of the latter.' Either and neither are usually employed only in the singular, but neither is not infrequently used also as a plural: 'Neither of us are dukes' (H. G. Wells, The New Machiavelli, p. 316). Compare Syntax, 8 1 1 e. Many examples containing demonstratives are given in 7 VII b.

The plural form the other ones has more individualizing force than the others: 'These houses are newer than the other ones we were looking at' (the speaker thinking of each house), but 'I like these houses better than all the others' (the speaker thinking of the others as a mass or group).

The accusatives of the pronouns this, that, all, half, like the accusatives of the indefinite pronouns in 42 c aa are used as adverbs: 'This (or that or thus or so) much I hold to be true.' 'She is dressed all in white.' 'The work is only half done.' For fuller treatment see 71 1 a, b.

c. Indefinite Limiting Adjectives Used as Indefinite Pronouns.
Of the words in this group (7 VII c) anyone, everyone, someone, some- one or other, such and such a one, many a one, one, no one, another, another one, a certain one, this (one) and that one, and this, that, and the other one, still have in the singular the old s-genitive alongside of the newer of-genitive: 'someone's boy,' or 'the boy of someone'; 'no one's boy,' or 'the boy of no one.' 'One must often make
up one’s mind quickly.’ ‘It is likely that you will touch someone or other’s sore place.’ In older English, the s-genitive of any and none was in use: ‘I haue taken as great delight in thy company as ever I did in anyes’ (John Lyly, Euphues and His England, Works, II, p. 76, A.D. 1580), now anyone’s. ‘Wisedome will that we should refrayne From foolish deeming (deeming) and none’s (now no one’s) death discuss’ (Barclay, Shyp of Fолys, 58, A.D. 1509).

Others is the only word that has the simple genitive in the plural: ‘She thinks only of others’ good,’ or ‘the good of others.’ In older English, also, other words had the simple plural genitive: ‘In many’s looks the false heart’s history Is writ in moods and frowns and wrinkles strange’ (Shakespeare, Sonnet 93). ‘Howso’er it shocks some’s self-love, there’s safety in a crowd of coxcombs’ (Byron, Juan, XIII, xxx). With the exception of other these words now have in the plural only the of-genitive. Other has here either the simple genitive or the of-form.

All the other pronouns of this group regularly indicate the case relations by modern means, also usually the pronouns given above when used in the plural.

Five indicate the plural by their form: others, other ones; this, that, and the other ones; such and such ones; certain ones. Earlier in the period other was without an ending in the plural, as the old Middle English plural ending -e had been lost and the new plural ending -s had not yet appeared: ‘This ignorauncie in men whyche (now who) know not for what tyme and to what thynge they be fit causeth some to desire to be maysters and rule other (now others), whiche (now who) neuer yet began to rule themselfe’ (Roger Ascham, Toxophilus, p. 153, A.D. 1545). The old plural other is now and then still found lingering on, especially before a modifying of-genitive: ‘The wide influence of this and other (or more commonly others) of his books is shown by the fact that most of them have reached a sixpenny edition’ (Athenaeum, Aug. 28, 1915). Other examples are given in 7 VII c.

Eleven indicate the plural by their meaning: several, various, sundry, numerous, many, a many (once common, now archaic or poetic), a good many, a great many, certain, few, a few.

All, any, enough, more, none, some, such (7 VII b, c), such and such (7 VII c), are either singular or plural. None, which was originally a singular and is sometimes still so used, is now more commonly a plural. Compare 7 VII c. In the singular it is usual to employ nó one: ‘Nó one (more common than none) knows it so well as I.’ Not óne (numeral), or colloquially not a óne, is more emphatic than none or nó one: ‘There is none, no, not óne in whom
I trust’ (M. H. Hewlett). ‘No one came to the meeting, no, not a one.’ Compare Syntax, 57 5 b.

Less is now usually a singular: ‘It is worth that much. I will not take less.’ Though it often points to a number of persons or things, it does not refer to them as individuals, but, like a singular collective noun, represents them as a single unit, an aggregate, while fewer represents them as separate individuals: ‘No doubt the receipts in December 1909 were less than normal’ (Westminster Gazette, No. 5507, 1). ‘There are about 228,000 colored workers on the mines now. In 1903 there were many less.’ (London Daily News, No. 21003, 10). ‘There are fewer in our colleges now who can read and appreciate the Greek classics than in the last century.’

Less than and more than are often adverbs: ‘There were less than (adverb) sixty (= sixty people) there,’ or ‘fewer (= fewer people) than sixty there.’ ‘More than (adverb) one has found it so.’ ‘There are more (plural indefinite pronoun) than one’ (G. Washington Moon, The Dean’s English, 7th ed., p. 70). ‘There are more (adjective) reasons than one,’ but ‘There is more than (adverb) one reason.’ Compare Syntax, 8 I 5.

aa. Neuter Indefinite Pronouns Used Adverbially. All, other, any, none, some (= a fair amount), much, more, little, a little, less, enough, etc., are often used as neuter pronouns: ‘He felt that he already possessed in this world all that his heart really craved.’ ‘Nor could his private friends do other than mournfully acquiesce.’ ‘I don’t want any of your nonsense.’ ‘It is none of my business.’ ‘None of this concerns me.’ ‘I should like to have some of your patience.’ The accusative of a number of these neuter pronouns is much used adverbially, especially with a comparative: ‘It is all gone.’ ‘It is all the same to me.’ ‘He is all the better for it.’ ‘He cares little about it.’ ‘He was a little (not a little) vexed.’ ‘It is much too large.’ ‘Is he resting any better today?’ ‘He is none the worse for his fall.’ ‘He is some (colloquial accusative for the literary adverb somewhat) better this morning.’ ‘He had learned some more about the world’ (Jack London, White Fang, p. 87). The adverbial use of some with verbs is especially characteristic of Scotch English. It is common also in American English: ‘I think some of attending the great antislavery convention’ (J. G. Whittier, quoted from the year 1843 in Pickard’s Life). ‘She was very sick during the night, but she rested some toward morning.’ The adverbial accusative of other (= otherwise) was once used and still lingers: ‘Who dares receive it other?’ (Shakespeare, Macbeth, I, vii, 77). ‘It could not have been carried out other than by the mammoth vessels’ (quoted by Fowler in his Modern English Usage, p. 411). Compare 7 VII c cc. For fuller discussion see 71 1 a.
Sometimes the nominative can be used adverbially: 'It is all but impossible to get anything done under these circumstances,' literally 'It is everything short of impossible,' etc. 'He was all but drowned.' "It's a pity he (the horse) can't talk," she said. — "Oh but he can — all but" (D. H. Lawrence, Sons and Lovers, p. 297). Originally all was here a predicative nominative, and after a moment's reflection this older function is often still easily discernible, but all is now more commonly felt as forming with but a compound adverb with the force of almost, modifying an adjective or a verb. Similarly in 'She is anything but strong' we may construe anything as a predicative nominative or now more commonly may regard anything but as an adverb with the force of far from. These are apt illustrations of the changes that take place in the functions of words.

In American slang adverbial some is much used to express a high degree: 'We drove some, I'll say.' 'I tell you, I'm some tired tonight.' Compare 10 6 b.

bb. 'Else' after Indefinite Pronouns. These pronouns are often followed by the appositive adverb else: 'It wasn't he; it was someone else' (i.e. distinct from him). These pronouns often enter into a close relation with else here, forming with it a compound indefinite pronoun: 'It must be someone else's hat,' or in older English 'someone's else hat.' 'That is his business and no one else's,' or sometimes still as in older English no one's else. Older usage usually survives here only when there is no noun following else, as in the last example.

cc. Use of Apostrophe in the Genitive. The apostrophe began to be used with the genitive of nouns about 1680, but it was used very little at first, the old genitive without the apostrophe prevailing with both nouns and pronouns: 'Yet could she tell the touch of that woman from any ones else' (Increase Mather, Remarkable Providences, Ch. V, Jan., 1684). Later, the apostrophe gradually became established with nouns and pronouns, but the personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns still follow older usage. For the history of the apostrophe with the genitive see 27 4 A 6 b (1), last par.

d. Numeral Adjectives Used as Pronouns:

aa. Cardinal Numeral Adjectives Used as Pronouns. These adjectives (10 4 a) when used as pronouns never have an ending, except only and sole, which take the one-form: 'There were seventy-five there.' 'There are four of us.' 'These trees are planted too closely together. Three will be taken out.' 'Fifty odd of the eggs were broken.' 'Some fifty of them were broken.' 'You may select any one, any two, any three, of the books.' 'He is the one in the
family you can depend upon.' 'They are the two in the family you can depend upon.' But: 'He is the only one that can do it.' 'Here is the dictionary, the only one we have in the house.' 'They are the only ones who can do it.' 'These two passages are the only ones in which Plato makes mention of himself.' 'They made him their agent, the sole one for this community.' 'He is the sole one in this mystery' (Keats, Otho the Great, III, II, 254). Milton used simple sole as a pronoun: 'O sole in whom my thoughts find all repose' (Paradise Lost, V, 28), now 'O solé one in whom,' etc.

In the written language there is a peculiar ambiguity in the use of one. 'I can't find one of my books' means that either all or one of the books is missing. In the spoken language we stress one to convey the former meaning, and speak it lightly to convey the latter meaning. In fact unstressed one is not now felt as a numeral but has developed into an indefinite pronoun (7 VII c).

66. Ordinal Numeral Adjectives Used as Pronouns. These adjectives (10 4 b) when used as pronouns may take the one-forms, and thus can indicate the singular and the plural idea: 'Of the speakers the first (or the first one) was interesting.' 'Of the speakers the first ones were interesting. The last ones were very tiresome.' 'The first volume is more interesting than the second,' or the second one.

e. Possessive Adjectives Used as Pronouns. The substantive, i.e. pronominal, forms of the possessive adjectives my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, are mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, two adding -n in the substantive relation, four adding -s, two, his and its, remaining unchanged. This list may be greatly increased, for many nouns and pronouns may become possessive pronouns by the addition of -s: 'My son is tall, but my sister's (subject nominative) is still taller.' 'All three boys have a good record at school, but I do not know which one's (subject nominative) is the best.' 'Both John and William have a good record. I regard the latter's (accusative object) as a little better.' This new type is described more fully in 7 VII e. The old possessives once rich in inflectional endings haven't a single ending left. They now indicate the grammatical relations by modern means. The subject stands before the verb, the object after the verb. The preposition of indicates the genitive relation, the prepositions to and for indicate the dative relation. The possessive pronouns of the newer type are treated in the same way. Examples illustrating the use of both types are given in 7 VII e. A mere glance at these examples will show how simple and yet clear English now is at this point. The simplicity almost amounts to elegance. The pronouns of the old type that
refer to the third person indicate the gender, a rich inheritance from the personal pronouns from which they were formed.

In the nineteenth century arose the usage of suffixing *one* to the possessive adjectives to form possessive pronouns. This development has never been strong, and is for the most part confined to British English: ‘When a woman is old . . . But *my one!* She’s not old’ (Trollope, *The Duke’s Children*, III, 163). ‘*Hers*, the absolute form of the possessive pronoun *her*, used when no noun follows = *her one, her ones*’ (*Oxford Dictionary*). ‘I ought to give you my name. It’s Rattray, of one of the many Kirby Halls in this country. *My one’s down in Lancashire*’ (Hornung, *Dead Men Tell No Tales*, p. 40). When a genitive follows the possessive pronoun, the suffix *one* cannot be dispensed with if the possessive construction is retained: ‘Leaning back in *his one* of the two Chippendale armchairs in which they sat’ (Juliana Ewing, *Jackanapes*, p. 26). Professor Jespersen, who in his *English Grammar*, II, p. 261, furnishes the first and the last of these quotations, gives also another containing a noun used as a possessive pronoun: ‘*Her parasol is fine, but her sister’s one is finer.*’ Professor Jespersen quotes here from the spoken words of an English gentleman. The second example is the words of the editor of the *Oxford Dictionary*, which gives some dignity to the construction. To the author of this Grammar, who is an American, all these examples seem strange. The quotation from Juliana Ewing, however, indicates that this new form might become useful. Compare 7 VII e (last par.).

For the origin of the old possessive pronouns see 7 VII e aa.
CHAPTER XI

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES

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PRESENT INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES

43. In Old English, adjectives indicated by their inflection case, gender, number, and the degrees of comparison, the comparative and the superlative. A mere glance at the Old English inflection of adjectives in 44 A will give a general idea of the intricate means of expression employed in our oldest historic period. A wealth of forms does not at all mean a wealth of expression. The later increase of power in English expression was for a long time accom-
panied by a simplification of English form. In the course of the Middle English period, as explained in part in 31, the inflectional endings for case, gender, and number in adjectives entirely disappeared. The following paragraphs describe our present simple means of inflecting adjectives.

1. **Inflection of the Positive**

In the course of the Middle English period the adjectives for the most part ceased to be inflected. In the position before the governing noun *this* and *that* alone show traces of their former rich inflection. They can still indicate the plural: *these, those*. In the position after the governing noun or pronoun the identifying (10 2, 10 2 a) adjectives take *-s* in the plural: ‘we *ourselves,*’ ‘you *yourselves,*’ ‘they *themselves.*’ Near the end of the Middle English period the forms of these words were: *ourself, yourself, themself,* i.e. they were uninflected, like most adjectives. The first two forms were often ambiguous. Before the beginning of the modern period *-s* began to appear in the plural to make the grammatical relations clear: ‘we *ourself*’ (sing.), ‘we *ourselves*’ (pl.); ‘you *yourself*’ (sing.), ‘you *yourselves*’ (pl.). About 1570 *themself* became *themselves* after the analogy of *ourselves* and *yourselves.*

The reduction of adjective inflection in the Middle English period was too radical. It had hardly disappeared when it became apparent that something valuable had been lost. The inflectional endings for case, gender, number, had served the useful purpose of linking the adjective to its governing noun. The lack of an ending was not felt when the adjective stood immediately before the noun, as in ‘a *black* hat,’ and the suppression of the endings here for case, gender, and number was a great improvement, for it brought into the language a remarkable simplicity, which made English expression easier and more forcible. But in substantive function, i.e. when the adjective stood alone separated some distance from its governing noun, the lack of the ending was sorely felt: ‘My brother bought a white hat, and I bought a *black.*’ The need of something after *black* to link it to its governing noun *hat* was felt as early as the thirteenth century, and people began to put the numeral *one* after it: ‘My brother bought a white hat, and I bought a *black one.*’ The linking force of *one* was felt much more strongly than its original meaning *one,* so that the plural *ones* was employed to link the adjective to a plural noun: ‘My brother bought two white hats, and I bought two *black ones.*’

Thus *ones* in this example has entirely ceased to have a relation to the numeral *one,* for it means *two.* It has the same force as the old inflectional ending that once stood in the same place. In spite
of the fact that it has always been written as an independent word, it has become an inflectional ending of the adjective with the function of linking it to its governing noun. Of course, one is employed with a noun or a group of nouns used as an adjective, sometimes also with a genitive that has the force of a descriptive adjective: 'I like this pipe better than a clay one.' 'On a side line was a little train that reminded Peter of the Treliss (town) to Truro (town) one' (Hugh Walpole). 'The higher course is a two years' one' (London Times, Aug. 8, 1918). In harmony with its origin one can refer only to individuals, persons and things that can be counted; hence it never points to mass words (sand, milk, etc.): 'this hat and that one'; not 'this butter and that one,' but 'this butter and that.' As a suffix, one is usually without stress, while numeral one often has a strong accent: 'Here are some fine apples. You may select any one (substantive form of any) of them you choose,' but 'You may select any one (numeral), or any two, of them you choose.' 'No one (substantive form of no used as an indefinite pronoun) can do that,' but 'No one (numeral) of you can do that.' 'Helen hated boys, and she would have liked to whip this one long and often,' but 'Except this one nearest friend he was alone in the world.' In emphatic language, however, the one of the substantive form of the adjective may have a stress: 'I want every one of you to come.' 'Not a blessed egg was fresh,' but with blessed in the substantive relation: 'Not a blessed one of the eggs was fresh.' For an explanation of the double stress here see Syntax, 57 1 (6th par.).

The use of one to indicate substantive, i.e. pronominal, function, as in the above examples, is quite general with descriptive (8) adjectives, since the thought requires it here. But with limiting (8, 10) adjectives it has not become so well established, in some of the groups in 10 not being used at all, in other groups being used with some adjectives and never found with others. The meaning in limiting adjectives is often so concrete that one or ones is not needed in the substantive relation to make the thought clear. The cardinal numeral adjectives and many other limiting adjectives, as many, several, few, etc., though they have no plural ending, indicate the plural relation clearly by their meaning: 'these books and the six on the table.' These, those, indicate the plural by their form: 'that book and these in my hand'; 'these books and those on the table.' 'Associate with those that you can look up to.' 'Those who have themselves suffered are apt to sympathize with others.'

A number of limiting adjectives, however, need one or ones in the substantive, i.e. pronominal, relation to make the thought
clear: `Here are several books. I don't know which one, or which ones, would please you most.' We say either `each, or each one, of the books.'

In Old English the adjective had the same inflectional ending for adjective and pronominal function, while today it is uninflected in adjective function and has the one-form in pronominal function, so that there is a distinctive form for each of the two functions. Thus, although Modern English is less rich in form than Old English it has a clearer expression for these two functions.

There are other ways of indicating the substantive, i.e. the pronominal, relation. The pronominal forms of the possessive adjectives my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, are mine, thine, his, hers, its, yours, theirs, two adding in the pronominal relation an -n, four adding an -s, and two, his and its, remaining unchanged: `my hat and yours'; `your hat and mine'; `his house and ours'; `our house and his.' Other examples are given in 7 VII e. These pronouns have for the most part a distinctive ending, -n or -s. Originally they were the genitive forms of the personal pronouns. Gradually they developed into possessive adjectives and pronouns. The present difference of form for the two functions is the result of a long development described in Syntax, 57 5 a. The pronominal forms here are peculiar. Elsewhere the common way to make a pronominal form is to add one to the adjective form. In England one is actually coming into use also here: `Leaning back in his one of the two Chippendale armchairs in which they sat' (Juliana Ewing, Jackanapes, p. 26). Compare 7 VII e (3rd par.) and 42 e (2nd par.).

The limiting adjective other takes an -s in the substantive, i.e. the pronominal, relation in the plural: `this book, and the others on the table.'

As in the above examples, the substantive forms of limiting adjectives point to a preceding noun or a following of-genitive, a prepositional phrase, or a relative clause. They are here always employed as convenient substitutes for a noun or a noun and its modifying adjective, so that in fact they are pronouns: `these books and those (= those books) on the table.' As these pronouns are among the commonest in the language, the question of their proper form is of considerable importance. Their form is treated in detail under the head of pronouns in 7 IV b, 7 VI, 7 VII b, c, d, e, 38 b, 41, 42 b, c, d, e. This subject is treated at considerable length in Syntax, 57 1, 2, 3, 5 a, b, c.

Also the substantive forms of descriptive adjectives are pronouns, for they are only convenient substitutes for nouns and their modifying adjective: `the black sheep and the white one' (= white sheep).
The substantive forms of both limiting and descriptive adjectives, though pronouns by function, differ from pure pronouns such as I, you, he, she, etc., in one important point. They not only perform the pronominal function, but they describe or point out, i.e. they have meaning, while the pure pronouns, meaningless and colorless, are mere conventional symbols standing for persons and things. These substantive forms differ from pure pronouns also in that they are freely modified by adherent (8) adjectives, betraying thus their substantive origin, their relation to some noun understood: 'quaint old houses and beautiful new ones'; 'these books and all those'; 'these books and many more, some more, a few more'; 'some fifty of them'; 'John, Fred, and some others'; 'some few of us'; etc.

2. Comparison of Adjectives

There are three degrees — the positive, the comparative, the superlative. The positive is the simple form of the adjective: 'a strong man.' The comparative indicates that the quality is found in the person or thing described in a higher degree than in some other person or thing: 'the stronger of the two men.' 'This tree is taller than that.' The superlative is relatively the highest degree and often indicates that the quality is found in the highest degree in the person or thing described: 'Mt. Everest is the highest mountain in the world.' Often, however, the superlative is used in a relative sense, indicating that of the persons or things compared a certain person or thing possesses the quality in the highest degree, which need not be a very high or the highest degree in general. 'John is the strongest of these boys, but there are others in the school stronger than he.'

In general, comparison is characteristic of descriptive adjectives, the comparative and the superlative indicating different degrees of a quality. But a number of limiting adjectives are compared. Here the comparative and the superlative do not indicate different degrees, but point out different individuals: the former; the latter; the first; the last; the topmost round; the southernmost island of the group. In the following discussion of comparison, descriptive and limiting adjectives are, for convenience, treated together.

A. Relative Comparison. In contrast to the older uniform use of endings to construct the comparative and the superlative, we today with some adjectives employ the old terminational, or synthetic, form in -er and -est; with others, influenced by our fondness for analytic form, as described in b, p. 188, we prefer comparison with more and most; with others we fluctuate between
the old terminational, or synthetic, form and the new analytic form. The wide use of the analytic form with *more* and *most* in modern English is explained not only by its expressiveness, as described in b, p. 188, but also by its agreeableness of sound and its ease of pronunciation in the case of long adjectives.

Monosyllabics and a large number of dissyllabics are compared by means of the comparative ending *-er* and the superlative ending *-est*: quick, quicker, quickest; sturdy, sturdier, sturdiest. Before adding the comparative or superlative ending: (1). Drop *e*: large, larger, largest. (2). Change *y* to *i* if a consonant precedes, but retain the *y* if a vowel precedes: lazy, lazier, laziest; dry, drier, driest; but gray, grayer, grayest. In British English, however, *sly* and usually *shy* retain the *y* although a consonant precedes: sly, slyer, slyest; shy, shyer, shyest. In America the forms *-ier*, *-iest*, are the usual ones: sly, slier, sliest; shy, shier, shiest. (3). In monosyllabic words double the final consonant after a short vowel: hot, hotter, hottest. The British scholar Alfred West on page 114 of his English Grammar remarks, 'A few other adjectives, not monosyllabic, exhibit the same orthographical change: crueler, hopefuler.' In American usage the *l* here is not doubled, as it stands in an unaccented syllable: crueler, hopefuler. Americans prefer here, however, the analytic forms with *more* and *most*: more cruel, most cruel, etc.

While we may thus compare with *-er* and *-est* a number of disyllabics, especially those in *-er*, *-le*, *-y*, *-ow*, *-some*, such as tender, bitter, clever, sober, able, noble, idle, holy, goodly, narrow, handsome, wholesome, winsome, and some words accented upon the last syllable, such as profound, remote, etc., and also others that cannot be easily described, such as pleasant, cruel, quiet, etc., or in these same words and many others may use both the old form in *-er* and *-est* and the newer analytic form with *more* and *most*, as in pleasanter or more pleasant, crueler or more cruel, serener or more serene, in many others we usually prefer comparison by means of *more* and *most*, as in the case of earnest, eager, proper, famous, comic, docile, fertile, hostile, certain, active, content, abject, adverse, and participles in *-ed* and *-ing* and adjectives in *-ful* and *-ish*, as learned, strained, charming, useful, childish, etc.

A few monosyllabics, like, real, right, wrong, and wan, which do not naturally incline to comparison, are usually compared by *more* and *most* when they are compared, although the terminational form occasionally occurs; in the case of *like*, however, only in older English, and sometimes still in poetry and dialect, never in colloquial or literary prose: 'I'm liker (now usually *more like*) what I was than you to him' (Dryden, *All for Love*, I, 247, A.D. 1678).
'Father is more like himself today.' 'The figures of Spartacus, Montrose, Garibaldi, Hampden, and John Nicholson were more real to him than the people among whom he lived' (Galsworthy, *Freelands*, Ch. X). 'It is wrong to even think it; it is more wrong to do it.'

Monosyllabic adjectives, however, are often compared by *more* when the adjective is placed after the noun to give it more emphasis and at the same time impart descriptive (8, 3rd par.) force. With classifying force 'There never was a *kinder* and *juster* man,' but with descriptive force 'There never was a man *more kind* and *just*.'

In ordinary literary language, words of more than two syllables are seldom compared otherwise than by *more* and *most*: *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*.

a. Irregular Comparison:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bad, ill, evil</td>
<td>worse, badder (in older English)</td>
<td>worst, baddest (in older English)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther, further</td>
<td>farthest, furthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fore</td>
<td>former</td>
<td>foremost, first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good, well</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>late</td>
<td>later, latter</td>
<td>latest, last, lattermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less, lesser</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much, many</td>
<td>more, or in older English, mo or moe</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nigh</td>
<td>nigher</td>
<td>highest, next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old</td>
<td>older, elder</td>
<td>oldest, eldest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td></td>
<td>aftermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>east, eastern</td>
<td>more eastern</td>
<td>easternmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td></td>
<td>endmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hind</td>
<td>hinder</td>
<td>hindmost, hindermost</td>
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<tr>
<td>inner</td>
<td></td>
<td>inmost, innermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>lower</td>
<td>lowest, lowermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>north, northern</td>
<td>more northern</td>
<td>northmost, northernmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nether</td>
<td></td>
<td>nethermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outer, utter</td>
<td></td>
<td>outmost, outermost, ut-most, uttermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rear</td>
<td></td>
<td>rearmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>south, southern</td>
<td>more southern</td>
<td>southmost, southernmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>top</td>
<td></td>
<td>topeost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under</td>
<td></td>
<td>undermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>up</td>
<td>upper</td>
<td>uppermost, upmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>west, western</td>
<td>more western</td>
<td>westernmost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In older English, *mo* or *moe* (Old English *mā*) was used instead of *more* when the reference was to number: ‘Send out *moe* horses’ (Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, V, iii, 34).

In a few cases the variant forms indicate a differentiation of meaning or function. The usual comparative and superlative of *old* are *older*, *oldest*, always so in the predicate relation; but we may use *elder*, *eldest*, in the attributive and the substantive (43 1) relation and *elder* as a noun, especially of relationship and rank: the *elder* brother; the *elder* Pitt; I am the *elder*; He is my *elder* in service; the *eldest* brother, etc. ‘He is an *elder* in the church.’

We use *farther* and *further* with the same local and temporal meaning, but *further* has also the meanings *additional*, *more extended*, *more*: ‘The cabin stands on the *farther* (or *further*) side of the brook.’ ‘I shall be back in three days at the *farthest*,’ or at the *furthest*. But: *further* details; without *further* delay. ‘After a *further* search I found her.’ ‘Have you anything *further* (= *more*) to say?’ In adverbial function *farther* and *further* are used indiscriminately: ‘You may go *farther* (or *further*) and fare worse.’ There is, however, a decided tendency to employ *further* to express the idea of additional, more extended action: ‘I shall be glad to discuss the matter *further* with you.’

*Later* and *latter* are now clearly differentiated in meaning.

The terminations in some of these forms, as *lesser*, *innermost*, etc., express the degree two or three times instead of once. Compare *aa* below.

**aa. Older Comparison, Pleonasm, Excess of Expression.** In older English, *old* was not the only adjective that might have a change of vowel in the comparative and superlative. Once this change, called mutation, was with certain words the rule. Later, the tendency toward uniformity brought the vowel of the positive into the comparative and superlative. In the early part of the sixteenth century there are still two adjectives which have mutation, but alongside of the old mutated form is the new unmutated, both forms with exactly the same meaning: *long*, *lenger* or *longer*, *lengest* or *longest*; *old*, *elder* or *older*, *eldest* or *oldest*. Toward the close of the century the old mutated form of *long* disappeared, while *old* kept both forms but now with differentiated meaning, as described in the second paragraph on this page.

In older English, the comparative and superlative were formed by means of suffixes, not only in the case of monosyllabics but also in the case of longer adjectives, often where it is not now usual: ‘Nothing *certainer*’ (Shakespeare, *Much Ado about Nothing*, V, iv, 62); ‘one of the *beautifullest* men in the world’ (Thomas Fuller, *The Holy State and the Profane State*, V, II, 362, A.D. 1642). Long terminational comparatives and superlatives can still be heard in popular speech, which here preserves older usage: *beautifuler*, *beautifulest*, etc. This older usage still occurs also in emphatic
and excited colloquial speech, especially in the attributive relation: 'The machine was perfect as a watch when we took her apart the other day; but when she goes together again the 15th of January, we expect her to be perfecter than a watch' (Mark Twain, Letter to Joseph T. Goodman, Nov. 29, 1889). 'There was no crâftier or crâokeder diérector in the habitable world' (Sinclair Lewis, Arrowsmith, Ch. XXX, IV). 'Joe Twichel was the delightedest old boy I ever saw when he read the words you had written in that book' (Mark Twain, Letter to W. D. Howells, Dec. 18, 1874). 'Our baby is the blêssedest little bundle of sunshine Heaven ever sent into this world.' 'It is the stûpidest nonsense!' The analytic forms with more and most began to appear in the thirteenth century in connection with participles, where they are still the most thoroughly established. This tendency to place the comparative and superlative of an adverb before a participle had already begun in Old English, where the forms swipor and swipost were used, which were replaced by more and most in the thirteenth century. The participles as verbal forms could take adverbs before them just as finite verbs do. The adverbs more and most were often retained when the participles were used as adjectives, since more and most as common adverbs had more concrete force than the endings -er and -est. This new usage spread to adjectives. It was and still is absolutely necessary in the case of nouns, adverbs, and positional phrases used as adjectives, as in 'He was more knave than fool' and 'I was more in doubt about it than any of them.' The general development in the direction of more and most was facilitated by the strong English trend toward analytic forms and was also furthered by French influence.

The new analytic forms at first gained ground only slowly, not becoming common until the sixteenth century, then gradually establishing themselves in the literary language alongside of the terminational forms, as we find them today.

The new analytic forms occur also in popular speech, but for the most part only pleonastically alongside of the usual terminational forms: a more abler man; the most carelessest man. Such double forms were once in use in the literary language: 'we will grace his heels With the most boldest and best hearts of Rome' (Shakespeare, Julius Caesar, III, 1, 120). In older literary English, we often find double comparison in worser, which still survives in popular speech. Double comparison still survives in the literary language in lesser, which replaces less in attributive and substantive function in certain expressions, especially with reference to concrete things: in lesser things; the lesser grammarians; the lesser of two evils; but less with more abstract reference, as in less degree; at a less depth; also to express amount and quantity, and in adverbial use, as in 'He has less money than I' and 'He works less than I.'

We no longer feel the double comparison in near (comparative of nigh, but now felt as a positive with regular comparison, near, nearer, nearest) and adjectives in -most (now confounded with most, but in older English with the form mest, which consists of the two superlative suffixes, -m and -est), as in foremost, hindmost, inmost, utmost. From the superlative
foremost the comparative former has been formed. In aftermost, hindermost, innermost, nethermost, outermost, uppermost, uttermost, we have a comparative + the two superlative suffixes -m and -est.

While we today in general avoid pleonastic comparison, we do not feel such forms as more perfect, most perfect, deader, deadest, more unique, etc., as pleonastic, since we have in mind degrees of approach to something perfect, dead, or unique.

Somewhat similar to the pleonasm of older English was its excess of expression in using the superlative with reference to two, which still survives in popular and colloquial speech, as in 'the smallest of the two.' Sometimes in the literary language: 'They (i.e. the two squirrels) seemed to vie with one another who should be most bold' (Thoreau, Journal, XIII, p. 189).

b. Blending of Superlative and Comparative. In comparisons where there is present the idea of a group or class, the superlative represents the group as complete, while the comparative represents the separation of one or more from all the others in the group. Hence we should say: 'His versification is by far the most perfect of all English poets,' or more perfect than that of any other English poet, but we should not blend the two forms, as in the most perfect of any English poet or the most perfect of all other English poets.

b. Advantages of the Analytic Forms. It should be noticed that in the old terminational form the sign of the degree is intimately associated with the stem, so that it is a mere suffix and can never be stressed. On the other hand, in the analytic form the sign of degree, more or most, is still an independent word and is often stressed. There are here two parts, one indicating the degree, the other the meaning. We here, as in 47 3 (1), (2), are fond of using the analytic form, since by means of it we can better shade our thought. We stress the adjective when we desire to emphasize the meaning, but stress the more or most when we desire to emphasize the idea of degree: 'She is more beautiful than her sister,' but 'She is indeed beautiful, but her sister is still more beautiful.' 'Of the sisters Mary is the most beautiful and Jane the most beloved,' but 'The sisters are all beautiful, but Mary is by far the most beautiful.'

c. Use of the ‘One’-Form in Different Degrees and Different Functions. The different degrees have different forms when used substantively (43 1), the form with one being for the most part required in the positive but often felt as unnecessary in the comparative and superlative. The comparative and the superlative of descriptive adjectives frequently do not need one, since in connection with the definite article, the degree ending, and the context they become in large measure limiting adjectives; i.e. they do not describe persons and things but point them out and thus
mark them so clearly as definite individuals that one is not necessary to indicate the grammatical relation: ‘Which of the two brothers did it?’ — ‘The younger’ or ‘The younger one.’ But in ‘the younger of the two brothers,’ ‘the youngest of the brothers,’ one is not usually felt as necessary. One, however, is now, in contrast to older usage, felt by most people as indispensable after the indefinite article, since the reference is not clear and definite: ‘This cord will not do; I need a stronger one.’ ‘I am not looking for a room today. I have just found a most comfortable one.’

There is also a difference of usage in different functions: ‘This cord is strong’ (predicate adjective) or a strong one (used substantively). ‘This cord is stronger’ (predicate adjective), or in substantive use the stronger or the stronger one, but always a stronger one. ‘This cord is strongest (predicate adjective) at this point,’ but in substantive use ‘This cord is the strongest,’ or the strongest one. ‘The lake is deepest (predicate adjective) at this point,’ but in substantive use ‘Of these lakes this one is the deepest,’ or ‘This lake is the deepest one,’ or simply the deepest. The pure predicate superlative represents the highest degree attained by a person or a thing as compared with himself or itself at different times, places, or under different circumstances: ‘The storm was most violent towards morning.’ ‘The lake is deepest here.’ ‘He is happiest when left alone.’ There is usually no the here before the superlative, but it is now creeping in, as explained in d below.

d. Predicate Superlative in Form of Adverbial Accusative or Prepositional Phrase. Instead of the pure predicate adjective superlative described in c (2nd par.) we sometimes employ in the predicate relation the adverbial accusative (71 1 a) of a noun made from the adjective superlative by placing the definite article the before it: ‘I doubt whether the actions of which we are the very proudest will not surprise us, when we trace them, as we shall one day, to their source’ (Thackeray, Pendennis, Ch. XXXI), instead of indeed proudest. ‘The rooks settle where the trees are the finest’ (Lytton, My Novel, I, Ch. V), instead of finest. ‘Of these specimens my friend is naturally the most proud’ (J. Conrad, A Set of Six), instead of most proud. ‘It was, perhaps, at this time that Mrs. Henry and I were the most uneasy’ (R. L. Stevenson), instead of most uneasy. This superlative is always used when it is modified by a restrictive relative clause: ‘On that day she looked the happiest that I had ever seen her,’ or often with suppressed relative pronoun: ‘Louise was sitting in a deep chair, looking the happiest [that] I had ever seen her’ (Mary Roberts Rinehart, The Circular Staircase, Ch. XXXIV). ‘On that day she looked the most beauti-
ful that I had ever seen her.’ As described in 71 2 a bb, this adverbial accusative is sometimes used with verbs as the superlative of the adverb, hence it is used also here in the predicate, just as adverbs in general are often used in the predicate with adjective force (8 a).

In the predicate instead of the simple superlative without the or the adverbial accusative of the superlative with the, we may use also a prepositional phrase (16 1 c) composed of at and the superlative modified by a possessive adjective: ‘The steps are at their steepest (or steepest, or the steepest) just here’ (F. M. Peard, Madame’s Granddaughter, p. 74). ‘She knew that she looked at her best in this attire’ (C. Garvice, Staunch as a Woman, p. 83). Similarly, as objective predicate: ‘She first saw the hill at its gayest when that brief, brilliant hour before autumn bedecked Cosdon’ (Phillpotts, The Beacon, I, Ch. VI). ‘In “Doctor Dick” we have the author at his most useful’ (Literary World, Apr. 19, 1895, p. 362). Sometimes the takes the place of a possessive here: ‘It was now sunset — the throng at the fullest’ (Lytton, What Will He Do with It? I, Ch. I).

e. Two Qualities of One Person or Thing Compared. In comparing two qualities of one person or thing we usually employ more: ‘She is more proud than vain.’ ‘He is more shy than unsocial.’ However, in the case of a few monosyllables, long, wide, thick, high, we still regularly employ the old simple comparative, usually with full clause form in the subordinate clause: ‘The wall was in some places thicker than it was high.’

f. Comparative of Gradation. To indicate that the quality increases or decreases at a fairly even rate we place ever before the comparative, or we repeat it: ‘The road got ever worse (or worse and worse) until there was none at all.’

g. Comparison of Other Parts of Speech Used as Adjectives. Here we usually employ more and most: ‘John is more in debt than I am.’ ‘She is more mother than wife.’ ‘Though the youngest among them, she was more woman than they.’ Where we feel a comparative more as a pronoun than as an adjective we say: ‘Charles was more of a gentleman than a king, and more of a wit than a gentleman.’ ‘Smith is more of a teacher than his brother.’

h. Comparative of Limiting Adjectives Not Used in Predicate. The comparative of limiting adjectives, inner, outer, former, latter, etc., cannot be used as a predicate followed by than, since, according to 43 2 (2nd par.), limiting adjectives do not indicate degrees, but merely point out individuals. The comparative older can, as a descriptive adjective, be used as a predicate; but elder
cannot be so used, for it is a limiting adjective: 'He is older (not elder) than I,' but 'This is the elder brother.'

i. Comparison of Compounds. We compare the first element of a compound where this is possible, usually employing the terminational form, but if the first element is a word that does not admit of this form we use more or most: 'the biggest-chested and longest-armed man I ever saw,' but 'This is the most up-to-date book I know.' Even if the first element admits of the terminational form, we employ more or most if the first element has fused with the other component so closely that it is not felt as a separate element with a separate function: well-known; better-known; but 'the more well-to-do tradesmen.'

Of course, we compare the last component if it contains the element capable of comparison, usually employing the form we should use if it were an independent word: bloodthirstier, blood-thirstiest; praiseworthyst, or most praiseworthy; etc.

B. Absolute Comparison:

a. Absolute Superlative. In all the preceding examples the degrees express superiority in a relative sense, some person or thing excelling all the members of a definite group in the possession of a certain quality, while in fact the higher or highest degree here may be a comparatively low degree: 'John is the taller of the two, the tallest of them all, but he is notwithstanding quite small.' We may in the case of the superlative, quite commonly, express superiority in an absolute sense, indicating a very high degree in and of itself, not necessarily, however, the very highest.

In lively style, we here often place unstressed most before the stressed positive of the adjective or participle: (relative superlative) 'It is the most lovely flower in the garden,' but in an absolute sense: 'He has the most beautiful of gardens.' 'Everything about the place tells of the most dainty order, the most exquisite cleanliness' (Mrs. Gaskell, Life of Charlotte Brontë, Ch. I). 'It was a most magnificent exhibition of courage.' 'We shall soon see George and his most beautiful wife.' 'Most lovely flowers everywhere greet the eye and most fragrant perfumes fill the air.' We can distinguish only by the stress 'Most réputable (absolute superlative) writers have now abandoned this claim' from 'Most (= the great majority of) reputable writers have abandoned this claim.'

Instead of the usual absolute superlative with most, we sometimes in the case of adjectives which admit of the terminational form employ the simple superlative, often drawling it out and stressing it: 'Oh, he made the ru-dest remark!' 'The letter did not meet with the wàrmest reception.' 'Thus he was perfectly rational,
though when others beheld him he appeared the *insânest* of mortals' (Meredith, Amazing Marriage, Ch. VI). 'I’m in the *bést* of health.' 'She is in the *bést* of company.' 'At all times her dress was of the *pôrêst.*' 'Humphrey’s ideas of time were always of the *váguest* order' (Florence Montgomery, Misunderstood, Ch. III). 'The letter was written in the *kindest* terms.' Besides such expressions we find this form sometimes, especially in our own time, when the superlative is modified by a limiting adjective, *my, any, every, each, no, some, certain,* etc., or, on the other hand, sometimes when it is entirely unmodified, especially in the case of abstract and plural nouns: 'my *dêarest* darling'; 'any *plânînest* man who reads this' (Trollope, Framley Parsonage, Ch. XIV); 'so completely did it fulfil *every fáînest* hope'; 'there is *no sêmallest* doubt.' 'It was perhaps on *some dárkest, mûddièst* afternoon of a London February' (Times Literary Supplement, June 9, 1918). 'A stronger lens reveals to you *cérêt* tînîest hairlets, which make vortices for these victims' (George Eliot, Middlemarch, I, Ch. VI). 'Michael and Guy left Oxford in the mellow time of an afternoon in *èárlièst* August' (Compton Mackenzie, Sinister Street, p. 760). 'I owed her *dêepest* gratitude’ (Elinor Glyn, Reflections of Ambrosine, III, Ch. V). 'Our friendship ripened into *clôèst* intimacy.' 'From *èárlièst* times.'

The most common way to express the absolute superlative is to place before the positive of the adjective a simple adverb, such as *very,* *exceedingly,* *highly,* *absolutely,* etc., or in colloquial speech *awfully,* *dreadfully,* *terribly,* *beastly,* etc., sometimes without the suffix *-ly,* as in the case of *awful,* even regularly so in the case of *real* (71 1; widely used in America), *mighty,* *jolly* (British colloquial for *very*), *devilish,* *damned,* *bloody* (British), *bally* (British), etc.: *very cold* weather; an *exceedingly intricate* problem; a *highly polished* society. 'I am *awfully* (sometimes *awful*) glad.' 'It’s *real* cold.' 'I’m *jolly* glad anyhow.' ‘It’s damned hot.’ Also *only too,* *simply too,* *just too,* and *just* are so used: ‘I shall be *ônly tôo glàd* if you accept my invitation.’ ‘It’s *simply tôo bôd* of him!’ ‘It’s *jût tôo àwful!*’ ‘It’s jût *splatênd!*’ In older English, *pure* was used with the meaning of *absolutely:* 'It is *pure* easy to follow god and serue hym in tyme of tranquylite' (Caxton, Chast. Goddes Chyld, 89, A.D. 1491). This usage is preserved in certain American dialects: 'Dey hides is *pure tough*’ (Julia Peterkin, Scarlet Sister Mary). Compare Syntax, 16 2 a.

b. Absolute Comparative. The absolute comparative is not as common as the absolute superlative: the *lower* classes; the *higher* classes; *higher* education; a *better-class* café; the *more complex* problems of life; ‘the mist, like a fleecy coverlet, hiding every *harsher* outline’ (H. Sutcliffe, Pam the Fiddler, Ch. I).
We usually place here before the positive of the adjective a simple adverb, such as tolerably, fairly, rather, etc.: a tolerably (or fairly, or rather) long walk; somewhat talkative; etc.

C. Comparison to Denote Degrees of Inferiority. Here we uniformly employ less and least: wise, less wise, least wise.

3. ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES USED AS NOUNS

In English more easily than in most languages a word can be converted, i.e. made into another part of speech. This usually takes place without any modification whatever, except, of course, the necessary change of inflection. Thus the noun eye is converted into a verb by merely giving it verbal inflection: ‘They eyed the prisoners with curiosity.’ As adjectives are now always uninflected, the conversion of nouns, adverbs, phrases, and sentences into adjectives is very easy. Compare 8 a. On the other hand, the conversion of adjectives into nouns is more difficult and irregular. In old English, adjectives, converted into nouns, often retained their old adjective form. In many cases this old usage survived even after the adjective endings had disappeared; in other cases the loss of the adjective endings brought about new forms of expression. The breakdown of the adjective inflection at the close of the Middle English period forced the English people, who are fond of short-cuts in language, to do something contrary to their nature — to go a roundabout way to express themselves. If we now say the good it can only mean that which is good, but in older English, according to the form of article, it could mean the good man, the good woman, the good thing. We now regularly use man, woman, and thing here, but there are numerous individual survivals of the older use of the simple adjective where the situation of itself without the help of the form of article or adjective makes the thought clear. Of persons: the deceased; the dear departed; my intended; the accused; the condemned; a lover clasping his fairest; my dearest (in direct address); etc. In a few cases a modern genitive form has been created: the Almighty’s strong arm; her betrothed’s sudden death; etc. A large number have a genitive singular in –’s and a plural in –s, since they have become established as regular nouns: a savage, genitive a savage’s, plural savages. Similarly, native, equal, superior, private, male, three-year-old, grown-up, Christian, criminal, red (anarchist), etc. ‘She is such a silly.’ ‘They are such sillies.’ ‘Our wets’ (opponents of prohibition) in Congress.’ (Arthur Brisbane, Jan. 1, 1932).

Alongside of modern plurals here in –s are a number of older plurals without an ending, which are the reduced forms of still
ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES AS NOUNS

older inflected forms: my own (i.e. my kindred); the rich; the poor; the really (adverb) poor; the seriously (adverb) wounded; the worst (adverb) wounded; the living and the dead; the blind; our wounded; 2000 homeless poor; a new host of workless walking the streets; four other accused; 2000 killed and wounded; rich and poor; old and young; big and little. These nouns usually have no case ending throughout the plural, taking the modern forms of inflection: the wounded; gave food and drink to the wounded; the friends of the wounded. The s-genitive is rare: ‘Always just the pausing of folks for the bit of offhand chat and then the hurrying away to their own dinner bells and their own’s voices, calling’ (Fannie Hurst, ‘White Apes,’ in Forum, Mar. 1924, p. 290).

These nouns without an ending in the plural have been preserved because in the competition between the old and the new plural in older English they became differentiated in meaning. They acquired collective force: ‘the poor of our city,’ but ‘the two poor men entering the gate’; ‘the state of the heathen and their hope of salvation,’ but ‘Smith and Jones are regular heathens.’ On account of the lack of a plural ending the old uninflected plural, however, is usually ambiguous, so that we often cannot use it at all. We may say ‘the poor of the South,’ but we must say ‘the blacks (or the black people) of the South,’ for the black now suggests a singular idea since it is sometimes used in the singular, thus now being felt as a noun: ‘“Fetch a light,” she said to the black who opened for us’ (S. Weir Mitchell, Hugh Wynne, Ch. XXVII). We say also ‘the whites of the South.’ The old form is thus in quite limited use. A pastor might say to his congregation ‘I urge old and young,’ but he could not say ‘I desire to meet after our service the young.’ He would say the young people. But we say ‘a picture of a willow-wren feeding its young’ (or young ones). In a broad sense the young is used also of human beings: ‘Men rode up every minute and joined us, while from each village the adventurous young ran afoot to enter our ranks’ (T. E. Lawrence, Revolt in the Desert, p. 303).

Since the names of some peoples have been made from adjectives, as the English, the French, the old uninflected adjective plural has become productive here, and is now used with many names of peoples: the Swiss (in older English Swisses), Portuguese (in older English Portugueses), Japanese, Chinese, etc. We sometimes use the same form for the singular just as we use ‘the deceased’ for the singular, but we avoid these singulars since we feel these forms as plurals and prefer to say ‘a Portuguese gentleman, lady,’ etc. In Chinaman, plural Chinamen or Chinese, we have, for singular and plural, forms which may become established. The singular
Chinee, a back-formation from the plural Chinese, is common in a
derogatory sense. We usually say 'three, four Chinamen,' but
'10,000 Chinese, the Chinese' (not the Chinamen, although in a
narrow sense we may say 'the Chinamen sitting on the bench
yonder'). The uninflected plural is especially common with the
names of uncivilized or less civilized peoples: the Iroquois, Navaho,
Hupa, Ojibwa, Omaha, Blackfoot, Duala, Bantu, Swahili, etc.
Here the same form is freely used also as a singular: a Blackfoot,
etc. We say the English, the French, or Englishmen, Frenchmen,
but in the singular only Englishman, Frenchman. Many other
words, however, may assume the new, more serviceable, type with
the genitive singular and the plural in -s: a German, a German's,
the Germans; an American, an American's, the Americans; a
Zulu, a Zulu's, the Zulus; and even many of those given above
with uninflected plural: an Omaha, an Omaha's, the Omahas.
The plural of Blackfoot is often Blackfeet.

In some cases we make nouns out of the substantive form
(43 1), i.e. the one-form: the Crucified One; the Evil One. 'He is
a queer one.' My dear ones; our little ones; my loved ones; the
great ones of earth, etc.

In a few cases nouns made from adjectives may drop the article
as in older English: 'My good lady made me proud as proud can
be' (Richardson, Pamela, III, 241). 'Eleven years old does this
sort of thing very easily' (De Morgan, Joseph Vance, Ch. XV).
'Sweet Seventeen is given to daydreams.' 'Slow and steady wins
the race.' 'For 'tis the eternal law That first in beauty should be
first in might' (Keats, Hyperion, II, 228). 'First come, first
served.' 'First come, first in.' In plain prose an article is usually
placed before the noun: 'He is strong for an eleven-year-old.' 'I
was the first one served.' 'We were the first ones served.'

Nouns made from adjectives often denote lifeless things, usually
with a meaning more or less general or indefinite. They are usually
preceded by the definite article or some other limiting adjective:
the present (= the present time); the beautiful; the sublime. 'You
ask the impossible.' 'He did his best.' As such forms, though now
employed as nouns, were originally adjectives, they still are often,
like adjectives, modified by adverbs: the genuinely lovable; the
relatively unknown; etc. There are still many neuter nouns made
from adjectives, but in older English the tendency to use them was
stronger than today. A number of these nouns have since been
replaced by other words: 'Let me enjoy my private' (Shakespeare,
Twelfth Night, III, ii, 99), now privacy. 'Whereat a sudden pale
(now paleness) . . . Usurps her cheeks' (id., Venus and Adonis,
589).
While the neuter nouns made from adjectives now usually have the definite article or some other limiting adjective before them, we still not infrequently find the older articleless form, especially in the case of two adjectives connected by and: 'I can spy already a strain of hard and headstrong in him' (Tennyson). 'That is good, but there is better to follow.' 'There is worse ahead.'

The modified or unmodified form has become fixed in many set expressions: in the dark; after dark; through thick and thin; from grave to gay; to keep to the right; to go to the bad; to go from bad to worse; to make short of long; the long and the short of it; before long. 'After frequent interchange of foul and fair' (Tennyson, Enoch Arden, 529). 'The police came up to see fair between both sides' (London Daily News, Mar. 11, 1891). 'That’s no fair' (common in the language of children).

A large number of neuters have become concrete nouns: German; Luther’s German; the German of the present time; my German; a daily (paper), pl. dailies; a weekly, pl. weeklies; the white of an egg, the whites of eggs. ‘They sent him a wireless.’ ‘He at last got in one with his left’ (left hand). ‘The combats between the moderates and the extreme left’ (more democratic section of European legislative chamber). ‘What is the good of lying?’ ‘It is no good trying to conceal it,’ but the plural goods has a much more concrete meaning. A large number are employed only in the plural: greens, woolens, tights, necessaries, movables, valuables, the Rockies, etc.

Most of the adjectives used as nouns in the examples given above are descriptive adjectives, but also some limiting adjectives are used as nouns: ‘He has lost his all.’ ‘He and his (7 VII e bb) are all well.’ ‘I wrote you the details in my last’ (= last letter). ‘He was successful from the first’ (= the beginning). Proper adjectives are often (10 8) limiting adjectives. They can, of course, be used also as nouns: a German; a German’s; the Germans; etc. The use of these adjectives as nouns is treated on page 195.

OLDER INFLECTIONS OF ADJECTIVES

44. An outline of older inflection is given below to indicate clearly what a great gain has come to English at this point in the direction of simplicity of expression.

A. Old English Inflection of Descriptive Adjectives. In Old English, there were two different types of descriptive adjective inflection — the strong and the weak. The strong type was the usual one for adjectives that were not modified by a limiting adjective: ‘bes mann is eald’ = ‘This man is old.’ ‘bes menn sindon ealde’ = ‘These men are old.’ The strong form was used also after one limiting adjective — the indefinite article.
The original meaning of the weak adjective was to point out a definite individual or definite individuals. It was used after limiting adjectives except the indefinite article: 'þes ealda mann' = 'this old man'; 'þas ealdan menn' = 'these old men.' The weak form was always used in the comparative, while the superlative could be inflected strong or weak, as in the case of the positive, but was usually weak. The comparative was formed by adding -r and the superlative by adding -ost or -est. To the comparative stem the regular weak endings were added, to the superlative stem the regular strong or weak endings. The following examples illustrate the inflectional changes for the nominative masculine singular in the different degrees of comparison: leof or leofa 'dear,' leofra 'dearer,' leofost or leofesta 'dearest'; eald or ealda 'old,' ieldra 'older,' ieldest or ieldesta 'oldest.' In Old English there were special endings for the different genders, cases, and numbers, as can be seen in the examples of inflection given below. Some adjectives, as in the case of eald, had a change of vowel in the comparative and the superlative. Elder, eldest, as in 'the elder, or eldest, brother,' are survivals of this older usage. Compare 43 2 A a aa.

The forms of the two Old English types of adjective inflection are illustrated below by the inflection of eald 'old':

1. **Strong Adjective**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>eald</td>
<td>eald</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>ealdne</td>
<td>ealde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>ealdum</td>
<td>ealdre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>ealdes</td>
<td>ealdre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instr.</strong></td>
<td>ealde</td>
<td>ealde</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   | **Plural** |        |        |
   | **Nom.**   | ealde   | ealda, -e |
   | **Acc.**   | ealde   | ealda, -e |
   | **Dat.**   | ealdum  | ealdum   |
   | **Gen.**   | ealdra  | ealdra   |

   The nominative of the feminine singular and the nominative and the accusative of the neuter plural in adjectives with a short stem end in -u or -o, as in the case of the corresponding nouns in 29 I B and C: blacu or blaco, nom. fem. sing. and nom. and acc. neut. pl. of blec 'black.'

2. **Weak Adjective**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>ealda</td>
<td>ealde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>ealdan</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>ealdan</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>ealdan</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B. Middle English Inflection of Descriptive Adjectives. In this period all adjectives became uninflected except monosyllables ending in a consonant, and they preserved but little of the old wealth of adjective form, as shown by the following inflection of old ‘old’:

1. **Strong Adjective**

   For All Genders

   **Singular**
   Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. old

   **Plural**
   Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. olde

2. **Weak Adjective**

   For All Genders

   **Singular**
   Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. olde

   **Plural**
   Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. olde

C. Older Inflection of Limiting Adjectives. In older English that and this had forms not only for number, but also for gender and case:

1. **Old English Inflection of ‘That’**

   **Singular**
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sē</td>
<td>sīo, sēo</td>
<td>bēt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bōne</td>
<td>bā</td>
<td>bēt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bām, bām</td>
<td>bāre</td>
<td>bām, bām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bās</td>
<td>bāre</td>
<td>bās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr. bū, bōn</td>
<td></td>
<td>bū, bōn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   **Plural**
   
   For All Genders
   
   Nom. bā
   Acc. bā
   Dat. bām, bām
   Gen. bāra, bāra
In Middle English, under the influence of the forms in the oblique cases, *sē* was replaced by *pe*, which by 1300 had everywhere developed into the uninflected definite article *the* and was replaced as a demonstrative by *that*. In the early part of the period, however, *that* was used not only as a demonstrative but also as a definite article for all genders, so that there were two definite articles, *the* and *that*. *That*, as definite article, was gradually replaced by *the*, but it survived for centuries before adjectives or pronouns beginning with a vowel, especially in the expressions *that one*, *that other = the one, the other*. *That other* in the contracted form *t'other* was still in wide literary use in the eighteenth century and survives in dialect. From 1300 on, the usual function of *that* was that of a singular demonstrative adjective and pronoun for all genders and cases.

The Old English plural *þā* became *þō* in Middle English. Alongside of it there was in common use another plural form — *thōs*, the Middle English form of Old English *þās*, plural of *‘this’*. As described in 2 below, *þōs* was brought into relation to *þō* by the sameness of vowel. The two forms were long used side by side with the same meaning until the gradual disappearance of *þō* in early Modern English and the final victory of *thōs* in the form of *those*. The Middle English plurals *þō* and *þōs* were used for all genders and cases.

The Old English neuter instrumental survives in adverbial *the*: *‘The more money he has, the more he wants.’* Compare 71 1 c.

**2. OLD ENGLISH INFLECTION OF ‘THIS’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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In Middle English, the neuter form *this* was early used as a singular for all genders and cases. The Old English plural *þēs* became in Middle English *þēs*. The Old English plural *þēs* developed in Middle English several variants, *þēs, theos, thēs*. The singular *this* was for a time employed also as a plural. Alongside of the plurals *þēs, þēs, this*, sprang up the new plurals *þēse, þāse, thīse*, which had been formed by adding the adjective plural ending *–e* to the plurals *þēs, þēs, and this*. All these plurals were used for all genders and cases. The plural *these* alone survives
in this meaning. The plural *thōs* gradually ceased to be felt as the plural of *this*, and was employed, as described in 1 above, as the plural of *that* alongside of the regular plural *tho*. *Thōs*, though originally the plural of *this*, was brought into relation to *thō*, the plural of *that*, by the sameness of vowel, being felt as a form of *thō*, a form with a distinct plural ending *–s* and for this reason finally replacing *thō* entirely. This could be brought about since *thōs* was not vividly felt as the plural of *this* and was not needed, for *this* had at that time other plurals besides *thōs*, as described above. Of the later spellings of *thōs*—*those, thoose, thoos*, and *thoes*—only *those* survives. In early Modern English the spellings *thees* and *theese* were used alongside of *these*.
CHAPTER XII

INFLECTION OF VERBS

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FORMS OF THE VERB

45. The English verb has forms called voices, moods, tenses, aspects, numbers, and persons, which represent the action suggested by the verb as limited in various ways, such as in person, number, time, manner of conception, etc. A verb that can be limited in all these ways is called a finite verb: I go, he goes, they go, he went, he may go, he might go, etc. The infinite forms of the verb — the participle (47 4), the infinitive (47 5), and the gerund (47 6) — are limited in fewer ways.

One of the marked features of the growth of English in the modern period is the amazing activity in the field of the verb. Not only entirely new structures have been reared but also new life has been injected into older creations that were living before only feebly.

VOICE

46. There are two voices, the active and the passive.

ACTIVE VOICE

47. The Six Forms and Their Uses. The active voice indicates that the subject does something, is, or is becoming, something. There are six forms, which fall into two groups. The forms of the first group — the common form, the expanded form, the do-form — are finite (45); the forms of the second group — the participle, the infinitive, the gerund — are infinite (45). The forms of the first group must agree with the subject in person and number (53 a):

- Our bird sings very little.
- Birds sing.
- The boat is sinking.
- The boats are sinking.
- I am sinking.
- Does he do his work well?
- Do they do their work well?

Finite verbs in present-day English are not so rich in endings as in the older periods, but they must agree with the subject whenever they can. The forms of the second group do not have inflectional endings, hence they can never indicate their agreement with the subject: Going (= As I was going) down the street I met a friend. Going (= As we were going) down the street we met some friends. I believe him to be (= that he is) honest. I believe them to be (= that they are) honest. After finishing (= After he finishes) his work he goes to bed. After finishing (= After they finish) their work they go to bed.

The infinite forms have fewer tenses than finite verbs, but they express the time relations fairly well. Participle and gerund lack forms for mood and aspect (52). They cannot express mood at all and can express progressive action only
in the perfect tense. See 69 B. The infinitive lacks forms for mood but has forms for the two aspects: ‘I expect him to work tomorrow.’ ‘I expect the engine to be working by this time tomorrow.’ ‘He is reported to have done it.’ ‘He is reported to have been playing there at that time.’ Compare the full inflection of verbs, 69 A, B. The finite forms can express finer shades of thought than the infinite forms as they are richer in means of expression, hence they must often be used; but the infinite forms are great favorites in practical life by reason of their handiness and are highly prized in choice language by reason of their elegant simplicity. The improvements that in the last five centuries have been gradually introduced into the infinite forms by making them clearer means of expression and by making it possible to use them more extensively show that the English people has appreciated their good qualities and intends to give them a wider place in its everyday speech. The infinite forms, however, are restricted to subordinate clauses. Here they compete with finite verbs, as shown in some of the examples given above. They do not differ from the finite forms in meaning. They are usually only convenient substitutes for them. On account of the great usefulness of the infinite forms they are treated with considerable care in this book.

A description of the six forms follows.

1. Common Form: ‘Mary makes good bread.’ ‘Mr. Smith is a banker.’ ‘I have just received good news.’ For full inflection see 69 A.

The common form has two distinct uses. (1) It expresses a general truth, a fact, a habitual act: ‘Water runs down hill.’ ‘Honesty pays.’ ‘He smokes.’ (2) It expresses a particular act: ‘I hear him coming up the stairs.’ ‘I see him coming up the street.’ Although the common form often expresses something general, as in (1), it often expresses something particular, as here. It always expresses an accomplished fact, but the fact is sometimes of a general nature, sometimes refers to a particular occurrence. The idea of a single particular occurrence is indicated not by some peculiarity of form but by the situation, as in these two examples. But sometimes the situation does not show that the act is a particular one. To make it perfectly clear that the act is a particular one, not general, we employ the expanded form, as illustrated in 2 b below.

As seen in the preceding paragraph, the common form has two quite different meanings. They are united, however, in a higher unity. Both meanings represent the act as a whole, as an accomplished fact. Thus the common form always has terminate force. Compare 52 1.
a. Pro-Verb ‘Do.’ To avoid the repetition of the common form of a verb that has just been mentioned we employ the pro-verb do in its stead: ‘He behaves better than you do,’ instead of behave. ‘We shall have a hard time of it if competition advances as it has done for several years.’ ‘He has never acted as he should have done.’

In colloquial speech has or have is often used elliptically for has done or have done: ‘It is very unkind of you to inconvenience us as you have.’

2. Expanded Form. It is made up of a form of the copula be and the present participle of the verb to be conjugated: ‘He is writing a letter.’ For full inflection see 69 B. The expanded form from its frequent use with progressive force, as described in a below, is often called ‘the progressive form.’ It has, however, sometimes still the meaning of the common form, as described in b below. In the Old English period, when it first, under the influence of church Latin, came into use, it was not differentiated in meaning from the common form. The present differentiation of the two forms is the result of hundreds of years of development. In Shakespeare’s day the expanded form was used as today but not so often and so regularly: ‘What do you read (now are you reading), my lord?’ (Hamlet, II, ii).

The expanded form, though now widely used, is not employed at all with the copula be if it is desired to impart progressive force. Thus we still say, as in older English, ‘I am sick,’ ‘I have been here a month,’ not ‘I am being sick,’ ‘I have been being here a month.’ The expanded form of the copula be always has terminate force. See b below.

The expanded form as used today has two quite different meanings.

a. With Progressive Force. The expanded form usually represents an act as going on: ‘He is working in the garden.’ There is thus usually an idea of progression or continuance associated with this form. Hence with such a verb as know we cannot use it at all, for know denotes a fact, something complete within itself, not something uncompleted that is still going on: ‘I have known (not have been knowing) him for ten years.’ Similarly we say, ‘I hear (not am hearing, for the act of perception is completed) him coming up the stairs.’ On the other hand, the expanded form cannot be employed with verbs denoting a condition, state, even though the idea of continuance is prominent, for it is generally restricted in its use to verbs denoting action: ‘I have been (not have been being) sick all week.’ We use the common form here. Such verbs as sit, lie, stand, remain, however, are thought of as
acts, not conditions, for we can prolong the acts at will: ‘He has been sitting on the porch for an hour.’ Of course, there are acts beyond the power of our will, such as rain, snow, thunder, perspire, etc. It is here self-evident that these are acts of nature. With all verbs denoting acts the particular phase of the progression is indicated by the meaning of the verb or verbal phrase. With duratives (52 2 a) the expanded form represents the subject as in the midst of the action: ‘He is working in the garden.’ With iteratives (52 2 b) this form represents the subject as in the midst of action that is often repeated: ‘The clock is ticking.’ ‘The girls are giggling.’ With ingressives (52 2 c) it represents progression towards the beginning of an act or state, i.e. a preparing to, a tending to, the initial stage to: ‘It is going to rain.’ ‘Look out! I am going to shoot.’ ‘I am getting tired.’ ‘The baby was waking up as I entered.’ With effectives (52 2 c) the expanded form indicates that the action is progressing toward, is approaching an end: ‘The lake is drying up.’ ‘His strength is giving out.’ Compare 52 2 c.

The progressive idea was once expressed by the common form, which, however, was used also with its present meaning. The introduction of the expanded form to express progressive force was a great improvement of English expression. Compare 52 1.

b. WITH TERMINATE FORCE. The expanded form often represents the act as a whole, hence it has terminate (52 1) force: ‘I am sorry you doubt my statement. I am telling you the truth.’ The common form, ‘I tell the truth,’ could not be used here, for its meaning, as in (1) in 1 (2nd par.) above, is so general that it is not felt as suitable for reference to this particular case. The action here is not represented as going on. The reference is to an act as a whole. We must thus often employ the expanded form to indicate that the statement is not general but refers to a particular case. It must not be inferred, however, that the common form cannot be used for reference to a particular case. It often indicates a particular act, as illustrated in (2) in 1 (2nd par.) above. Usually in such cases the situation makes it clear that the reference is to a particular act: ‘I hear him coming up the stairs.’ ‘I demand that you go at once.’ But when the situation does not make it perfectly clear that the reference is to a particular act we employ the expanded form: ‘I know that I am demanding a good deal of you when I ask this of you, but I hope that you will do it.’ Thus though the expanded form is often not employed to indicate a particular act it always stands ready for service when the common form is not a clear means of expression. We have been so often told that we should associate the expanded form with progressive
force that we have overlooked the fact that it often has terminate force, i.e. indicates an act or state as a whole, as a fact. The expanded form of the copula be is always terminate: ‘Perhaps I am being a fool, dearest one. I will go up to my music-room and play myself into reason and leave you to your own work’ (Charles Morgan, The Fountain, p. 289). The expanded form refers to the particular moment in question.

The expanded form with terminate force is often associated with our inner convictions and feelings so that statements having this form contain a strong personal element expressing emphasis or feeling: ‘When Elizabeth put Ballard and Babington to death she was not persecuting’ (Macaulay, Essays). ‘Somebody has been tampering with my alarm clock!’ The references here are to particular cases, but the expanded form with terminate force often refers also to a general fact imparting likewise emphasis and feeling: ‘A rich man who spends his money thoughtfully is serving (much more emphatic than serves) his country as nobly as anybody’ (Milne, Mr. Pym Passes By, p. 10). ‘You are helping me, darling. You are being an angel’ (Noel Coward, The Vortex). ‘John is doing fine work at school’ (spoken in tone of praise). ‘John has been neglecting his work recently!’ (vexation). ‘You children are always getting in my way when I am at work’ (scolding). ‘Our vacation is almost over. We shall soon be having to go down to the old shop every morning’ (unpleasant thought). The lively tone associated with the terminate expanded form makes this form peculiarly suitable for use in descriptive style: ‘We are tramping over the hills and reading and writing and having a restful time’ (Jean Webster, Daddy-Long-Legs, p. 225).

The terminate force of the expanded form is very old. It was in use in the Old English period. It is probably the oldest meaning of the form. Throughout the centuries progressive force has been becoming more and more associated with this form, but the old terminate force is still often found with it, as seen in the above examples.

3. ‘Do’-Form. In the present and the past tense of verbs of complete predication the simple verb is often replaced by a periphrastic form made up of do and a dependent infinitive: ‘Thus conscience does make (= makes) cowards of us all’ (Shakespeare), originally ‘causes a making of cowards out of us all.’ At first, do was a full verb with an infinitive as object. Later, it lost its concrete force and became a mere periphrastic auxiliary. In older English, as in the example from Shakespeare, there was usually no clear difference of meaning between the simple and the periphrastic form. This periphrastic form with do was rare in Old English, but
it began to become common in the fourteenth century and was at its height between 1500 and 1700. After the periphrastic and the simple form had long been used interchangeably, a desire for more accurate expression led to a differentiation of their meaning, as described in detail below. Present usage became fixed about 1750, but with certain verbs the old simple forms lingered on even in plain prose long after they had elsewhere passed away, indeed here and there linger still, especially in set expressions, as if I mistake not, I care not, I doubt not, I know not, what say you? what think you? etc. Of course, the poet makes still more liberal use of the old forms when it suits his purpose. In popular speech there is a tendency to employ the do-form with the copula be in declarative sentences, which is contrary to literary usage: 'Some days she do be awful about her food' (Dorothy Gerard, _The Eternal Woman_, Ch. XV).

In plain prose we now employ _do_ in the following categories:

1. In the present and the past tense of a verb of complete predication accented _do_ stands in a question, a declarative statement, or an entreaty where there is a desire to emphasize the idea of actuality, the truthfulness of a claim, realization or a desire of realization: 'Didn't he work?' 'Did he work?' 'Does he cheat?' 'I still maintain that you didn't do it.' — 'But I did do it.' 'Why don't you work?' — 'I do work.' 'I am so happy to learn that you dó intend to come.' — 'My dear, you did (painful realization) tread on my toe.' — 'I didn't mean,' muttered Soames' (Galsworthy, _Swan Song_, Part II, Ch. II). 'Do finish your work' (desire of realization).

2. Unaccented _do_ is used in the present and the past tense in declarative sentences with inverted word-order and in entreaties and questions in which there is no desire present to emphasize the idea of actuality: 'Never did I see such a sight.' 'Bitterly did we repent our decision.' 'Do finish your work.' 'Does he believe it?' 'How's (= how does) it strike you?' (Jack London, _The Sea-Wolf_, Ch. VII). 'What's he say?' 'What did he answer?'

The old simple forms are now used in questions only when the subject is an interrogative pronoun: 'Who met you?' In older English, the simple forms could be used also when some other word was subject: 'Discern'st thou aught in that?' (Shakespeare, _Othello_, III, iii, 101). The old simple forms are still used for archaic effect in historical novels: 'Saw you ever the like?' (Wallace, _Ben Hur_, Ch. X). Also in certain dialects, as in Scotch English, the old simple forms are still used: 'What paid ye for't?' (George Macdonald, _Robert Falconer_, Ch. XXI). The older simple form survives widely in the literary language in the case of _have_,
especially in England: ‘Have you swordfish?’ alongside of the more common do-form, ‘Do you have swordfish?’ The old simple form is still often, especially in England, employed with used: ‘Used you, or did you use, to do such things?’ In indirect questions the old simple form is preserved with all verbs: ‘When did you come back?’ but ‘I asked him when he came back.’

(3) Do is employed also in the negative form of questions, declarative statements, and commands when simple not is the negative, but only in the present and past tense of verbs of complete predication. It is therefore not employed in the case of the copula be, the tense auxiliaries, the modal auxiliaries can, must, etc., the auxiliary-like verb ought, often also the auxiliary-like verbs need, dare, used, which, however, may take do; usually also not in the case of have in unemphatic statements: ‘Doesn’t he live here?’ but ‘Isn’t he here?’ ‘I do not often forgét it,’ but ‘I must not forget it.’ ‘I do not go home till eight,’ but either ‘I need not go home till eight’ or ‘I do not need to go home till eight.’ ‘She dared not tell (or to tell) him,’ or ‘She did not dare tell (or to tell) him.’ ‘He did not use, or used not, to smoke,’ or colloquially ‘He didn’t use, or usedn’t (usen’t), to smoke,’ where Americans prefer the do-forms, Britishers the simple form. In America and England both constructions are often blended in colloquial and popular speech: ‘I didn’t used to mind your embarrassing me’ (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, last Ch.). ‘I didn’t used’ (Gepp, Essex Dialect, p. 120). Usage fluctuates with have, often even in the same sentence: ‘I haven’t or don’t have, it with me,’ but in emphatic statement ‘I do not have it with me,’ where, however, in colloquial speech we may employ also the form without do: ‘You have it with you.’ — ‘I háven’t.’ In commands and entreaties: ‘Don’t touch me!’ ‘Dón’t you touch me!’ ‘Don’t have a thing to do with him!’ ‘Dón’t go yet!’ In negative commands and in positive and negative entreaties do is used also with the copula be, as do has become associated with negative commands and both positive and negative entreaties: ‘Don’t be láte!’ ‘Dón’t you be late!’ ‘Dó be reason­able!’ ‘Dón’t be unreasonable!’ In popular speech do is used also elsewhere with be: ‘Now boy, why don’t you be pelrite and get up and give one of these young ladies a seat?’ (Punch).

Although in negative statements the old simple forms have disappeared from simple prose, the charm of the beautiful older simplicity often asserts itself in the language of our better moments: ‘We cannot do wrong to others with impunity. Our conscience rests not until the wrong be righted.’

(4) In our popular southern American English the do-form is used also in the present perfect tense, as in older Scotch English:
(Syntax, 6 A d): 'I [have] done tell you 'bout Brer Rabbit makin' 'im a steeple' (Joel Chandler Harris, *Nights with Uncle Remus*, p. 97). The dependent infinitive following the past participle *done* is often attracted into the form of the past participle: 'I 'speck I [have] done tole (instead of tell) you 'bout dat.' (ib., p. 97).

4. Participial Form. The forms of the participle are given in 69 and 70. The time relations expressed by them are described in 56 1 d, 65 a, and 70 A a. The participle often has full verbal force and at the same time performs the function and has the position of an adjective. It is used in subordinate clauses as predicate or as predicate appositive. Predicate in adjective relative clauses: 'The boy *playing (= who is playing)* in the yard is my brother.' 'His last novel, *written (= which was written)* in 1925, is his best.' 'He is a man *broken (= who has been broken)* by misfortune.' It is very common as objective predicate (8, 4th par.): 'I see him *working* in his garden.' It has here progressive (52 2) force. To express terminate (52 1) force, i.e. the idea of an action as a whole, as a fact, we must employ the infinitive as objective predicate: 'He said he didn't do it, but I saw him do it.' In adverbial clauses the participle often stands as a predicate appositive (8, 5th par.) alongside of the predicate or near it, modifying it as to some relation of time, manner, attendant circumstance, cause, condition, concession, purpose. Time: 'Going (= As I was going) down town I met an old friend.' 'Having finished (= After I had finished) my work I went to bed.' Manner (an unusually common category in English): 'I beat him *jumping* (indicating manner, respect in which he excelled). 'He was (= was busy) two years *writing* the book.' 'Are you through *asking* questions?' Attendant circumstance: 'He was drowned *bathing* in the river.' Cause: 'I feel it as a rare occasion *occurring (= since it occurs)* as it does only once in many years.' 'Feeling (= Since I feel) tired I'll stay at home.' 'I was proud of him *acting (= since he acted)* so unselfishly.' Condition: 'The same thing, *happening (= if it should happen)* in wartime, would amount to disaster.' Concession: 'Even *assuming (= Though we assume)* a great willingness on the part of our members to work, we are not properly prepared for the task.' Purpose: 'He went *fishing* (= that he might fish). Other examples are given in 15 2 b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j.

The subject of the participle is usually not expressed within the participial clause. It is implied in some noun or pronoun near by to which the participle as a predicate or predicate appositive adjective belongs. The subject of the participle is expressed only in the nominative absolute (27 1 a, 3rd par.) construction: 'Off we started, *he remaining (= while he remained)* behind.' The use of
the different forms of the participle in the nominative absolute construction is illustrated in 15 2 b, c, d, f, h, i, 18 B 1. On the other hand, the participle often has no subject expressed or implied — the dangling (or unrelated) participle. This construction is usually censured by grammarians, but on account of its easy formation it is in wide use and is even approved natural English expression wherever the reference is quite general and indefinite: 'Generally speaking (= If one may speak in a general sense), boys are a nuisance.' 'So how could I have stolen him from her, even supposing (= if one should suppose) I had the slightest desire to' (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, Ch. XIX).

The participial form was little used in Old English with the full force of a verb. Later in Middle English, under the influence of church Latin, it came into wider use with this force. Little by little it has become a powerful construction, a general favorite by reason of its convenience and forcible terseness.

5. **Infinitival Form.** The forms of the infinitive are given in 69 and 70. The time relations expressed by them are described in 56 1 d, 65 a, and 47 5 b. The infinitive was originally a verbal noun. It was often used as the object of the preposition to, and this older usage survives in many expressions. Preposition and infinitive together form a prepositional object, which is used to complete the meaning of a verb, adjective, or participle: 'Hunger drove him to steal' or to stealing. 'I finally induced him to do it.' 'He is eager to do it.' 'He is inclined to take offense easily.' Compare 16 1 b.

The to before the infinitive, however, is now usually a conjunction rather than a preposition. It is now for the most part a mere formal introduction to the infinitive clause just as that is often a mere formal introduction to the full clause with a finite verb. The infinitive itself is the verbal predicate in the subordinate clause in which it stands. It is now widely used in subordinate clauses. Adjective relative clause (8 b, 18 B 6): 'John is the boy to do it' (= who should do it). 'That is the thing for you to do' (= that you should do).Attributive substantive clause (18 B 2): 'His desire to succeed (= that he should succeed) spurred him on.' 'It is time for you to begin your work' (= that you should begin your work). Subject clause (18 B 1): 'It is stupid of you to say it' (= that you say it). Object clause (18 B 3): 'I hope to see him today' (= that I may see him today). Adverbial clause: 'I am going early so as (or in order) to get a good seat' (clause of purpose = so that I may get a good seat). Adverbial infinitive clauses of different kinds are given in 15 2 c, d, f, g, h, i, j.

As shown in the examples just given the infinitive clause is an
equivalent of the full clause with a finite verb. As it is usually felt as an easier way of talking, it is a favorite in colloquial speech; but by reason of its elegant simplicity it is much used also in more formal language.

The expression here is often elliptical: 'I shall go to the celebration tomorrow, or at least I am planning to [go].'

For the split infinitive see 14 (3rd par.).

a. SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE. The subject of the infinitive is often not expressed in the clause, but is some noun or pronoun performing some function in the principal proposition and at the same time serving as the subject of the infinitive: 'He desires to go at once' (= He desires that he may go at once). Here he, the subject of the principal verb, serves also as the subject of the infinitive.

The infinitive construction often has the force of a relative clause. The subject of the infinitive is the noun or pronoun that precedes it: 'This road car is the latest to be offered to the public' (= which has been offered). 'He has an ax to grind' (= which he wants to grind). 'The king has no children to succeed him on the throne' (= who can succeed him).

In 'She gave him (dative) to understand that he should not come back again' him, the dative object of the principal verb, is also subject of the infinitive. Likewise in the two following examples: 'I told him (dative) where to find it' (= where he could find it). 'I taught him (dative) how to do it.' In the passive the infinitive is retained: 'He was told how to do it.'

In 'I am depending upon him to do it' him is the object of the preposition upon and serves at the same time as the subject of the infinitive.

The subject of the infinitive is most commonly an accusative, which serves as the object of the principal verb and as the subject of the infinitive: 'He begged me (accusative) to go at once.'

After verbs of permitting, allowing, commanding, and ordering the dative object serves also as the subject of the infinitive: 'I permitted her to take the books out of the library.' 'I ordered him to bring in the prisoners.' When the infinitive is put into passive form its former accusative object becomes its new accusative subject: 'I permitted them (i.e. the books) to be taken out of the library.' 'I ordered them (i.e. the prisoners) to be brought in.'

The infinitive with an accusative subject has its simple form after let, bid, make, have (cause, experience), see, notice, look at, observe, perceive, watch, feel, hear, overhear, listen to: 'Bid him come in.' 'I had him do it yesterday.' 'I had the gypsies steal my hens.' 'I saw him do it.' 'Look at him run!' 'I heard (or 'overheard') him say it.' Compare Syntax, 15 III 2 B. In the passive
statement the infinitive is retained, but it takes to: 'He was heard to say it.' 'He was seen to do it.'

The accusative is used as the subject of the infinitive after another, quite different group of verbs, namely, want, wish, desire, like, know, think, believe, suspect, suppose, take (= suppose), imagine, expect, declare, report, represent, reveal, find, prove, etc. The infinitive here arose in the objective predicate (8, 4th par.) construction: 'She wishes him happy.' 'She wished him here.' 'I imagined him a respectable man.' 'I can't imagine anyone in better health.' 'They represented me as having forsaken my former principles.' Here an adjective, adverb, noun, prepositional phrase, or a participle is predicated of the preceding object without the aid of the linking verb be, as is usual in this construction, but there is a natural modern tendency to employ the linking verb here as elsewhere: 'She wished him to be here.' 'I know him as an honest man or him to be an honest man.' 'I thought, supposed him to be the owner of the house.' 'He thought, supposed Richard to be me' (27 2 c). 'I took him to be nearer sixty than fifty.' 'They report him to be very sick.' Likewise in the passive: 'She wished the rubbish removed or the rubbish to be removed.' The old objective predicate construction without the linking verb be, as in the last example, is still common in the passive.

In the objective predicate construction the predicate is not only an adjective, adverb, noun, prepositional phrase, or participle, but now also an infinitive: 'She wishes him here with her' or him to stay with her. 'His father wants him to give more time to his studies.' 'She reports him as improving or him to be improving.'

When the subject of the infinitive is general or indefinite, it is often not expressed: 'It is wise to be cautious' (= that one should be cautious).

In Old English the subject of the infinitive was never in native expression formally expressed, but was merely implied in some word in the principal proposition, as in all the examples in the first six paragraphs. The construction was widely felt as very handy, but it could not be used where there was no word in the principal proposition which might serve as its subject. In the fourteenth century arose the desire to extend the use of the construction. The infinitive began to be used with a subject of its own if there was no word in the principal proposition that could serve as its subject. This subject is always preceded by the preposition for. The history and explanation of this for is given in Syntax, 21 e. Though most people know nothing of the origin of this for everybody feels clearly that it must stand before the subject of the infinitive. This new construction occurs most commonly in the subject clause
and in adverbial clauses, much less commonly in object clauses: 'For me to back out now (subject clause) would be to acknowledge that I am afraid.' 'All that I want is for somebody to be thinking about me' (Arnold Bennett, The Glimpse) = that somebody should be thinking about me (subject clause). 'He was too near for me to avoid him' (adverbial clause of result). 'I know how deeply she must have offended you for you to speak like that' (adverbial clause of cause). 'I should be glad for Mary to go' (adverbial clause of condition). 'I see no way out of the difficulty except for them to offer an apology' (adverbial clause of exception). 'There was nothing now but for him and the footman to get into the carriage' (adverbial clause of purpose). 'All that I want is for somebody to be thinking about me' (subject clause). 'He was too near for me to avoid him' (adverbial clause of result). 'I know how deeply she must have offended you for you to speak like that' (adverbial clause of cause). 'I should be glad for Mary to go' (adverbial clause of condition). 'I see no way out of the difficulty except for them to offer an apology' (adverbial clause of exception). 'There was nothing now but for him and the footman to get into the carriage' (adverbial clause of purpose). 'I hope for the book to make its mark' (Meredith, Letters, p. 550) (object clause). It is common as object of an adjective: 'I am eager for her to see it.'

b. Use of the Tenses of Infinitive after Full Verb. The tenses of the infinitive express time relative to that of the principal verb. The present tense indicates time contemporaneous or future with reference to that of the principal verb: 'I wish to do it.' 'He was foolish to do it,' not usually now as in older English 'He was foolish to have done it.' 'I managed to do it without his help' (I did it without his help). Of course, the present infinitive refers to the past after the annalistic present (51), for the annalistic present itself refers to the past: 'This is the fourth case of lockjaw to occur (i.e. that has occurred) within a week.'

The perfect tense of the infinitive indicates time prior to that of the principal verb: 'I am proud to have been able to help.' 'It gives recreation a better relish to have first accomplished something.' To indicate non-realization many still say 'I intended to have written a line to you,' a survival of older usage. As the perfect infinitive, according to present usage, points to time prior to that of the principal verb, it does not now express here the idea intended. Hence it is now more common in the literary language to say: 'I had intended to write a line to you.' 'He would have liked to have hugged his father' (Hughes, Tom Brown's School-Days, I, Ch. IV) is now usually replaced by 'He would have liked to hug his father.'

The use of the tenses of the infinitive after modal auxiliaries is treated in 50 2 d (next to last par.).

6. Gerundial Form. The forms of the gerund are given in 69 and 70. The time relations expressed by them are described in 56 1 d, 65 a, and 47 6 b. The present participle now has the same form as the gerund. This unfortunate development is described in 56 4 e. Although the gerund is not differentiated from the
present participle in form, it is distinguished by its function. While the participle has the function and the position of an adjective, the gerund has the function and the position of a noun: ‘Rearing a large family is no easy task.’ Here rearing has the full force of a verb, but at the same time it has the function of a noun, for it is the subject of the sentence. A sentence with a subject clause often begins with anticipatory it and closes with a gerundial clause as logical subject: ‘It is no use (predicate) your saying anything about it.’ Compare 18 B 1 (3rd par.). In ‘I like working out my own problems’ working has the full force of a verb, but at the same time it has the function of a noun, for it is the object of the principal verb. Thus the gerund is widely used in subject and object clauses. See 18 B 1 (3rd par.) and 18 B 3 (last par.).

One of the most common functions of the gerund is to serve as the object of a preposition. Preposition and gerund together form a prepositional clause, which modifies a verb, adjective, participle, or noun. Such a prepositional clause is of course an adjective element if it modifies a noun: ‘his disappointment over attaining so little.’ If the prepositional clause modifies a verb, adjective, or participle it is an object if its relation to the governing word is very close, but it is an adverbial element if its relation to its governing word is less close. Prepositional clause as object: ‘Hunger drove him to stealing’ or to steal. ‘He insisted upon his wife’s joining him in the deceit.’ ‘I am afraid of their seeing it.’ ‘I am accustomed to doing (or to do) it this way.’ Adverbial prepositional clause: ‘After finishing my work (clause of time) I went to bed.’ ‘He differed from his colleagues in spending his spare time in reading’ (clause of manner). ‘He never passed people without greeting them’ or without their greeting him (clauses of attendant circumstance). ‘I have gone as far as collecting statistics for my investigation’ (clause of extent). ‘I can’t do anything for thinking of her’ (clause of cause). ‘He can’t walk yet without my helping him’ (clause of condition). ‘I didn’t come with the object of destroying the good feeling prevailing among you’ (clause of purpose).

The gerund, as a noun, often follows a noun in the capacity of a modifying genitive: ‘In the language of scholars the art of speaking simply is almost a lost art.’

The gerund, as a noun, can stand in apposition to a preceding noun: ‘I now have very pleasant work, preparing boys for college.’

As a noun the gerund often forms the first component of a compound: baking-powder, ironing-board, dining-car, drinking-water, sleeping-quarters. A present participle in the same position is distinguished from the gerund by its adjective force and its weaker stress: sleeping children.
a. Subject of Gerund. In Old English the subject of the gerund was always in the genitive, the subjective (27 4 A a) genitive, for the subject of a verbal noun was regularly in the genitive. In general this rule still holds for verbal nouns: ‘man’s love of fairness.’ We often still employ as the subject of the gerund a genitive or a possessive adjective, which historically is an old genitive: ‘I am provoked at John’s (or his, her, your, their) treating him so rudely.’ In contrast to usage with other verbal nouns the genitive subject of our modern gerund with the force of a full verb is always an s-genitive, never an of-genitive. For centuries the English people has been growing ever fonder of the handy, forcible gerund. As soon as it became a favorite means of expression widely used, there arose a serious formal difficulty, which had to be overcome. To the ear the singular and the plural of the s-genitive sound alike. The natural impulse to speak so as to be understood led to an improvement of English expression here. A simple means of removing the difficulty suggested itself. It soon became common to employ an accusative as subject instead of the genitive, for the accusative always distinguishes singular and plural by the form: ‘I don’t approve of my son (sing.), or my sons (pl.), doing that.’ There is a natural inclination to avoid the s-genitive of a noun denoting a lifeless thing. Rather than use the queer obsolete s-genitive here most people prefer to employ an accusative subject: ‘You better not depend on this address reaching me but address c/o Guaranty’ (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, Ch. XIX). There are a large number of uninflected pronouns that have no s-genitive. Of course we have here no choice. We must employ an accusative: ‘Some families may have moved away on account of the repeated failure of crops, but I do not know of any having done so.’ If there is after the subject of the gerund a modifier of any kind the accusative is now always used as subject: ‘Did you ever hear of a man (never man’s) of good sense refusing such an offer?’ Enough has been said to explain the wide use of the accusative today as subject of the gerund. The question is discussed more in detail in Syntax, 50 3. In one group of pronouns, however, the genitive is still preferred — the old genitives my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their: ‘The fact of his (or her, their) being convicted so promptly is gratifying.’ On the other hand, the gerund often has no subject of its own, as there is elsewhere in the sentence a noun or pronoun which is felt not only as performing its own function but as serving also as the subject of the gerund: ‘I am afraid of hurting his feelings.’

b. Origin of Gerund. The gerund was originally a verbal noun. Its object was in the genitive, like that of any other verbal
noun, as in ‘the persecution of the early Christians.’ This old construction is still common: ‘The shooting of birds (genitive object) is forbidden.’ ‘I don’t like his trusting of the secret to his friends.’ The gerund, like every other verbal noun, can take an article or a possessive adjective before it, as in these examples. The article or possessive adjective, however, disappears when the verbal force of the gerund becomes strong, and the genitive object is replaced by an accusative object, as required by verbs: ‘Shooting birds is useless.’ This is the verbal construction that has been treated above. ‘This verbal force has become so strong that, since 1500, forms for tense and voice have been gradually coming into ever wider use: ‘After having finished my work I went to bed.’ ‘The fact of his being (or having been) convicted so promptly is gratifying.’ Though the gerund now often has the full force of a verb and can, like a verb, take an accusative object, it does not, like a verb, take a nominative subject. Just as every verbal noun has a genitive subject, as in ‘a man’s love of fairness,’ so may the gerund often still take a genitive subject, as in the early period when it was a mere verbal noun. Examples are given in \textit{a}. Moreover, the gerund always has its original construction, i.e. it is still always a noun — the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

**Passive Voice**

48. Meaning and Use. The passive voice represents the subject as acted upon: ‘John was punished for disobeying his mother.’ ‘Our house is being painted.’ Only transitives (12 1) can form a passive. Some transitives, however, on account of their meaning do not readily take passive form, especially certain verbs in 12 1 (2nd and 3rd parr.).

The passive is a favorite form of expression in English. See 7 VII c \textit{bb} for a peculiar feature of our language that has contributed to the spread of the passive.

49. Formation of the Passive. The active verb is often a simple form, but the passive is always a compound. It is made in the following ways, of which the forms in 1, 2, 3, 4 are finite, those in 5 infinite (45).

1. Common Actional Passive Form. The common literary form is made by combining some form of the copula \textit{be} with the past participle: ‘The house \textit{is painted} every year.’ ‘The house \textit{was painted} last year.’ ‘The house \textit{has just been painted}.’ In early Modern English, \textit{is} is often used instead of \textit{has been}: ‘Besides I met Lord Bigot and Lord Salisbury, With eyes as red as newly kindled fire, And others more, going to seek the grave Of Arthur
whom they say is (now has been) kill'd tonight On your suggestion' (Shakespeare, King John, IV, ii, 162). In this older English the participle had not only the force of a predicate adjective expressing a state, as in 'The house is painted,' but also the force of a passive verb pointing to the past, as in the example from Shakespeare. The common actional passive form represents the act as a whole, as a fact, hence it has terminate (52 1) force. Although it always represents the act as a whole, as a fact, it has two quite different meanings. It indicates a single occurrence or a customary, habitual occurrence, the context alone deciding which of the two meanings is present. Single occurrence: 'The attitude of the community is well described in today's issue of our local paper.' 'Our house was painted last month.' Customary occurrence: 'Our house is painted every two years.' 'The end of the struggle is nearly always that the public is conceded everything.' For full inflection see 70 A.

To represent the beginning or the end of the occurrence as a fact we place the simple form of begin or cease before the passive infinitive: 'Our house has begun to be painted.' 'This oil well has ceased to be worked.' If we desire to represent a progressive action as just starting or as approaching an end we must employ the expanded form, as explained below in 3 a (last par.).

2. New Passive Actional Forms. Within the modern period have sprung up several valuable new passive forms.

a. 'Get'-Passive. The common actional form is employed also as a statal passive, i.e. to express a state: 'The door was shut (state) at six, but I don't know when it was shut' (act). This is explained by the simple fact that in our copula be are merged two quite different verbs — is and be. Be had effective (52 2 c) force with the meaning of our modern effectives get and become. The modern forms of be still often have their old effective force: 'The door was (= got or became) shut at six.' Effective be indicates an act, but unfortunately be does not always have this meaning. It more commonly indicates a state, retaining the old meaning of is. Compare 52 3. We still have a certain feeling for both meanings of the forms of be, but the matter is not vividly clear to us, and there has arisen a widely felt desire to express ourselves more clearly. There is a strong drift in England and America to employ be to denote a state and use effective get to denote an act: 'He is married (state) now, but I can't tell you when he got married' (act).

'Your nature is an overbearing one, Sophia, and for once you got punished for it' (A. Marshall, Many Junes, Ch. I). 'The men say: "Good stunt, Mont! But not practical politics, of course." And I've only one answer: Things as big got done in the war'
COME-TO'-PASSIVE, 'GET-TO'-PASSIVE

(Galsworthy, *The Silver Spoon*, Ch. VII). 'I suppose it will get whispered about, and they'll hear it' (Tarkington, *Gentle Julia*, Ch. XVIII).

b. 'BECOME'-PASSIVE. This form is made by combining some form of become with the past participle: 'Beatrice became more and more influenced by Randal's arguments' (Lytton, *My Novel*, II, II, Ch. III). *Get* and *become* as effectives (52 2 c) have in general the same meaning, but in passive constructions they are becoming differentiated. The *get*-passive denotes a simple act, as illustrated in a, while the *become*-passive represents the occurrence as the final outcome of a development: 'Good and readable as these addresses are, we should like to see those which deal with these larger topics gathered into a single smaller volume, which at a modern price might become widely read by the people of both countries' (*London Times*, Educational Supplement, A.D. 1914). 'He became seized with a profound melancholy' (McCarthy, *History of Our Own Times*, I, p. 228). 'For the first time the immensity of what she was doing became borne in upon her' (Dorothea Gerard, *Exotic Martha*, Ch. V). This is the youngest of the passive constructions, but has already on account of its fine distinctive meaning become common. It is strange that it has been overlooked by grammarians. It is not mentioned even in the great *Oxford Dictionary*. The first example and the last two are taken from Poutsma's large English Grammar, II, Section II, p. 100. This Dutch scholar quotes these interesting sentences as examples of English passive formations, but he does not describe their peculiar character.

As *become* is used here in the common form it represents the development as a fact. If we desire to represent the development as approaching its culmination we employ the expanded form, as explained below in 3 b.

c. 'COME-TO'-PASSIVE, 'GET-TO'-PASSIVE. This passive is made by combining some form of *come* or *get* with a passive infinitive: 'He came (or got) to be highly respected by everybody in the community.' The *get*-to passive is not so choice English as the *come*-to passive, and moreover it becomes impossible in the present perfect tense on account of the ambiguity of the form: 'He has come (not got) to be treated more kindly by his associates.' *Has got* here would indicate that the speaker is determined to bring about a better treatment of the person in question. After *come* we sometimes employ the past participle instead of the present passive infinitive: 'I can now tie my shoes so that they won't come untied,' instead of won't come to be untied. This construction is after the analogy of 'It comes true' (52 2 c).
The *come-to*-passive is sharply differentiated from the *become-*passive: ‘He used to be so hard-headed, but he has gradually *come to be influenced* by his wife. Evidently, he has *become softened* by gentleness and kindness.’ Both constructions indicate the end of a development or the outcome of events. *Become* directs our attention only to the final outcome, while *come to* points also to the preceding course of events. In ‘O’Connell *became seized with a profound melancholy* *became* cannot be replaced by *came to be*, for the reference is to a sudden development.

As *come* and *get* are used here in the common form they represent the development as a fact. If we desire to represent the development as approaching its culmination we employ the expanded form as explained below in 3 b.

d. Passive of Experience. There is another passive, which, though it did not absolutely arise in the present period, first became common in modern times. It is now widely employed in colloquial speech and is found also in the literary language. It represents the subject of the sentence as experiencing something. In this peculiar construction there is always a past participle with passive force. This participle serves as an objective predicate, predicking something of the object of the principal verb, which is regularly *have* or *get*: ‘Last week I *had* (or *got*) my right leg *hurt* in an accident.’ ‘I have just *had* (or *got*) *given* me (or ‘to me’) a fine new knife.’ In more careful language the usual auxiliary is *have*: ‘In life I *have had this truth repeatedly driven in on me.’ ‘In this grammar the spoken language *has had its proper importance assigned to it.*

e. Passive after Causatives. The construction is the same as in d, but *have* and *get* are here stressed: ‘I *hâd* (or *gôt*) a new suit made.’ ‘We *hâve* our work *done*’ (We employ others to do it), but with quite different meaning ‘We *have our work dône*’ (It is done, completed). Thus accent can play a rôle in English grammar.

3. Expanded Form. The expanded form has different meanings with different kinds of verbs.

a. With Duratives and Iteratives. With duratives (52 2 a) and iteratives (52 2 b), we employ the expanded form of the copula *be* in connection with the past participle to indicate that the subject is receiving the action continuously and that the attention is directed to the midst of the action: ‘The bread *is being baked* in the new oven.’ ‘He is *being beaten* by some ruffians.’ Here the common form of the copula *be* represents the action as going on, but the common form of another copula, even though it have strong durative force, represents the action, not as going on, but
as a whole, as a fact: 'For a long while she kept being disturbed by her conscience.' 'She kept being startled by the stump of his missing finger' (Robert Raynolds, *The Brothers in the West*, p. 15). Compare 52 2 a. The passive expanded form with the copula be is used only in the present and the past tense. In other tenses, on account of the clumsiness of the form, it is replaced by the shorter form described in the next paragraph. For full inflection of the two forms as now used in the literary language see 70 B.

There is another expanded passive form than the one described above. It was widely employed between 1700 and 1825, and in the literary language is still in limited use in the present and the past tense and is the usual literary construction for the present perfect, past perfect, and future. It is made by combining a form of the copula be with the present participle, which here contains the passive idea, although elsewhere it usually has active force: 'There is a new bridge building.' This construction first appeared about the middle of the sixteenth century. It gradually replaced in the literary language the much older gerundial construction, 'There is a new bridge a-building,' from older on building, in building. The contracted form a-building survives in popular speech, like many other older literary means of expression.

It does not seem probable that the passive construction 'There is a new bridge building' developed entirely of itself. There was alongside of it, from the start, an older passive with the same construction, i.e. active in form but passive in meaning. It represented something as going on of itself as a natural process or development: 'The heel of my right shoe is wearing badly on the outer side.' 'There is a storm brewing.' 'There is mischief brewing.' See 4 on page 222 for other examples of this passive. It is a marked peculiarity of our language that intransitives develop passive force. Compare 12 2 (last par.). The presence of this passive must have facilitated the establishment of the passive 'There is a new bridge building.'

The passive 'There is a new bridge building' was after 1825 to have a serious competing construction in another passive form, which first appeared about 1447 and was thus a century older but had not yet made much headway: 'There is a new bridge being built.' The present and past tenses, is being built, was being built, though heavier than is building, was building, were felt as clearer passive forms and gradually came into favor and for the most part supplanted the shorter forms. But on account of the impossibility of such clumsy forms as has been being built, had been being built, will be being built, the longer passive construction has not become established in the present perfect, past perfect, and
future. On account of the clumsy combination of be being the longer construction cannot be used also in the present infinitive. On account of these formal difficulties in the way of the long construction the shorter present perfect, past perfect, and future forms — has been building, had been building, will be building — have been retained. In our colloquial speech is a still younger form, which is both handy and accurate. It is made by combining get and the past participle. It can form all the tenses: ‘A new bridge is getting built, was getting built, has been getting built,’ etc. As the literary language has no form in the present infinitive the get-passive is now used here: ‘It is, however, an excellent thing that bicycles should be getting called simply wheels’ (Abercrombie, Poetry and Contemporary Speech). The expanded get-passive may later become more useful in the literary language.

To express the idea of the beginning or end of progressive action with duratives we place the expanded form of begin or cease before the passive infinitive: ‘This paper is beginning to be widely read.’ ‘The village was greatly excited over the murder, but the subject is now ceasing to be discussed.’

6. WITH POINT-ACTION VERBS. With point-action verbs (52 2c) we employ the expanded form to indicate a beginning or an approaching end: ‘The work is just being (or getting) started.’ ‘The last bit of our patience is being (or getting) exhausted.’ The passive constructions described in 2 b, c above become progressive effectives (52 2 c) when they have the expanded form: ‘Our patience is becoming exhausted by these constant annoyances.’ ‘This paper is becoming widely read by the people of this community.’ ‘He is coming (or getting) to be highly respected by everybody.’ The development is here represented as culminating.

4. Passive Force with Active Form. Many intransitives which represent something as going on of itself as a natural process or development acquire passive force: ‘The hat blew (= was blown) into the river.’ ‘Muscles, nerves, mind, reason, all develop (= are developed) under play.’ ‘My coat caught (= got caught) on a nail.’ ‘The plans worked out (= were worked out) successfully.’ ‘The books sold out (= were sold out) in a week.’ ‘The vessel steers (= can be steered) with ease.’ Compare 12 2 (last par.).

The expanded form is used with many of these verbs to express the progressive idea: ‘The plans are working out successfully.’ ‘The books are selling rapidly.’ ‘Snow is blowing in at the window.’ This passive has not shared the fate of the passive construction of the same form described in 3 a above: ‘The bridge is building,’ now supplanted by the more expressive ‘The bridge is being built.’ We say is being built when we think of something being constructed.
by visible human hands, but we say 'The lecture hall is rapidly filling up with students and townspeople' and 'Snow is blowing in at the window' because we think of something proceeding of itself, i.e. spontaneously, naturally, without the aid of the conscious effort of hand or brain. The two shades of passive thought were not differentiated in form in early modern English but are now clearly distinguished by the form of expression.

There is another common construction in which the verb usually has passive force with active form. In older English a predicate infinitive after the copula be had passive force with active form. Only a few expressions survive in the principal proposition: 'This house is to let' (= is to be let). 'He is to blame' (= is to be blamed). In abridged relative clauses this old usage is still common: 'He is not a man to trifle with' (= that can be trifled with). 'It is not a place to visit (= that should be visited) at night.' For fuller treatment see Syntax, 7 D 2, p. 47.

5. Infinite Passive Forms. The passive participial, infinitival, and gerundial forms are given in 70. These forms are widely used in subordinate clauses: 'His last novel, written (= which was written) in 1925, is his best.' 'Frightened (= As he was frightened) by the strange sound he halted.' 'Being oppressed (= As I am oppressed) by financial troubles I am not enjoying life much.' 'We are expecting him to get punished (= that he will get punished) for it.' 'After becoming discouraged (= After he had become discouraged) by so much misfortune, he gave up entirely.' 'Having come to be treated (= As he had come to be treated) more kindly by his associates, he found life easier.' 'Having had (= After I had had) my chickens stolen twice, I took greater precautions to save them.' Compare 47 4, 5, 6.

MOOD

50. Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker.

There are three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact. A fact: 'The sun rises every morning.' In a close relation to reality: 'I shall not go if it rains.' The indicative rains here does not state that it is raining, but indicates that the idea of rain is not a mere conception, but something close to a reality, for the speaker feels it as an actual problem in his day's program with which he has to reckon and is reckoning.
The complete inflection of the indicative is given in 69 and 70.

2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive form — the old simple subjunctive and the newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used. The complete inflection of the simple subjunctive is given in 69 and 70. The forms of the modal auxiliaries are found in 57 4. A brief treatment of the meaning of the subjunctive forms and the use of the subjunctive tenses follows. They are discussed in detail in Syntax, 41–44.

The function of the subjunctive is to represent something, not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought; sometimes with more or less hope of realization, or, in the case of a statement, with more or less belief; sometimes with little or no hope or faith. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopefulness, likelihood, while the past and the past perfect subjunctive indicate doubt, unlikelihood, unreality, modesty, politeness: ‘I desire that he go at once.’ ‘May he return soon.’ ‘O that he were alive and could see the fruits of his labor.’ ‘I would buy it if I had the money.’ ‘I fear he may come too late.’ ‘I am becoming worried; he might come too late.’ ‘I would have bought it if I had had the money.’ ‘I should think it rather unfair.’ ‘You should go at once.’

The various meanings may be classified under two general heads — the optative subjunctive and the potential subjunctive. The optative subjunctive represents something as desired, demanded, or required (by a person or by circumstances). The potential subjunctive marks something as a mere conception of the mind, but at the same time represents it as something that may probably or possibly be or become a reality or on the other hand as something that is contrary to fact. The optative subjunctive is often closely related in meaning to the imperative.

In the four following articles sentences will be given to illustrate the two principal meanings of the subjunctive and the use of the subjunctive tenses.

a. Optative Subjunctive. Examples: ‘Part we in friendship from your land!’ (Scott, Marmion, 6, 13) now with the auxiliary let: ‘Let us part in friendship!’ ‘Everybody stand up!’ or with the auxiliary let: ‘Let everybody stand up!’ For stronger expression of will we use must: ‘We must go!’ Also have to and in colloquial speech have got to: ‘I insist on it. You have (or have got) to do it,’ or ‘You must do it.’ ‘We have to (or must) sell our house’ (constraint of circumstances). To indicate the will of the speaker we often use will in the first person and in questions also in the second person, but in declarative statements employ shall in the second and third
persons: ‘I will do all I can’ (promise). ‘I won’t have you children playing in my study.’ ‘Won’t you sit down?’ (kind in tone). ‘You shall have some cake’ (promise). ‘You shall smart for it’ (threat). ‘You shall do as I say.’ ‘You should go at once’ is polite, while ‘You shall go at once!’ is stern. ‘We should hurry!’ (admonition). ‘You should mind your own business!’ (polite in form, but stern in tone).

Moral constraint: ‘We ought to (or should) do something to help him.’ Ideal constraint, i.e. fitness and expediency: ‘She ought to (or should) be praised for that.’ ‘A liar ought to (or should) have a good memory.’ We often employ is to, are to, here: ‘Such women are to be admired.’ Is to, are to, here and elsewhere are as clearly modal forms as are the so-called modal auxiliaries shall, should, etc. In expressions of will we often employ is to, are to: ‘You are always to shut the door when you come in.’ This form also represents something as planned: ‘He is to go soon.’ ‘He is to be promoted soon.’

In permissions may is the usual auxiliary: ‘You may play until noon.’ ‘Rooms may not be subrented.’ In colloquial speech can is widely used in negative form: ‘Children, you cannot (or must not) play in the street.’ Also in figurative use: ‘Society cannot disown its debts.’ (J. Arthur Thompson, What Is Man? p. 218.)

In wishing we use the simple subjunctive in a few expressions, but we now for the most part employ auxiliaries: ‘The Lord have mercy on us!’ ‘God bless you!’ ‘May you see many happy returns of this occasion!’ ‘Too late! O might I see her just once more!’

The past subjunctive is much used in modest expressions of desire: ‘I would rather stay than go.’ ‘He would like to go,’ but ‘I should like to go,’ for in the first person would expresses desire and its use here would be tautological, as this idea is contained in like. ‘Would you tell me the time, please?’ ‘You might call at the baker’s and get some bread.’ Instead of the past subjunctive would with the infinitive we sometimes use the past subjunctive had with the infinitive: ‘I had rather stay than go.’

Shall, is to, are to, represent something as the inevitable outcome of events: ‘Better days are soon to (or shall soon) follow.’

The optative subjunctive can of course be used also in subordinate clauses: ‘I beg that I may go, too.’ ‘I require that you be back by ten.’ ‘She insisted that he accept and, indeed, take her with him.’ ‘Though he may make (concession) every effort he cannot succeed.’ ‘Even though he might make (concession) every effort he could not succeed.’ ‘I am now going down to Garden City and New York till the President send for me; or if he do not
send for me, I'm going to his house and sit on his front steps till he come out!' (Walter H. Page, Letter to Irwin Laughlin, August, 1916). 'Is she going to keep a lonely vigil till that time shall come?' 'You should be kept at work until you finished it.' 'I locked myself into my study that I might (purpose) not be disturbed.' 'What this country needs now more than it ever did before, what it shall (or is to) need the years following is knowledge and enlightenment.' (Woodrow Wilson, Dec. 9, 1902).

b. Potential Subjunctive. Examples: 'It may rain today.' 'It might rain today.' 'We can (stronger than may) expect opposition from vested interests.' 'Could he have meant it?' 'I should think it rather unfair' (modest statement). 'That would have been rather difficult' (modest statement). 'He could easily do it.' 'Eclipse (horse) ought to (or should) win.' 'You must (or should) be aware of this' (inferred or presumed certainty). 'You must (or should) have been aware of this.' The past subjunctive had with a dependent infinitive is often used to express a statement modestly: 'He had better go' (— He should regard going as better).

The potential subjunctive is common also in subordinate clauses: 'It is not impossible that he may change his plans.' 'I have heard that he may return soon.'

The potential subjunctive often occurs in conditional sentences. It is least common when the reference is to the immediate future: 'We shall all be sorry if it rains tomorrow.' As in this sentence, the indicative is the usual form here. The simple subjunctive was once common here and is still sometimes found in choice literary expression: 'If he confess (more commonly confesses) I shall overlook the offence.' Similarly when the reference is to the immediate past: 'Such an impression is bound to be dissipated if one stay (more commonly stays) long enough to love the land, and if one have (more commonly has) come in the first place remembering that the Master lived a human life amid commonplace surroundings' (Harry Emerson Fosdick, A Pilgrimage to Palestine, Ch. VIII). If the reference is to the future outcome of events the shall-subjunctive is still sometimes used, as in older English: 'If you shall fail to understand What England is . . . On you will come the curse of all the land' (Tennyson).

When future events present themselves to our mind in only a vague, indefinite way we employ a past subjunctive in the condition: 'If we missed (or should miss or were to miss, indicating decreasing grades of probability) the train we should (67 1, 3rd par.) have to wait an hour at the station.' 'If he missed (or should miss or were to miss) the train he would (67 1, 3rd par.) have to wait an hour at the station.' 'If I missed (or should miss, or were to miss)
the train I would (671, 3rd par.) come back and try it again tomorrow.'

When the condition is contrary to fact we employ the past or past perfect subjunctive in the condition: 'If he were here I would speak to him.' 'If he had been here I would have spoken to him.' 'If Father were here and saw this we should have to suffer.' 'If they had have (or a or of) said (instead of the correct had said; see Syntax, 493b, 3rd par.) so, you'd a sat and listened to them.'

The potential subjunctive is common in conditional sentences, as in all the above examples, but the optative subjunctive is also used here, especially after provided and on condition (that): 'She was granted a year's probation on condition she send (or should send) her son to school.'

The potential subjunctive is often used of actual facts, as the abstract conception, the principle involved, is more prominent in the mind than the concrete fact: 'That many men should enjoy it does not make it better' (Matthew Arnold, Essay on Keats). 'It seemed incredible that one so young should have done so much' (William B. Maxwell, Gabrielle).

c. Old Simple Subjunctive. In looking over the examples of the optative and the potential subjunctive in a and b above, it will become apparent that the old simple form does not occur so often as the newer form with a modal auxiliary. The latter by virtue of its finer shades of meaning has gained the ascendancy in both literary and colloquial language. The old simple form, however, as older forms in general, is still highly prized in elevated diction for its peculiar effect. Although its use is not now for the most part common in colloquial speech, the simple past tense is still widely used there in the subordinate clause where the idea of unreality is prominent, i.e. where the idea of a future act presents itself to the mind in only a vague indefinite manner or where a condition is contrary to fact or a wish is impossible of fulfillment: 'Even if he said (optative subj.) it himself (concessive clause), I shouldn't believe it.' 'If he struck (potential subj.) me (conditional clause), I would strike him.' 'If I had (potential subj.) the money (condition contrary to fact), I would buy it.' 'O that he were alive and could see the fruits of his labor!' The present tense of the old simple optative subjunctive is still common only in a principal proposition with an indefinite subject and in a subordinate concessive clause after a strong expression of will or in a subordinate concessive clause that has the form of a principal proposition: 'Everybody stand up!' 'I demand, insist that he do it at once!' 'Sink [I] or swim [I], I shall undertake it.' 'Detest [we] him as we may, we must acknowledge his greatness.' Elsewhere the old
simple optative subjunctive survives in normal English only in set expressions: 'Long live the King!' 'God bless you!'

Except in the case of the verb be the simple past subjunctive and the past indicative are identical in form; but they are not confused, for the past indicative points to the past and, according to d, the past subjunctive points to the future: 'He struck (past indic.) me yesterday.' 'If he struck (past subj., pointing to the future) me, I'd strike him.'

d. Use of the Tenses of the Subjunctive. The two groups of tenses employed in the subjunctive — the present tense forms (present, present perfect, or will, may, or shall with a dependent infinitive) and the past tense forms (past, past perfect, or would, might, or should with a dependent infinitive) — stand out in general quite distinctly from each other. The different tenses within each group mark different distinctions of time, while the tenses of one group as compared with those of the other group do not mark different distinctions of time, but differ only in the manner in which they represent the statement. Thus the present and the past subjunctive both denote present or future time, but they usually differ in the manner of the statement, the past tense indicating a greater improbability, or even unreality: 'If there be a misunderstanding between them, I don't know of it,' but 'If there were a misunderstanding between them, I should know of it.' 'If it rain, I'll not go,' but 'If it were to rain, I wouldn't go.' Likewise the present perfect and the past perfect subjunctive both denote past time, but differ in the manner of the statement: 'I ask that every man of any standing in Rome be brought to trial even if he have remained (a quite probable case) neutral' (Masefield, *Pompey the Great*, Act II). 'Even if he had been (contrary to fact) here, I should have said the same thing.' We feel the distinctions of manner today most vividly in the auxiliaries. Will, may, shall, on the one hand, and would, might, should, on the other hand, all represent present or future time, but the two groups differ markedly in the manner in which they represent the thought: 'I am hoping that he may come this evening,' but 'I think he might come this evening but I am not expecting him.'

In oldest English, when there were only two tenses, the present and the past, the past subjunctive, like the past indicative, pointed to the past, differing from it only in that it represented the act as a mere conception or as contrary to reality. It is sometimes still employed for reference to the past where it is desired to represent something not as a concrete reality but as conceivable, as probably occurring: 'If it were so, it was a grievous fault' (Shakespeare, *Julius Caesar*, III, ii, 84). 'If ever poet were a master of
phrasing, he (Tennyson) was so’ (A. C. Bradley, *Commentary on Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,'* Ch. VI). ‘No Thanksgiving dinner was quite complete unless there were a baby on hand belonging to some branch of the family’ (George F. Hoar, *Autobiography,* I, 57). In Old English the past subjunctive was still used for reference to the past to express unreality. This old usage still lingers in a limited way: ‘I would have denied it if I could’ (Hope, *Dolly Dialogues, 25*). The context here makes the thought clear. Now when it is desired to express unreality the past perfect is the usual subjunctive form for reference to the past: ‘I would have denied it if I had been able to do so.’ As the modal auxiliaries, however, are defective verbs that have never had a past perfect subjunctive, we have to employ here another means to express unreality when the reference is to the past, namely, the past subjunctive of the auxiliary in connection with a dependent perfect infinitive: ‘He might have succeeded if he had tried’ (past perfect subjunctive). Similarly, the present tense subjunctive forms of these auxiliaries with their implication of greater probability may be used for reference to the past if they are associated with a perfect infinitive: ‘The train may have arrived by this time.’

As shown in the first paragraph of this article the tense of the subjunctive employed is a point of vital importance. Unfortunately, however, this feeling for the meaning of the subjunctive tenses is only active after a present tense form (present, present perfect, future). After a past tense it is destroyed by our law of the sequence of tenses, which requires a past tense to be followed by a past tense: ‘I am hoping that he may come this evening,’ but ‘I was hoping that he might come that evening.’ Here might does not have the usual force of a past subjunctive, for it is a present subjunctive that has been attracted into the form of a past tense after a past tense.

3. **Imperative Mood.** This form is the mood of command, request, admonition, supplication, entreaty, warning, prohibition. It now has many forms. One of them, the simple imperative, is one of the oldest forms of our language: *Go! Run!*

The old simple forms of the imperative are given in 69 and 70.

With the simple imperative the subject was expressed in older English: ‘Enter ye in at the strait gate . . . because strait is the gate and narrow is the way’ (*Matthew, VII, 13*). We do not usually express the subject today, but it must stand when we desire to indicate a contrast—now with the subject before the imperative: ‘I don’t know what to say. Norah, *you* go!’ The subject is expressed also in lively language to indicate that the person addressed should take an interest in something, or that it is intended for his
good or for his discomfiture, or that it should concern or not concern him especially: 'You mark my words. He won't do it.' 'He's not an unpleasant fellow at all.' — 'Just you get better acquainted with him and see!' 'You follow my advice and don't go!' 'You leave that alone!'

Negative commands are expressed by the form with unstressed do: 'Don't talk so loud!' In older English the simple form was used here. This older usage survives with the adverb never: 'Never mention it again!' In poetry it occurs also elsewhere: 'Tell me not in mournful numbers . . .'.

The form with do is often employed in entreaties and as an emphatic prohibition or a negative entreaty, here usually with stressed do: 'Dó go, please!' 'Dón't go!' 'Dón't you do that!' 'Dón't you forget!'

The simple optative subjunctive is used in a number of expressions as a mild imperative: 'Everybody stand up!' 'What do you say we black our faces and give a little party, now the guests will be asleep?' (Anderson and Stallings, Three American Plays, p. 69). 'Say [we] what we will, he doesn't mind us.' 'Cost [it] what it may, I shall buy it.' More commonly with the auxiliary let: 'Let him come in!' In pleading tone: 'Dó let's come to an understanding!' Negative form of let-form: 'Let's not dó that!' In pleading tone: 'Dón't let us do that!' In colloquial speech the negative is often don't instead of not: 'Let's don't be serious, George. Let's tálk of something pleasant' (Tarkington, The Magnificent Ambersons, Ch. XVII). 'Let's don't do anything of the kind!' (P. G. Wodehouse, The Coming of Bill, Ch. VII).

We often employ the imperative of the expanded form (47 2): 'Up, be doing everywhere, the hour of crisis has verily come!' (Carlyle, Latter-Day Pamphlets, 28). In colloquial speech get takes the place of be: 'Get going!' The indicative of the expanded form is common in commands: 'You sit down! You're not going yet!

We often employ modal auxiliaries, which are subjunctive forms: 'You can't do that! You shán't do it. By God you shán't!' (Clemence Dane, Legend, p. 173). 'Positively, you shall not do that again!' or in kinder tone 'You should not do that again.' 'You must behave!'

We employ the future indicative when we desire to speak courteously and at the same time indicate that we are confidently expecting that our wish will be fulfilled: 'Heads of departments will submit their estimates before January first.'

In lively language, expression is often terse, since the situation makes the thought clear, so that nouns, adverbs, prepositional phrases, etc., serve as imperatives: 'The salt, please!' 'All
TENSE

51. Tenses are the different forms which a verb assumes to indicate the time of the action or state. There are six tenses, present, past, present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect: I return (present), returned (past), have returned (present perfect), had returned (past perfect), shall return (future), shall have returned (future perfect). For formation see 55–70.

There were in oldest English only two tenses in general use — the present and the past. These two forms performed the functions of the six tenses we have today. With the rising culture of the Old English period new forms arose to relieve the present and the past of some of their functions.

The present functions of our six tenses are fairly well defined by their names — present, past, present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect.

Only the present tense is loaded with functions. It represents the act as going on: ‘He is writing.’ ‘He is playing.’ It represents an act as habitual, customary, repeated, characteristic: ‘I live in Chicago.’ ‘I call on him whenever I go to town.’ ‘He sings beautifully.’ It expresses a general truth: ‘Twice two is four.’ It is used as a historical present bringing historical events vividly before us: ‘Lincoln stands with bowed head. He looks up and begins to speak. It is evident that he is under the sway of a strong emotion.’ Similar to the historical present is the annalistic present, which registers historical facts as matters of present interest: ‘It is not till the close of the Old English period that Scandinavian words appear. Even late Northumbrian (of about 970) is entirely free from Scandinavian influence’ (Sweet, New English Grammar, p. 216). The present tense is still, as in Old English, widely used to point to the future: ‘The ship sails tomorrow.’ ‘We are waiting till he comes.’
In 65 b are some remarks upon characteristic differences in meaning between the present perfect and the past.

The meaning and use of our tenses are described in detail in *Syntax, 37.*

**ASPECT**

52. It is a marked characteristic of our language that we usually — almost always — must indicate the aspect of an act, i.e. we must almost always indicate whether the act is thought of as a whole, a fact, or, on the other hand, as going on, as continuing. Hence there are two aspects. Each aspect has six tenses. Thus in our language tense is subordinated to aspect. The six tenses of each aspect indicate the time relations of the aspect.

In the following articles the form of the two aspects and their use are treated, also the meanings of the component elements of the forms.

1. **Terminate Aspect.** This aspect represents the act as a whole, as a fact. It is usually expressed by the common form of the verb: 'He shot a duck.' 'He wrote a letter.' 'I see him coming up the road.' 'I write a letter every day.' 'Our clock ticks too loudly.' 'He wakes up early every morning.' 'We have no scraps in our house. We eat up everything every meal.' 'He will go tomorrow.'

In this aspect the action is always thought of as completed, now or in the past or in the future, for it is represented as a whole, as a fact. Thus it stands in contrast to the second of our aspects, the progressive (2 below), which represents the act as going on.

The terminate aspect has become closely associated in English with the common form of the verb. In oldest English the common form was used also to express progression. In the Old English period under the influence of church Latin the expanded form came into use. At first it had the same meaning as the common form. Later it gradually acquired progressive force and relieved the common form of this function. Gradually the common form was restricted to terminate use — one of the most important developments in the history of our language. Thus it has become possible in English to indicate an action as a whole — something impossible in many languages.

Although the common form always has terminate force, it has two quite different meanings. It expresses a general or a particular fact: 'Lead sinks' (general fact). 'I see him coming' (particular act). The situation makes it clear in the second example that the act is a particular one and not general. Sometimes the situation does not make it clear that the act is a particular one. In this case we must employ the expanded form to bring out this
idea: ‘In honoring him you are honoring yourself.’ ‘You are exaggerating!’ (directed to the person addressed after he had made a rash statement). If the speaker had said in the second example ‘You exaggerate’ it might have been interpreted as a general statement, not a reference to a particular occasion as it really was. The expanded form shows that the reference is to a particular case. The situation or context alone marks this expanded form as terminate. Otherwise it cannot be distinguished from the expanded form with progressive force. Compare 47 2 a. This expanded form with terminate force is often associated with emphasis and feeling. Examples are given in 47 2 b (2nd par.).

2. Progressive Aspect. This aspect represents the action as progressing, proceeding, hence as not ended. It is expressed by the expanded form (47 2). This form is used also with verbs like sit, lie, stand, remain, etc., to express the similar idea of continuation. Compare 47 2 a. The progressive action naturally falls into three classes on the basis of the meaning of the verb or verbal phrase.

a. With Durative Verbs. Such verbs express duration. To express progression we employ the expanded form (47 2). The scene is laid in the midst of the activity, which is still progressing, proceeding: ‘He is working in the garden.’ ‘He is plowing corn.’ ‘Several books are lying on the table.’ The idea of duration may be contained in a verb and yet some other idea may overshadow it: ‘He kept working until he was tired.’ The verb work has strong durative force, but the common form kept indicates clearly that the sentence is a statement of fact, the report of an occurrence in its entirety. It is not represented as going on, as unfinished. Even in ‘He is very tired, but he keeps on working’ our attention is not directed to an action going on, but to the persistency of the person at work. The common form of the verb always expresses an act as a whole, as a fact. Here it calls attention to the fact of persistency on the part of the person at work. To indicate that the action is actually going on we employ the expanded (47 2) form: ‘He is working in the garden.’ The different tenses of the expanded form are used to indicate the different time relations: ‘He was working in his garden when I drove by.’ ‘He has been working in his garden all day.’ ‘You find me at work, and I shall probably be still working when you return.’ Notice that with the present perfect tense, as in the next to the last example, the action is represented as still going on.

It should, however, be noted that the expanded form does not always express duration. It expresses duration only with verbs whose meaning is durative. Compare 47 2 a.
The common form of a durative has terminate force, i.e. denotes an action as a whole, as a fact: ‘He works in his garden every day.’

b. With Iterative Verbs. Such verbs express repetition, iteration. To express progression we employ the expanded form: ‘He is haw-hawing again.’ ‘The fire is crackling on the hearth.’ ‘Leaves are dropping from the trees.’ The idea of duration is closely related to that of iteration. In ‘He has been working on this book for several years’ the first impression is that of duration, but in the exact sense the expression is iterative, for the work was often interrupted.

The common form of such verbs of course has terminate force: ‘The clock is ticking’ (progressive iterative), but ‘A clock ticks (terminate iterative) louder than a watch.’ ‘I have been trying and trying (progressive iterative), but have not succeeded yet,’ but ‘I have tried and tried (terminate iterative), but have not succeeded.’ Only the terminate common form is employed with used and would: ‘They used (as tense found only in the past) to nod to each other when they met, and now and then they would exchange a word or two.’ But both terminate and progressive forms are employed with the participle accustomed: ‘I am accustomed (terminate) to do promptly what I have to do.’ ‘I become easily accustomed (terminate) to do promptly what I have to do.’ ‘I am becoming accustomed (progressive) to do promptly what I have to do.’ Instead of accustomed we may employ used or wont (60 B): ‘I am used (or wont) to do promptly,’ etc.

If we desire to give ingressive (i.e. beginning) or effective (i.e. approaching an end) force to an iterative we place is beginning or is ceasing before the iterative: ‘The clock is beginning, or is ceasing, to tick.’

The expanded form with iterative force does not always have progressive iterative force: ‘He is always getting angry.’ ‘He is always smoking.’ The always in these sentences gives general force to the statement. The reference is to the act as a whole, hence the aspect is terminate. The expanded form is the terminate expanded form described in 47 2 b.

c. With Point-Action Verbs. Such verbs call attention, not to an act as a whole, but to only one point, either the beginning or the end. A verb that calls attention to the beginning of something is an ingressive: ‘I am getting tired.’ If the verb calls attention to the end it is an effective: ‘I am getting deaf.’ In the first example the reference is to the beginning of a temporary state. In the second example the reference is to the end, the outcome of a long development. The verb get is used with ingressive or effec-
tive force. The context alone shows whether the force is ingressive or effective. In English we have a very useful group of copulas, which, like get, can be used with ingressive or effective force. See 123 (next to last par.).

Certain verbs other than copulas express these ideas. A number of these verbs, such as begin, commence, start, etc., have only ingressive force, while others, such as cease, stop, quit, finish, leave off, etc., have only effective force.

Ingressive or effective force often lies, not in a copula or other verb with ingressive or effective meaning, but in an adverb or a prefix. Ingressive force: ‘Baby is waking up,’ or ‘Baby is awakening.’ ‘Baby is dozing off’ (beginning to sleep). ‘The children quieted down.’ Effective force: ‘He ate up the apple.’ ‘He paid off the men and discharged them.’ ‘He put the rebellion down.’

The expanded form (472) of an ingressive indicates progression toward the beginning of an act or state, i.e. a preparing to, a tending to, the initial stage to: ‘It is going to rain.’ ‘Look out! I am going to shoot.’ ‘I am getting tired.’ ‘Baby was awakening as I entered.’ The a- in awake is an old ingressive prefix. We now more commonly employ an ingressive adverb here. The adverbs up and off are common: ‘Baby was just waking up as I entered.’ ‘He is dozing off.’ ‘He is just taking off for a nonstop flight to Paris.’ The ingressive adverb out is widely used: ‘The lilacs are coming out’ (beginning to bloom). The idea of ingestion often lies in the verb: ‘He is just starting for town.’ ‘He was just starting for town as I arrived.’ ‘Within a week we shall be starting for Europe.’ ‘The baby was just going to sleep as I entered.’ ‘I am getting tired.’ ‘We were getting quite tired when John unexpectedly came up with the auto.’ It should be noted that the expanded form has pure ingressive force only with ingressives. If it is desired to call attention to the beginning of progressive action expressed by a durative we must employ the expanded form of an ingressive and place it before the durative: ‘The baby is starting to cry.’ ‘It is beginning to rain.’

In the imperative, to express ingestion, we place the imperative of be before the present participle: ‘Up, be doing everywhere, the hour of crisis has verily come’ (Carlyle, Latter-Day Pamphlets, 28). In colloquial language we employ get instead of be: ‘Get going!’ ‘Let’s get going!’

The common form of such verbs has terminate ingressive force: ‘The boat slowed up (began to go slower) as it came in.’ ‘The spot where the horse took off to where he landed is above eighteen feet’ (Sporting Magazine, XLIII, 287, A.D. 1814). ‘On May 20, 1927, the brave airman Charles Lindbergh took off alone from New York
for a successful nonstop flight across the Atlantic to Paris. ‘That set me thinking.’

The expanded form of an effective indicates that the action or state is progressing toward, is approaching an end or a culmination or realization: ‘The lake is drying up.’ ‘He is becoming (or going) blind.’ ‘All that he said is coming true.’ ‘The cost of this enterprise is coming high.’ ‘He is coming to see the error of his ways.’ ‘I am just getting through with my work.’ ‘I came up just as they were getting to blows,’ i.e. the final outcome of the dispute was blows. ‘His strength is giving out.’ ‘He is finally getting the machine running.’ ‘We are at last getting to understand each other better.’ ‘Of late we have been getting to understand each other better.’ ‘This bright little boy is going to be a great man some day’ represents the speaker as standing in the present looking forward to the probable outcome of a development. It should be noted that the expanded form has pure effective force only with effectives. If it is desired to call attention to the approaching end of progressive action expressed by a durative we must employ the expanded form of an effective verb and place it before the durative: ‘It is ceasing to rain.’ With terminate force we say ‘It has stopped raining,’ but on account of the unpleasant repetition of -ing we do not employ the expanded form to express progressive effective force: ‘It is stopping raining.’ But where the situation makes the reference clear we may say ‘It is stopping’ or in American colloquial speech ‘It is letting up.’ With terminate force we say ‘I have finished reading the novel,’ but to express progressive effective force we say ‘I am just finishing it.’ The connection makes it clear whether the reference is to the reading or the writing of the novel. We do not hesitate to say ‘Many people are now leaving off sleeping with the windows shut,’ as off separates the two forms in -ing.

The common form of such verbs has terminate effective force: ‘It stopped raining.’ ‘The baby stopped crying.’ ‘He quit smoking.’ ‘They ate up everything that was on the table.’ ‘I hunted up (indicating attainment) my old friend Collins.’ The beginning of something new is often itself the end, the result, the outcome of preceding circumstances, preceding effort: ‘After a while I got to know him better.’ ‘I was so excited that it was morning before I got to sleep.’ ‘I finally got the machine running.’ ‘When he’s (= he has) once got going there is no stopping him.’ ‘His prediction came true.’ ‘He finally came to see the error of his ways.’ ‘We finally got to understand each other better than before.’

An effective adverb gives to the expanded form of a durative verb progressive-durative-effective force: ‘He is fighting it out
with him.' 'They are sitting out the dance.' 'They are working out the problem.' The common form of such verbs represents the durative-effective idea as attained, as a fact: 'We often sit out a dance.' 'We work out our problems by ourselves.'

3. Meaning of Auxiliary 'Be' and Participle in Aspect Forms. In the course of the centuries a useful group of point-action (52 2) copulas have sprung up in English: be, become, grow, turn, get, etc. The oldest of these, be, differs from the others in that it has durative as well as point-action force. This came about through the fusion of the two originally different verbs is and be. The former was a durative, the latter a point-action verb with the force of become. Thus be now may indicate a continuing action or the beginning or the end of an action: 

- Continuing action: 'He is working in the garden.'
- Beginning of an action: 'We must be going.'
- 'I will not interrupt you any longer. You want to be reading.'
- He intimated that they had better be dressing.'
- End of a development: 'This bright little boy is going to be (= become) a great man some day.'

The double meaning of be is apparent in the passive: 'Our house is painted' (present state). 'Our house is (= becomes) painted every year' (an act). The effective force (52 2 c) of is in the last example indicates that painted is a verb; but as is indicates also a state, as in 'The house is painted,' it is not a clear effective form. In colloquial language we often employ get instead of be as it is a clearer effective form: 'He got (clearer than was) married yesterday.'

In duratives, ingressives, effectives, and iteratives the present participle represents the act as incomplete, while in terminates it represents the act as a whole, as a fact. Incomplete act with durative force: 'He is working in the garden.' Incomplete act with ingressive force: 'He is just getting up.' Incomplete act with effective force: 'His strength is giving out.' Incomplete act with iterative force: 'The girls are giggling.' Complete act with terminate force: 'In honoring him you are honoring (= honor) yourselves,' representing the act as a whole, as a fact. Compare 47 2 b. This double use of the participle corresponds to usage elsewhere: 'From here I see the waves beating (act going on) on the shore.' 'I was proud of him acting (act as a whole = since he acted) so unselfishly.'

NUMBER AND PERSON

53. There are two numbers, singular and plural: thou singest, ye sing; thou sangest, ye sang; he sings (or singeth), they sing. In poetry we can in the indicative distinguish between singular and plural in the second and third persons of the present tense and in
the second person of the past tense, but in ordinary language only the third person indicative of a present tense form can indicate the number, as in the last example. The one verb be can go a little farther in indicating the number — a survival of the older usage which in verbs carefully distinguished the singular and the plural in all tenses and moods. Be still keeps the numbers distinct in the first and third persons indicative in both the present and the past tense: I am, he is, we are, they are; I was, he was, we were, they were. In poetic and biblical style we can always distinguish between singular and plural in the second person: thou givest, ye give; thou gavest, ye gave.

Elsewhere we do not distinguish singular and plural. We now feel that the subject makes the idea of number clear: I sing, we sing; you (speaking to a definite person) sing, you boys sing, I sang, you (speaking to a definite person) sang, he sang, we sang, you boys sang, they sang, if he sing, if they sing. The subject here makes also the idea of person clear.

As can be seen by the examples given above, the few endings that verbs now have indicate not only the number but also the person and the mood. The absence of an ending in the third person singular of any present tense form usually marks it as a subjunctive: he comes (indicative), if he come (subjunctive). Only two verbs have here an especial subjunctive form: if he be, if he have (regularly formed from have, while the indicative has is an irregular, contracted form).

a. Agreement of Verb with Subject in Number and Person. The English verb — except in the case of the copula be — has no endings in ordinary speech for the past tense and the first and second persons of the present tense. It distinguishes the numbers only in the third person of the present tense: 'Our dog barks too much.' 'Our dogs bark too much.' The verbal ending -s indicates the singular, and the lack of an ending indicates the plural. These forms for showing the singular and the plural of the third person of the present tense are very simple, but they afford us at this point means of expressing our thought accurately and of making fine shades of meaning: 'Three-fourths of the surface of the earth is (referring to a mass) sea,' but 'Three-fourths of our old college class are (referring to individuals) married.' Sometimes there is fluctuation of usage as people look at the matter from different points of view: 'Three times 3 is, or are, 9.'

The point of view sometimes shifts from century to century. In older English it was quite common to put the verb in the plural after the subjects each one, everyone: 'Everyone in the house were in their beds' (Fielding, Tom Jones, VII, Ch. XIV). The singular
of the verb is now required here in the literary language: ‘Everyone in the house was in his bed.’ The old plural idea survives in part in popular speech: ‘Everyone in the house was in their beds.’ Thus in earlier periods even educated people felt the plural idea in every and each, while today they feel in these words the conception of separate individuals. But in colloquial language most people still say, ‘Everyone was here, but they all went home early’ (Current English Usage, p. 104), as there is no appropriate singular pronoun available. We say today ‘The island of Australia with Tasmania constitutes the commonwealth of Australia.’ In older English the verb was generally in the plural. Present-day popular speech preserves this older usage, while the singular prevails in the literary language. We now place the verb in agreement with the formal subject the island of Australia although there is a plural idea present. In many other expressions we follow the meaning: ‘There is lots of fun in it.’ ‘The white and the red rose are both beautiful.’ ‘The multitude, unacquainted with the best models, are captivated by whatever stuns or dazzles them.’

Sometimes the little bit of verbal inflection we have left here causes us untold worry and drives us to dodge the questions of form that arise. One,remembering that he has been told to make the verb agree with the nearest subject, says ‘Either he or I am in the wrong,’ while another says ‘Either, he or I, is in the wrong,’ construing either as a pronoun in the subject relation with he and I as explanatory appositives. Still another, terrified by the possibilities of construction here, dodges the issue by giving each subject a separate verb: ‘Either he is in the wrong or I am.’ For fuller treatment see Syntax, 8.

54. Number and Person in Older English. A glance at the Old and Middle English inflections in 56 3 a, b, 4, 59 1, 2, 61 2, 3 will indicate how much more importance was attached to endings for number and person in older English. Even in the Old English period, however, changes had taken place that resulted in greater simplicity. The oldest ending of the second person singular was -s. The regular ending of the third person singular and the entire plural was ṭh (th), but in the North s was often employed here. This northern s is explained by some as a simple sound-change from ṭh, by others as an analogical spreading of the ending -s of the second person singular to the plural and the third person singular. Whatever may have been the cause of these changes the result was that all the persons of the singular and the plural now ended in -s except the first person singular. In Middle English in the North the s sometimes spread to the first person singular, so that at this time all persons single and plural could end in -s: ‘as I before you has talde’ (Cursor Mundi, 14,135, about a.d. 1300), now ‘as I have told you before.’ ‘That sais the men that thar has ben’ (ib., 8854), now ‘That say the men who have been there.’
This dialectic northern s was destined to play an important part in the literary language. In Middle English, as can be seen by the inflections in 56 4, it spread southward to the northern part of the Midland and was used there in the East in the third person singular alongside of older -th. In the West it was often used also in the plural. In Chaucer’s time it had not yet reached London, for Chaucer usually employed here the older -th. But the poet was acquainted with it, for in three instances he employed it for the sake of the rime and in his Reves Tale he let the two northern clerks use it. Later, it became established in London and the South generally. Many people from the North and the northern Midland came to the growing national capital to live and of course brought with them their handy s-ending, which by reason of its marked superiority in ease of utterance appealed to the people there as it had appealed previously to the people of the North. It affected at first only colloquial speech, while in literary prose the older and more stately -th maintained itself for a time. In Shakespeare’s works -s prevails in the prose of his dramas, where the tone is colloquial, while in the serious style of the Bible -th is used throughout. The poets often employed -s on account of its warm tone or for the sake of rime or meter. After the time of Shakespeare -s gradually became established in all styles of the literary language, but only in the third person singular, not also in the other persons of the singular and throughout the plural, as in northern English. At the time of the landing of the Pilgrims on the eastern shore of America and in the early colonial days generally, -th was occasionally used, but it was ebbing. It occurred most frequently in hath and doth, which by reason of their frequent use were most firmly fixed and lingered longest. They often occurred where all the other verbs had -s: ‘But he perverts the truth in this as in other things, for the Lord hath as well appoynted them (i.e. the pastors) to converte as to feed in their several charges; and he wrongs the church to say otherwise’ (Bradford, History of Plymouth Plantation, p. 193, A.D. 1630–1640). The ending -s is now in the literary language restricted to the third person singular, but in older literary English was not infrequently used for any person or number, as described in the preceding paragraph for northern usage: ‘Ffreinde, does not thou (or thee) discerne an exhortation from a Judgement?’ (George Fox, Journal, p. 111, A.D. 1653). ‘And, in a word, far behind his worth Comes the praises that I now bestow’ (Shakespeare, The Two Gentlemen of Verona, II, iv, 71).

This tendency to employ the ending -s for all persons and numbers is only one manifestation among others of a general tendency to simplify verbal inflection in the present indicative. This was the strongest of these tendencies and survives in popular speech. Compare Syntax, 8 I 1 h. In early Modern English there was a tendency in the literary language for those who employed the ending -th in the third person singular to use it also in the plural. See 56 2 and 56 4 c. At the close of the Middle English period there arose in the east Midland a tendency to suppress the ending in the third person singular, so that the uninflected form was used in the third person for singular and plural. See 56 4 b. This usage survives
in the dialect of the east Midland, also in American dialect, as described in Syntax, 8 I 1 h Note (next to last par.).

The most important change in the literary language in the direction of greater simplification was the dropping of the Middle English endings -e and -en. This affected both the present (56 4) and the past (59 2 and 61 3) tense. In the early part of the period the ending -e of the first person singular in the present tense and of the first and third persons singular in the weak past and the plural ending -en of the present and the past tense disappeared in the North. In the literary language of the Midland and South these endings did not disappear until near the close of the fifteenth century.

TENSE FORMATION

55. English originally had only two tenses — the present and the past — and in one sense still has only two tenses, for the four additional tenses — present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect — have been formed by combining a present or a past tense with a participle or an infinitive, so that every tense in our language contains a present or a past tense.

PRESENT TENSE

56. The formation of this tense is simple and there are comparatively few irregularities. The common form for the second person singular is the second person plural form, which is now used also for the singular. Compare 33 i. The use and omission of the endings are treated in 53. There were once two types of inflection — strong and weak — but in the present tense the differences have disappeared, so that almost any verb may now serve as a model of inflection of this tense.

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<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. I walk</td>
<td>I walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you walk (old form, thou walkëst)</td>
<td>you walk (thou walk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he walks (old form, walkëth)</td>
<td>he walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we walk</td>
<td>we walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you walk (old form, ye walk)</td>
<td>you walk (ye walk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they walk</td>
<td>they walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

walk (old forms, walk thou, walk ye)

**Present Participle** walking  **Present Infinitive** (to) walk  

**Present Gerund** walking
1. Remarks on Present Tense Forms:

a. Ending of Third Person Singular and Change of Final ‘Y’ to ‘IE’ before an Ending. After a sibilant (s, ss, c, sh, tch, ch, g, dg, x, z) or a vowel not preceded by a vowel, –es is added instead of –s: (e pronounced) passes, pushes, lunches, rages, dodges, relaxes, dozes; (e silent) goes, does, but tiptoes, taboos. Final y remains y after a vowel before the ending, but when preceded by a consonant becomes ie: ‘He plays,’ but ‘He cries.’ Before the participial ending –ing, however, final y always remains y: crying.

In words in which a silent e follows a sibilant, as in splice, singe, pledge, we add only –s, but we pronounce –es: splices, singes, pledges.

b. Dropping of ‘E.’ An e at the end of a verb is dropped before a vowel in the ending: love, but loving. Notice, however, that we irregularly write dyeing (from dye to distinguish it from dying, from die), singeing (from singe to distinguish it from singing, from sing), tingeing (from tinge to distinguish it from tinging, from ting), canoeing, hoeing, shoeing, etc.

Verbs in –ie drop e and change i to y before –ing: tying from tie; lying from lie.

c. Doubling of Consonants. A final consonant preceded by an accented short vowel is doubled before a vowel in the ending: shop, but shopping, shopped; gas, but gassing, gasses, gassed; quiz, but quizzing, quizzes, quizzed; whiz, but whizzing, whizzes, whizzed.

d. Time Relations Indicated by Present Tense Form of Participle, Infinitive, and Gerund. The present participle, infinitive, and gerund are not confined to reference to present time. The situation indicates the time: ‘the rising sun’ (present time). ‘My train starts at six, arriving (future time) in Chicago at ten.’ ‘Hearing (past time) voices I stopped and listened.’ ‘I came late, arriving (past time) after all the others.’ ‘I expect to arrive (future) late.’ ‘He was very foolish to do (past time) it’ (= It was very foolish that he did it). ‘After finishing (with the force of a present tense = After I finish) my work, I go to bed.’ ‘After finishing (or having finished = After I had finished) my work, I went to bed.’ Compare Syntax, 48 2 (2nd par.), 49 3, 50 2.

e. The Old Present Tense Forms. The old forms for the second and third persons are now used only in poetry and biblical language. The usual old ending for the second person singular is –est for full verbs and –st for auxiliaries: ‘thou helpest,’ ‘thou walkèst,’ ‘thou runnèst’ (doubling a final consonant after a short vowel); ‘thou mayst’ (57 4 B), ‘thou canst’ (57 4 B), ‘thou hast’ (57 2), ‘thou dost’ (57 3), etc. But be, shall, will, have the old ending –t: ‘thou art’ (57 1), ‘thou shalt’ (57 4 B), ‘thou wilt’
(57 4 B). For the use of the old forms for the second person see 33 f.

The old ending for the third person, \(-th\), is discussed in 54 (2nd par.), 56 2, 56 4 c.

f. Assimilation in Popular Speech. In popular speech, the last consonant in the stem of the imperative is often assimilated to the \(m\) of the following \(me\): ‘Gimme (for \(give\) me) a bite.’ ‘Lemme (for \(let\) me) see it.’

2. Early Modern English Forms. In the early part of the present period the old third person singular ending \(-eth\) was still widely used in the South and the Midland, also in the literary language, which was based upon the speech of this part of England. For the origin and spread of the new northern ending \(-s\) see 54.

In early Modern English, \(-th\) is often used also as a plural ending: ‘Blessed are they that heare the word of God and keepeth it’ (Latimer, Seven Sermons before Edward VI, p. 129, A.D. 1549). Compare 4 c below and 54.

3. Old English Forms. Contrasting with the simplicity of Modern English, the Old English forms were many and complicated without any corresponding gain in expressive power.

There were two conjugations — the strong and the weak. In both of these conjugations there was at this time in the North alongside of the regular ending \(-p\) in both singular and plural the ending \(-s\), so that in the North the second and third persons in the singular and all the persons in the plural often ended in \(-s\), the second person singular always. For fuller information see 54. This dialectic \(-s\) was destined to play an important rôle in the language later, and in Middle English will appear in the regular inflection. For fuller account of the part it has played in the language, see 54.

a. Strong Present. In the second and third persons singular indicative, there was in many verbs a change of vowel; in others the vowel remained unchanged. In the inflections given below, where there are two forms, the first is older, i.e. is found chiefly in the early part of the period.

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>bindes</td>
<td>hilpst</td>
<td>fær(e)st</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bindep</td>
<td>hilpₖ</td>
<td>fær(e)p</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bindap</td>
<td>helpap</td>
<td>farap</td>
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Plural, 1, 2, 3
b. Weak Present. There are three classes of weak verbs, which, however, do not differ much in the present tense. The differences are more marked in the past tense, as is seen in 59 1, where the past tense forms are given.

The present tense forms of three representative weak verbs are:

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<tr>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bind</td>
<td>help</td>
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<tr>
<td>bindende</td>
<td>helpende</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong>, 1, 2, 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. wérie</td>
<td>lúfie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. wéres(t)</td>
<td>lúfas(t)</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. wéreþ</td>
<td>lúfaþ</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>wériaþ</td>
<td>lúfaþ</td>
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<tr>
<td>wériende</td>
<td>luftende</td>
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**Gerund in Old English and Its Later Development.** In Old English, there was in use a verbal noun ending in -ung or -ing, which later developed into our gerund in -ing. At this time it was still a mere noun, with the inflection of a strong feminine, as talu in 29 I B, except that final u in the nominative had disappeared: Gyrstandæg ic was on huntunge (dative) = Yesterday I was hunting, lit. on hunting. The Old English gerund, like other verbal nouns, usually took a genitive object. When used merely as a noun, it still takes a genitive object: 'The overcoming of a besetting weakness is an important victory.' The infinitive, though also originally a noun, was in Old English farther developed toward the estate of a verb than the gerund was. It took an accusative object, like a transitive verb, and was developing a passive form. In Middle English, it developed a perfect tense. The gerund was soon to develop in the same direction. In Middle English, it began to take an accusative object, like a transitive verb, and in early Modern English it developed forms for tense and voice. (Compare 47 6 b.) Today, the verbal gerund is a very
common construction, but in certain expressions older gerunds have been replaced by present participles. In the Old English expression ‘on hun-tunge’ given above, the gerund has been replaced by the present participle, i.e. we now say ‘Yesterday I was hunting,’ but in popular speech the old gerund has been preserved: ‘Yesterday I was a-hunting’ (contracted from on hunting).

4. Middle English Present. In Middle English, the vowel change in the second and third persons singular of the strong present disappeared, as the vowel had by the process of leveling been conformed to that of the first person. Also other simplifications had taken place, so that any regular strong or weak verb may serve as a model for the inflection of the present tense, although the formation of strong and weak verbs differs radically in the past tense and must be treated separately there.

The Middle English present tense is characterized also by a change in the endings. The northern ending -s for the third person singular spread to the northern part of the Midland and was used there alongside of the old -b. For an account of the origin of this -s see 54. In the North and often also in the West Midland this s-ending was used also in the plural.

Another characteristic Middle English change of ending is the replacing of the old plural ending -ep by -en, which spread from the past indicative and subjunctive and the present subjunctive to the present indicative, since this ending had become intimately associated with the plural and had come to be felt as a sign for the plural in general. This development was confined to the Midland, but is of importance on account of the high rank of some of the writers of this part of England. Chaucer employed the en-plural or its reduced e-form.

In the examples of inflection given below, if there are two or three forms the second form or the second and third forms are usually reduced or contracted forms, but in the case of the Midland forms those with the ending -s occur only in the northern part of the territory where they are used alongside of the regular forms. The forms of binde(n) ‘bind’ represent the regular Middle English inflection of the present tense. Alongside of it are given the forms of the present tense of have(n) ‘have’ to show how certain auxiliaries and very common verbs of complete predication by reason of their loss of stress had already in Middle English begun to suffer a marked reduction of form.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive, 1, 2, 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. binde</td>
<td>binde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bindest, bintst</td>
<td>hābbe, hāve, hāve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Southern)</td>
<td>(Southern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bindth, bint</td>
<td>hāvest, hāst, hēst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bindeth, bines</td>
<td>hāth, hēth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bindeth, bines</td>
<td>hā(ve)th, hās</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
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<tr>
<td>bindes</td>
<td>hāues, hās</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>binden, habben,</td>
<td>binden, habben,</td>
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<tr>
<td>bide</td>
<td>bide</td>
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<tr>
<td>hāve(n)</td>
<td>hāve(n)</td>
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<td><strong>Imperative</strong></td>
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<td>bind</td>
<td>bind</td>
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<tr>
<td>hāve, hā,</td>
<td>hāf</td>
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**Plural, 1, 2, 3**

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<th>(Southern)</th>
<th>(Southern)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bindeth</td>
<td>hābbeth, hāveth</td>
<td>bindeth, binde, bind;</td>
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<tr>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td>(Northern) bindes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binden, binde</td>
<td>hāve(n), han</td>
<td>hāveth, hāve, hā;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
<td>(Northern) hāues, hā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binde(n), bindes</td>
<td>hāve(n), has</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bindes, bind</td>
<td>hāues, hās</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive**

binden, binde  hābben, hāve(n)  hān, hā

**Participle**

(Southern)  (East Midland)  (Northern)

bindind(e)  bindend(e)  bindand(e)

hāvinde  havende  hāvand(e)

in the 14th century becoming binding(e), having(e),
except in Northern dialect where bindand, havand survived.

**Gerund**

bindinge, hāvinge

a. The different variants of the same form for different sections of the country or for the same section are characteristic of the fluctuating usage of the Middle English period.

b. The Midland dialects are influenced by their position. Those to the North often have northern characteristics, i.e. -s in the singular and plural instead of -th or -e(n). Those to the South have southern characteristics, i.e. -th in the singular and plural.

The east Midland developed in the fifteenth century a peculiarity of its own — the suppression of the ending in the third person singular indicative: as 'John Dam kno' (Agnes Paston, *Paston Letters*, 183, A.D. 1452), instead of knows. Shakespeare has observed this peculiarity of dialect, but in *Henry the Fifth*, III, 11, 116, he erroneously puts it into the mouth of an Irishman: 'The town is beseech'd, and the trumpet call (for calls) us to the breach.' Traces of the east Midland peculiarity are found in our early American documents written by people from this part of England. This is a trend toward simplicity as in the use of the ending -s for all persons and numbers, described in 54. This older east Midland usage survives in England in the east Midland dialect. It is still found also in American dialect. Compare *Syntax*, 8 I 1 h Note (next to last par.).

In the use of the auxiliary do for all persons and numbers this popular usage is much more widespread, but it is not due to the influence of the east Midland dialect. See *Syntax*, 8 I 1 h Note (next to last par.).

c. In the sixteenth century -th was frequently used in the plural in the literary language, which was usually without an ending here, as the old Middle English -e(n) had disappeared in the course of the fifteenth century: 'them that serwyth hym' (Lord Berners, *Huon*, I, p. 62, A.D. 1534). This use of plural -th is not a spreading of southern plural -th to the literary language, but the use of the common singular -th in plural
function, i.e. a spreading of Middle English singular –th to the plural, a Midland development corresponding to the spreading of singular –s to the plural in the North, as described in 54. The common use of plural *beth* (= are) and *hath* in Midland texts, however, may be explained differently. In these very common words the –th is probably the old original plural –th, which in the Midland was preserved in these forms by reason of their frequent and constant use from the earliest times. Elsewhere, it was preserved only in the South.

d. The northern plural in –(e)s was the more common form. The plural without an ending, as *bind*, had the ending –en at the beginning of the Middle English period. Early in the period the n of the ending dropped out and soon the vowel itself disappeared. The Midland plural ending –en met the same fate in the fifteenth century. The development began early in the North. The northern plural without an ending is only used when it has preceding it immediately a single plural personal pronoun as subject: ‘Men bindes,’ ‘We that bindes,’ but ‘We bind.’ This usage survives in northern British dialect, as illustrated by the following examples from Scotch dialect: ‘Weemin kenz dhwat fein’ (Women know that well). ‘Mee un yoo kenz dhwat fein.’ But ‘Wee ken dhwat fein.’

e. The participial ending –ing arose in the South early in the Middle English period as a corruption of –inde. It was later adopted by Chaucer and gradually supplanted the old –ind or –end form. This is one of the most unfortunate developments in the history of our language, as it gave the present participle the same form as the gerund and sometimes makes English expression unclear.

f. The long a in *behave* goes back to Middle English *have*. *Have* had â when accented and â when unaccented. As the auxiliary *have* was usually unstressed, â became established with simple *have*.

IRREGULARITIES IN MODERN PRESENT TENSE

57. In a number of English verbs there have developed irregularities in inflection.

1. **Inflection of Present Tense of ‘Be’:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I am</td>
<td>I be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you are (old form, thou art)</td>
<td>you (thou) be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he is</td>
<td>he be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we are</td>
<td>we be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you are (old form, ye are)</td>
<td>you (ye) be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they are</td>
<td>they be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

be (old forms, be thou, be ye)

**Present Participle** being

**Present Infinitive** (to) be

**Present Gerund** being
a. Contractions: ‘He isn’t rich,’ ‘we, you, they aren’t rich.’ As can be seen by the examples, there is in the literary language no contraction with n’t after am. In the declarative form, however, we can contract am to ‘m: ‘I’m not rich.’ In interrogative form contraction does not take place here in the literary language at all. In colloquial speech am I not? or am not I? often becomes ain’t I? or aren’t I? — the latter regarded as choicer by many in England and by some in America: ‘I’m such a catch, ain’t I?’ (A. Marshall, Exton Manor, Ch. V). ‘Well, man alive, I’m bound to know, aren’t I?’ (Hutchinson, If Winter Comes, p. 101). ‘Aren’t I silly to weep?’ (Francis R. Bellamy, The Balance, Ch. XX). ‘Aren’t I silly to weep?’ (Francis R. Bellamy, The Balance, Ch. XX). The first person singular form aren’t is a leveled form, after the analogy of we aren’t, you aren’t, they aren’t. Similarly, the first person singular ain’t is after the analogy of we ain’t, you ain’t, they ain’t, where ain’t is corrupted from aren’t. Colloquially ain’t is often felt as a useful contraction in ain’t I?, but it is elsewhere shunned. As the r in aren’t is not pronounced in England before a consonant, we often find this form written an’t, especially a little earlier in the period, as in Smollett and Dickens. Of course, the r is still silent in England, but it is now usually written. In Ireland the contraction amn’t is sometimes used instead of ain’t in the first person singular: ‘Amn’t I after telling you she’s a great help to her mother?’ (Lennox Robinson, The Whiteheaded Boy, Act I, p. 9).

In older English, the usual contraction of is with the subject it was ‘tis, which is still used, but now the common contraction is it’s.

b. Indicative ‘Be.’ In early Modern English, the form be was sometimes used also as a plural indicative: ‘Here be my keys’ (Shakespeare, Merry Wives, III, III, 172). ‘It is true, there be large estates in the kingdom, but not in this county’ (Fielding, Tom Jones, Book VI, Ch. II). This older usage survives in popular speech. Also in the literary language in certain set expressions: ‘The public is suspicious of the powers that be’ (Chicago Tribune, Apr. 20, 1926). Compare d below.

c. Subjunctive ‘Beest.’ In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the form beest, though properly an indicative, was much used as the second person singular present subjunctive: ‘Be’est thou sad or merry, The violence of either thee becomes’ (Shakespeare, Antony and Cleopatra, I, v, 59).

d. Older Inflection of Present Tense of ‘Be.’ The present tense of be is made up of three different roots — in older English with different variants, so that the present forms are the result of a long period of development and differentiation:
In oldest English, the *be*-forms were used as indicatives and subjunctions, but later, in the Middle English period, *be* began to be felt as a subjunctive. In Shakespeare's day, and even later in Fielding's time, this differentiation was not yet complete, as *be* was still used as a plural indica-
tive, as illustrated in b above. In England, the dialects of the South and the East still employ be in the singular and the plural indicative, so that be is not differentiated here as a subjunctive form. Be is used here and there also in American dialect as a singular or plural indicative, especially in the second part of a double question and in subordinate clauses, rarely however in the third person singular: 'You ain't tired, be you?' (Susan Warner, The Wide, Wide World, Ch. XIII). 'Now, Hiram, you ain't agoin' t' the store tonight!' — 'I say I be agoin' tew!' (Dialect Notes, I, p. 340).

Our plural form are was long a dialect word confined to the North of England. For centuries before the Modern English period the standard words for the South and the Midland were beth, ben, be. But are was all this time spreading southward in colloquial speech. In the early part of the sixteenth century it began to appear in standard English alongside of be, later gradually supplanting it.

2. Inflection of Present Tense of 'Have':

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have</td>
<td>I have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you have (old form, thou hast)</td>
<td>you (thou) have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he has (old form, hath)</td>
<td>he have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we have</td>
<td>we have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you have (old form, ye have)</td>
<td>you (ye) have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they have</td>
<td>they have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE**

have (old forms, have thou, have ye)

**PRESENT PARTICIPLE** having

**PRESENT INFINITIVE** (to) have

**PRESENT GERUND** having

Contractions:

a. The forms hath and has (formerly often written ha's) are contractions of older forms once in use — hafep, haves. In early Modern English the first person singular have was often contracted to ha: 'I ha but two hands' (Middleton-Rowley, The Spanish Gipsie, III, 11, 128, A.D. 1661). In older English, the negative form was ha'n't. It still lingers in dialect: 'I ha'n't seen him' (Susan Warner, The Wide, Wide World, Ch. IX). The dialectic form hain't (or less commonly ain't with the h dropped) is used for all persons and numbers: 'Caleb (name) hain't no monopoly' (J. R. Lowell, Biglow Papers, No. II). 'Bein' they hain't no lead, they make their bullets out o' copper' (ib.). 'Oh! Then you ain't the money?' (Lynn Riggs, A Lantern To See By, III). The usual colloquial contractions are 'I, you, we, they haven't,' 'he hasn't.'
On the other hand, *hain’t* is used in dialect for all persons and numbers as a contraction of the forms of *be* with *not*: ‘I *hain’t* bad nor mean’ (Eugene O’Neill, *Desire under the Elms*, I, iv). ‘Sun’s a-rizin’. Purty, *hain’t* it?’ (ib., last page).

b. In early Modern English, there were three other plural forms in use — *hath*, *han* (a contraction of the Middle English plural *haven*), and *ha*: ‘The rulers in this realm *hath* no better a God than the poorest in this world’ (Latimer, *Serm. and Rem.*, 201, A.D. 1555). ‘When shepheares groomes *han* leave to playe’ (Spenser, *Shep. Cal.*, Mar. 62, A.D. 1579). The plural *ha* was very common as an auxiliary: ‘Till we *ha* dined’ (Middleton-Rowley, *The Spanish Gipsie*, II, i, 145, A.D. 1661), ‘now ’till we’ve dined.’ The negative form of *ha* was *ha’n’t*. It still lingers in dialect: ‘You *ha’n’t* had supper, have yous?’ (Susan Warner, *The Wide, Wide World*, Ch. XII).

For an explanation of the plural form *hath* see 56 4 c.

c. In early Modern English, the infinitive *have* was often contracted to *ha*, especially in its use as an auxiliary: ‘It should *ha* been so’ (Beaumont and Fletcher, *The Maids Tragedie*, II, ii, 49, A.D. 1622). This contraction is still common here, but we write it ‘a.’ We now use also the contraction ‘of’ here. Although in rapid speech we often use both contractions, we usually write *have*. In realistic literature, however, ‘a’ and ‘of’ are sometimes written: ‘It should *a* (or *of*) been so.’

d. The contractions in a, b, c are the result of the weak stress that *have* often has as an auxiliary and as a verb of complete predication. The fuller Old and Middle English forms are given in 56 3 b and 4.

3. Inflection of Present Tense of ‘Do’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I do</td>
<td>I do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you do (old forms, thou dost [full verb], dost [auxiliary])</td>
<td>you (thou) do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he does (old forms, doeth, doth)</td>
<td>he do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we do</td>
<td>we do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you do (old form, ye do)</td>
<td>you (ye) do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they do</td>
<td>they do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

do

**Present Participle** doing

**Present Infinitive** (to) do

**Present Gerund** doing
a. The old forms in the second and third persons are used only in poetry and biblical language. In early Modern English, the plural ending -th was sometimes used: 'as wild horses doth race' (Ascham, Toxophilus, 8, A.D. 1545). For explanation of this form see 56 4 c.

b. The contractions of do with a following not are: I, you, we, they don't; he (she, it) doesn't. In colloquial speech, he, she, it don't are much used instead of the literary he, she, it doesn't. Compare Syntax, 8 I 1 h Note (next to last par.).

4. Present and Past Tense of Past-Present Verbs. There is a group of strong verbal forms which were originally past tenses, but have come to have the meaning of the present tense. Originally the past tense had close relations to the present, much as the present perfect (65 b) today, so that it pointed not only to the past but also to the present. In course of time the past tense became the tense of narrative, pointing purely and simply to the past without reference to the present. Thus in the course of the development of most verbs the past idea in the past tense form overshadowed that of the present, which was once also present there. In a few verbs, however, the opposite development took place — the idea of the present in the past tense form overshadowed that of the past, which was once also present there, so that these forms are now felt as present tenses. A comparatively recent case of this development is seen in have got: 'I've got a cold.' Here the present perfect tense form now has the force of a present tense. Similarly, in the prehistoric period the old past tense forms can, dare, may, shall, and the archaic wot (= know) developed the force of the present tense. Although we now use them as present tenses, their form still shows that they were originally past tenses. They all have a third person singular without the ending -s: 'In summer Mother cans as much fruit as she can.' The first can is a real present tense. The second can is a present tense with the form of the past tense — a past-present verb. In the prehistoric period after these old strong past tenses had come to be felt as present tenses, new weak past tense forms were coined for reference to the past: could, durst, might, should, wist. In early Modern English, another verb belonged to the list of past-present verbs — mote. It survives in its past subjunctive form must. This past subjunctive is now felt as a present tense. This development is an easy and natural one, as every past subjunctive may refer to present time, differing from the present indicative only in expressing the thought more modestly: 'I should prefer to stay at home,' a modest way of saying 'I prefer to stay at home.' Similarly, ought, old past subjunctive of owe, is now felt as a present tense: 'I
ought to do it,' originally = 'I should owe the doing of it.' Thus in comparatively recent times two past subjunctives — must and ought — have joined the list of past present verbs. This development has a counterpart in very early times. Will, now for many centuries felt as a present tense, was originally a past subjunctive.

A. Historical Remarks. These verbs, like other verbs, once belonged to regular inflectional systems, but have come down to us as shattered fragments.

a. Can, dare, may, shall, wot, are old past indicatives; will, must, ought, old past subjunctives. They are now all felt as present tenses.

b. Will once had a variant form, wol, which survives in won't (= wol not). In early Modern English, the full form of wol was still in use: 'God, I say, woll judge such Judges as ye are' (Thomas Cromwell, Letter to the Bishop of Salisbury, March, 1538).

In older English, the old negative ne (= not) and a following will were often contracted to nill: 'If I may rest, I nill live in sorrowe' (Spenser, The Shepheards Calender, May, 151, A.D. 1579). The old form survives in the expression willy-nilly, from will he, nill he = Let him like it or not. It is now a mere adverb referring to all persons and numbers: 'I, you, we, they, must go, willy-nilly.' In older English, the proper person could be used: 'And, will you, nill you, I will marry you' (Shakespeare, Taming of the Shrew, II, 173).

c. Ought is an old past subjunctive of owe. In early Modern English, it was used also as a past indicative alongside of the newer past indicative owed. The original meaning of owe is have, own, possess — words which in the seventeenth century entirely replaced owe in this meaning. In early Modern English, the past indicatives ought and owed were still used with this meaning: 'Who ought (now owned) your castel thre thousande yere agoe?' (More, Comfort against Tribulation, III, Wrks., 1219, A.D. 1534). 'For several virtues Have I liked several women, never any with so full soul but some defect in her Did quarrel with the noblest grace she ow'd' (Shakespeare, The Tempest, III, i, 43), now possessed. Ought and owed served also as past participle. The past participle was originally strong. This old past participle with the original meaning survives in our present adjective own, literally possessed.

In Old English, the original meaning of having often went over into that of having to pay, owing. In this meaning owe has become a regular verb — owe, owed, owed. In early Modern English, the old past indicative ought was still in use in this meaning: 'He said . . . you ought (now owed) him a thousand pound' (Shakespeare, Henry the Fourth, First Part, III, ii, 152). Also the newer
past owed was in use at this time in this meaning. Ought was once employed here also as a past participle: 'a gentleman who had ought (now owed) us money a long time' (A.D. 1639, quoted from the Oxford Dictionary).

In older English, the old meaning of having often went over into that of having to do as a duty. In this meaning the present indicative owed was frequently employed, often alongside of the past subjunctive ought, which here, as the past subjunctive in general, had the force of the present indicative, only with a touch of modesty and cautiousness not found in the indicative: 'Y haue herd summe men seie (say) pat a man owith to lyue (live) in his world moraly, vertuouesly. And summe men Y haue herd seie bat a man in his world owst to lyue aftir be lawe of god' (Pecock, The Donet, p. 14, about A.D. 1449). Later, the present indicative in this meaning entirely disappeared.

The common people, however, did not give up the old literary distinction between the present indicative and the past subjunctive of owe in the sense of ought. They created new forms to bring out the idea clearly. They employ the unclear past subjunctive ought as an infinitive and place before it a clear present indicative or a clear past subjunctive auxiliary: 'He don't ought to do it.' 'He shouldn't (or hadn't or didn't) ought to do it.' When the reference is to the past, the infinitive dependent upon ought is usually in the perfect tense: 'You shouldn't ought to have done it.' Also ought itself is sometimes in the perfect tense: 'You shouldn't have ought to have done it.' Compare Syntax, 44 I a (last par.). Similarly, in the case of other past-present verbs the past subjunctive is often in popular speech treated as an infinitive: 'Better not tell me de bad news; ef it is terrible, I might not could stan' to hear 'em' (Julia Peterkin, Green Thursday, p. 183). Could is now used as an infinitive also in other constructions: 'I can't do it now like I used to could' (Gepp, Essex Dialect Dictionary, p. 183). Also used and was are now employed as infinitives: 'He didn't used to be so foolish' (ib.). 'That used to was' (ib.).

According to our English sequence a verb is attracted to the form of the past tense after a past indicative: 'He told me yesterday that he would (instead of will) help me.' That must and ought, originally past subjunctives, can stand after a past indicative shows that we still have a vague feeling that they are here past subjunctives, although we elsewhere regard these forms more commonly as present tenses: 'I thought it must kill him' (Meredith, The Ordeal of Richard Feverel, Ch. XLV). 'I thought he ought to do it and told him so.' Under the influence of must and ought we sometimes employ dare and need as past subjunctives after a past
indicative, although we elsewhere regard them more commonly as present tense forms: ‘He felt he dare not reply.’ ‘He had a good hour on his hands before he need go back.’ Compare Syntax, 44 I a, 49 4 C (1) a (4th par.).

d. The present subjunctive of must survives in archaic mote (in older English sometimes written mought): ‘So mote (= may) it be!’ In early Modern English, mote was still used as an ordinary present tense with the force of may (permission or possibility) or must. In early Modern English, mote, though a present tense, was sometimes, like dare and need in c (last par.), employed as a past tense form after a past indicative or a past subjunctive pointing to the past: ‘Therefore he her did court, did serve, did wooe, With humblest suit that he imagine mot’ (Spenser, Faerie Queene, IV, II, VIII, A.D. 1596), now could. ‘However loth he waere his way to slake, Yet mote he algates now abide and answere make’ (ib., V, VIII, V) = ‘However loath he was to slacken his pace, he must nevertheless stop and answer.’

e. Wot, an old past indicative used as a present: I wot, he wot = I know, he knows. It survives in the infinitive to wit, now with the meaning namely. The present participle survives in the adverb unwittingly. The new past wist, once common, was still in use in early Modern English, and is still found in the Bible (Mark, IX, 6): ‘For he wist not what to say.’ In early Modern English, the old forms for the present tense were still in use, but alongside of them appeared new, regular forms made from wot as a base: (present indicative) he wotteth or wots, (present participle) wotting. From this new base a new, regular past tense was formed, wotted: ‘He stood still and wotted not what to do’ (Bunyan, Pilgrim’s Progress, I). The fact that new, regular forms could thus be made and used indicates clearly that wot was felt as no longer belonging to past-present verbs, which had now come to be modal auxiliaries, subjunctive forms. Later, wot disappeared for the most part from the language, since it was not in any way differentiated in meaning from know and hence was not needed.

In early Modern English, the old negative form not (or note) — contracted from ne wot — was still used. The old negative ne was employed here as in b above. Not(e), though a present tense, was sometimes, like dare and need in c (last par.), employed as a past tense form after a past indicative: ‘Ere long so weake of limbe and sicke of love He woxe, that lenger he note (= couldn’t, literally didn’t know how to) stand upright’ (Spenser, Faerie Queene, IV, XII, XX, a.d. 1596) = ‘he couldn’t stand upright any longer.’

f. The verb need has been drawn into this group under the in-
fluence of its meaning, which is similar to that of must. In the meaning to be without, want, it is always a regular verb: 'He needs, needed, men and money.' Elsewhere, there is fluctuation between the regular inflection of the different tenses and that of past-present verbs: 'He doesn't need to (or need not) go.' Compare Syntax, 49 4 C (1) a.

g. Dare, on the other hand, is manifesting a tendency to leave this group. It is always a regular verb throughout in the sense of challenge: 'He dares, dared, me to do it.' Elsewhere, there is fluctuation between the regular inflection of the different tenses and that of past-present verbs: 'He doesn't dare to (or dare not) reply.' Compare Syntax, 49 4 C (1) a. Also will is a regular verb when we feel its meaning as related to the noun will: 'God wills, willed, that man should be happy.'

h. What has drawn verbs of such different origin together? They are all verbs that do not state facts, but merely present conceptions, representing something as possible, necessary, desirable, befitting. These are ideas closely related to those expressed by the subjunctive, so that they have come to be felt as modal auxiliaries, as subjunctives, and, as subjunctives, naturally take no -s in the third person singular. The oldest of these forms once had an indicative alongside of the subjunctive in both the present and the past tense, the indicative with more positive force than the subjunctive. The old past indicatives could refer to the past, while our present past tenses, could, durst, might, should, would, prevailingly point to the present or the future, differing from the present tenses only in the manner of the conception, as described in 50 2 d: 'It might rain,' indicating only a faint prospect of rain, but 'It may rain,' indicating a greater possibility. The past is often milder than the present: 'You should go,' but in a harsh tone 'You shall go!' 'Will you do it for me?' but in a politer tone 'Would you do it for me?' When a past tense that does not depend upon a past indicative points to the present or the future, as might, could, should, would, in these examples, it must be a subjunctive. Thus the past tenses of these verbs are losing their power to point to the past and are gradually becoming inflectional forms used in connection with an infinitive to express subjunctive ideas, modal auxiliary and infinitive together having the force of a simple subjunctive, pointing to the present or the future: 'You might post this for me.' 'We must do what we can for him.' 'We ought to go at once!' 'If it should rain, I would stay at home.' 'I could do it if I had time.' Could and would, however, are still, not infrequently, used as past indicatives, referring to the past. But this can be done only when the context clearly indicates that the
reference is to past time, for these forms cannot of themselves point to the past: ‘I couldn’t find him yesterday.’ ‘This morning I tried to persuade him, but he wouldn’t listen to me.’ The must that is now used comes for the most part from the old past subjunctive and points to the present or the future, but it is sometimes the old past indicative, and hence points to the past: ‘In those days he could not bear to be idle. He must always be doing something.’ In early Modern English, also, should could thus point to the past, often being used with the infinitive with the force of a past indicative: ‘When the priest Should ask (= asked), if Katherine should be his wife, “Ay, by gogswouns” (= God’s wounds), quoth he’ (Shakespeare, The Taming of the Shrew, III, ii, 160). The perfect infinitive was often used here to bring out more clearly the idea of past time: ‘There are some rumors that the conspirators should have taken some other places’ (Andrew Marvell, Correspondence, Works, II, 92, A.D. 1663). This older usage survives in dialect: ‘They tell me so-and-so should say’ (= said), etc. (Edward Gepp, Essex Dialect Dictionary, p. 137). ‘Cordin’ t’ Bill, Sam sh’d a said (= said) I was a liar’ (Ozark Dialect, American Speech, III, p. 4).

Must and ought were originally past subjunctives expressing a mild tone or a cautious statement, and this old meaning is still common: ‘In such a trying situation you must (or ought to) think things over carefully before you act.’ ‘He must (or ought to) be there by this time.’ As the past subjunctive often refers to present time these forms are often construed as present tenses, and as present subjunctives they express a more positive tone: ‘You must (or ought to) go at once!’ Unfortunately there are not two forms here for the differentiation of the thought, as in the case of may-might, can-could, shall-should, will-would. One form must serve for the two meanings. After the analogy of this usage dare and need are sometimes in questions and negative statements employed as subjunctive forms with a twofold force — with the force of a past subjunctive imparting a mild tone or with the force of the present subjunctive imparting a more positive tone: ‘Dare she now hope for a favorable turn of things?’ ‘Need she worry so?’ In a more positive tone: ‘She dare not say that again!’ ‘He need not ask me for help again!’ Compare Syntax, 49 4 C (1) a (4th par.).

That all the verbs in this article (h) have for the most part lost their power to mark the time relations indicates that they are developing into subjunctive forms, mere coloring particles to tint thought and feeling. As can be seen by the examples in the preceding paragraph, the development here is uneven. Some of
these verbs do not have the usual complement of two tenses — the present and the past — which most subjunctives have for the differentiation of thought and feeling. Compare 50 2 d.

i. Although these verbs now for the most part have the force of subjunctives, they have in poetry and in biblical language an ending in the second person singular of the present tense, ‘thou mayst,’ ‘thou shalt,’ etc., which is contrary to the usage observed in other subjunctives. Originally the indicative and the subjunctive of the modal auxiliaries were differentiated in form, but by the end of the Middle English period they had for the most part become identical. Occasionally, however, in early Modern English we still find the old subjunctive form for the old second person singular to the present tense: ‘Saue thy head if thou may’ (Udall, Royster D., IV, VII, 72, A.D. 1553). The indicative form has replaced here the subjunctive. Must, which is now felt as a present tense, although historically a past subjunctive, has not followed the analogy of the present tense forms in this group. It is uninflected throughout.

B. Inflection. These verbs inflect in the present and the past tense as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. can (canst)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. can</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Plural for All Persons</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. shall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. shall (shalt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. shall</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Plural for All Persons</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ought (oughtest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ought</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Plural for All Persons</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>ought</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Past Tense

#### Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. could</th>
<th>dared, dare</th>
<th>might, mought †²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>could (couldst)</td>
<td>dared, dare (daredst, durst)</td>
<td>might, mought †² (might(e)st, mought(e)st †²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. could</td>
<td>dared, dare (durst)</td>
<td>might, mought †²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plural for All Persons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>could</th>
<th>dared, dare</th>
<th>might, mought †²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(durst)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

#### Plural for All Persons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>should</th>
<th>would</th>
<th>must</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>should (shouldst)</td>
<td>would (wouldst)</td>
<td>must (must)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. should</td>
<td>would</td>
<td>must</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 1

The past *durst* is often in older English, as the past subjunctive in general, used with the force of the present indicative, only expressing more caution, modesty: 'I have no desire, and besides, if I had, I *durst* not for my soul touch upon the subject’ (Sterne, *Tristram Shandy*, III, xx). This usage is still very common in popular speech: 'He put (= puts) on mo’ a’r s dan w’at I *dast* ter do’ (Joel Chandler Harris, *Nights with Uncle Remus*, p. 307). ‘I *dastn’t* (or *darn’t* or *darsn’t*) do it.’ In older English, the past tense form *durst* was used also as a past indicative. In connection with a past indicative this form is sometimes in popular speech still used as a past indicative: ‘I wasn’t allowed to come into the house unless I changed my boots for slippers at the door. I *darsn’t* smoke a pipe for my life unless I went to the barn’ (L. M. Montgomery, *Anne of Avonlea*, Ch. XXV).

In popular speech the past subjunctive *dast*, like the past subjunctive *ought* (see A c, p. 254), is used as an infinitive: ‘He wouldn’t *dast* put in an appearance’ (Lucy Furman, *Mothering on Perilous*, Ch. XV).

### 2

In early Modern English widely used in the literary language, now replaced by *might* in literary usage, but still employed in dialect: ‘He *mought* have done it and then again he *moughtn’t*’ (*Dialect Notes*, II, p. 231).
a. The inflection of *shall* and *will*, as given above, holds only for the use of these forms as modal auxiliaries. For their use in the future tense see 67 2.

FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE

58. There are two types of inflection—the weak and the strong. The two types were originally quite distinct in form and for the most part still are, but in a number of words do not now have distinctive forms. Compare 60 A 1.

FORMATION OF THE REGULAR WEAK PAST

59. This type of inflection forms the past tense and past participle with the suffix -ed, in which e is silent except after d and t. With silent e: work, *worked* (past tense and past participle); taboo, *tabooed*; boo, *booed*; stew, *stewed*; flow, *flowed*. With pronounced e: hand, *handed*; hunt, *hunted*. Contrary to this principle, however, the e in a number of distinctively adjective participles is pronounced: learned, beloved, blessed, accursed, etc. In 'on bended knees' the old adjective form is still used, while we elsewhere use the newer contracted form, even in adjective function, as in 'a bent twig.' We say 'a man aged (ajd) sixty-five,' but 'an aged (ajid) man.' The old full form with pronounced e is also preserved in derivative adverbs, assuredly, avowedly, etc. In all the cases where the e is silent, whether in past tense or past participle, the d is sounded as d only after vowel sounds or voiced consonants, as in snowed, delayed, warmed, oiled, feared, robbed, raised, elsewhere being pronounced t, as in crossed, watched, locked, jumped, scoffed. In earlier Modern English, the apostrophe often took the place of silent e: fear'd, etc.

A final consonant, preceded by an accented short vowel, is doubled before e of the ending -ed: drop, dropped; rebel, rebelled. But: travel, traveled; devil, deviled; develop, developed; nonplus, nonplussed, but nonplús, nonplussed. The doubling of the l in 'rebelled' shows that the second syllable is stressed, while the single l in 'traveled' indicates that the second syllable is unstressed. British orthography differs from American in that final l is doubled also after an unstressed vowel: travel, travelled; devil, devilled. In both American and British orthography a k (which virtually doubles c) is placed after an unstressed c, for it is necessary here to mark c as hard: picnic, picnic'd; bivouac, bivouacked. After a consonant, y becomes ie before -ed: rely, relied; but play, played.

Final silent e is dropped before -ed: love, loved.
After un-English vowel terminations (a, i, o, etc.) the contracted suffix \(-'d\) sometimes makes the grammatical relations clearer than does the full suffix \(-ed\): one-idea\(\prime\)d, ski\(\prime\)d, mustachio\(\prime\)d (more commonly mustached), etc. In the case of the verb O.K. the contracted suffix is always employed: O.K., O.K.'d.

This class of verbs — regular weak verbs — is the largest in the language. There are, moreover, many irregular weak verbs, which are treated in 60. These irregular weak verbs fall into certain definite groups described in 2 B below. There are also a few very irregular weak auxiliaries, treated in 57 4. The weak class along with its irregular verbs comprises all the verbs in the language except about one hundred — the strong class described in 61, 62, 63. Many verbs, once strong, have become wholly or partially weak. The regular weak class is the only living type. All new verbs enter this class.

**Regular Weak Past**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I loved</td>
<td>I loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you loved (thou lov(\acute{e})dst)</td>
<td>you loved (thou lov(\acute{e})dst)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he loved</td>
<td>he loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we loved</td>
<td>we loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you loved (old form, ye loved)</td>
<td>you (ye) loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they loved</td>
<td>they loved</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

In early Modern English, the ending \(-st\) of the old thou-form was sometimes dropped: ‘Thou made answere vnto the prophete,’ etc. (John Fisher, *E.E.T.S.*, Ex. ser. XXXVII, p. 172, early 16th century). Poets still employ this form occasionally: ‘Where thou once formed thy paradise’ (Byron). This form without \(-st\) served both as an indicative and a subjunctive. In accordance with older usage, the thou-form is still the same for the indicative and the subjunctive in the past tense, but it now has the ending \(-st\). Compare 61 (last par.), where the absence of \(-st\) is explained and a fuller treatment of the old second person singular form is given.

1. **Old English Weak Past.** The three representative Old English weak verbs werian ‘defend,’ lufian ‘love,’ habban ‘have,’ inflected in the present tense in 56 3 b, are here given with their Old English past tense forms:
defend    love    have    defend    love    have

**INDICATIVE**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>wërede</td>
<td>lûfode</td>
<td>hëfde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>wëredes(t)</td>
<td>lûfodes(t)</td>
<td>hëfdes(t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>wërede</td>
<td>lûfode</td>
<td>hëfde</td>
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**Singular, 1, 2, 3**

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>wërede</td>
<td>lûfode</td>
<td>hëfde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>wëredes(t)</td>
<td>lûfodes(t)</td>
<td>hëfdes(t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>wërede</td>
<td>lûfode</td>
<td>hëfde</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural, 1, 2, 3**

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<th></th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>wëredon</td>
<td>lûfodon</td>
<td>hëfdon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>wëredon</td>
<td>lûfodon</td>
<td>hëfdon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>wëredon</td>
<td>lûfodon</td>
<td>hëfdon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PAST PARTICIPLE** gewëred, gelûfod, gehëfđd

**a. Verbs without a Medial Vowel.** In the examples of inflection given above ‘wërede’ represents the first class. It has the medial vowel e. A large number of verbs in this class, however, did not have this medial e. The medial e of the past tense was regularly dropped if the stem syllable had a long vowel or ended in −dd, −tt, −ll, −ss, or two different consonants: dëman ‘judge,’ ‘deem,’ past dëmde. A double consonant was simplified before −de: fyllan ‘fill,’ past fyldе. A final d in the stem syllable preceded by a consonant disappeared before −de: sendan ‘send,’ past sende. The suffix −de became −te after a voiceless consonant: grëtan ‘greet,’ past grëte. A double consonant was simplified before −te: cyste. A final t in the stem syllable preceded by a consonant disappeared before −te: fæstan ‘make fast,’ past fæste. A few verbs, however, that have at the end of their stem syllable a combination of consonants difficult to pronounce together with a following −de always took the medial e: hyngran ‘hunger,’ past hyngrede; etc. The past participle in all these verbs usually ended in −ed: gedëmed, gefylld, etc. But in verbs whose stem syllable ended in −d or −t the e of the suffix −ed was often suppressed and the final dd or tt then simplified: gesend, gegrë(t), etc. instead of gesended, gegrëted, etc.

There is another large group of verbs in the first class that have no medial e. They differ from the verbs in this group in that the vowel of the past tense and past participle is not identical with that of the present tense, while this group has the same vowel throughout. The group with the change of vowel is described in b (3) below.

**b. Mutation.** In Old English, many verbs of the first class experienced in all or some of their principal parts a change in the stem vowel called mutation. The cause of this change was the presence once of a j after the stem syllable in the present tense and the presence of an i after the stem syllable in the past tense and past participle. There are three groups of these verbs:

(1). This small group of verbs has a short stem syllable: wërian (Gothic wârjan) ‘defend,’ past wërede (Gothic wârâda), past participle gewer(ed) (Gothic wârîðs). As in this example the old j of the present tense is preserved as i in all the verbs of this group ending in −r, and the old i
of the past tense and past participle is preserved in the reduced form of *e* in all the verbs of this group. The older Gothic forms in parentheses show that the old *j* and *i* have mutated the old stem vowel *a* of the English verb to *e*. The vowel was not mutated in Gothic because mutation had not yet begun to operate. Mutation took place in English in the prehistoric period, probably in the sixth century.

(2). This large group of verbs has a long stem syllable, as described in 1 above. In most of these verbs every trace of *j* and *i* had disappeared except the reduced *e* of the participial suffix –*ed*: *deman* (Gothic *dōmjjan*) 'judge,' 'deem,' past *dēnde* (Gothic *dōmīda*), past participle *gedemed* (Gothic *dōmīps*). Although there is here no medial vowel in the present and the past tense, the mutated stem vowel *e* — mutated form of *o* — in all the principal parts of this verb tells the story of the presence here formerly of *j* and *i*. The Gothic forms with their *j* and *i* show the older principal parts. Out of this large group of Old English verbs, described more fully in 1 above, have come the three Middle English groups described in 2 B b, c, d below.

(3). There is in Old English another large group of verbs in the first class, which are like the verbs in (2) in that they have no medial *e*, but which are unlike them in that there is a change of vowel in the different parts: *tellan* 'tell,' past *tealde*, past participle *geteald*. In some verbs of this class the final consonant of the stem syllable was affected in prehistoric times by the suffixes of the past tense and past participle, so that there is in the different parts a difference of consonants as well as a difference of vowels: *bycgan* 'buy,' *bohte*, *geboht*; *sēcan* 'seek,' *sōhte*, *gesōht*. These verbs represent an old type of inflection which had no medial vowel in the past tense and past participle, but had once a *j* after the stem syllable of the present tense. In the period of mutation the *j* in the present tense mutated the stem vowel, but there was no medial *i* in the past tense and past participle to cause mutation there, so that there arose a difference of vowels in the different parts. The *j* that once stood after the stem of the present tense has disappeared, but the mutated stem vowel tells of its former existence. From this group of verbs comes the Middle English group described in 2 B a below.

c. Size and Importance of the Different Classes. In the Old English period, the verbs in the first class were numerous, but their inflection lacked simplicity, falling into three different types described in 1 above, from which four types were formed in Middle English, described in 2 B a, b, c, d below. The verbs in the second class were far more numerous than those in the first class and at the close of the period were growing in numbers at their expense. Moreover, they had a uniform inflection. In Middle English, this class developed the new past tense suffix –*ed*, which was to become the usual suffix for all regular weak verbs. In late Middle English the new type with the suffix –*ed* must be considered the regular weak inflection, while the four types developed in verbs of the first class, described in 2 B a, b, c, d below must be considered as irregularities of weak inflection. The third class was small in the Old English period, but it possessed the common verb *habban*, which in its modern form *have* is
still playing an important part in the language. The third class as a class has disappeared.

2. Middle English Weak Past:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>{wēred(e)}</td>
<td>{lōv(e)de}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>wēredest</td>
<td>lōvedest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{wēred(e)}</td>
<td>{lōv(e)de}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural, 1, 2, 3

wēred(en) lōv(e)de(n) hāfd(e)n wēred(en) lōv(e)de(n) hād(d)en
wēr(e)de(n) lōved(en) hādde(n) lōved(en)

Past Participle (y)wēred, (y)lōved, (y)hāved, (y)hādde, (y)hād

The participial prefix y-, Old English ge-, is cognate with German ge-. It was at this time in general characteristic of southern English.

The inflections given above in 1 (p. 262) and 2 (p. 264) and the important notes a and b under 1 serve as the basis of the following detailed description of the Middle English inflection of weak verbs. Middle English inflection here rests upon Old English inflection, and Modern English inflection with its numerous irregularities cannot be understood as a system without a careful study of Middle English inflection. If the Middle English categories given below be mastered, the Modern English weak inflection will seem a fairly consistent system instead of a mass of inconsistencies. In looking back at the changes of the Middle English period it is interesting to note how Englishmen were struggling with the weak verb. This activity in the field of verbal expression was followed by a still greater activity there in the modern period. In Middle English the main effort in the field of the verb was in the direction of simplifying the inflection. In the modern period the main effort here has been in the direction of creating new verbal forms for the needs of an unfolding intellectual life. Compare 45 (2nd par.).

A. The endings in the singular and the plural of the weak past disappeared early in the period in the North. As can be seen in the paradigms in 2, above, the singular ending -e and the plural ending -e(n) began early in the period to disappear also in the Midland and the South in trisyllabic forms. There was for a while a tendency here to suppress final e or e(n) when the stem syllable was long and to retain final e and suppress medial e when the stem syllable was short: wēred(e), but lōv(e)de. This tendency was not strong, for also wēr(e)de and lōved(e) were used. Later, the tendency to suppress uniformly final e became strong, utterly
destroying the older tendency and creating the new past tense suffix \(-ed\). This new past tense ending developed in trisyllabic past tense forms like \(\text{l}ov\(\text{ed}\)(e), h\(\text{a}\)ted(e)\) by the suppression of final e, whether the stem syllable was long or short. These words belonged for the most part to the second class of weak verbs, of which \(\text{l}ov\(\text{ed}\)e\) is given above as a model. This was a powerful, growing group of words capable of exerting a strong influence in the language, so that the new suffix \(-ed\) was destined to spread to other verbs and in the course of the Middle English period become the usual suffix of regular weak verbs. This new development brought into our language at this point great simplicity where there had been great complexity. All the trisyllabic past tense forms in the first class, like \(\text{w}\(\text{e}\)\(\text{r}\)ed(e)\) in the paradigm given above, went over into the new class, but there weren't many of them. On the other hand, there was a very large group of dissyllabic past tense forms in the first class that on account of the peculiarity of their form could not easily fit into the new class. As described in 1 a and b (2), (3), pp. 262–263, they had already in Old English lost their medial e or had never had one, so that it was unnatural for them to take an e before the suffix \(-d\). This large group of words developed in a manner natural to their form, falling into four distinct groups described in B a, b, c, d below. But even here the new regular type with the suffix \(-ed\) made itself felt from the start and began early to influence the inflection of a number of verbs in each group. In the course of the Middle English period a large number of the verbs in these four groups went over into the regular class. A number of the Old English verbs in 1 a above never went over into one of these four groups, but after retaining their Old English form for a while became regular: \(\text{k}y\text{s}\text{s}\text{e}\) 'kiss,' past \(\text{k}y\text{s}\text{t}e\), later \(\text{k}\y\text{s}\text{s}\text{e}d\text{e}\), \(\text{k}\y\text{s}\text{s}\text{e}d\). Some were in one or other of the four groups and at the same time had a regular form, which later prevailed: \(\text{d}\text{e}\text{m}\text{e}\) 'judge,' 'deem,' past \(\text{d}\text{e}\text{m}\text{de}\), later \(\text{d}\text{e}\text{m}\text{pte}\) (see B c below) and alongside of it the new regular form \(\text{d}\text{e}\text{m}\text{ed}\), later \(\text{d}\text{e}\text{m}\text{ed}\). With the exception of a few isolated cases the very large number of foreign verbs that were introduced in the Middle English period joined the new regular class. It continued to grow in early Modern English, and is still, in the literary language, the only class that is growing.

The suffix \(-ed\) has become in many words a form without a real meaning, as in the case of \(\text{k}\text{i}\text{s}\text{e}d\), where \(-ed\) is pronounced \(t\). Compare 59.

B. A large number of Middle English verbs did not follow the general development described in A above, but formed four distinct groups, each preserving certain Old English features of inflection curiously mingled with new, Middle English characteristics. The common feature to all these groups is that there is no vowel before the suffix of the past tense and past participle, as explained in 1 a, b (3), pp. 262–263. In early Middle English, the suffix was \(-de\) or \(-te\), which later in the period were reduced to \(-d\) or \(-t\), which in some verbs survives, in others has disappeared.

a. As a result of phonetic developments in older periods, described in 1 b (3), p. 263, there was in Middle English in a large group of words a difference of vowels, and in some words also a difference of consonants,
in the different principal parts: selle 'sell,' sölde, söléd; telle 'tell,' töld, töld; bye 'buy,' boughte, bought; sèke 'seek,' soughthe, soughṭ. In the course of the Middle English period final e disappeared in the spoken language, though it often lingered longer in the written language. The parts now are: sell, söléd, söléd; tell, töld, töld; buy, bought, bought; seek, soughṭ, soughṭ. In the course of this development the suffixes -de, -te have become -d, -t, and certain phonetical changes have taken place, but the peculiar difference of vowels in the principal parts has been preserved. Also the old difference of consonants has been preserved in the written language, but in the spoken language gh has become silent: buy, bought, bought; seek, soughṭ, soughṭ; teach, taught, taught.

b. From the Old English verbs described in 1 a (p. 262), there was in earlier Middle English a large group ending in -t or -d with the past tense suffix -te after t and -de after d, and in the past participle with the suffix -t after t and -d after d: sett e 'set,' sett; shedd e 'shed,' shedd. In adding the suffixes to the stem syllable the final tt of the stem syllable was simplified to t. The early Middle English verbs had, in general, the same type of inflection as the Old English verbs, but in the course of the Middle English period they experienced a further development that radically changed the old type. The vowel of the present tense in this group was shortened wherever it was long, so that the vowel throughout the parts was short. Through the suppression of final e and the simplification of tt or dd to t or d there resulted the simplest and most modern type of verbal inflection in our language: set, sét, sét; shéd, shéd, shéd. In late Middle English the list of these verbs was large, and today after considerable reduction the list is still large. They are given in 60 A c. Though the list is decreasing in the literary language, a few strong verbs are joining it in popular American: begin—begin; sing—sing; sit—sit; win—win, the present and the past tense having the same form after the analogy of set—set. See the separate treatment of these verbs in 63.

In Middle English, as a result of peculiar developments, some of these verbs with the stem vowel e had a double past tense and past participle: sprède 'spread,' sprèdde or sprèddde, sprèdd or sprèdd; drède 'dread,' drèdde or drèddde, drèdd or drèdd. In the course of the Middle English and the early Modern English period final e was dropped, the final double consonants were simplified, and the vowel of the present was shortened so that all the parts had the same vowel: sprèd, sprèd, sprèd; later spread, spread, spread. In the sixteenth century dread became regular: dread, dreaded, dreaded.

c. There is another group of Middle English verbs which come from the same Old English source (1 a, p. 262) as the verbs in b, but have a different development. They all have a long vowel, which in late Old English or early Middle English was shortened before the combination of consonants arising in the past tense and past participle from the addition of the suffixes. Thus they all have a long vowel in the present tense and a short one in the past tense and the past participle. In Old English, the suffixes here were for the past tense -de after voiced consonants and -te after voiceless consonants, and for the past participle -ed for all verbs. In
Middle English, -te was used for the past tense and -t for the past participle, not only after voiceless consonants but also after the voiced consonants l, m, n, and v: kēpe ‘keep,’ kēpte, kēpt; mēte ‘meet,’ mētte, mēt; fēle, ‘feel,’ fēlle, fēlt; dēme ‘judge,’ ‘deem,’ dēmpte, dēmpt; drēmpte, drēmpt; lēne ‘lean,’ lēnte, lēnt; lēne ‘lend,’ lēnte, lēnt; mēne ‘mean,’ mēnte, mēnt; lēve ‘leave,’ lēfte, lēft. After the voiced consonants d and r the suffixes were –de and –d: blēde ‘bleed,’ blēdde, blēdd; brēde ‘breed, brēdde, brēdd; chide ‘chide, chīdde, chīdd; fēde ‘feed,’ fēdde, fēdd; hide ‘hide,’ hīdde, hīdd; spēde ‘speed,’ spēdde, spēdd; hēre ‘hear,’ hērde, hērd; shōo ‘shoe, shōdde, shōdd. The last word shōō was attracted into this group by its long stem vowel. As there is here no final d in the stem of the present tense the first of the two d’s in the past tense and the past participle short. The long vowel of the present tense led to the idea that the vowel of the past tense and the past participle must be made short. Similarly the strong verb flee ‘flee’ was attracted into this group by the long vowel of its present tense. A d was inserted into the past tense and the past participle and an e of the stem there was dropped to make the stem vowel short: flee, fledge, fledd. In the course of the Middle English period final e disappeared, so that the past tense suffix –de or –te became –d or –t: blēde (silent final e), blēdd, blēdd; mēte (silent final e), mētt, mētt; kēpe (silent final e), kēpt, kēpt; etc. Also in the course of the period final dd and tt were simplified: blede, bled, bled; mete, met, met; etc. Now bleed, bled, bled; meet, met, met; etc. In the course of the Middle English and the early Modern English period dēme and a number of other verbs that used to belong here, such as sēme ‘seem,’ belēve ‘believe,’ hēde ‘heed,’ went over into the regular weak class: deem, deemed, deemed; seem, seemed, seemed; believe, believed, believed; heed, heeded, heeded. Some verbs, like drēme, fluctuated between their old inflection and that of the regular weak verbs, and some still fluctuate: dream, dreamed or dreamt, dreamed or dreamt; leap, leaped or leapt, leaped or leapt. In early Modern English, chide and hide were under the influence of the strong verb ride, rode or rid †, ridden, so that strong forms were used alongside of the original weak ones: chide, chid or chode †, chid or chidden; hide, hid, hid or hidden. The strong past chode has disappeared, but the strong past participle hidden is still used and is even more common than the old weak form hid. The strong past participle chidden is still in use alongside of the perhaps more common weak form chid. Still more common, at least in America, are the regular weak forms chide, chided, chided. Alongside of Middle English lēne (Old English hlænan) ‘lean,’ lēnte, lēnt were regular forms going back to the Old English variant hlæonian, a verb of the second class: lēne, lēnde, lēned. The present parts of these verbs are léan, léant, léánt and léān, léāned, léāned, the former more common in England, the latter in America. Compare lean, 60 B.

The natural tendency for verbs in this group is to leave it and join the regular verbs, as in the case of greeet (60 B), heat (60 B), mete (60 B), etc., but some strong verbs and some weak verbs from other groups have been drawn into it by virtue of their long stem vowel. In the Middle English
period five strong verbs with the long stem vowel e joined this group and have remained in it: creep, crept, crept; flee, fled, fled; leap, leaped or leapt, leaped or leapt; sleep, slept, slept; weep, wept, wept. Leap did not come over into this group entirely but often has regular weak forms: leap, leaped, leaped. Compare 60 B. Three other strong verbs on account of their long stem vowel have been attracted into the Middle English group with long present and short past and past participle: cleave, cleft (or clove), cleft (or cloven); lose, lost, lost; shoot, shot, shot. Compare cleave and shoot in 60 B and lose in 63. Two weak verbs with a long stem vowel have joined this group: kneel, knelt (or kneeled), knelt (or kneeled); say, said (pronounced sēd), saîd (pronounced sēd). In popular speech still other weak verbs now follow this type of inflection: clean, clent, clent; peel, pelt, pelt. These forms are common in the British dialect of Essex.

As a result of peculiar developments several verbs in this group with the stem vowel ē had in Middle English a double past tense and past participle: rēde 'read,' rēdde or rādde, rēdd or rādd; cleße 'clothe,' clēdde or clādde, clēdd or clādd; lēde 'lead,' lēdde or lādde, lēdd or lādd; spētē 'spit,' spēttē or spāttē, spētt or spātt. Later, final e disappeared and dō or tō was simplified: rēde (silent e), rēd or rād, rēd or rād; later read, read, read, the form rad disappearing. Lēde had the same development. The parts now are lead, led, led, the form lad disappearing. Clēše had the same development, only that the form cled disappeared. In Middle English, there was alongside of clēše a regular verb with the same meaning: clothe, clothed, clothed. Today, there is here in the present tense only one verb, clothe, but both verbs are represented in the past tense and past participle: clothe, clothed or clad, clothed or clad. Similarly, alongside of the Middle English spētē was another verb, spitte, with the same meaning. Spitte was inflected according to b above, so that in the course of the Middle English period its parts became spit, spit, spit. Americans still often employ here spit, spit, spit. Britishers say spit, spat, spat, the form spit being the present tense of spit, the form spat being the past tense and past participle of spētē. The present tense of spētē disappeared in the fifteenth century. Compare spit, 60 B.

d. A few verbs coming from the same Old English source (1 a, p. 262) as the verbs in b and c have retained more of their Old English forms. They have a stem syllable ending in -nd and retain their stem vowel throughout the principal parts. In early Middle English they had almost the same form as in Old English: sende 'send,' sende, send. The final d of the stem here is suppressed before the -d of the suffix. The -d of the suffixes soon developed into -t: sende, sente, sent. In the course of the Middle English period final e disappeared: send, sent, sent. The following verbs have had the same development: bend, blend, rend, spend, wend. Blend is now more commonly regular: blend, blended or blent, blended or blent. The development of wend is peculiarly interesting. In older English it had the meanings wend, turn, go. At the close of the Middle English period went, past tense of wend, became the past tense of go. Compare 63, close of first paragraph and footnote under go. In its other meanings wend became regular: wend, wended, wended. In the Middle
English period lend 'lend,' belonging to c above and thus having the same form of the past tense and the past participle as the send group of words, was often drawn into the send group, the present tense stem ending in -d, as in the other words of this group: lende, lente, lent. It now always belongs to this group: lend, lent, lent.

The verbs build, gild, gird, have had a development similar to that of the verbs in the preceding paragraph. The final d of the stem syllable disappears in the past tense and past participle before the suffix, which is here -t as in the verbs in the preceding paragraph: build, built, built; gild, gilt, gilt; gird, girt, girt. Alongside of these forms are regular ones, which are now more common except in the case of those of build: gild, gilded, gilded; gird, girded, girded. Build, built, built were in use earlier in the present period. In pure adjective function the common form for the past participle is still gilt: 'a book with gilt edges,' but in figurative use 'the gilded youth,' i.e. the young men of wealth and fashion. In England the House of Lords is called 'the Gilded Chamber.'

With another group of verbs — burn, learn, smell, spell, spill, spoil — there is an inclination to employ -t as suffix in past tense and past participle, especially in England: burn, burnt, burnt; learn, learnt, learnt; smell, smelt, smelt; spell, spelt, spelt; spill, spilt, spilt; spoil, spoilt, spoilt. Americans prefer, in general, here the regular forms: burn, burned, burned, etc. See the separate treatment of these words in 60 B.

IRREGULARITIES IN THE WEAK PAST IN MODERN ENGLISH

60. The weak type of inflection is much simpler than it once was, but older conditions have left traces behind, so that there are still a number of irregularities. These irregularities are survivals of once widely used regular types of inflection, which in the struggle for greater simplicity have for the most part been abandoned for one regular type for all weak verbs. Only the commonest words formed on the older regular types have survived, protected by the frequency of their use. The study of the Old and Middle English types in 59 1 and 2 will explain the irregular forms of today.

A. General and Special Remarks:

a. A number of verbs having a long stem vowel suffer in the past tense and past participle a shortening of their stem vowel and take as suffix -t or -d, except in the case of verbs whose stem ends in -t or -d, where the -t or -d of the suffix has disappeared, as being identical with the final t or d of the stem: keep, kept, kept; leave, left, left; shoe, shod, shod; etc. But meet, met, met; bleed, bled, bled; etc. A historical explanation of this development is given in 59 2 B c.

b. In a number of verbs ending in -nd or -ld the stem ending -d
disappears in the past tense and past participle before the suffix, which is here regularly -t: bend, bent, bent; build, built, built; etc. Compare 59 2 B d.

c. A number of verbs ending in -d or -t now have no suffix whatever for the past tense and past participle, the older suffix having disappeared, leaving the present and the past tense and past participle alike: cut (present), cut (past), cut (past participle). The peculiar historical development of these forms is given in 59 2 B b. There are a large number of such verbs: bid (make an offer), burst, cast, cost, cut, hight (60 B), hit, hurt, let, put, rid, set, shed, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust. Some of these verbs: bid, burst, hight, let, are strong verbs which have been drawn into this class under the influence of their final d or t. Alongside of the literary forms burst, burst, burst are the colloquial and popular forms bust, busted, busted, which have become especially common in the meaning to break. In a few cases we use either the full or the contracted form: bet, bet or betted, bet or betted; knit, knitted or knit, knitted or knot; quit, quit or quitted, quit or quitted; rid, rid or ridded, rid or ridded; shred, shredded or shred, shredded or shred; sweat, sweat or sweated, sweat or sweated; wed, wed or wedded, wed or wedded; wet, wet or wetted, wet or wetted. In America we usually say spit, spit or spat, spit or spat, but in England the parts are uniformly spit, spat, spat. In older English the list of the short weak forms was longer, as can be seen by examining the alphabetical list of irregular weak verbs given below, in which the short forms once in use but now obsolete are marked by a dagger. This is also attested by their survival in certain adjective participles: 'a dread foe,' but 'The foe was dreaded'; 'roast beef' but 'The meat was roasted.' The extensive use of these short forms in older English and in the language of our own time is in part explained by the fact that in the third person singular the -s of the present tense distinguishes the two tenses: he hits (present) hard; he hit (past) hard. Elsewhere we gather the meaning from the situation. As the past tense is the tense of description, there is here usually something in the situation that makes the thought clear.

In older English, there were in use a number of short past participles — addict, alienate, associate, attribute, celebrate, communicate, compact, consecrate, consolidate, consummate, contaminate, contract, convict, correct, create, decoct, dedicate, degenerate, deject, designate, detect, devote, disjoint, distract, elect, erect, exasperate, excommuni cate, exhaust, exhibit, incorporate, indurate, infect, inflict, initiate, institute, instruct, mitigate, prostrate, redintegrate, reject, satiate, separate, situate, suffocate, suspect, etc. — which were borrowed directly from the Latin or Old French and hence did not arise from con-
traction, as in the weak verbs described above: ‘Observe wherein and how they have degenerate’ (Bacon, Ess. Great Place, Arber, 285, A.D. 1625), now degenerated. ‘And this report Hath so exasperate their king, that he Prepares for some attempt of war’ (Shakespeare, Macbeth, III, ii, 38), now exasperated. In older English these short forms were supported by the analogy of the English short forms, but later were replaced by the regular long forms just as many of the short forms resulting from contraction were later replaced by the regular long forms. Historically speaking, the regular weak verbs addict, alienate, associate, attribute, celebrate, communicate, compact, consecrate, consolidate, consummate, contaminate, contract, convict, correct, create, decoct, dedicate, degenerate, deject, designate, detect, devote, disjoint, distract, erect, exasperate, excommunicate, exhaust, exhibit, incorporate, indurate, infect, initiate, institute, instruct, mitigate, prostrate, redintegrate, reject, satiate, separate, situate, suffocate, suspect, etc., are derived from the old borrowed short past participles. This list is not complete. Other verbs are added in B below, but also this larger list is incomplete. The use of the short past participle with borrowed verbs in -t or -te (from Latin participle in -tus or -atus) is a marked feature of early Modern English. As these old participles, when still used as adjectives or nouns, are no longer vividly felt as participles of these verbs, they are now in certain cases distinguished from them by a difference of accent or by the obscuring of the last pronounced vowel: (verbs) attribute, consummate, convict, deliberate (with long a), separate (2nd a long); but attribute (noun), consummate (adjective), convict (noun), deliberate (adjective; with obscured a), separate (adjective; with 2nd a obscured).

d. In a number of words ending in -l or -n the ending is either -ed or -t, the latter especially in England: spell, spelled or spelt; learn, learned or learnt; etc. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

e. Had and made are contracted from haved and maked.

f. In a large number of words the difference of vowel between the present and the past gives them the appearance of strong verbs, but the past tense ending -t or -d marks them as weak: bring, brought; tell, told; etc. But in the forms hide — hid, bleed — bled, breed — bred, feed — fed, lead — led, meet — met, shoot — shot, there is nothing that clearly marks them as weak. Upon the basis of their present forms these and other words of this group might be classed as strong, but their older forms reveal them as weak verbs that have had a peculiar development. Compare 59 2 B c and footnote under shoot in 60 B.

g. The ending of the second person singular of the old form is
-est or -st. The former is used with full verbs, the latter with the auxiliary had: ‘thou lefkest’; ‘thou hadst.’

B. Alphabetical List. In a number of cases the irregularities are only orthographical, as in dressed or drest. Where there is fluctuation in usage the more common form is given first. Sometimes the variant (i.e. the second form) is an old strong form, retiring from general service, now serving preferably in figurative use, as in the case of shorn, or, in the case of others now employed only in poetic style; sometimes, on the other hand, it is a vigorous, new, more regular form which is working its way to the front. Wherever the form is obsolete in plain prose or now used only in poetry, it is marked by a dagger. On the other hand, in older English these words were in common use. By older usage is here meant the usage of the earlier part of the Modern English period. This older usage, in certain words, survives in popular speech or in certain dialects. Wherever the form is used only in adjective function, there is an asterisk after it. In most cases these forms once had verbal force. Some of the verbs in the list were once strong and still have strong forms. The forms now employed in the literary language and good colloquial speech are given in roman type. Dialectic and popular forms are given in italics. A dagger after a word in italics indicates an older literary form. In early Modern English there were in a large number of cases, even in the literary language, two or more forms for past tense and past participle. Besides the list given below there are a few very irregular auxiliaries, treated at length in 574.

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1 Heard in dialect. Ax, axed were once used also in the literary language.
2 Now used only in adjective function: ‘an associate professor.’ In older English it could have pure verbal force: ‘I chaunsed to be associat (now associated) with a doctor of Physik’ (Barnes, Defence of the Berde, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser. 10, p. 307, 16th century).
3 Heard in American popular speech.
4 Survives in the noun attribute, which has been made from the old past participle. For the difference of stress here see 60 A c (close of 2nd par.).
5 Lingering in poetry. Compare footnote to dight below.
6 Compare 59.
7 ‘A man bereft of consciousness by a blow,’ ‘a bereaved mother.’ ‘The blow bereft him of consciousness.’ ‘Death has bereaved, or bereft, her of her children.’ Bereave, bereft, bereft follow the old type described in 59 2 B c.
8 Survives in American speech, where it is often still heard. Obsolete in England.
9 Lingering in poetry: ‘his boots with dust and mire besprent’ (Longfellow, Sir Christopher, 133). It is the past participle of obsolete bespreng ‘besprinkle,’ besprent, besprent.
10 Fowler in his Modern English Usage says that in England the shorter form is used of a definite transaction, while betted is employed when the sense
betide
beware
bid (‘offer’) (see also bid, 63)
bide "
bleed
blend
bless
bolt
breed, brede "
bring
broadcast
build
burn

Past Participle
betided
bewared "
bided
bled (60 A f)
blended
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blest, blest * 4
bought (59 2 B a)
brung, " brang 5
broadcasted 6
built
burned 7
burnt 7

* According to 59 the e in the suffix -ed is still pronounced in bless'd when used as an adjective. This is still the usual adjective form: ‘the bless'd unconsciousness and ignorance of childhood.’ Often used ironically: ‘We were interrupted every bless'd night.’ ‘There wasn’t a bless'd one there.’ The adjective and noun form blest is now confined to a few set expressions: ‘that blest abode,’ ‘the mansions of the blest,’ etc.

* Common in popular speech.

6 Common in popular and colloquial speech.

7 Burnt is the more common form in England. In America burned is the more common form, although burnt is also widely used, especially in adjective use, as in ‘a burnt match.’ Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>burst, bust 1</td>
<td>burst, busted 1</td>
<td>burst, busted 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brest, brast †</td>
<td>bursted, † burst(EN) †</td>
<td>bursten, † burst(EN) †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buy</td>
<td>bought (69 2 B a)</td>
<td>boughten 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carve</td>
<td>carved</td>
<td>carven * (arch.)</td>
</tr>
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<td>cast</td>
<td>cast, kasted †</td>
<td>cast, kasted †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catch, ketch † 3</td>
<td>caught, caughted † 4</td>
<td>caught, caughted † 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>celebrated</td>
<td>celebrated</td>
<td>celebrated †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chide</td>
<td>chided, chid</td>
<td>chided, chid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cleave</td>
<td>cloved, cleft 6</td>
<td>cloven, cleft 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>('split')</td>
<td>cleaved, clave †</td>
<td>cleaved, clave †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cleave</td>
<td>cleaved</td>
<td>cleaved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>('adhere')</td>
<td>clave, † clove †</td>
<td>clave †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>climb, clime, † clam(me) †</td>
<td>climbed, clômb † 7</td>
<td>climbed, clômb † 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clam(me), † clamb †</td>
<td>clum, † 7 clome 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clame, † clum, 7</td>
<td>clam, 7 clome 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Common in colloquial and popular speech.
2 Popular and colloquial form used in adjective function: 'boughten stockings, bread, cake,' etc. Sometimes found in poetry for the sake of meter.
3 The parts in dialect are often strong, ketch, kotch, after the analogy of get, got, got: 'Paw got wind of it and kotch 'em a-hanging around one day' (Lucy Furman, *Mothering on Perilous*, Ch. XX). Sometimes the weak ending -ed (t) is added to the strong form: ketch, kotched, kotched. Compare footnote to fetch. The parts are often weak throughout: ketch, ketch ed, ketch ed.
5 The forms chode, chidden are after the analogy of rode, ridden. Compare 69 2 B c. The most common parts are chide, chided, chided for America, chide, chid, chid or chidden for England.
6 In American authorities cleft is usually represented as more common than clove, but according to the author's observation clove occurs more frequently, and in England it is surely the leading form. Likewise in the past participle cloven seems to be more common than cleft. In certain expressions, however, the one or the other form has become fixed: 'a cloven hoof,' 'a cleft palate,' 'in a cleft stick' (in a tight place). The originally strong inflection is now represented by the parts cleave, clove, cloven. In Middle English arose the weak forms cleft (69 2 B c) and cleaved. Thus there has been fluctuation of usage for a long while, and this fluctuation still continues, for the word is little used and there is hence no firm impression on our minds as to the proper parts.
7 Strong forms heard in dialect. Clome is a recent dialectic spelling for
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>clothed</td>
<td>clothed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communicate</td>
<td>communicated</td>
<td>communicated</td>
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<tr>
<td>compact</td>
<td>compacted</td>
<td>compact</td>
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<tr>
<td>confiscate</td>
<td>confiscated</td>
<td>confiscated</td>
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<tr>
<td>consecrate</td>
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<td>consecrated</td>
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<tr>
<td>construct</td>
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<td>construct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consummate</td>
<td>consummated</td>
<td>consummated</td>
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<td>contaminate</td>
<td>contaminated</td>
<td>contaminated</td>
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<tr>
<td>contract</td>
<td>contracted</td>
<td>contracted</td>
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<td>convict</td>
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<td>cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
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<tr>
<td>create</td>
<td>created</td>
<td>created</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creep</td>
<td>crept, creeped</td>
<td>crept, creeped</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

clomb, which was once a literary form. Clomb survives in the literary language in poetry: 'Hither ... she clomb' (Tennyson), rimating with dome. In northern British dialect are heard the parts clim, clam, clum — after the analogy of swim, swam, swum. In certain dialects, especially American, climb (present), clim (past) are heard — after the analogy of ride, rid. The dialectic past participle clum often serves also as a past tense. The past participle clum (once also with the spelling dom) was in the sixteenth century a literary form.

1 This old participle survives in adjective function in the technical language of Semitic grammar: ‘a noun in the construct (or sometimes constructed) state,’ or ‘a noun in the state construct,’ or ‘a noun in the construct.’

2 Survives in the noun convict, which has been made from the old participle. For the difference of stress here see 60 A c (close of last par.).

3 In Middle English, the strong past tense of crepen ‘creep’ was creep, the regular form of the second class (62): ‘He creep’ (Chaucer, The Reues Tale,
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>crow</td>
<td>crowed ¹</td>
<td>crowed ¹</td>
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<tr>
<td>curse, cuss ²</td>
<td>cursed</td>
<td>cursed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut (60 A c)</td>
<td>deal, dalt ¹</td>
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<tr>
<td>deal</td>
<td>deal, dalt ¹</td>
<td>dealt, dalt ¹</td>
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<tr>
<td>decoct</td>
<td>decocted</td>
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<td>dedicate</td>
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<td>devote</td>
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</table>

339). This old form survives in dialect, only the vowel is now short: crêp, now used also as a past participle. Compare footnote to leap. The old strong past participle was cropen. The vowel of this form spread to the past, so that the past tense was often crope, which was used also as a past participle. Crope survives in dialect as past tense and past participle. In the literary language the weak forms creep, crept, crept were once in use. They are still heard in dialect. In the literary language all these forms have been gradually supplanted by the weak forms creep, crept, crept. Compare 60 B c. ¹ 'He crowed over me.' 'The baby crowed with delight.' 'The cock crowed (in America, but in England also crew, as in older English) at five.' All the older parts, crow, crew, crown, are still heard in northern British dialects. ² Common in colloquial and popular speech. ³ Formerly used as a verbal participle. See 60 A c (last par.). It is still used as an adjective participle: 'a degenerate family.' For pronunciation see 60 A c (close of last par.). ⁴ For pronunciation see 60 A c (close of last par.).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>digest</td>
<td>digested</td>
<td>digested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right †</td>
<td>right †</td>
<td>right †</td>
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<tr>
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<td>drop</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>drown, drown † 6</td>
<td>drowned</td>
<td>drowned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Lingering in poetry: ‘the clouds in thousand liveries right’ (Milton). ‘Why do these steeds stand ready right?’ (Scott, The Lay of the Last Minstrel, I, 42). ‘Many a rare and sumptuous tome, In vellum bound, with gold bedight’ (Longfellow, Tales of a Wayside Inn, Prelude, 1, 128).

2 Sometimes still used as predicate adjective participle instead of the more common distracted: ‘Her mind was distraught with her misfortunes.’ ‘I lay awake distraught with warring thoughts.’ Sometimes still used attributively: ‘He knelt down beside the distraught woman and tried to take her hand.’ It was earlier in the period employed also with pure verbal force.

3 Dove is widely used in colloquial and popular speech, div has a much narrower territory. These forms follow the analogy of the parts of drive (63).

4 Common locally in popular speech.

5 In England dreamt is more common, in America dreamed. Compare 59 2 B c.

6 In older English these forms occur in the literary language: ‘Take Pity on poor Miss; don’t throw water on a drown’d Rat’ (Swift, Polite Convers., 17, A.D. 1738). Drown, drown’d, drown’d survive in popular speech.
### Present | Past | Past Participle
--- | --- | ---
dwell | dwelt | dwelt
elaborate | elaborated | elaborated
elect | elected | elected
enshield | enshielded | enshielded
erect | erected | erected
estimate | estimated | estimated
exasperate | exasperated | exasperated
excommunicate | excommunicated | excommunicated
exhaust | exhausted | exhausted
exhibit | exhibited | exhibited
extinct | extinct | extinct
extract | extracted | extracted
fare | fared | fared
feed | fed | fed
feel | felt | felt
fetch | fetched, faught | fetched, faught
flay, flea | flayed, flea’d | flayed, flea’d
flee, fly | fled, flown | fled, flown
flow | flowed | flowed
fold | folded | folded

1 Earlier in the period the parts *fetch, faught, faught* (as in *stretch, straight*, *straught*) were in limited use: 'He fetched, or faught (now took), a walk.' The parts in dialect are often strong, *fetch, fotch, fotch*, after the analogy of *get, got, got*; 'Trojan fotch him his revolver' (Lucy Furman, *Mothering on Perilous*, Ch. XXVIII). Sometimes the weak ending *-ed* (t) is added to the strong form: 'They fotched me here' (S. V. Benét, *John Brown’s Body*, p. 227).

2 The regular present tense form, still in use earlier in the period, from the sixteenth century on gradually replaced by the irregular form *flay* with the vowel of the old past participle *flain*.

3 Examples are given in 63 under *fly*. 
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>force, forst (pop.)</td>
<td>forced</td>
<td>forced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forecast</td>
<td>forsted (pop.)</td>
<td>forsted (pop.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fraught †</td>
<td>fraught †</td>
<td>fraught †</td>
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<tr>
<td>freight</td>
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<tr>
<td>fret ²</td>
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<td>greet</td>
<td>greeted</td>
<td>greeted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hāve (57 2)</td>
<td>hād (60 A e)</td>
<td>hād</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(but behāve; 56 4 f)</td>
<td>(but behāved)</td>
<td>(but behāved)</td>
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<tr>
<td>hear</td>
<td>heard, hearn ³</td>
<td>heard, hearn ³</td>
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<td></td>
<td>heer, heern  ³</td>
<td>heer, heern ³</td>
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<td></td>
<td>hard † ³</td>
<td>hard † ³</td>
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<td>heat</td>
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<td>het † ⁴</td>
<td>het † ⁴</td>
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<td>heat †</td>
<td>heat †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 'This measure is fraught with danger.'
2 This verb was originally strong. It is a derivative made up of the prefix fra (= away) and the verb eat.
3 In popular speech the parts of hear are heer, past heer, heard, heern, hearn, past participle heerd, heard, heer, heern, hearn. The past participles heern, hearn are formed after the analogy of strong verbs, as explained in the footnote to shut. The past participles heern, hearn are sometimes used by the common people as past tense forms, just as the past participle seen is used by them as a past tense. Hard is still employed in northern British dialect as past tense and past participle.
4 Used in older English and still in popular speech or dialect. The form is explained in 59 2 B c.
### List of Irregular Weak Verbs

**Present**  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>heave</td>
<td>heaved, hove</td>
<td>heaved</td>
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<td>hid</td>
<td>hidden, hid</td>
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<td>hight, highted</td>
<td>hight, highted</td>
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<td>hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
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<tr>
<td>initiate</td>
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<td>initiated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. 'The frost heaved the young plants out of the ground.' 'She heaved a heavy sigh.' 'Her face lit up and her bosom heaved.' 'We hove up the anchor.' The sailors hove the bodies overboard.' 'A ship hove in sight.' 'The steamer hove to a little.'
2. Old strong form; still used in dialect.
3. In verbal function more common than hid, in adjective function the usual form. 'He has hidden, or hid, my hat,' but 'a hidden treasure.' Compare 59 2 B c.
4. Archaic forms. In older English, the third person singular of the present tense often had no ending, as it was in fact a past tense used as a present: 'that shallow vassal, which, as I remember hight Costard' (Shakespeare, Love's Labor's Lost, I, 258). The old past tense hight was used also as a past participle.
5. In older English, the parts were sometimes hit, hot, hot after the analogy of git (now get) got, got. Hot survives in dialect. In northern British dialect this verb is usually strong: hit, hat, hutten or hitten. Compare footnote to shut.
6. Sometimes still used: 'The gentlemen may sit tight as long as they please, but they will be hoist by powers they cannot control' (Woodrow Wilson, Feb. 24, 1912). From hoist has been formed a regular weak verb — hoist, hoisted, hoisted — now in common use.
7. Still used in dialect.
8. Earlier in the period employed in adjective function: 'Initiate in the secrets of the skies' (Young, Night Thoughts, VI, 95). The old adjective participle is still used as a noun: the initiate, the uninitiate.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tr>
<td>instruct</td>
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<td>instructed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep</td>
<td>kept (59 2 B c)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>kemb †</td>
<td>kempt †</td>
<td>kempt † unkempt *</td>
</tr>
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<td>knead</td>
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<td>kneaded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>knelt 2</td>
<td>knelt</td>
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<tr>
<td>knit 3</td>
<td>knitted</td>
<td>knit, knitted</td>
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<tr>
<td>lade † 4</td>
<td>laded †</td>
<td>laden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laugh 5</td>
<td>laughed, lough †</td>
<td>laughed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lay 5</td>
<td>laid (but belayed)</td>
<td>laid (belayed)</td>
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<tr>
<td>lead</td>
<td>led (60 A f)</td>
<td>led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lad † (59 2 B c)</td>
<td>lad † (59 2 B c)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The dialectic parts keep, kἐp, kἐp are strong after the analogy of dialectic leap, ὁlep, ὁlep. Compare footnote to leap.

2 At present knelt seems to be more common than kneeled in both England and America. For the history of this interesting form see 59 2 B c (2nd par.).

3 Older knit, knīt, knīt are slowly yielding to newer knit, knitted, knitted. The older forms, however, are still favorites in figurative use: "knitted (also knit) goods." 'Her mother knitted (or knit) quietly beside a shaded lamp.' But: 'The two were knit in friendship together.' 'She knit (or knitted) her brows angrily.' 'A well-knit frame.' The past participle used as a noun always has the old short form: 'stunning knits' (advertisement). Compare 60 A c.

4 In the sense to load the parts in early Modern English were lade, laded, laden or laded, but lade is now usually replaced in the present and the past tense by load, a derivative from the noun load: 'They load the wagons every morning.' 'They loaded the wagons early this morning.' The past participle laden is still widely used in poetic style, but it is elsewhere more commonly replaced by loaded, except in adjective function in figurative use and in compounds in literal and in figurative meaning, where laden is the usual form: 'heavily loaded trucks,' 'a wagon loaded with hay,' 'a ship loaded with wheat,' but 'a soul laden with sin,' 'a sin-laden soul,' 'a hay-laden wagon.'

In the sense to dip out with a ladle, bail, the parts are lade, laded, laded. The word is now little used in this meaning.

5 In the literary language always transitive, but in British and American popular speech used also intransitively corresponding to literary lie, lay, lain. In older English this usage sometimes occurs in the literary language: 'And dashest him again to earth — there let him lay' (Byron, Childe Harold, IV, CLXXX).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lean</td>
<td>leaned</td>
<td>leaned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leap, lepe † ²</td>
<td>leaped, leped † ²</td>
<td>leaped, leped † ²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn</td>
<td>learned, ³ learned, ³</td>
<td>learnt ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leave</td>
<td>left (59 2 B c)</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lend</td>
<td>lent (59 2 B d)</td>
<td>lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let (arch.) ('hinder')</td>
<td>letted †</td>
<td>letten † ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lift (&quot;set fire to&quot;)</td>
<td>lifted</td>
<td>lifted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light (&quot;descend&quot;)</td>
<td>lighted, ⁵ light †</td>
<td>lighted, ⁵ light †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 *Learned* is more common than *leant* in the written language, but it is often pronounced *leant* (i.e. *lënt*). In general, the more common pronunciation of the past tense and past participle is *leant* (i.e. *lënt*) in England and *leand* (i.e. *leend*) in America. Compare 59 2 B c.

2 *Lepe*, leped † are older spelling variants of *leap*, leaped, leaped. *Leapt* (= lëpt) and *lept* † are spelling variants. The more common form for past tense and past participle is *leaped* in America. In England, both *leapt* and *leaped* are widely used, the former leading in frequency. Compare 59 2 B c. The old literary strong forms *lope* and *lopen* survive in dialect. The dialectic past tense *lëp* is the shortened form of the Middle English literary strong past tense. It is now used also as a past participle, so that the parts are: *leap*, lëp, lëp. *Creep*, *sleep*, *weep*, also originally strong verbs, have had in dialect the same development: *creep*, crëp, crëp; *sleep*, slëp, slëp; *weep*, wëp, wëp. In comparatively recent times three weak verbs have joined in dialect this strong group: *keep*, këp, këp; *reap*, rëp, rëp; *sweep*, swëp, swëp. Compare *creep*.

³ *Learned* is more common than *learnt* in the written language, but it is often pronounced *learnt*. In general, the more common pronunciation of the past tense and past participle is *learnt* (i.e. *lërt*) in England and *learnd* (i.e. *leernd*) in America. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.). The adjective form *learnèd* (learnèd men) is in universal use. For the pronunciation of *e* in *-ed* here see 59.

⁴ Still heard in northern British dialect. *Let* was originally strong. In the literary language it has become weak, following the analogy of *set*; but in northern British dialect the old strong past participle is preserved, as the past participle in *-en* is a favorite, being often used even with weak verbs. Compare footnote to *shut*.

⁵ In the sense *set fire to* *lighted* or *lit* are both common in verbal function and in the predicate, while in attributive adjective use *lighted* is the usual form: *He lighted, or lit, a cigar.* ‘Even at a distance I could see that the house was all lighted, or lit, up,’ but ‘a lighted cigar,’ ‘a well-lighted room.’
In figurative use lit is the more common form: ‘Her eyes lit up.’ ‘A star-lit night,’ ‘a mirth-lit face.’ In compounds instead of lighted we sometimes find the irregular adjective form -litten: ‘red-litten windows’ (Poe, Haunted Palace, VI), ‘dim-litten chamber’ (Morris, Earthly Paradise, III, 9). In this sense the derivative verb alight has become obsolete, except the past participle alight in adjective function in the predicate relation: ‘Mine’s (my candle is) alight’ (Browning, The Ring and the Book, XII, 581). ‘Having the little brazen lamp alight’ (Shelley, Julian, 553). ‘But, then, evening came, and the stars sprang alight’ (S. G. Millin, God’s Stepchildren, Ch. II, 1).

In the sense ‘descend’ the derivative verb alight is common. The regular weak forms are more common than the strong: ‘We alighted and walked a little way.’ ‘They alighted from their car.’ ‘The aviator has just alighted from his airplane.’ We do not use lit or lighted of persons getting down from a horse, car, or airplane, as in these examples, but we use these forms freely of persons, animals, and things in other applications of the meaning ‘descend’: ‘He fell from the tree, and lit, or lighted, on his head.’ ‘The bird came down, and lit, or lighted, on a limb of a tree.’ ‘A snowflake lit, or lighted, on his nose.’ ‘A curse lit, or lighted, upon the land.’ ‘I have never lit, or lighted, upon this meaning of the word before.’

The parts light, lit, lit follow the analogy of bite, bit, bit. See 62 (p. 302).

1 Archaic forms. The third person singular of the present tense has three forms: listeth, list, (contracted from listth), lists. ‘The wind bloweth where it listeth.’ ‘Let him come when him list.’

2 After the analogy of laden: ‘laden with heavy news’ (Shakespeare, Henry the Fourth, First Part, I, 1, 37).

3 In older English, loose was employed as a variant spelling of lose. Although we now feel lose as a weak form, it is historically an old strong present. See lose in 63.

4 Of metals and other things difficult to liquefy we say ‘melted or molten gold, lava, glass,’ etc., but always ‘melted butter, snow,’ etc.

5 In older English, mete was a strong verb in the same class as eat, and
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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tr>
<td>mitigate</td>
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<tr>
<td>mow</td>
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<td>obligate</td>
<td>obligated</td>
<td>obligated</td>
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<tr>
<td>owe (57 4 A c)</td>
<td>owed, ought †</td>
<td>owed, own *</td>
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<tr>
<td>pave</td>
<td>paved</td>
<td>paved</td>
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<tr>
<td>pay</td>
<td>paid</td>
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<td>pen, pend † (‘confine’)</td>
<td>payed (‘let out rope’)</td>
<td>payed</td>
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<td>pitch</td>
<td>pitched</td>
<td>pitched</td>
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<tr>
<td>plead, plede †</td>
<td>pleaded</td>
<td>pleaded</td>
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<td>plight</td>
<td>plighted</td>
<td>plighted</td>
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<td>prostrate</td>
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<tr>
<td>prove</td>
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<td>proved</td>
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</table>

formed its parts in the same way: mete, mete, mete(n), as in ete, ete, ete(n). These parts have disappeared from the literary language, but, in the case of eat, they survive in dialect. See eat in 63. At this time mete was associated also with get, and sometimes formed its parts in the same way: met, mot, motten. It was also under the influence of meet, as can be seen by its older parts: mete, met, met. It is now entirely regular.

1 After the analogy of shaven, now little used outside of poetry.
2 An adjective participle of the obsolete pend (once a variant of pen): ‘his pent-up fury,’ ‘pent-up emotions.’
3 Pronounced pled and in older English often written so. It was once used in choice language: ‘And with him . . . came Many grave persons that against her pled.’ (Spenser, The Faerie Queene, V, IX, XLIII, A.D. 1596). It is now little used in England, but lingers in American colloquial speech: ‘They plead so hard that I finally gave in’ (Theodore Roosevelt, Letter to Miss Emily T. Carow, Aug. 6, 1903).
4 A northern British participle that is sometimes used in the literary language. There is a trend in northern British dialects toward the past
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<th>Present</th>
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<td>quake</td>
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<tr>
<td>quit</td>
<td>quit, quitted</td>
<td>quit, quitted</td>
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<tr>
<td>rap ('strike')</td>
<td>rapped</td>
<td>rapped</td>
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<tr>
<td>reach</td>
<td>reached</td>
<td>reached</td>
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<tr>
<td>read, rede,†</td>
<td>read, red,†</td>
<td>read, red,†</td>
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<tr>
<td>reap</td>
<td>reaped</td>
<td>reaped</td>
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<td>reave</td>
<td>reft</td>
<td>reft</td>
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<tr>
<td>redd †</td>
<td>(now pop.)</td>
<td>redd †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redintegrate</td>
<td>redintegrated</td>
<td>redintegrated</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Participle in -en. Even a number of weak verbs take this strong participial ending in these dialects: proven, shutten (see shut), etc. In the eighteenth century, under Scotch influence, proven began to appear in the literary language of the South of England. It is still occasionally used in the literary language. It is most common with passive force in the predicate relation: 'That is not yet proven.' But the regular form proved is more common even here.

1 In northern British dialect this verb is strong: put or pit, pat, putten or pitten.

2 After the analogy of shook.

3 The ordinary form in England. American English preserves the older form quit. In the meaning cease this word is very common in America but in this sense is not used at all in England: 'He has quit smoking.' This meaning is a survival of older British usage. It survives also in Scotch and Irish English, which may have strengthened the American tendency. The form in -ed is regularly used also in American English with acquit, also with simple quit when used in archaic language with the meaning of acquit. Compare 60 A c.

4 'The rapt saint is found the only logician' (Emerson). 'It is not the poetry of deep meditation or of rapt enthusiasm.' In older English a present and a past tense were formed from this participle, but they have gone out of use. The participle itself comes from Latin raptus.

5 Older spelling variants of read, read, read are rede or reed, red, red, which indicate the pronunciation more accurately than read, read, read, but have not become established in the language.

6 Often written red: 'I red(d) up the house before they came.' Rid has the same force, but it is usually associated with out: 'I rid the closets out while you were gone.' But we hear also: 'I rid up the house before they came.'
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<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<td>reeve</td>
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<td>reeved</td>
<td>reeved</td>
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<td>reject</td>
<td>rejected</td>
<td>rejected</td>
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<tr>
<td>rend</td>
<td>rent</td>
<td>reject †</td>
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<tr>
<td>rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
<td>rent</td>
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<td></td>
<td>ridded 1</td>
<td>ridded 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>ring (cattle)</td>
<td>rung †</td>
<td>rung †</td>
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<td>rive</td>
<td>rived</td>
<td>rived</td>
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<td>roast</td>
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<tr>
<td>rot</td>
<td>rotted</td>
<td>rotted †</td>
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<td>row</td>
<td>rowed</td>
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<td>satiate</td>
<td>satiated</td>
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<tr>
<td>saw</td>
<td>sawed</td>
<td>sawed</td>
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<tr>
<td>say 5</td>
<td>said 5</td>
<td>said 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>seek</td>
<td>sought (59 2 B a)</td>
<td>sought</td>
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<tr>
<td>seem</td>
<td>seemed</td>
<td>seemed</td>
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</table>

1 In the active now the more common form in England: ‘We ridded, have ridded (or rid), the land of robbers,’ but ‘I thought myself well rid (passive) of him.’ In America rid is the usual form for past tense and past participle, active and passive. Compare 60 A c.

2 ‘He prefers roast beef,’ but ‘He prefers his meat roasted.’ Compare 60 A c.

3 Rotted is used both in verbal and adjective function. Rotten is the old strong Danish form of the participle, used only in adjective function. The two adjective participles differ in meaning in that rotten always contains the idea of the undesirable, unpleasant, bad, disgusting: ‘Rotted leaf-mould is a good fertilizer,’ but only unpleasant ideas are associated with ‘rotten eggs,’ ‘rotten politician,’ etc.

4 In the fifteenth century saw had besides the old regular weak forms also new strong ones: past sew, past participle sawn, after the analogy of draw, drew, drawn. The strong participle survives. In England it is now the more common form, and is the decided favorite in adjective function, as in ‘sawn wood.’ In America the old weak form is preferred.

5 The vowel is long in the present tense except in the 3rd pers. sing. form says (= sēz): It is short in says and in the past tense and the past participle, but the vowel of said is often long in gainsaid, past tense and past participle. Compare 59 2 B c.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seethe</td>
<td>seethed</td>
<td>seethed, sodden * 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sell</td>
<td>sold (59 2 B a)</td>
<td>sold</td>
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<tr>
<td>send</td>
<td>sold</td>
<td>sold</td>
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<tr>
<td>separate</td>
<td>separated</td>
<td>separated * 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>set</td>
<td>set 3 (60 A c)</td>
<td>set, setten 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sew, sow †</td>
<td>sewed</td>
<td>sewed, sewn 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>shape</td>
<td>shaped</td>
<td>shaped</td>
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<tr>
<td>shave</td>
<td>shaved</td>
<td>shaved</td>
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</table>

1 Now usually employed as a pure adjective without any feeling of its relation to seethe: 'The cake was sodden' (= doughty). From this adjective a verb sodden has been coined: 'The rains have soddened the earth.' Earlier in the period the participle sodden could have pure verbal force and its relation to seethe in its old meaning boil was still clearly felt: 'We saw crabs swimming on the water that were red as though they had been sodden' (T. Stevens, *Hakluyt's Voy.*, II, II, 101, A.D. 1579). Sod was used here alongside of sodden: 'Fysshe may be sod, rostyd, and baken' (Andrew Boorde, *E.E.T.S.*, Ex. Ser. 10, p. 277, A.D. 1542).

2 Now employed only in adjective function. Earlier in the period it could have pure verbal force: 'After they have separate from all other Churches' (R. Baillie, *Anabaptism*, 51, A.D. 1646). For the difference of pronunciation between verbal separate and adjective separate see 60 A c (close of last par.).

3 In many dialects the parts are strong, set, sot, sot, after the analogy of get, got, got. In northern British dialects the past participle setten is widespread. Compare footnote to shut. In older English set sometimes replaced sit, even in the literary language: 'It is very possible that the President and the new Congress are setting at New York' (Jefferson, *Writings*, II, 385, A.D. 1788). This usage survives in popular speech: 'He set, or sot, down on the bench.' On the other hand, in older literary English sit sometimes replaced set: 'The foremost sat (now set) down his load (B. Church, *Hist. Philip's War*, I, 119, A.D. 1716). Compare 63 footnote to sit.

4 Of the two verbs sew and sow † the form sew alone survives, but it has the pronunciation of sow. The strong past participles sown †, sewn show the influence of the strong participle blown. The form sewn is little used in America, but is common in England, where it is competing with the old original weak form sewed. In America the old weak form is still the usual one.

5 Now obsolete or archaic except in the adjective participle misshapen. The adjective participle well-shapen is somewhat archaic, well-shaped being now more common. The older strong form was in early Modern English still used also in the past tense, where shoope (also spelled shope) was employed alongside of the more common shaped.

6 Now employed only in adjective use, but in early Modern English employed also with verbal force.
Present | Past | Past Participle
---|---|---
shear | sheared, shorn | sheared, shorn
shed, shode | sheared, shore, shod | sheared, shore, shed
shend | shent | shent
shoe | shod, shoed | shod, shoed
shoot | shot, shotte, shotted | shot, shotte, shotted

1 This form is the common one in figurative use and in poetical style: 'Shorn of one's authority, one's privileges.' 'These are the unshorn fields, boundless and beautiful' (Bryant, Prairies, 2). In England, however, it is still quite common in its old concrete meaning: 'The sheep are being shorn' (in America usually sheared). When employed as an adjective, it is often used in England of human hair, and is sometimes indispensable here, as it cannot be replaced by another word: 'the caresses of the old gentleman unshorn and perfumed by tobacco' (Thackeray, Vanity Fair, Ch. XXXIX). In America we avoid this use of the word wherever we can: 'a neglected beard,' 'a neatly trimmed beard,' etc.

2 Old weak forms once used in the literary language: 'Who can recount what plente of teares she shodd for her owne sinnes' (Lives of Women Saints, 102, 9, A.D. 1610). This form survives in dialect. Older shode — shod shows the same development as shoot — shot, i.e. long present, short past. See 69 2 B c.

3 In the modern period there has been a tendency towards the regular parts shoe, shoed, shoed, but it has not become strong in either dialect or the literary language. For an explanation of the short vowel in shoed see 69 2 B c.

4 In older English, shote, shoote, shoute, shute, were employed as variant spellings of shoot. Shute, however, had a little different pronunciation. There was an i sound before the vowel, as in chuse (63 under choose). The past form shotte is an older spelling variant of shot. In Middle English, the final e was sounded. Shotte † is an old weak past, later shortened to shott, still later entirely replaced by the spelling shot. The older spelling shotte continued to be used for a while in early Modern English, but the final e was no longer pronounced. Instead of shoot there were in Old English two verbs, one strong, one weak, with different forms throughout — the strong verb of the second class (62) sceotan and the weak verb scotian. The strong form survives in the present tense shoot and the weak in shot, past tense and past participle. As the vowel is long in shoot and short in shot, the feeling arose that the short past belonged to the long present, as in the large group in 59 2 B c. We see the same development in lose, lost, lost as explained in 63 under lose. In early Modern English there was in limited use the old strong past participle shotten, which has since disappeared in the literary language, but survives in northern British dialect, also here and there in American dialect. In northern British English it is still employed with verbal force, in America it survives widely only in adjective function: 'You are as lean as a shotten herring.' Compare 'If manhood, good manhood, be not forgot upon the face of the earth, then am I a shotten herring' (Shakespeare, I Henry the Fourth, II, iv, 143). The Santa Ana (Calif.) Register (Mar. 3, 1931) reports a Negro as using this form with verbal force: 'I has shotten craps for 45 years.'
LIST OF IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS

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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>show, shew ♠</td>
<td>showed, shew ♠ ¹</td>
<td>shown</td>
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<td>shred</td>
<td>shredded</td>
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<td>shrow, shred (60 A c)</td>
<td>shrived</td>
<td>shriven</td>
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<td>shut, shit, † shet †</td>
<td>shut (60 A c)</td>
<td>shut, shutten ³</td>
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<td>sigh</td>
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<td>smarted</td>
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<td>smell</td>
<td>smelled ⁵</td>
<td>smelled ⁵</td>
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<td>speed</td>
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¹ Popular strong past of show, earlier in the period employed also in the literary language. Show, shew †, shown were formed after the analogy of blow, blew, blown. The strong past participle, shown, is still the usual literary form.

² Survives in dialect: 'When we grewed up, and they shet down on me and her a-runnin' roun' Together' (James Whitcomb Riley, Marthy Ellen).

³ Heard in British dialect. In some dialects the past participle in -en is a favorite, especially in northern British. It is even used, as here, with weak verbs. Compare the footnote to hear, let, and prove.

⁴ Heard in American dialect. These parts are formed after the analogy of popular begin, begun, begun.

⁵ Smelled is the more common form in America, smelt the more common form in England. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

⁶ After the analogy of blow, blew, blown.

⁷ In rather choice literary English we still use speed in the general sense of a rapid movement, now usually with the parts speed, sped, sped: 'I sped to meet them' (Keats, A Galloway Song, 14). 'In two autos they sped along
the Lincoln Highway’ (Chicago Tribune, Apr. 24, 1927). ‘The bullet sped on its fatal course.’ ‘The glance he sped towards his betrothed was brimful of expectant love’ (H. Herman, His Angel, XII, 236). In older English, also speed, speeded, speeded were used here: ‘I have speeded (now sped) hither with the very extremest inch of possibility’ (Shakespeare, II Henry the Fourth, IV, iii, 37).

Where there is a reference to an engine or to mechanical or routine movement or work of any kind, the usual parts are speed, speeded, speeded: ‘This engine is speeded to run 300 revolutions per minute.’ ‘I speeded up, or speeded up the motor, so as to arrive on time.’ ‘We speeded up the work on the house as much as we could.’ ‘Ship-construction is to be speeded up as much as possible.’ ‘He speeded through the main thoroughfare of the city and was fined for it,’ i.e. he drove his car faster than the law permits. Speeded is often used of a high engine speed in general, where also sped might be employed: ‘The machines speeded (or sped) on south and across the boulevard’ (Chicago Tribune, Mar. 23, 1927).

1 Spelled is the more common form in America, spell the more common form in England. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

2 Spilt is the more common form in America, spilt the more common form in England. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

3 In American English the usual colloquial form for past tense and past participle is spit, but spat is coming into ever wider use in the literary language and will doubtless ultimately prevail: ‘She spat in his face’ (The New York Times, July 19, 1934). ‘The boy took a gulp, choked, and spat it out’ (Ralph Connor, The Man from Glengarry, Ch. I). ‘Crooked Jack spat on his hand and resumed his work’ (L. M. Montgomery, The Chronicles of Avonlea, Ch. II). ‘As they passed, he spat tobacco juice on the dog’ (E. T. Seton, Ralph in the Woods, Ch. XVII). ‘The blood came, but the shiftless one merely spat it out’ (J. A. Altsheler, The Scouts of the Valley, Ch. X). ‘As Dar Mennou came into view, Madani turned back and spat on the new road’ (Wythe Williams, Saturday Evening Post, Aug. 28, 1926). ‘Jack spat’ (S. V. Benét, John Brown’s Body, p. 367). ‘Now and then a wave spat in the faces of the passengers huddled aft’ (Harry A. Franck, A Vagabond Journey around the World, Ch. III). In England spat is the more common form for past tense and past participle. In older English, two different verbs were in use here — spit and spete. The principal parts of spit were spit, spit, spit. The parts of spete were spète, spêt or spât, spê or spât. The form spat survives. The parts spit, spât, spat seem to be after the analogy of sit, sat, sat, which may have facilitated their establishment, but historically spat is past tense and past participle of spète. For the weak past tense forms spat and spat † see 59 2 B c (last par.). The influence of sit here can be seen also in the older past tense spate and in the older past participles spitten and spetten. Compare
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>split</td>
<td>split (60 A c)</td>
<td>split,† splitten * †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spoil</td>
<td>spoiled ¹</td>
<td>spoiled ¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spoil</td>
<td>spoilt ¹</td>
<td>spoilt ¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spread (60 A c)</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>start</td>
<td>started</td>
<td>started</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stave</td>
<td>staved ²</td>
<td>staved ²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stove</td>
<td>stove ²</td>
<td>stove ²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stay</td>
<td>stayed</td>
<td>stayed, staid * ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stay</td>
<td>staid</td>
<td>staid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stretch</td>
<td>stretched</td>
<td>stretched, straight * ⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strew, ⁵, strow †</td>
<td>strewed</td>
<td>strewed, strewn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strewed †</td>
<td>strowed †</td>
<td>strewn, † strowed †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>subjected</td>
<td>subjected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>subject †</td>
<td>subject †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subjugate</td>
<td>subjugated</td>
<td>subjugated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffocate</td>
<td>suffocated</td>
<td>suffocated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suspect</td>
<td>suspected</td>
<td>suspected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suspect</td>
<td>suspect * ⁶</td>
<td>suspect †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweat</td>
<td>sweat, ⁷, sweated</td>
<td>sweat, ⁷, sweated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweat</td>
<td>swat †</td>
<td>swat, † sweaten †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

sit, 63. In the meaning ‘transfix’ spit is regular: ‘He spitted some meat and set it to roast.’

¹ Spoiled is the more common form in the written language, but the more common pronunciation of the past tense and past participle is spoilt in England and spoild in America. These forms, however, are pronounced spoild also in England in the sense of despoil, plunder, deprive. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

² ‘I staved, have staved, off a bad cold.’ ‘Two of his ribs were stove, or staved, in.’ ‘The fore compartment of the boat was stove (nautical term) in by the collision.’

³ ‘A staid elderly man.’

⁴ ‘A straight line,’ ‘straight dealings.’

⁵ The strong past participles strown †, strewn show that strow † and strew have been influenced by blow — blown. In pure verbal use the weak past participle strewed is more common than the strong form strewn, but in adjective use the strong form seems to be the favorite: ‘They have strewed (or strewn) the floor with sand,’ but ‘a floor strewn (or strewed) with sand,’ ‘a pathway strewn (or strewed) with flowers.’ ‘The table was strewn (or strewed) with papers.’

⁶ ‘Enemy statements are suspect.’ Compare 60 A c (2nd par.). This form has become established under French influence.

⁷ Widely used in America though now obsolete in England, which prefers the newer form sweated: ‘He sweat plentifully during the night.’ As a causative the form in -ed is the usual one also in America: ‘His physician sweated
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sweat (caus.)</td>
<td>sweated</td>
<td>sweated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweep</td>
<td>swept</td>
<td>sweep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swell</td>
<td>swelled</td>
<td>swollen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taint</td>
<td>tainted</td>
<td>taint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach</td>
<td>taught (59 2 B a)</td>
<td>taught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell</td>
<td>told (59 2 B a)</td>
<td>told</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thaw</td>
<td>thawed</td>
<td>thawed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>threat †</td>
<td>threatened †</td>
<td>threatened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thresh, thrash ․</td>
<td>thresher, thresher</td>
<td>thresher, thresher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The dialectic forms sweep, swep, swep are strong after the analogy of dialectic leap, lep, lēp. Compare footnote to leap.

2 Swollen is for the most part the usual form in adjective function: 'swollen cheeks,' 'the swollen river,' 'swollen estimates.' 'The cheeks are swollen.' 'The river is swollen.' Swollen and swelled are now differentiated in 'swollen head' (swollen from physical causes) and 'swelled head' (swelled by conceit). As a pure verb swelled is the more common form: 'The wood has swelled from moisture.' 'A creek that had been swelled by a spring freshet' (Victor Appleton, Don Sturdy in the Port of Lost Ships, Ch. I). 'Our hearts have often swelled with indignation at the sight of these conditions.' 'The crowd around the door had swelled to a considerable size.' 'The army had been swelled by large reinforcements.' 'A lively breeze has swelled our sails.' Even in pure verbal function, however, swollen is sometimes still used of a swelling arising from a diseased condition: 'My face has swelled, or swollen, considerably in the last two hours.' Figuratively: 'The river has swelled, or swollen, a good deal during the night.' The past participle swollen is used more widely in England than in America.

3 Still used in popular speech.

4 In popular speech the parts of thaw are sometimes thaw, thew, thawn after the analogy of draw, drew, drawn. In older English thawn was in limited use also in the literal language.

5 Thrash was originally a mere variant of thresh, but it has become differentiated in meaning from it, now being used with the force of flog soundly, conquer, surpass, and, in a nautical sense, make way against wind or tide, as in 'We thrashed to windward.'
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Present  | Past  | Past Participle
---|---|---
thrive  | thrived, thrave ¹  | thrived ¹
thrust  | thrust (60 A c)  | thrust ¹
toss  | tossed  | tossed ¹
touch, tech ²  | touched  | touched ¹
touched  | touched ¹
useth  | used to (āstū or āstē)  | used to (52 2 b, 2nd par.)
waft  | wafted  | wafted ¹
wash  | washed  | washed ¹
wax, wex ³  | waxed, wexed ³  | waxed, wexed ³
wed  | wed ⁵  | wed ⁵
wedded  | wedded ⁵

¹ Thrive, thrived, thrived are the more common forms in America, while thrive, throve, throve are preferred in England.
² The parts in popular speech are locally tech, toch, toch: ‘Trojan fotch him his revolver and he wouldn't tech it’ (Lucy Furman, Mothering on Perilous, Ch. XXVII). ‘I haint toch my hand to a game of keeps this whole school’ (ib., Ch. XXVIII).
³ In older English employed in the different tenses, but now confined to the past tense and the past participle: ‘I used to do it.’ ‘I am used to doing it.’ ‘He did not use, or used not, to smoke,’ or colloquially ‘He didn’t use, or usedn’t (usen’t), to smoke,’ where Americans prefer the do-forms, Britishers the simple form. In America and England both constructions are often blended in colloquial and popular speech: ‘I didn’t used to mind your embarrassing me’ (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, last Ch.). Similarly in the positive form: ‘It did used to be a willow’ (Wells, Mr. Britling Sees It Through, p. 74). In questions we say: ‘Did you use to do such things?’ or ‘Used you to do such things?’
In dialect the strong past participle usen is employed, which is used also as a past tense: ‘Me and you ain’t usen ter dese small-town slow ways’ (DuBose Heyward, Porgy, p. 82). ‘He usen tuh hate all dese children’ (ib., p. 64). Originally, of course, the verb was weak. In certain British dialects a weak suffix is added to the strong: ‘I can’t think as it usened to smell so’ (George Eliot, Silas Marner, p. 268).
⁴ A little earlier in the period still in use in adjective function: ‘With washen hands They took the salted meal’ (W. C. Bryant, Iliad, I, 563, A.D. 1870). In a recent poem of the English poet Rupert Brooke, The Great Lover, which appeared in 1914, we find ‘Washen stones gay for an hour.’ Still earlier in the period it was employed with full verbal force: ‘When you give her casting of flannel or cotton, take care to have them washen as clean as they can be’ (J. Campbell, Mod. Faulconry, 199, A.D. 1773).
⁵ The parts wed, wedded, wedded are the usual ones in England, while in America wed, wed, wed (60 A c) are more common: ‘MISS LUCIA B. PAGE TO BE WED ON SEPT. 9’ (headlines in The New York Times, Aug. 31, 1933).
In adjective function, however, the past participle *wedded* is universal: ‘wedded life.’ ‘I am not wedded to this idea.’ In the substantive relation we say ‘newly weeds,’ but ‘among the happily wedded.’

1 The short form *wet* is little used in England for either the past tense or the past participle, but it is widely employed in America: ‘He wet his lips.’ ‘The rain has wet the grass.’ But the longer form *wetted* is used also in America in the passive to distinguish the participle from the adjective *wet*: ‘The particles of copper sulphide become wetted by the oil’ (Smith’s *Intermediate Chemistry*, p. 511). It is used in America also with the objective predicate (8, 4th par.) adverb *down* to indicate the result of the action: ‘He filled the ditch with earth and wetted it down.’

2 *Wont*, the past participle of the obsolete verb *won* (= dwell, be accustomed), has an expanded form *wonted*, which is used principally as an adherent (8) adjective: ‘He is (was, has been) wont to act with energy,’ but ‘He acted with his wonted energy.’ From the past participle *wont*, used in the sense of accustomed, has been formed the verb *wont*, which has as past tense the forms *wonted* or *wont*: ‘He wonts to act with energy.’ ‘In those days he wonted, or wont, to act with energy.’ In older English, the third person singular of the present tense was sometimes without an ending, after the analogy of *list* and *hight*, which also end in *t*: ‘I bear it on my shoulders as a beggar wont (= wonts to bear) her brat’ (Shakespeare, *The Comedy of Errors*, IV, iv, 38). The verb *wont* has not yet developed an infinitive or a participle. It has also never become so common as is (was) wont, which itself is only used in poetry or choice prose. From the old participle *wont* has been formed the noun *wont*: ‘He will, as is his wont, act with energy.’

Scott used archaically the old form *wonn’d* in the sense of dwell: ‘Up spoke the moody Elfin King, Who wonn’d within the hill’ (*Alice Brand*, X).

3 ‘Wrought iron,’ ‘overwrought nerves.’ It is used also in certain expressions as a verbal participle: ‘a belief which has wrought much evil.’ Also the past *wrought* is still used in certain expressions: ‘She wrought upon his feelings.’ ‘This wrought infinite mischief.’
FORMATION OF THE STRONG PAST

61. Strong verbs form the past tense without a suffix, by changing the root vowel: eat, ate; know, knew.

They form the past participle with the suffix -en or -n: eaten, known. The vowel of the past participle may be either the same as that of the past tense, or the same as that of the present tense, or it may be different from that of both: tread, trod, trodden; shake, shook, shaken; drive, drove, driven.

In many verbs the suffix of the past participle has disappeared: bind, bound, bound. The older form of the participle in -en is often preserved in adjectives: 'The ship has sunk,' but 'a sunken ship.'

The past tense of see may serve as an example:

1 These old forms, still found in poetic language, are old strong participles of the once strong verb writhe, which formerly had a wider meaning than now, namely, 'twist,' 'turn,' 'bind.' The old participles preserve the old meaning: 'The tawny stream . . . Of intertwining writhen snakes was full' (Morris, Earthly Paradise, Doom of King Acrisius, 72, A.D. 1868–1870). "‘Red Injun stuff, hey?’ scoffed Beemis from between writhen lips’ (Albert Payson Terhune, Treasure, Ch. XIII, A.D. 1926). 'And they put the two wreathen chains of gold in two rings on the ends of the breastplate' (Exodus, XXXIX, 17). ‘And all the scowling faces became smile-wreathen’ (Annie Besant, Autobiography, 74, A.D. 1893). Wreathen arose in Middle English as writhen, a variant of writhen (a regular past participle of the first class [62] of strong verbs). This Middle English development of i into e (later often written ea) was once a common feature of the past participles of this class. Wreathen is the only surviving participle with this form. In early Modern English, there were other participles with this form: 'I would have wreten (now written) to you' (Seffield, Letter, A.D. 1685).

2 Archaic past participle of the obsolete verb clepe (= call), sometimes still employed in poetical or serio-comical language: 'the sweet wood yclept sassafras' (Lamb, Elia, Series I, Praise of Chimney-Sweepers); 'the Associated South London Extended Gold Mines Corporation, yclept in the market Suds' (Westminster Gazette, Feb. 23, 1900). For the prefix y-, see 59 2.
FORMATION OF THE STRONG PAST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I saw</td>
<td>I saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you saw (old form, thou sawest)</td>
<td>you saw (thou sawest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he saw</td>
<td>he saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we saw</td>
<td>we saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you saw (old form, ye saw)</td>
<td>you (ye) saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they saw</td>
<td>they saw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Middle English, there was in strong verbs no *est*-ending in the second person singular of the *thou*-form as now. See Middle English past tense in 3 below. In early Modern English, the weak *est*-ending was extended to strong verbs, but in the early part of the period there was sometimes no *-est* here, as in older English: 'And nowe behold the thing that thou erewhile Saw only in thought' (Thomas Sackville, *Induction to Mirror to Magistrates*, LXXVI, A.D. 1563). This form without *-est* was sometimes extended to weak verbs. Compare 59 (last par.). This form served also as a subjunctive: 'If thou saw thyne enimie thus mangled and wounded, it might styrre thee to take compassion vpon him' (John Fisher, *Works*, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser., p. 403, early sixteenth century). Later, the subjunctive here, differing from usage in the present, took *-(e)st*, as in the indicative. The ending *-(e)st* is now usually employed in all past indicatives and subjunctives, strong or weak, except in the case of *wast* and *wert* (1 c below). The regular ending of full verbs not ending in *-ed* is *-est*, but it is *-st* for those ending in *-ed* and for the auxiliaries other than *wast* and *wert*: 'thou wrotest,' 'thou sleptest,' but 'thou lovèdest,' 'thou didest,' 'thou shouldst,' 'thou wouldst.' Sometimes, however, the ending is dropped, whether the form be indicative or subjunctive: 'I heard Thee when Thou bade me spurn destruction' (S. V. Benét, *John Brown's Body*, p. 32).

1. **Irregular Past Tense.** There is one irregular strong past tense form — that of the verb *be*. It preserves certain peculiarities of older inflection, as can be seen by comparing its forms with the Old English forms in 2 below. The vowel of the plural indicative is different from that of the singular. As the common form for the second person singular is historically the second person plural, as in 56, its vowel is different from that of the first and third persons. The vowel of the subjunctive is uniform throughout, being the same as that of the indicative plural.

Past tense forms of *be*:
298 FORMATION OF THE STRONG PAST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I was</td>
<td>I were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you were (old forms, thou wast, wert, wart, † werst, † were †)</td>
<td>you were (thou wert, werëst, † werst, † were †)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he was</td>
<td>he were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we were</td>
<td>we were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you were (old form, ye were)</td>
<td>you (ye) were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they were</td>
<td>they were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. In older English, war was dialectically used instead of was. The singular form war or were is still heard here and there in British dialect. Also in American dialect: 'Robbins (name) war a good man' (DuBose Heyward, Porgy, p. 33). 'I follered singing when I were young' (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. I). The contracted negative form wa'n't or warn't was once sometimes employed in the literary language: 'No, that wa'n't it' (Sheridan, The Rivals, II, i, A.D. 1775). This form survives in popular speech: 'I'm plumb sure it was a Swamp Hole boat. Reckon 'twan't none of ours' (Ralph Henry Barbour, Pud Pringle Pirate, Ch. XIX). 'When she warn't scoldin' Amos, she was scoldin' about him' (Amy Lowell, East Wind, p. 113). The contraction in the literary language is now, of course, wasn't, as it rests upon the literary past tense was.

b. In older English, in accordance with the general usage elsewhere of one form for singular and plural in the past tense, was was often used for were in the second person where the reference was to a single individual: 'And was you in company with this lawyer?' (Fielding, Tom Jones, Book XVIII, Ch. V). 'I conclude you was eased of that friendly apprehension' (Alexander Pope, Letter to Swift, Mar. 25, 1736). Compare Syntax, 8 I 1 h

Note.

c. In the second person singular the indicative form wert occurs sometimes still as a variant of wast: 'Just now thou wert but a coward' (Kingsley, Westward Ho! Ch. XVIII). In early Modern English, the old forms were, wart, werst, were still in use here. Were is the old original form without a consonantal ending, as in 61 (last par.). The ending -t in wert, wart, and wast is after the analogy of the -t in art (thou art). The -st in werst is after the analogy of the usual modern ending -st, as in 61 (last par.). The corresponding early Modern English subjunctive forms were were, wert, and werëst or werst. In the Bible of the seventeenth century the
indicative and subjunctive were differentiated here by the employment of *thou wast* for the former and *thou wert* for the latter. This differentiation is in general still observed, but there is some fluctuation, *thou wert* sometimes being used instead of *thou wast*.

d. As the past subjunctive has become identical in form with the past indicative in all verbs except *be*, we often in colloquial speech find the past indicative singular *was* used as a past subjunctive singular instead of the regular *were*, after the analogy of other verbs in which the past subjunctive is identical in form with the past indicative: ‘He looks as if he *was* sick.’ In older English, this usage often occurs in the literary language: ‘I shall act by her as tenderly as if I *was* her own mother’ (Richardson, *Pamela*, II, p. 216). Compare *Syntax, 44 II 5 C* (2nd par.).

2. **Old English Past Tense.** The vowel of the plural indicative and the second person singular is, in most verbs, different from that of the first and third persons singular. The vowel of the subjunctive is uniform throughout, being the same as the vowel of the indicative plural.

The strong verbs *bind, help, fare*, inflected in the present tense in Old English form in 56 3 a, are inflected in the past tense in Old English form as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular, 1, 2, 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. band</td>
<td>healp</td>
<td>för</td>
<td>bounde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bunde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
<td>bunde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. band</td>
<td>healp</td>
<td>för</td>
<td>bounde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural, 1, 2, 3

bundon hulpon föron bunden hulpen fören

**Past Participle** (ge) bunden, holpen, faren

3. **Middle English Past Tense.** The past tense forms of the verbs in 2 above are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>bounde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bond</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. band</td>
<td>healp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. bond


### Classes of Strong Verbs

There were in older English seven well-defined classes of these verbs, grouped together on the basis of the vowels of their present and past tense and their past participle, as illustrated by the following seven verbs, each of which represents its own class:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. writan</strong></td>
<td>write</td>
<td>writen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. cēosan</strong></td>
<td>choose</td>
<td>coren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. singan</strong></td>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV. beran</strong></td>
<td>bear</td>
<td>boren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>V. sittan</strong></td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>seten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VI. scacan</strong></td>
<td>shake</td>
<td>scacen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VII. blāwan</strong></td>
<td>blow</td>
<td>blāwan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Old English Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. writan</td>
<td>write</td>
<td>writen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. cēosan</td>
<td>choose</td>
<td>coren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. singan</td>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. beran</td>
<td>bear</td>
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</tr>
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<td>V. sittan</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>seten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. scacan</td>
<td>shake</td>
<td>scacen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. blāwan</td>
<td>blow</td>
<td>blāwan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Middle English Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. write(n)</td>
<td>wroot</td>
<td>written</td>
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<tr>
<td>II. cheese(n),</td>
<td>chees</td>
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<tr>
<td>chōse(n)</td>
<td>chōse(n)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. singe(n)</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. bēre(n)</td>
<td>bār, bāre</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. sitte(n)</td>
<td>sāt, sāte</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. schāke(n)</td>
<td>schōk</td>
<td>schāken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. blowe(n)</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blowen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Alongside of this form was the variant cēosan, from which M.E. chose(n) and our present form choose come.
2. Spelling variants of schōk, schōke(n).
For many years there have been forces working upon the vowels of these verbs and upon the verbs themselves, affecting them in many ways and thus breaking up the old classes. Earlier in the present period, a number of words in the fourth class had a in their past tense and o in the perfect participle: bear, bare, born; break, brake, broken; speak, spake, spoken; steal, stale, stolen. Gradually the o of the past participle assimilated to itself the a of the past tense, so that bare, brake, spake, stale, became bore, broke, spoke, stole. In choose, cleave, freeze — verbs of the second class — a similar development has taken place, the Old English plural vowel u of the past tense conforming in Middle English to the o of the past participle, to which still later the singular vowel conformed. Thus the Old English past tense plurals curon, clufon, fruron, later in the Middle English period, following the analogy of the past participles chosen, cloven, frosen, became chose(n), clove(n), frose(n). Still later in early Modern English, the vowel of the singular was conformed to that of the plural, chees — chose(n), cleef — clove(n), frees — frose(n), becoming chose — chose, clove — clove, froze — froze. In the thirteenth century, get and speak were in the fifth class with the principal parts gēten, gat, gēten; spēken, spack, spēken. Later these verbs came under the influence of the fourth class (bear, bar or bare, born), their principal parts becoming gēt, gat or gate, gēten; speak, spack or spake, spōken. Then in the modern period get and speak developed along with bear, as described above, so that the parts became gēt, gōt, gōten; speak, spōke, spōken. Thus certain verbs from the second, fourth, and fifth classes have been thrown together and the old organization has in part been broken up. In older English the vowels in the parts of get were long or short. The short vowels have prevailed: get, gōt, gōten. In all these examples the common feature is that the vowel of the past participle has influenced the vowel of the past tense. Something similar and yet different has taken place in modern popular speech in a number of verbs — the past tense has assumed

\[1\] Now obsolete.
the form of the past participle: seen, done, taken, etc., serving both as a past tense and as a past participle. The monosyllabic forms, as seen and done, are widely used, but the disyllabic forms, as taken, written, etc., are for the most part confined to popular southern American English, also been and gone. Earlier in the period, gin, contracted past participle of give, was widely employed as past tense, but it is now yielding to give (63 under give), a present tense used as a past tense. The use of past participle as past tense originated in southeastern British, but now has its widest boundaries in southern American English. For examples see footnotes in 63 under be, do, go, see, take, write. In all these cases the past tense has not only the vowel of the past participle but also the ~(e)n of the participial suffix.

On the other hand, the past tense, in a number of verbs, has assimilated to itself the form of the past participle: abide — abode — abiden (in older English abidden); bite — bit — bit (or more commonly bitten, as in older English); shine — shone — shone; get — got — got (or in America still quite commonly gotten, as in older English); sit — sat — sat (in older English setten or sitten). Similarly, instead of drive — drove — driven, ride — rode — ridden, write — wrote — written, shake — shook — shaken, etc., we often find in older English drive — drove — drove, ride — rode — rode, write — wrote — wrote, shake — shook — shook, etc. These new forms, however have not become established. The older past participles are now always used in the literary language, but the newer ones survive in popular speech.

In a few cases the vowel of the past tense was in early Modern English influenced by the vowel of the past participle, and later the new past tense was used also as a past participle: bite, bote,† bitten becoming bite, bit, bit; slide, slode,† slidden becoming slide, slid, slid. The new past participle slid is more common than the older form slidden, but the new past participle bit is not so widely used as the older form bitten. There were once more verbs in this new class: write, writ, writ; ride, rid, rid; stride, strid, strid (still lingering in England). For the most part these new forms survive only in popular speech. A weak verb has been attracted into this strong class: light, lit, lit after the analogy of bite, bit, bit. Compare light in 60 B. The formation of this new strong type was facilitated by the old weak type of the same form, hide, hid, hid, described in 59 2 B c. It is characterized by a long vowel in the present tense and a short vowel in the past tense and the past participle.

The old classes have been disturbed, not only by analogies between the past tense and the past participle, but also by analogies
between the singular and the plural of the past tense. In older English, there is often a different vowel in the singular and the plural of the past indicative, as can be seen by a glance at the classes given above. In modern English, the plural vowel has, in a number of verbs, especially in the third class, become assimilated to the vowel of the singular: (Middle English) rang — runge(n), sang — sunge(n), schrank — schrunke(n), sank — sunke(n), sprang — sprunke(n), stank — stunk(n), swam — swumme(n); (Modern English) rang — rang, sang — sung, shrank — shrank, sank — sank, sprang — sprang, stank — stank, swam — swam. On the other hand, six words in this class now have in both singular and plural the old plural vowel, which has thus assimilated to itself the vowel of the singular: slung — slung, slunk — slunk, spun — spun, strung — strung, swung — swung, wrung — wrung.

In a number of verbs in the fourth class the quantity of the vowel in the plural of the past tense has influenced the quantity of the vowel in the singular of the same tense. In the fourteenth century the vowel of the singular was still usually short — bar, brack, cam, spack, stal, tar. Occasionally the singular vowel became long under the influence of the long plural vowel e in the same tense: spaak (Wyclif, Sel. Wrks., III, 265, A.D. 1380). Later, long a was indicated by writing e after the final consonant: spake (Paston Letters, II, 14, A.D. 1461). The long past — bare, brake, spake, stale, tare — was the common form from the late fifteenth to the seventeenth century, although the older form with the short vowel still lingered on alongside of it. These new singular forms soon became established also in the plural, displacing the older forms with the stem vowel e. But, as described above, there arose in the sixteenth century a new type of past tense here — bore, spoke, stole, tore.

The long a of the past tense, described in the preceding paragraph, should not be confounded with the long a found in northern British dialect in the past tense of verbs of the first class — drawe, rade, rase (or raise), strade, strake, strave, thrave, etc.: ‘Where’er I gaed, where’er I rade’ (Burns, Mauchline Lady). In Scotch this long a is often written ai. This long a is a development out of the long a found here in Old English. Earlier in the present period we find a long a in this same group of words also in the literary language, but it is an analogical formation following the example of spake and the other past tenses described in the preceding paragraph: ‘Huon lyf t up his sworde and strake therewith the admryall’ (Lord Berners, Huon, I, p. 153, A.D. 1534).

The verb choose in the second class has experienced a number of
assimilations. By 1200 the consonants of the past participle *coren* had become assimilated to the consonants of the present tense and the singular of the past tense, becoming *chosen*. Later, this form assimilated to itself the old plural *cure(n)* of the past tense, which thus became *chose(n)*.

There is another force that has long been active in breaking up the old classes — a strong trend in the direction of the weak inflection, so that parts of certain verbs are now weak.

Consequently, what we have left of the old classes is merely scattered clusters of words which still cling together. Thus after the model of *write, wrote, written* in the first class we still inflect *drive, ride, rise, arise, strive* (60 B), *smite, stride, thrive* (60 B), *strive*. There are also other groups of verbs which cling together, but there are so many irregularities that it is thought best to recognize that the old classes are definitely broken up and hence to put all the strong verbs into an alphabetical list (63) for convenient reference.

**LIST OF STRONG VERBS**

63. There are now less than one hundred strong verbs in our language. For many centuries there has been a steady loss in favor of the weak class. In only a few cases have weak or foreign verbs been drawn into the strong class. *Ring* was originally weak, but in Middle English became strong after the analogy of *sing*. Similarly, the originally weak verb *string* has become strong under the influence of *sling*. The weak verbs *chide, hide,* and the borrowed verb *strive* have been influenced by the strong verb *ride*, the first two following it frequently in the past participle, *strive* following it throughout. Similarly, *wear* has become strong under the influence of *tear*. In early Modern English, *stick* could still be inflected weak. Also *dig*, once regularly with the past tense and past participle *digged*, has, for the most part, become strong. After the analogy of *blow* — *blown* have arisen *show* — *shown*, *sow* † (now *sew*) — *sown* † (now *sewn* in England, but in America *sewed*), *straw* † (now *strew*) — *strown* † (now *strewn*). After the analogy of *blow, blow* came into use *snow, snowed*, *sown* † (now *snowed*). After the analogy of *draw, drew, drawn* arose *saw, sawed*, *sown* (used in England, but in America the original weak *sawed* is still the common form). As can be seen by the examples the development here is uneven. In some cases the new strong forms have become established, in others they have disappeared, yielding to the original weak forms. The new strong forms maintained themselves better in England.
than in America. The weak class has made another important contribution to the strong. The old weak verb *wend*, *went*, *went* with the transitive meaning *direct* (one's way, course) and the intransitive meaning *go* has furnished the old strong verb *go* with a past tense, relinquishing to it its past tense *went* for use as an intransitive and reforming its parts to *wend*, *wended*, *wended* for use in its old transitive meaning. Compare 59 2 B d.

In the following list are given only such strong verbs as are still prevailingly strong. Old strong verbs that are now prevailingly weak but have strong forms alongside of the weak are given in 60 B with irregular weak verbs. Where there is fluctuation in usage, the more common form is given first. The variant (i.e. the different form) may be a less common strong form, or, on the other hand, a vigorous weak form, as in the case of *waked*, which is now widely used, especially in the past participle. Sometimes, as in the case of *weaved*, the weak form has not yet gained wide currency. The verb *shine* is strong only as an intransitive. The causative (12 1 a) *shine* is weak although the intransitive *shine* is strong, while in general causatives have the forms of the corresponding intransitives: 'The boy *swam* across the river' and 'The boy *swam* his horse across the river,' but 'The sun *shone* brightly all day,' while we say, 'He *shined* our shoes last night.' We now feel the causative *shine* as belonging to the noun *shine* rather than to the intransitive *shine*. Causative *shine* is an American verb. In the case of one old verb only the form for the first and the third person of the past tense survives, namely, *quoth* (= *said*), now only used archaically or in quoting contemptuously, always with the inverted word-order: *quoth* he (or she, etc.). Another old strong verb — *worth* 'be' — survives only in a few expressions in the third person singular of the subjunctive: Woe *worth* the day! = Woe *be* to the day! Compare *Syntax*, 6 B (last par.). Forms now used only as adjectives have an asterisk after them. In most cases these forms once had verbal force. Whenever a verbal form is obsolete in plain prose or now used only in poetry, it is marked by a dagger. On the other hand, in older English these words were in common use. By older usage is here meant the usage of the earlier part of the modern English period. This older usage, in many cases, survives in popular speech or in certain dialects. This is usually indicated in the case of widely used popular forms. Many other old literary forms, however, survive here and there in out-of-the-way places that are not in easy touch with the rest of the country. The forms now employed in the literary language and good colloquial speech are given in roman type. Dialect, popular speech, and older literary forms
are given in italics. A dagger after a word in italics indicates an older literary form. In early Modern English there were in a large number of cases, even in the literary language, two or more forms for past tense and past participle. This older order of things survives in popular speech.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abide</td>
<td>abode 1</td>
<td>abode, 1 abidden †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>arisen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| awake 2 | awoke | awoke, awoken, awake *

1 In the meaning 'dwell' the more common parts are abide, abode, abode, but in other meanings the parts abide, abided, abided now seem more natural: 'All the other thinkers abided by the conclusions to which they were led' (Lewes, Hist. of Phil., p. 63).

2 Wake, awake, waken, and awaken are closely related. They are now usually progressives (62 2 a), i.e. indicate entrance into the waking state: 'I awoke early.' In older English, wake was often used also as a durative with the meaning remain awake: 'You promised to wake with me the night before my wedding' (C. Brontë, Jane Eyre, Ch. XXV). The first two of these verbs are often strong, the last two are always regular weak forms. Wake is often accompanied by the ingressive particle up to emphasize the moment of awaking. Examples: 'I woke (or waked) up early.' 'He woke (or waked) me up early.' 'I've just waked up.' 'I've just waked him up.' Likewise awake: 'I awoke early.' 'I've just awaked.' 'I awoke him early.' 'I've just awaked him.' In the passive waken and awaken are the favorites: 'I was wakened (or awakened) by the noise.' In figurative language awake and awaken are preferred, awake in intransitive and awaken in transitive or intransitive function: 'After that new ambitions awake (or awakened) within him.' 'That awakened new ambitions within him.' Awaken is the proper form here in the passive: 'New ambitions were awakened within him.' In Middle English (a)wake belonged to the same strong class as shake, and if it had developed regularly, its parts would now be (a)wake, (a)wook, (a)waken. The shortened form of the past participle, namely, awake, survives as an adjective. In the fourteenth century weak forms began to appear alongside of the old strong ones, and in Shakespeare's day entirely displaced them. In the seventeenth century, however, new strong forms sprang up under the influence of speak: (a)wake, (a)woke, (a)woke(n). In our own time the new strong form is quite a favorite in the past tense and the weak form a favorite in the past participle, but sometimes we hear (a)waked in the past tense. In British English the strong forms awoke, awoken, woken, woke still occur in the past participle: 'They had woken her from a very delightful sleep' (Walpole, Fortitude, I, Ch. III). 'It was seven years since Horace Walpole, sleeping beneath the crochets of Strawberry Hill, had seen the giant fist of mail lying on his banisters and woken to write "The Castle of Otranto"' (London Times, Sept. 15, 1932). 'An evil dream from which you had awoken' (ib., July 5, 1925). 'Past woke, waked, past participle waked, woken, woke' (Concise Oxford Dictionary). In American English the past participle (a)woke(n) is confined to colloquial and popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be, bee †</td>
<td>was (61 1)</td>
<td>been,¹ bene †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(67 1)</td>
<td>been (pop. ²)</td>
<td>bin,¹ bene, † be †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bear, bere † ³</td>
<td>bore</td>
<td>born,⁴ borned ⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(‘bring forth’)</td>
<td>bare †</td>
<td>bore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bear, bere † ³</td>
<td>bore</td>
<td>borne ⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(‘carry’)</td>
<td>bare, † beared †</td>
<td>bore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beat, bète, † ⁵ bel † ⁶</td>
<td>beat, bet † ⁶</td>
<td>beaten, beat ⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beaten †</td>
<td>beaten, † bett, † betten † ⁶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>befall</td>
<td>befall</td>
<td>befallen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beget</td>
<td>begot</td>
<td>begotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>begät, † begâte †</td>
<td>begotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>began, begun † ⁹</td>
<td>begun, began †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>begin ¹⁰</td>
<td>begotten</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ In England ‘been’ is pronounced been or bin, more commonly the former. In America the usual pronunciation is bin, dialectically bën. In the period before the colonization of America ‘been’ was often pronounced and written bin by prominent English writers, so that bin is not an American creation: ‘if it had bin possible’ (Sir Walter Raleigh, Discoverie of Guiana, p. 6, A.D. 1596). In older English bene was sometimes employed as a spelling variant of been. Bee was a common spelling variant of the present tense form be.

² ‘Dat ol’ shu’t o’ you’ own been (= was) too ol’ fo’ patch any mo’ (Julia Peterkin, Green Thursday, p. 59). This is popular southern American English. See 62 (p. 302).

³ An older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by bear.

⁴ ‘He was born in Chicago.’ But: ‘She has never borne children.’ ‘He was the last child borne by her.’ ‘The tree has never borne fruit.’ In many British and American dialects the weak -ed is added to the strong past participle born: ‘He was borned in 1852.’ This new past participle is sometimes used as a past tense: ‘The mare borned a colt’ (Dialect Notes, III, p. 537). The old literary past participle bore (= borne) is still widely used in popular speech: ‘My trees ain’t bore so good this year.’

⁵ Older spelling, later in the sixteenth century replaced by beat. In early Modern English there was alongside of the long-voweled bete or beat the short-voweled bett.

⁶ Survives in dialect.

⁷ Often in the sense ‘surpassed’: ‘In football we have always beaten (or often beat) them.’ ‘Well I [have] got you beat, I [have] been in leather longer than that’ (John Herrmann, The Big Short Trip). In adjective function in the position before the noun the past participle is usually beaten: ‘the beaten football team.’ Used as a predicate adjective the past participle is now always beat in dead-beat (tired out): ‘She sank down dead-beat on the doorstep.’ In this meaning this word is not now so common in America as in England, but it is widely used in America as a noun: a deadbeat, one who sponges on others.

⁸ ‘No such misfortune has befell me these douzen years’ (Franklin, Works, I, 191, A.D. 1732).

⁹ Survives in popular speech.

¹⁰ Popular form after the analogy of set — set: ‘Half ways back to camp, Smoky begin to notice big dusts on both sides of him’ (Will James, Smoky, Ch. VIII). Compare 59 2 B b.
### Present | Past | Past Participle
--- | --- | ---
behold | beheld | beholden *
bespeak | bespoke | bespoke *
| bespoke † | bespoke † ² | bespoke † ²
bid ³ | bāde (bāde), bād † | bidden, unbidden *
| bid | bid, bāde | bid, bāde
| bode, bod † | boden, bodden † |

¹ ‘I don’t like to be beholden to anybody.’ Earlier in the period it could have pure verbal force: ‘Within a small distance we might perceive a farre more cleere and radiant light than ever before till that present wee had beholde’ (B. Rich, *Greenes Newes from Heauen and Hell*, p. 13, A.D. 1593).

² In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the past tense form spoke was often used also as a past participle alongside of spoken. In England bespoke is in adjective function still widely used as a past participle: ‘bespoke boots,’ i.e. made to order in contrast to ready-made.

³ Bid represents two verbs which in Old English were distinct in form and meanings — biddan (fifth class) ‘pray,’ ‘beg,’ ‘ask,’ ‘bid’ (‘request’) and beodan (second class) ‘order,’ ‘command,’ ‘offer.’ The forms of the two old verbs became confounded in Middle English. The forms in present use all belong to Old English bidden. The early Modern English forms rode and bod belong to Old English beodan. The past participle bidden is not a phonetical development of the Old English past participle bidden but an analogical formation showing the influence of the vowel of the present tense. The shortened form bid serves also as a past tense.

Modern bid contains the meanings of the two old verbs and in addition the new meanings ‘bid at an auction,’ ‘bid for votes, public favor,’ ‘bid for the construction of a house,’ etc., developments of the old meaning ‘offer,’ belonging to Old English beodan. The usual parts for all the old original meanings are bid, bāde (or less commonly bid), bidden or bid: ‘I bade him go.’ ‘A haggard man bid (more commonly bade) them depart’ (Eden Phillpotts, *Eng. Rev.*, Oct., 1913, p. 344). ‘I was bidden to go.’ ‘Do as you are bid.’ ‘I bade him welcome.’ ‘The proposed expedition rode fair to be successful.’ ‘For a long while they bade us defiance.’ In Middle English, the idea of bidding, requesting led to that of inviting, which still survives but is not common: ‘They were all bidden.’ Earlier in the present period the old meaning of ‘offer’ was still found here: ‘(They) bade her half the price she asked’ (Johnson, *The Rambler*, No. 161, 10, A.D. 1751). Bade is now replaced here by bid in British English and by offered in American English. The parts for the new meanings are bid, bid, bid: ‘Someone bid five dollars.’ ‘He has often bid for public favor.’ ‘He bid too high and thus failed to get the contract.’ These are weak forms after the analogy of rid, rid, rid, so that bid with these meanings is listed in 60 B among the weak verbs. These parts are used also for the modern meaning invite to membership in a college fraternity or sorority: ‘He (or she) had been bid.’

The vowel a of the past tense is long or short, much more commonly, however, short, so that the present spelling bade is misleading. This past tense is not infrequently used by good authors also as a past participle, though not usually recorded as such by grammarians: ‘Suppose Pauline had bade me sing!’ (Robert Browning, *One Way*, 12).

In the meaning ‘command’ bid is now in colloquial speech replaced by tell. ‘I told him to do it.’
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bind</td>
<td>bound</td>
<td>bounden * 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bite</td>
<td>bitten</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blow 3</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blow (poetic)</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break, breke 4</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chide</td>
<td>chided, chid</td>
<td>chided, chid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose, chose,† 6</td>
<td>choosed,† chused</td>
<td>chosen, chose † 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cling</td>
<td>clung, clang †</td>
<td>clung, clang †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>came, côme † 8</td>
<td>came, comen † 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 These old forms are preserved in the nouns band, bond, which were originally different forms of the same word, but later became differentiated in meaning.
2 It is still used in attributive adjective function in ‘It is my bounden duty.’ Earlier in the period it was much used in the predicate: ‘I am much bounden (now obliged or indebted) to your Majesty’ (Shakespeare, King John, III, iii, 29). Bound is now the usual form also in adjective function: ‘a bound volume.’ ‘I am not bound to do it.’
3 Earlier in the period sometimes weak: blow, blowed, blowed. In loose colloquial and popular speech weak forms sometimes still occur: ‘It blowed terribly.’ ‘He blowed in all the money he had.’ ‘He cheated in examinations, and even blowed about it.’ ‘He blowed (told) on me.’ In slang: ‘I’ll be blowed (hanged) if,’ etc. In popular speech the past tense blew is sometimes used as a past participle.
4 An older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by break.
5 In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the past tense form broke was often used also as a past participle alongside of broken. It survives in popular speech. It is still used also in colloquial language in the meaning out of money: ‘I’m broke.’
6 In older English, chose and chuse were employed as variant spellings of choose. Chuse, however, had a slightly different pronunciation. There was an i-sound before the vowel. This pronunciation survives in British dialects.
7 Still heard in popular speech.
8 In the sixteenth century côme was still in use in the literary language. It was in Old English the usual past tense form. It survives in British dialect, now written coom. In popular speech there is another past tense form come with a different pronunciation, which is the past participle côme used for the past tense. The stem vowel is a short u-sound. The use of this past tense form is furthered by the fact that the present tense has the same form. Compare 59 2 B b.
9 Still heard in British dialects.
10 Heard in American popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dig</td>
<td>dug (see footnote to strike)</td>
<td>dug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do (57)</td>
<td>did, done</td>
<td>done, did</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>draw</td>
<td>drew, drawn</td>
<td>drawn, drew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>drunk, drunken</td>
<td>drunk, drunken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drive</td>
<td>driven, drove</td>
<td>driven, drove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat, eate, ete</td>
<td>ate, eat</td>
<td>ate, ate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Heard in popular speech or dialect. The past participle done is now widely used as a past tense, but usually only as an independent verb: ‘I done my best,’ but ‘I didn’t (auxiliary) go.’ In southern American popular speech done is employed as a past tense auxiliary, but it is then usually followed by a past tense: ‘Tain’t so mighty long sence I done tole you ’bout old Mr. Benjermin Ram’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 297). For explanation of this construction see 47 3 (4). On the other hand, the past tense did is sometimes in American popular speech used also as a past participle.

2 Drew arose in the fourteenth century after the analogy of threw, later gradually replacing older drough and drow.

3 In older English used sometimes in the literary language. It is still sometimes heard in popular speech.

4 Sometimes used in American popular speech.

5 Forms sometimes used in older English in the literary language. They survive in popular speech.

6 Sometimes heard in dialect.

7 Drunk is not only used with pure verbal force but also as a predicate adjective: ‘He has already drunk two cups of coffee.’ ‘He is drunk.’ Also drunken is employed in adjective function, usually however only before a noun in the attributive relation: ‘Before me reeled a drunken sailor.’ In older English, drunken could be used with pure verbal force: ‘Yf it (i.e. cider) be drones (older spelling variant of drunken) in haryst, it doth lytell harme’ (Andrewe Boorde, Dyetary of Helth, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser. 10, p. 257, A.D. 1542).

8 Forms heard in popular speech.

9 The past tense form ate has two different pronunciations. In England, it is pronounced et, less commonly ate (a as in late), in America ate, much less commonly et, which for the most part is now confined to popular speech. The form et (now written ate in England) has resulted from a shortening of Middle English et (e as in there). The long form et became in early Modern English eat (written eat, ate, ete). Since 1900 this form has been restricted to popular speech. In the language of the common people both et and eet are used also as past participles, a usage which earlier in the present period obtained also in the literary language. The common American literary past tense ate (a as in late) is of the same origin as the less common British form ate. It arose in the thirteenth century as at (short a) after the analogy of spake. Later, the a became long and developed into the sound of a in late: spake, ate. Spake has disappeared, but ate survives. In dialect ate is used also as a past participle.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fall</td>
<td>fell</td>
<td>fallen, fell †¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fight</td>
<td>fought</td>
<td>foughten *²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fling</td>
<td>flung, flang †</td>
<td>flung, flang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fly †</td>
<td>flew</td>
<td>flown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forbear</td>
<td>forbore</td>
<td>forborne</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Survives in dialect and popular speech: ‘But now I know I have fell short of what the Lord my God required of me’ (Lucy Furman, The Glass Window, p. 284).

² Archaic attributive form: ‘foughten field’ = ‘battle field.’ In older English, foughten was used also with pure verbal force.

³ In popular speech fight, fit, fit are often used after the analogy of bite, bit, bit. The similar analogical development light, lit, lit has become established in the literary language. Compare 62 (p. 302).

⁴ In Old English, fly had two different sets of meanings, as fly and flee had become confounded. On the one hand, it expressed the idea of a movement by means of wings or rapid movement in general. On the other hand, it was used in the sense of flee with its different shades of meaning. Today fly is still the usual word to express the idea of movement by means of wings or rapid movement in general: ‘The bird flies, flew, has flown.’ ‘Fast the happy moments flew’ (R. Browning). In England, fly is still the usual present tense form in the sense flee, so that the parts in this meaning are fly, fled, fled: ‘the flying enemy.’ ‘When the enemy flies, the enemy is flying, the enemy will fly, the enemy fled, has fled.’ Americans use flee, fleeing, fled, fled in this meaning. A little earlier in the present period, however, fly occurs in this meaning also in American English: ‘When first seized with that indescribable terror which induces them (i.e. frightened horses) to fly, they seem to have been suddenly endowed with all the attributes of their original wild nature’ (Kendall, Narrative of the Texan Santa Fe Expedition, A.D. 1844). Everywhere the past participle flown is still sometimes used instead of fled: ‘It was to England he must have flown (now more commonly fled) for protection’ (Jas. Mill, British India, III, V, VIII, 641). ‘In all ages solitude has been called for, has been flown to’ (Disraeli). ‘O faith, where art thou flown from out the world?’ (Browning, The Ring and the Book, IX, 1319). As fled is not a clear participial form distinct from the past tense flew and there is often need of such in adjective function, most writers avoid it in adjective function and employ the distinctive participial form flown: ‘He had returned to Birmingham to find his lady-love flown’ (Rider Haggard, Mr. Meeson’s Will, Ch. XXII). ‘Time fleets how fast, And opportunity, the irrevocable, Once flown, will flout him’ (Browning, The Ring and the Book, IX, 1230). In the eighteenth century the past tense form flew could still be used instead of fled for sake of rime: ‘And as a hare, whom hounds and horse pursue, Pants to the place from whence at first she flew’ (Goldsmith, Deserted Village, 94), now fled.

The past tense form flew arose in the fifteenth century under the influence of blew, replacing older sugh, sough, and sowe. The past participle flew † (also written flyen) was formed in the sixteenth century from the present tense and continued in limited use throughout the next century.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>forbid</td>
<td>forbid</td>
<td>forbidden, forbid†</td>
<td>forbidden†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>forgot</td>
<td>forgotten</td>
<td>forgot†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forsake</td>
<td>forsook</td>
<td>forsooken</td>
<td>forsooken†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freeze</td>
<td>froze, fraze†</td>
<td>froze, † freeze†</td>
<td>frozen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gët, gële,† gin*</td>
<td>got, go†</td>
<td>gotten, † goten†</td>
<td>gotten*(ill-gotten)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give, gëve,† gin</td>
<td>gave, gived†</td>
<td>given, gëven†</td>
<td>give, † given†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gin, gun</td>
<td>gin, † gun†</td>
<td>gone, go†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>went, gone*</td>
<td>went,† gone†</td>
<td>went†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Common in popular speech.

2 Used in popular speech.

3 In older English the vowel i was sometimes used here instead of e, and git is still heard in certain British dialects, also in American popular speech. In the sixteenth century older gëte still lingered on. Compare 62 (p. 301).

4 Very common in early American English and still common in the spoken and written language of America, though little used in Great Britain. At the time when the first English colonists left England for their new home in America, gotten was a common form also in the mother country. The colonists simply brought it along with them. The later form got — the past tense used as a past participle — began to be used in England in the sixteenth century and gradually displaced gotten there. It is now widely used also in America alongside of gotten. It is even the rule where the form is a mere auxiliary: ‘He has never gotten punished enough.’ It is always employed in the expression has gotten used as a present tense: ‘He has got a black eye.’

5 Used in popular speech. Give, shortened from given, is an old past participle once used in the literary language. In popular speech it is still employed as a past participle and now used also as a past tense: ‘I had given my hand to the woman there would be no drinking’ (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. I). ‘I give it to him yesterday.’ The common use of give as a past tense is furthered by two tendencies — the tendency to employ the past participle also as a past tense and the tendency to use the present tense also as a past tense after the analogy of set — set. Compare 62 (toward end of 2nd par. under Modern English Classes, p. 302) and 69 2 B b. The past tense form gave was once employed also as a past participle: ‘O had she then gave over, Such nectar from his lips she had not suck’d’ (Shakespeare, Venus and Adonis, 1. 571). This usage survives in popular speech. The popular past participle gin, shortened from given, is used also as past tense: ‘His folks gin the letter to me’ (James Russell Lowell, The Biglow Papers, No. II). This once common popular past is now largely replaced by give, as described above. Gin is sometimes used as a present: ‘Gin it to me.’

6 In early Modern English, yede and yode, older past tense forms of go, were still lingering on. But some of those who used these old forms did not
understand them, for they construed yede (also spelled yeed) as a present tense and yode as its past: 'On foot was forced for to yeed' (Spenser, The Faerie Queene, II, iv, 2, 3). ‘Forth they yode’ (ib., IV, viii, 34, 6). These two old past tense forms were gradually supplanted by another word which had a similar meaning. Went is the old past tense and past participle of the weak verb wend, which was once used intransitively in the sense of go. In early Modern English, it became established as the usual past tense of go. It was at this time sometimes used also as a past participle of go, but this usage later disappeared in the literary language. The present use of went in popular speech as the past participle of go has resulted from the spreading of the past tense form to the past participle. Compare 59 2 B d and 63 (1st par.).

In early Modern English, go, the old shortened form of gone, was still in use. It survives in ago, past participle of the old derivative verb ago ‘go by’: ‘Three days ago (lit. gone by) I became sick.’ We now feel ago as an adverb, since we are no longer conscious that it has anything to do with go.

1 In older English, sometimes used in the literary language, but now restricted to popular speech.

2 In early Modern English, the parts hang, hanged, hanged had not yet become restricted to the narrower sense, but could be used also in the general sense: ‘Also the chambre was hangyd with riche clothes’ (Lord Berners, Huon, I, p. 102, a.d. 1534). In northern British at this time the parts were hing, hang (or hung), hung, in the general sense. These northern forms have influenced the literary language. As there is no such verb as hing in the literary language, the northern parts have been modified to hang, hung, hung, which have replaced the older literary forms hang, heng or hing, hangen. In the best literary usage these new parts are now employed in the general sense and hang, hanged, hanged are restricted to the narrower sense. There is a strong tendency in American and southern British colloquial speech to use hang, hung, hung in both senses. Northern British dialect now has here two verbs with different parts: (general sense) hing, hang (hung), hung; (narrower sense) hang, hanged, hanged.

3 An old past participle that still lingers in archaic language, especially in formal reports of meetings, in legal expressions, and in poetry: ‘O yesterday, you know, the fair Was holden at the town’ (Tennyson, The Talking Oak, 101).
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>know</td>
<td>knew</td>
<td>known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lie</td>
<td>laid</td>
<td>lain, lien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lose, loose</td>
<td>rode</td>
<td>ridden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leese</td>
<td>ridden</td>
<td>known,¹ knew ²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring</td>
<td>rung, rung</td>
<td>lorn *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rise</td>
<td>risen, rose</td>
<td>forlorn *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run, rin, ren</td>
<td>run</td>
<td>ran, ran ³ runned ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>seen, saw</td>
<td>seed ⁹</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ In older English, sometimes used in the literary language, but now restricted to popular speech.
² Used in popular speech: ‘If I’d ‘a’ only knew!’ (Elmer L. Rice, The Adding Machine, p. 102).
³ In popular speech intransitive lie is often confounded with transitive lay, so that the parts lay, laid, laid are used both intransitively and transitively: ‘Lay (instead of the correct lie) down.’ ‘Lay it down.’ ‘She laid (instead of correct lain) down for a little rest.’ ‘She has laid (instead of the correct lain) down for a little rest.’ ‘She has laid it down.’ Compare lay in 60 B.
⁴ A strong present tense of the same class as shoot and choose. Its past tense and past participle have been replaced by the weak form lost, past tense and past participle of a lost weak verb. As the vowel is long in lose and short in lost, the feeling arose that the short past belonged to the long present, as in the large group in 59 2 B c. The same development took place in shot, shôt, shôt. Compare 60 B, footnote under shoot. Though lose has lost its old strong participle in general use, the old strong forms lorn and forlorn are still employed in adjective function in the meaning ‘forsaken.’
⁵ Very common in Washington’s Diary: ‘Rid to the Mill and returned to Dinner’ (Dec. 7, 1770). It is still often heard in popular speech. It was earlier in the period used also as a past participle: ‘He has rid out this morning with my father’ (Jane Austen, Northanger Abbey, Ch. X). Also this form survives in popular speech: ‘I would have rid to The Forks today, but I hain’t got my strength good yet’ (Lucy Furman, The Glass Window, p. 203). Compare 62 (p. 302).
⁶ Once a literary form, still employed in popular speech or dialect.
⁷ Rise, ris, and riz are variant spellings of the same form. The usual spelling now is riz, in older English rise or ris. This form for past tense and past participle was once used in the literary language, but is now confined to popular speech.
⁸ Once literary forms, now confined to popular speech.
⁹ Forms used in popular speech. For the use of seen as a past see 62 (2nd par. under Modern English Classes, p. 302). Saw as a past participle is a new form now heard in popular American English.
¹⁰ An old past tense form once used in the literary language, but now confined to popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shake</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>shaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shooked†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shucked (pop.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shine</td>
<td>shone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shined†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shrink</td>
<td>shrank, shrunken*</td>
<td>shrunked†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shranked†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sang, song†²</td>
<td>song</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sink</td>
<td>sunk, sunken*</td>
<td>sunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit</td>
<td>sat, sate†</td>
<td>sitten†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>set, sot, sit(†)</td>
<td>sitten‡</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slide</td>
<td>slid</td>
<td>slid, slidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sling</td>
<td>slung, slang†</td>
<td>slang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slink</td>
<td>slunk, slunk†</td>
<td>slunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>slunked†</td>
<td>slunked†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smite</td>
<td>smote, smit†</td>
<td>smitten, smote†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 An older literary form which survives in dialect.
2 This form was a natural development out of older sang, and was used for a time alongside of it. It has survived in the noun song. But the verb was under the influence of other verbs, as drink (drink, drank, drunk), so that the older form sang finally prevailed.
3 Popular form after the analogy of set — set: ‘I set there and sing for an hour’ (Dialect Notes, III, p. 448).
4 In popular speech and dialect the parts are often set, set or sot, set or sot, i.e. sit is replaced by set. The latter is now often used here in all transitive and intransitive functions: ‘He set or sot (in the literary language always set) it down.’ ‘He set or sot (in the literary language always sat) down.’ ‘He set or sot (in the literary language always sot) out for home.’ On the other hand, in older English sit was sometimes used in the literary language for intransitive set (Syntax, 46, 4th par.): ‘The coach being ready, the ladies sate (now set) out for the hall’ (Toldervy, Hist. 2 Orphans, I, 109, a.n. 1756). Compare 60 B, footnote to set. In popular speech sit is sometimes used intransitively, as in the literary language, but with the popular parts sit — sit, after the analogy of set — set. Compare 59 2 B b. The old literary past participles sitten and sitten are still used in northern British dialects. Compare 60 B, let, footnote.
5 Sleed and sleea are spelling variants of the old regular present tense, which was still used in early Modern English, but was replaced after the sixteenth century by the irregular form slew with the vowel of the past participle. The past tense form sleed arose in the fourteenth century after the analogy of threw, later gradually replacing the older form slough.
6 Used in dialect.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>speak, spēke ♠</td>
<td>spoke, späck,† spāke ♠</td>
<td>spoken, spoke,‡ spāke ♠</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spin</td>
<td>spin</td>
<td>spun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spring</td>
<td>sprang, sprung</td>
<td>sprungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand</td>
<td>stood, stode †</td>
<td>stood, ‡ stooded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steal, stēle †</td>
<td>stole, stāl †</td>
<td>stolen, stole †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stick 7</td>
<td>stuck, stucked †</td>
<td>stuck, stucked †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sting</td>
<td>stung, stang †</td>
<td>stung, stongen †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stink</td>
<td>stank, stunk</td>
<td>stunk, stank †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stride</td>
<td>strode, strided 8</td>
<td>stridden, strided 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strike, strick †</td>
<td>struck, stroke †</td>
<td>struck, stricken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by speak.
2 Once a literary form, still used in popular speech.
3 Still used in England though the less common form.
4 In early Modern English stood and stode were different spellings for the same word.
5 Stood is the past tense form used also as a past participle, replacing the older past participle standen, which was employed also in the shortened form stand(e). Similarly the old past participle sitten has been replaced by the past tense form sat. In older English, shaken was sometimes replaced by the past tense form shook. We feel shook today as plebeian when used as a past participle. There is nothing plebeian in the use of a past tense as a past participle when good authors so employ it, as in the case of sat and stood. There is often nothing good or bad in the form itself. The use of the best authors stamps it as good. Usage not in harmony with that of the best authors is bad usage. The common people often still use the forms of the great masters of earlier centuries, but these forms are now felt as plebeian because they are not now used by our best authors. Forms, like fashions, come and go. They find favor only when used in season.
6 An older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by steal.
7 Stick was originally a weak verb. In the first half of the sixteenth century it came under the influence of sting, stung, stung, and the new parts stick, stuck, stuck arose. The past tense stack, which was very common at this time alongside of stucked, shows that stick had been influenced in its inflection by the strong steek †, stack † (or stake † or stoke †), stoken †, a verb with the same meaning. Toward the end of the first half of the sixteenth century stuck began to be common and in the seventeenth century replaced both stucked and stack.
8 Occurs occasionally in good authors.
9 According to the Concise Oxford Dictionary a rare past participle, but it does not now occur at all in the literary language of America.
10 In the first half of the sixteenth century it was still usual to employ the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>string</td>
<td>strung</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stringed †</td>
<td>stringed †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strive</td>
<td>strove, strave †</td>
<td>striven, 2 strove † 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strived 2</td>
<td>strived 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Old regular forms strike, stroke, stricken — a verb of the first class, like write, wrote, written. Instead of stroke the spelling stroak was in limited use. In the second half of the sixteenth century the two forms strook and struck began to compete with the old past stroke. Later, struck replaced both stroke and strook. The past tense forms strook and struck show that strike was being influenced by other verbs. The past tense strook was after the analogy of shook, past tense of shake. Strook survives in British dialects. The past tense struck was after the analogy of stuck, past tense of stick. Stuck itself was after the analogy of stung, past tense of sting. The development of struck was facilitated by the old present tense form strick, which had the same vowel as sting and stick. The old weak verb dig joined this group of verbs, the past tense becoming dug. After the analogy of stung the forms stuck, struck, and dug were used also as past participles.

In early Modern English, there were still other past tense forms — strick and strake. Strick had the short vowel of the past participle, as often other words of the same (i.e. the first) class: strike, strick †; write, writ †. The once common past tense strake was after the analogy of spake, † stale, † etc.

The old past participle stricken survives in the passive meaning afflicted and, in archaic language, in the old intransitive meaning gone, advanced: 'I was stricken with fever, paralysis, grief.' 'I am stricken in years.' Elsewhere the past participle is now struck: 'I was struck with a cane, with amazement.' But in pure adjective function stricken is still often used, especially in the position before the noun: 'They were struck with terror,' but 'the terror-stricken city.' The archaic expressions 'a stricken (i.e. full) hour' and 'a stricken field' (= a pitched battle) still linger on. In American English, stricken is still sometimes used with full verbal force in the expression 'stricken out': 'The clause was objected to and was finally struck (or sometimes stricken) out.' The past participle strucken † is still heard in northern British dialect. Also in Negro speech: 'strucken wid de palsy' (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 715).

Strick — an old present tense form with shortened vowel — survives in British dialect.

1 Originally weak and still occasionally so earlier in the period. The parts are now, under the influence of sling, always strong, without regard to the meaning. A useful differentiation might be made here between strong forms and regular weak ones: The bow is stringed (provided with a string) and strung (bent to the string). But we now usually say strung in both meanings. As a pure adjective, however, stringed is the usual form: stringed instruments, a gut-stringed racket. We should say hamstring, hamstrung, for the verb is made from the noun hamstring, but some say hamstring, hamstrung.

2 Originally strong or weak, now usually strong, but in America the weak forms sometimes still occur: 'to achieve a world state of peace, for which men have strived since the time of Alexander' (Edgar Snow in The Saturday Evening Post, Aug. 26, 1933, p. 69). In older English the past tense strove was used also as a past participle. This older usage survives in popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>swear, swere †</td>
<td>swore, sware †</td>
<td>sworn, swore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swim</td>
<td>swam, swim †</td>
<td>swum, swim †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swing</td>
<td>swung, swing †</td>
<td>swung, swing †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>took, toke †</td>
<td>taken, lane †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tear, tere †</td>
<td>tore, tore †</td>
<td>torn, tore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throw</td>
<td>threwed †</td>
<td>thrown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tread</td>
<td>trod, tröde †</td>
<td>trodden, trod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand</td>
<td>understood</td>
<td>understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wake (see awake)</td>
<td>woke</td>
<td>waked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wear, wære †</td>
<td>wore, ware †</td>
<td>worn, wore †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by swear.
2 Once literary, still common in popular speech.
3 In early Modern English, took and toke are different spellings for the same word.
4 'He was working on the highway when I taken the order' (from the letter of a salesman, San Francisco, Aug. 12, 1927). Taken as past tense is most common in popular southern American English. Compare 62 (2nd par. under Modern English Classes, p. 302).
5 Once literary, still used in popular speech.
6 Heard in popular speech.
7 Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by tear.
8 Once literary, still heard in popular speech.
9 In older English the past tense form tore was often used also as a past participle. This usage survives in popular speech. The common people sometimes add the weak ending -ed to the strong past tore to form past tense and past participle: tear, tored, tored. Compare 60 B (footnote under fetch).
10 Once literary, still used in popular speech.
11 Heard in popular speech.
12 Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by wear.
13 Wear was originally weak. Chaucer used the weak forms, and much later, in the eighteenth century, the weak past weared was still lingering alongside of the more common strong form wore. Wear has become strong under the influence of tear.
14 Once a literary form, still common in popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wear (naut. term)</td>
<td>wore</td>
<td>wore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weave, weve †</td>
<td>wove</td>
<td>woven, wove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weave</td>
<td>weaved †</td>
<td>weaved †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win</td>
<td>won, wun †</td>
<td>won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wind ('twine')</td>
<td>wound</td>
<td>wound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wind ('sound')</td>
<td>wound</td>
<td>wound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>withstand</td>
<td>withstood</td>
<td>withstood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wring</td>
<td>wrung, wrang †</td>
<td>wrung, wrang †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>wrote, writ †</td>
<td>written, wraten †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>writ, † wrâte †</td>
<td>writ, † wrote †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FORMATION OF THE COMPOUND TENSES**

64. A compound tense is formed by the use of a present or a past tense of an auxiliary in connection with a participle or an infinitive. The treatment of the different compound tenses follows.

1 Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by weave.
2 Older variant spelling of won.
4 In early Modern English, winded was the regular past tense and perfect participle of the weak verb wind (= sound, blow), which was formed from the noun wind in the fifteenth century at a time when it was pronounced wind: ‘Horns wined within’ (Shakespeare, Midsummer-Night’s Dream, IV, i, 106). After the pronunciation of the noun became wind in the course of the eighteenth century, the verb wind was no longer vividly felt as belonging to it and was gradually, by the likeness of sound, brought into relation to the strong verb wind ‘coil,’ ‘twine,’ ‘turn about something’ and finally assumed its parts. Today the old weak forms linger on alongside of the more common strong: ‘And raised a bugle hanging from his neck, And winded it’ (Tennyson, Pelleas and Ettarre, 364). ‘Thither he made and wound the gateway horn’ (id., Elaine, 169). ‘The horn is wound faintly’ (Whittier). ‘The apostles of melancholy wound their faint horns’ (Athenæum). The verb wind ‘get wind of,’ ‘exhaust wind of,’ which is felt as belonging to the noun wind, is always weak: ‘The hounds winded the fox.’ ‘I am winded with the climb.’
5 Still heard in popular speech.
8 See writhe in 60 B, footnote.
66. Present Perfect. This tense is made up of the present tense of the auxiliary *have* and the past participle of the verb to be inflected.

**Indicative**

1. I have taken
2. you have taken
   (thou hast taken)
3. he has taken
   (he hath taken)

**Subjunctive**

1. I have taken
2. you have taken
   (thou have taken)
3. he have taken

**Plural**

1. we have taken
2. you (ye) have taken
3. they have taken

**Participle** having taken

**INFinitive** (to) have taken

**Gerund** having taken

a. Time Relations Indicated by Perfect Tense Form of Participle, Infinitive, and Gerund. As there are no participial, infinitival, or gerundial forms corresponding to the past perfect tense, the present perfect forms must serve both as a present perfect and a past perfect: 'Having been (= As I have been) sick so much, I have learned to take good care of my health.' 'Having finished (= After I had finished) my work, I went to bed.' 'I rejoice to have finished (= that I have finished) it so soon.' 'He is said to have spoken (= It is said that he had spoken) to his brother about it before he did it.' 'After having taken (= I have taken) some exercise, I feel like studying.' 'After having completed (= I had completed) my work, I went to bed.' Compare *Syntax*, 48 2 (6th par.), 49 3, 50 2.

b. Origin of Present Perfect and Its Present Nature. We now say 'I have written a letter.' The original form was 'I have a letter written,' so that the form was at the start a present tense. The present form arose from a slight change of the original word order: 'I have written a letter.' Back of this change, of course, was a desire to express an idea a little different from the original one — to express a past act but at the same time to bring it into relation to the present. Our name of this tense — present perfect — is a terse and apt characterization of the inner nature of the form. The original form and meaning, however, did not disappear, for we still often desire to use the words with the full force of the present tense: 'I have all my letters written.' 'I have my garden
spaded and ready for planting.' 'Our football team has all the other teams beaten to a frazzle.'

Our present perfect tense was a natural, much-needed development. It arose in Old English, probably under the influence of the compound popular Latin perfect with the same formation. This Latin formation has become established in a number of other languages, but its original meaning has changed in most of them. In German and French it points not only to the immediate past — its original meaning — but also to a remote act without the slightest relation to the present, thus taking over the two meanings of the simple Latin perfect. In Italian, Spanish, and English it retains more of its original meaning, pointing for the most part to the immediate past. In English the person or thing referred to must be living or still existing and thus related to the present: 'My grandfather has seen a good deal in his lifetime,' but not 'Caesar has seen a good deal in his lifetime.' 'England has had many able rulers,' but 'Assyria had many able rulers,' for Assyria does not now exist as an independent country. The English present perfect can refer to the remote past if the present is not excluded by the statement: 'Such epidemics have occurred in all ages.' Such statements are in English always indefinite. On the other hand, the passing of a single minute may make it impossible to employ the present perfect. A minute before 12 o'clock in the morning we may say 'I have bought a new hat this morning.' A minute later this morning is gone forever and the afternoon is ushered in. After the bell taps twelve we must say 'I bought a new hat this morning,' for the morning belongs to the past. Thus the present perfect distinguishes sharply between present and past. It can never be used for something past. We can say 'I have been in England twice,' for we are thinking of our life, which is not ended; but we cannot say 'I have been in England twice last year,' for last year is past forever.

In the above examples we have seen how closely the present perfect is associated with the present. Sometimes it seems to have the full force of the present: 'I have got a cold' = 'I have a cold.' In our southern American dialect the present perfect assumes the ending of the present tense — the -s that appears in all persons and numbers, as described in 54: 'I [have] gots good news' (DuBose Heyward, *Porgy*, p. 54). Here, however, *have got* can take the place of *have* only with reference to the present moment. It can never, like the present of *have*, be used to express customary action. Thus it cannot replace *have* in 'We have a good deal of rain here in the fall.'

On the other hand, we often do not employ the present perfect
of a past event closely connected with the present moment. If we think of the past event as past we use the past tense even though only a moment has passed since its occurrence: ‘I am glad you came’ (Hergesheimer, Balisand, p. 203). These words are spoken by a woman standing in the doorway of her house welcoming two visitors. The following examples are similar: ‘Did you see him do it?’ (referring to something that has just taken place). ‘I am sure he did it. I saw him do it.’ ‘Did you ever see anything to beat it?’ (Tarkington, Napoleon Was a Little Man). In referring to something that has taken place the speaker uses the past tense when he speaks in a lively tone with a vivid impression of the past in his mind, i.e. with his mind still turned to the past. He employs the present perfect when he speaks in a calmer, more detached tone, feeling clearly that he is standing in the present looking backward: ‘Have you ever seen anything to beat it?’ Thus the present perfect is the tense of personal experience.

Earlier in the present period the auxiliary of the present perfect of intransitives was often be instead of have. In accordance with older usage be was used with verbs indicating a change of place or condition: ‘The King himself is rode to view the battle’ (Shakespeare, Henry the Fifth, IV, III, 2). ‘I am this instant arrived here’ (William Marsh, Letter, written at Albany, N. Y., Apr. 18, 1763). ‘Nor do I know what is become of him’ (Butler, Hudibras, I, III, 263, A.D. 1663). ‘For this orphan I am come to you’ (Tennyson, Dora, 89). We still use be when we think of a state pure and simple: ‘My money is all gone.’ ‘Children, you must be good while I am gone.’ ‘He is so terribly changed that you wouldn’t recognize him.’ ‘My children are all grown-up.’ But where the idea of an action as a whole is in our mind, as in the example from Shakespeare, we now employ have, not be, for we now feel have as the more appropriate tense auxiliary to express the terminate (52 3) idea, i.e. an action as a whole: ‘The King has ridden away to view the battle.’ ‘John has grown (an action as a whole) a good deal the last two years, but he is not yet fully grown’ (state). This change has brought us more accurate expression. We can now distinguish action and state.

c. Use of ‘Be’ instead of ‘Have’ with Transitive Verbs. In certain British dialects the auxiliaries have and be are sometimes confounded, so that forms of be are used instead of forms of have. Also in certain American dialects: ‘Is (instead of have) you seed any sign er (of) my gran’son dis mawnin’?’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 55).

66. Past Perfect. This tense is made up of the past tense of the auxiliary have and the past participle of the verb to be inflected.
INDICATIVE

Singular
1. I had taken
2. you had taken
   (thou hadst taken)
3. he had taken

Plural
1. we had taken
2. you (ye) had taken
3. they had taken

SUBJUNCTIVE

I had taken
you had taken
(thou hadst taken)
he had taken
we had taken
you (ye) had taken
they had taken

a. Origin of Past Perfect. This tense was originally a past tense just as the present perfect was originally a present tense. The description of the development of the present perfect, given in 65 b, will make the development of the past perfect clear.

b. 'Be' Used instead of 'Have' as Auxiliary in Older English. In older English was was often used instead of had as auxiliary in the past perfect, just as is was used instead of has as auxiliary in the present perfect, as described in 65 b (last par.).

67. Future Tense. There are two entirely different types of expression in English to indicate future time.

1. Present and Past Used as Future Forms. In oldest English the present tense was the usual form employed to express future time, and it is still commonly employed for this purpose where an adverb or conjunction of time or the situation makes the thought clear: 'The ship sails tomorrow.' 'Wait until I come.' For fuller statement see Syntax, 37 1 e. As this old means of expression is not accurate enough for higher purposes, it has long been common to employ an especial form to express future time, the future tense described in 2 below.

This is true, however, only for the indicative. No especial future form for the subjunctive has developed, nor has there been any need for such, for the old type of expression had great possibilities of development.

In oldest English, the simple present subjunctive was much used to express future time, and it can often still be used in choice language: 'We shall have passed Dover tomorrow if the wind keep favorable.' The simple subjunctive has for the most part been gradually replaced by a compound form made up of a modal auxiliary (may, might, shall, should, will, would, etc.) and the infinitive of the verb to be conjugated. The newer compound subjunctive forms have by virtue of the fine expressive power of these various modal auxiliaries more shades of meaning than the old
simple forms. The old type of expression, however, has been retained. In this old type there are two tenses of the subjunctive employed for reference to the future — the present and the past — which differ only in the manner of the conception, the present tense expressing a greater degree of probability. Thus the present tense in 'It may rain' expresses greater probability than the past tense in 'It might rain.' Compare 50 2 d. As the uncertainty in the outcome of future events is great, the past tense form of the subjunctive is a pronounced favorite. In conditional sentences (50 2 b) when future events present themselves to our mind in only a vague, indefinite way, we employ a past subjunctive in the condition, and in the conclusion employ should in the first person and would in the second and third persons: 'If it rained (or should rain or were to rain — indicating decreasing grades of probability) tomorrow, I should, or he would, be very much disappointed.' Would here in the first person of the conclusion represents the future act as intended: 'If it rained (or should rain or were to rain) tomorrow, I would stay at home.' A modest opinion as to a future result is expressed by should in the third person: 'If everything goes right, the work should be done by tomorrow evening.' In wishing with the verb like we employ should in the first person and would in the second and third persons; but we use should in the second person in questions, for we expect the person addressed to answer in the first person with should: 'I should like to go.' 'I know he would like to go.' 'Should you like to go?'

The use of the subjunctive forms is treated in 50 2 and in Syntax, 41–44.

2. Future Indicative. This form is made up of the present tense of the auxiliary shall or will and the simple infinitive of the verb to be inflected. In independent declarative sentences shall is employed in the first person and will in the second and the third:

**Singular**

1. I shall take  
2. you will take you'll take  
   (thou wilt take)  
3. he will take he'll take

**Plural**

1. we shall take  
2. you (ye) will take you'll take  
3. they will take they'll take

There are peculiar difficulties connected with the use of the indicative of this tense, since the employment of shall and will
in the different persons varies according to the form of the sentence and the meaning to be conveyed. To express the idea of pure futurity we employ for the declarative form \textit{shall} in the first person and \textit{will} in the second and third persons: ‘We shall be very poor, at the start, but we feel sure that things will improve later.’ ‘I shall be nineteen years old on the third of July, and my brother will be twenty-two on the same day.’ ‘If he doesn’t come tomorrow I shall be very sorry, and I know that you will [be], too.’ If an element of will, desire, determination enters into the statement we employ \textit{will} for the first person and \textit{shall} for the second and third persons: ‘I will (or I’ll) help you all I can,’ but ‘You shall do as I say.’ ‘We will (or we’ll) do our best,’ but ‘You shall pay for that.’ ‘I’ll (or will) never give my consent to that,’ but ‘I mean it; nothing shall stop me.’ Thus \textit{will} in the first person and \textit{shall} in the second and third persons are not tense auxiliaries but modal auxiliaries. \textit{Shall} in the first person is not always, however, a future tense auxiliary. Sometimes it is a modal auxiliary, clearly differentiated from modal \textit{will} in meaning. Modal \textit{will} represents something as sprung from the feeling of the moment. Modal \textit{shall} represents the resolution as the result of previous deliberation, or deep conviction, or deeply rooted feeling, and represents the execution as assured: ‘I shall stand my ground as firmly as I can.’ ‘Then, Patty, since you make me choose, I shall not give up the Lord even for you’ (Eggleston, \textit{Circuit Rider}, Ch. XIX). ‘“I shall do my share,” said Unkerlarther sturdily’ (J. B. Priestley, \textit{The Good Companions}, p. 499).

In the second person in questions that auxiliary is used which is expected in the answer, so that also in questions we must carefully distinguish between tense and modal auxiliaries: ‘Shall (tense auxiliary) we have the pleasure of seeing you tomorrow?’ ‘Will (tense auxiliary) he come tomorrow?’ ‘Shall (tense auxiliary) you have time enough tomorrow to do this for me?’ corresponding to the expected answer, ‘I shall have time enough’; but ‘Will (modal auxiliary) you do this for me?’ i.e. ‘Are you willing to do this for me?’ corresponding to the expected answer, ‘I will do it for you.’

\textit{Will} is used by some in the first person as a pure future when in a compound subject \textit{I} or \textit{we} is preceded by a pronoun in the second person, or by a noun or pronoun in the third person: ‘you and I will get on excellently well’ (Dickens, \textit{Martin Chuzzlewit}, Ch. V). ‘Eddie and I will be delighted to come on Monday’ (A. Marshall, \textit{The Greatest of These}, Ch. X). The preceding pronoun or noun in the second or third person here influences the selection of the auxiliary. But we employ \textit{will} here also to express
willingness, intention, so that the tone of the voice or the context must decide the meaning: 'John and I will assist you.' To express the pure future idea, however, others employ shall if one of the subjects is a pronoun in the first person: 'I hope Chattam and I shall (preferred by many to will) always be good friends' (George Eliot, Middlemarch, I, Ch. VI).

In dependent clauses the use of shall and will is the same as that found in independent statements except that instead of will in the third person shall is in British usage often employed where it corresponds to a shall in the direct statement: 'Sir Hugo says he shall (in the direct I shall) come to stay at Diplow' (George Eliot). 'He thinks himself that he shall (in the direct I shall) recover, but the doctor says that he will die soon.' In America we employ will here.

The use of shall and should (see 1 above) as future forms for the first person is literary usage. In our colloquial speech we employ will or would for all persons uniformly. The modal forms are the same for both literary and colloquial language. The literary pure future forms developed in the southeastern part of England, and in early colonial days were spoken and written in New England and in a general sense are still recognized as our literary standard. Our American colloquial speech has been influenced by heavy streams of immigration which have brought us large numbers of people from Ireland and other parts of Great Britain than the southeast. These immigrants brought with them will as a uniform pure future form. At the present time it is natural for most Americans to use this pure future form in colloquial language.

For a more detailed treatment of the future tense see Syntax, 57 5a.

a. Aspect Form instead of the Future Tense. The usual future tense (67 2) has terminate (52 1) force, i.e. represents the act as a whole. The expanded form of go often points to the future. In 52 2 c we see that the expanded form is widely employed as an aspect form to call attention to the beginning or to the end of an act. Beginning: 'Look out! I am going to shoot!' Here the expanded form of go points to the preparations for the act, indicating that it will follow immediately. The expanded form of go is much used to make known that preparations are being made for some act, either one near at hand or one farther off: 'There is going to be a circus here next week.' 'I am going to study in Germany next year.' This form is much used to point also to the end of a development: 'This bright little chap is going to be a great man some day.' Again, it is widely employed to point to the outcome of events: 'The world is going to look at this differently some day.'
The expanded form of *go* is often called a future tense form, but two things — the expanded form and the peculiar meanings of the form — show that it is primarily an aspect form. It points, not to the future act as a whole, but to a preparing for or an outcome.

68. Future Perfect Tense. This tense is differently formed in the indicative and the subjunctive:

1. Future Perfect Indicative. This form is the same as the future indicative, described in 67 2, with the exception that the present perfect infinitive is used instead of the present infinitive:

   **Singular**                                      **Plural**
   1. I shall have taken                          1. we shall have taken
   2. you will have taken                          2. you (ye) will have taken
       (thou wilt have taken)                     (thou wilt have taken)
   3. he will have taken                          3. they will have taken

This form represents that an action or state will be completed at or before a certain time yet future: 'I *shall have completed* the task by evening.' 'He *will have completed* the task by evening.' For fuller treatment see *Syntax*, 37 6.

2. Future Perfect Subjunctive. To express the probable completion of an act in the future we employ the past subjunctive *should* in the first person and the past subjunctive *would* in the second and third persons in connection with a perfect infinitive: 'I *should have finished* (or *he would have finished*), the work by tomorrow evening if everything had gone right.' The use of *would* in the first person represents the completion of the future act as intended: 'I *would have gone* tomorrow evening if things had gone right.' A modest opinion as to a future result is expressed by *should* in the third person: 'If things *should go right* they *should have completed* the work by tomorrow evening, or they *should complete* the work by tomorrow evening.'

**FULL INFLECTION OF VERBS**

**ACTIVE**

69. *Take* may serve as a model.

**A. Common Form**

**Present**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou takēst)</td>
<td>(take)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he takes</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(he takēth)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indicative

we take
you (ye) take
you taketh
you (ye) take
they take

Imperative

take (old forms, take thou, take ye)

Participle

taking (56 1 d)

Gerund

taking (56 1 d and 47 6 b)

Past

Indicative

I took
you took
(thou tookest)
he took
we took
you (ye) took
they took

Subjunctive

took
took
(tookest)
took
took
took
took

Past Perfect

Indicative

I have
you have
(thou hast)
he has
(he hath)
we have
you (ye) have
they have

Subjunctive

have
have
(have)
have
have
have

Imperative

have done (50 3, next to last par.)

Participle

having taken (65 a)

Gerund

having taken (47 6 b)

Past Perfect

Indicative

I had
you had
(thou hadst)
he had
we had
you (ye) had
they had

Subjunctive

had
had
(hadst)
had
had
had
had
### Future

**INDICATIVE**
- I shall take
- you will take
- (thou wilt take)
- he will take
- we shall take
- you (ye) will take
- they will take

**Future Perfect**

**INDICATIVE**
- shall have taken
- will have taken
- (wilt have taken)
- will have taken
- shall have taken
- will have taken
- will have taken

For **SUBJUNCTIVE** see 67 1.

### B. Expanded Form (47 2)

#### Present

**INDICATIVE**
- I am
- you are
- (thou art)
- he is
- we are
- you (ye) are
- they are

**SUBJUNCTIVE**
- be
- be
- (be)
- taking

**IMPERATIVE**
- be taking

**INFINITIVE**
- (to) be taking

#### Past

**INDICATIVE**
- I was
- you were
- (thou wast)
- he was
- we were
- you (ye) were
- they were

**SUBJUNCTIVE**
- were
- were
- (wert)
- taking

**PRESENT PERFECT**

**INDICATIVE**
- I have been
- you have been
- (thou hast been)
- he has been
- (he hath been)
- we have been
- you (ye) have been
- they have been

**SUBJUNCTIVE**
- have been
- have been
- (have been)
- have been
- have been
- have been
- have been

For **SUBJUNCTIVE** see 68 2.
PARTICIPLE  having been taking

INFINITIVE  (to) have been taking

GERUND  having been taking

Past Perfect

INDICATIVE
I had been
you had been
(thou hadst been)
he had been
we had been
you (ye) had been
they had been

SUBJUNCTIVE
had been
had been
(hadst been)
had been
had been
had been
had been

taking

Future

INDICATIVE
I shall be
you will be
(thou wilt be)
he will be
we shall be
you (ye) will be
they will be

SUBJUNCTIVE
shall have been
will have been
(wilt have been)
will have been
will have been
will have been
will have been

taking

The future and future perfect SUBJUNCTIVE forms are treated in 67 1, 68 2.

C. ‘Do’-Form (47 3)

Present

INDICATIVE
I do take
you do take
(thou dost take)
he does take
(be doth take)
we do take
you (ye) do take
they do take

SUBJUNCTIVE
do take
do take
(do take)
do take
do take
do take
do take

Past

INDICATIVE
I did take
you did take
(thou didst take)
he did take

SUBJUNCTIVE
did take
did take
(didst take)
did take
A FULL INFECTION OF PASSIVE VERB

INDICATIVE

we did take
you (ye) did take
they did take

SUBJUNCTIVE

did take
did take
did take

PASSIVE

70. The full forms follow.

A. Common Form

Present

INDICATIVE

I am
you are
(thou art)
he is
we are
you (ye) are
they are

SUBJUNCTIVE

be
be
(be)
taken
be
be
be
taken

IMPERATIVE

be taken

INFINITE

(to) be taken

GERUND being taken

PARTICIPLE being taken

Past

INDICATIVE

I was
you were
(thou wast)
he was
we were
you (ye) were
they were

SUBJUNCTIVE

were
were
(wert)
taken
were
were
were

Present Perfect

INDICATIVE

I have been
you have been
(thou hast been)
he has been
we have been
you (ye) have been
they have been

SUBJUNCTIVE

have been
have been
(have been)
taken
have been
have been
have been

have been
**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect Passive</th>
<th>Indefinite Past Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou hadst been)</td>
<td>(hadst been)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future**

**Future Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Indefinite Past Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall be</td>
<td>shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou wilt be)</td>
<td>(wilt have been)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we shall be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a. Time Relations Indicated by the Passive Forms of the Participle.** The different tenses of the verbal forms indicate accurately the time of the action, but in the case of the adjective forms the time relations are indicated only by the situation: this broken (a present state) chair; a man respected (= who is respected) by everybody; a bridge destroyed (past perfect = which had been destroyed) two hours before by the enemy; a feat often performed (present perfect = which has often been performed) by me. Having been deceived (= Since I have been deceived) so often, I am now on my guard. He is a man broken (= who has been broken) by misfortune. Having been more strongly opposed (= Since they had been more strongly opposed) than they expected, they retreated. 'His last novel, written (past = which was written) in 1925, is his best.' Compare Syntax, 48 2 (2nd par.).
B. Expanded Form (49 3)

**Present**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am being</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are being</td>
<td>(lacking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou art being)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he is being</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we are being</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) are being</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they are being</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, PARTICIPLE, GERUND, are lacking.**

**Past**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was being</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you were being</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou wast being)</td>
<td>(wert being)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he was being</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we were being</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) were being</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they were being</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PRESENT PERFECT</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it has been building</td>
<td>it have been building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they have been building</td>
<td>they have been building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>INFINITIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>having been building</td>
<td>(to) have been building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it had been building</td>
<td>it had been building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they had been building</td>
<td>they had been building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it will be building</td>
<td>it will have been building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they will be building</td>
<td>they will have been building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER XIII

FORM AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

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71. In the following articles are discussed matters pertaining to the form of adverbs in the positive, comparative, and superlative.

1. Form of Simple Adverbs. Adverbs have in part no distinctive form, as in the case of here, there, then, when, where, why, late, straight, far, near, close, quick, slow, fast, high, low, much, little, very, right, wrong, cheap, just, well, etc.; in part they have the distinctive suffix -ly, as in rapidly, diligently, hurriedly, powerfully, etc.; also often in the case of some of the words in the first group, which have a form in -ly alongside of their simple form, as in slowly, quickly, highly, rightly, cheaply, etc. Sometimes the two forms are differentiated in meaning: 'I’ll go as high as a hundred dollars,' but 'The wood is highly polished.' 'He aimed higher,' but 'We ought to value our privileges more highly.' 'He sat up late,' but 'He died lately.' 'We are doing fine' (colloquial for very well), but 'These greenish tints contrast finely (= splendidly) with the moon's own soft white.' 'He works hard,' but 'I could hardly hear him.' 'He lives near (originally an adverb, as shown here by its comparative form nearer, but now widely felt as a preposition) us, nearer to us,' but 'It is nearly done.' 'He is real (colloquial for very) good,' but 'He is really (sentence adverb) good.' 'The bird is now flying quite low,' but 'He bowed lowly before the duchess,' i.e. bowed humbly and respectfully. 'You know jolly (slang for very) well,' but 'He smiled jollily.' 'Speak loud and distinctly,' but 'He boasted loudly of his power.' With certain adverbs we use the simple form after the modified word and the form with -ly before it: 'He guessed right,' but 'He
rightly guessed that it was safe.' 'He spelled the words wrong,' but 'the wrongly spelled words.' Earlier in the period the old simple form was often used where we now employ the form in -ly: 'to haue him stand in the raine till he was through (or thorough) wet' (Thomas Nashe, *The Unfortvntate Traveller*, Works, II, p. 246, A.D. 1594), now 'thoroughly wet'; but the old simple form is preserved in thoroughbred, thoroughly, etc. 'She is not near (now nearly) so small as I had expected' (Horace Walpole, *Letter to Miss Mary Berry*, Sept. 25, 1793). Scarce was widely used in early Modern English, but is now employed only in rather choice language, yielding to scarcely in normal speech.

In older English, many adverbs had the suffix -e, which distinguished them from the corresponding adjectives. In the fifteenth century, after this ending had disappeared, many adjectives and adverbs had the same form. For a long while there has been a tendency to distinguish the adverb from the adjective by giving it the suffix -ly, as indicated above. The old simple form, though often replaced by the new form in -ly, often remains firm before an adjective or participle: light yellow, dark blue, dead drunk, precious little, mighty delightful, burning hot, red hot, stark naked, pretty bright; new laid eggs, modern built house, foreign born citizens, etc. These are in large measure modern formations, but we feel them as groups akin to our old compounds for which we still have a lively feeling. In the old compounds the modifying word always precedes the governing word, so that the word-order of itself makes the grammatical relations clear and hence the lack of a distinctive adverbial ending is not keenly felt. But here, as also elsewhere, distinctive grammatical forms are sometimes introduced: an uncommon or uncommonly fine fellow; terribly strong; an exceeding or exceedingly great joy; a newly married pair; the newly appointed chaplain; etc. We should distinguish between 'a good-natured boy,' where the compound good nature has been converted into a derivative adjective by means of the suffix -ed, and 'a well-behaved boy,' where behaved is an adjective participle and well the modifying adverb. Similarly, we say 'a high-tempered man,' but 'highly seasoned food.' In many cases we can construe a group of words according to either of these two types, hence we often find a difference of usage: ill-mannered, 'the most sweetly mannered gentleman alive' (Disraeli, *Endymion*, III, III, 25), but also gently mannered, simple-mannered. In both constructions the stress shifts to the second component in the predicate: 'He is good-natured.' 'He is well behaved.'

On the other hand, after verbs, where the word-order is always different from that required in compounds, the tendency is to give
the adverb its distinctive suffix: 'wide-open,' but 'He advertises widely'; 'tight-fitting,' but 'He clasped his hands tightly together.'

While in the literary language the form with -ly is becoming ever more firmly fixed, colloquial and popular speech still cling tenaciously to the older type of expression without -ly, especially in American and Irish English: 'I wanted to do it bad (instead of the usual literary form badly) enough, and if it was to do over again I would' (Mark Twain, Joan of Arc, Book I, Ch. IV). 'He (a certain dog) isn't anyway near (instead of literary nearly) as full-blooded as Duke' (Tarkington, Penrod Jasber, Ch. I). 'I beat them easy' (instead of the literary form easily), but also in good English with the short form in 'to take it easy' and 'to let one off easy.' This conservative tendency in colloquial and popular speech to employ the old type is especially noticeable in the case of sentence adverbs (see 15 1 b), where in the literary language the form with -ly is most firmly established: 'It sure (in the literary language surely) will help.'

In older English, -ly was often added to adverbs formed from adjectives in -ly, and this older usage survives in a few adverbs: holily, jollily (see 1st par.), sillily, wilily. In general, -ly is now avoided here as awkward, although elsewhere there is a strong tendency toward it on account of its distinctiveness. The present tendency in this particular group is to employ the adjective also as an adverb, as in early, daily, hourly, friendly, kindly, only, etc. In many other words, however, we avoid such adverbs, as we feel their lack of distinctive form.

It is common to form an adverb out of a compound adjective provided the final element in the compound is an adjective form: world-wide, adv. world-widely; high-minded, adv. high-mindedly. If the final element is a noun we must employ the compound adjective also as an adverb: 'a first-rate (adj.) machine.' 'I am getting along first-rate' (adv.).

a. Genitive, Dative, and Accusative Used Adverbially. In oldest English, nouns in the genitive, dative, and accusative were often used adverbially. The old adverbial genitive survives in a few nouns and adverbs in the literary language and in a much larger number in popular speech: must needs, nowadays, once (i.e. ones, from one), twice (formerly twies), thrice, unawares, afterward (especially in America) or afterwards, backward or backwards, forward or forwards, onward or less commonly onwards, seaward or seawards, sideways, always, etc.; in popular speech anywheres, somewheres, nowhere, etc., instead of the literary forms anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, etc. In colloquial speech it is still common in a few nouns to indicate repeated occurrence, but is now felt as an
accusative plural: 'returning nights to his home' (F. J. Mather, Chaucer’s Prologue, p. vii). 'Farmer Spurrier could see the plow at work before he got out of bed mornings' (H. C. O’Neill, Told in the Dimpes, p. 28). After the analogy of such common expressions we now often use this plural accusative: 'The museum is open Sundays' (or on Sundays). The modern prepositional genitive is used in ‘of a morning,’ ‘of an evening,’ ‘of a Sunday afternoon,’ ‘of late years,’ ‘of rainy afternoons,’ etc. In popular speech an excrescent t is often added to the genitive form once: wunst. While the literary language rejects the genitive form with excrescent t here, it has adopted it in the case of amongst and whilst, adverbial genitive forms now used alongside of among and while as preposition and subordinate conjunction.

The old dative plural survives in whilom (= formerly), now used only in poetry or archaic language. It is the old dative plural form of the noun while, used adverbially: 'Whilom she was a daughter of Locrine' (Milton, Comus, 827). It is sometimes, like certain other adverbs, used also as an adjective: 'his whilom associates.'

The old adverbial accusative of extent is well preserved in the case of nouns: 'They remained a long while, three years.' 'It is a long way off.' 'He went the full length.' 'That went a long way toward remedying the evil.' 'He walked two miles.' 'He will not swerve a hair’s breadth from the truth.' 'The lake is three miles wide.' 'He is fourteen years old.' 'The garden is one hundred and seventy feet long.' 'He towers head and shoulders above his contemporaries.' 'The sober sense of the community are heart and soul with the Chief of Police in his crusade.' 'Vivisection must be abolished root and branch.' In early Modern English, the genitive was not infrequently used here instead of the accusative, and this older usage still lingers in popular speech, which here, as in the first paragraph, is quite fond of the genitive as a more distinctive form: 'He’d given up sea-faring and moved quite a way’s inland' (Amy Lowell, East Wind, p. 188, A.D. 1926). 'It seems a long ways off.'

The adverbial accusative of extent is common also in the case of indefinite pronouns, especially a bit, every bit, a lot, lots, a sight (colloquial and popular), and whatever in the meaning at all, also with other indefinites when used in connection with too or a comparative: 'Wait a bit.' ‘I am every bit as good as you.’ ‘I am not a bit tired.’ 'I have a lot (or lots) more to tell you.’ 'I have lots more things to show her' (Clyde Fitch, Letter, Feb. 10, 1903). 'It is a long sight better' (Concise Oxford Dictionary), or more commonly ‘a darn sight better.’ 'There is no doubt whatever.' ‘Is there any chance whatever?’ ‘I cannot see anyone whatever.’ ‘No
one whatever would have anything to do with him.' ‘What (= to what extent or in what way) is he the better for it?’ ‘The help came none too soon.’ ‘It is much too large.’ ‘The triumphant people haven’t any too much food’ (Westminster Gazette, No. 7069, 6 a). ‘He is none the worse for his fall.’ ‘The baby is dying slowly but none the less surely.’ ‘He is resting all the better for it.’ ‘Is he resting any the better for it?’ ‘Is he resting any better today?’ ‘I began to think that it was of no use crying any more.’ ‘She is not any less beautiful today than she has ever been.’ ‘Isn’t it any later than that?’ or in American colloquial speech also: ‘Is that all the later it is?’ ‘Nothing daunted, he began again.’ ‘He is a little better.’ ‘He is much better, much taller.’ Much and little are often used outside of the comparative: ‘I don’t care much about it.’ ‘I care little about it.’ ‘Much’ is often used sarcastically: ‘Much (= not at all) you care about my feelings!’

In general, any, some, none, except with too and the comparative, are now not so common in England as earlier in the period, but in American colloquial speech there is still a great fondness for these forms: ‘I slept none that night,’ or ‘I didn’t sleep any that night.’ ‘If our readers are any like ourselves, we think they cannot help laughing’ (Analectic Magazine [Phila.], IX, 437, A.D. 1817). ‘A tall fellow . . . stammers some in his speech’ (runaway advertisement in Mass. Spy, Apr. 28, 1785). ‘I walk some every day.’ This usage survives also in Scotland: ‘You will quarrel nane with Captain Cleveland’ (Scott, Pirate, Ch. XVIII). ‘Having slept scarcely any all the night’ (Hugh Miller, Scenes and Legends, XXX, 450). Scotch influence has strengthened the conservative American tendency here. It occasionally occurs in English writers after verbs: ‘He may walk some, perhaps — not much’ (Dickens in Forster’s Life, III, IV). In American slang some often assumes strong intensive force: ‘The papers will make it some hot for you’ (Robert Herrick, Memoirs of an American Citizen, p. 310).

Similarly, the accusative of the comparatives more, less, and the superlatives most, the most, least, the least are much used adverbially: ‘If indiscretion be a sign of love, you are the most a lover of anybody that I know’ (Congreve, Love for Love, I, 11, 354, A.D. 1695); now more commonly ‘the most a lover of all that I know,’ or ‘more a lover than any other person that I know.’

The old adverbial accusative of goal (Syntax, 11 2) after verbs of motion is preserved in home: ‘He went home.’ ‘They brought the charge home to him.’ ‘I was home by six.’ In the last example the verb of motion is not expressed, but the idea of motion is implied. In colloquial and popular speech home is improperly used where there is no idea of motion implied: ‘I won’t live home (for
literary at home) — even if the old gent would let me' (Eugene O'Neill, *Dynamo*, p. 99). In compounds, however, *home* is used also in the literary language where there is no idea of motion implied: *home-made, home-grown, home-brewed*, etc. *Home* is here an old uninflected locative (*Syntax*, 62, next to last par.) meaning at home. This type of expression has come down to us from the prehistoric period.

The accusative of definite and indefinite time is common: ‘I go to Europe every two years.’ ‘The money was paid the following day.’ ‘First thing in the morning he smokes a cigarette’ (Krapp, *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English*). ‘He often goes round the last thing to make sure that all is right’ (*Routledge's Every Boy's Annual*). ‘I met him one day on the street.’ Also the accusative of way: ‘Step this way, please!’ ‘I will take you another way.’ Also the accusative of price: ‘This hat cost five dollars.’

The adverbial accusative construction has replaced others less common and even some once common, since we now feel that the accusative is the natural case form of a noun that completes the meaning of the verb. It is now much used to denote manner: ‘He came full speed.’ ‘The blindfolded man ran full till into the fence.’ ‘Have it your own way.’ ‘The windows of the tower face both ways.’ ‘Having sampled America [in] that way, Europe believes and trusts America’ (Woodrow Wilson, July 4, 1919). ‘She ran her fingers comb fashion through her hair.’ ‘They went at it hammer and tongs.’ ‘Let us go shares, halves!’ ‘I came in and went to bed the same as usual.’ ‘Then why do you come your frowning high and mighty airs with me?’ (William Heyliger, *American Boy*, Sept., 1927, p. 34). ‘You can’t come it with me.’ In colloquial speech sure thing is often used as an intensive form of colloquial sure (= literary surely): ‘Now that you boys know what the expedition is going to face are you still anxious to go along?’ — ‘Sure thing’ (Victor Appleton, *Don Sturdy in Lion Land*, Ch. IV). Also to indicate time, where in more careful language we find a preposition: ‘What (or at what) time do you go?’ Also to indicate place in certain set expressions, but rarely with a single unmodified noun; ‘He struck me on the head,’ but ‘He smote them hip and thigh.’ ‘Bind them hand and foot!’ In the concrete language of popular speech the adverbial accusative of a modified noun is often used instead of an adverb: ‘I looked every place (instead of literary everywhere) for it.’ ‘What place (instead of literary where) would we run?’ (*Synge, The Well of the Saints*, Act.III). Compare 27 2 b for the use of the relative pronoun that as an adverbial accusative.

In many distributive expressions, the noun following *a* is now
construed as an adverbial accusative of extent, but the *a*, though now felt as an indefinite article, is in fact the reduced form of the preposition *on*: 'I visit him twice *a* year.' ‘A robin frequently raises two broods *a* season.’ This construction was originally confined to expressions of time, as in these examples, but it now has much wider boundaries: ‘His terms are a penny *a* line.’ ‘She asks five dollars *a* lesson.’ ‘I paid six dollars *a* pair for my shoes.’ The definite article is sometimes used here instead of the indefinite: ‘She sold her corn at ten shillings *the bushel*’ (Winthrop, *Journal*, Apr. 27, 1631). ‘Wheat was at twenty shillings *the quarter*’ (Macaulay, *History*, I, Ch. III). ‘Five cents *the copy*’ (*The Saturday Evening Post*, Aug. 8, 1925). ‘How much is salmon the can now?’ (Zona Gale, *Miss Lulu Bett*, Ch. I). We now feel *can* in the last example as an accusative of extent; but perhaps, originally, it was a nominative, an appositive to *salmon*. Most of these expressions, except those indicating time, may have originated in this way.

b. ‘This’ and ‘That’ Used Adverbially. In the fifteenth century the principle of employing the accusative of indefinite pronouns adverbially to indicate extent or degree was extended to the definite pronouns *this* and *that*: ‘*This* (or *that* or *thus* or *so*) much I hold to be true.’ This usage is best established in the case of ‘*this much*’ and ‘*that much*,’ but in colloquial language it has spread much farther: ‘I’ve never been *this* sick before.’ ‘He didn’t get home until after one o’clock, and his mother told him if he ever came home *that* late again she would punish him severely.’ On account of the accuracy of expression here adverbial *this* and *that* are sometimes employed in the literary language, in spite of the protests of grammarians: ‘“Oh, Mimo! how could you let him sit on the grass!” Zara exclaimed reproachfully, when he got *this* far’ (Elinor Glyn, *The Reason Why*, Ch. XV). ‘I didn’t think he was *that* young’ (Jack London, *Martin Eden*, I, Ch. II). Also used like *so*, pointing to a following clause of result: ‘I’m *that* hungry, I could eat a dog’ (Hall Caine, *The Woman Thou Gavest Me*, Ch. IV). Quite commonly in popular speech: ‘I was just *that* pleased I set down an’ bust out cryin” (Alice Hegan Rice, *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*, Ch. VII).

The demonstrative *that* is thus often used adverbially, but the demonstrative *such*, which has a somewhat similar meaning, always remains an adjective, although often classed as an adverb. That it is an attributive adjective when it stands before a descriptive adjective is shown by the fact that it can never be used when there is no noun after the descriptive adjective, i.e. when the descriptive adjective is used predicatively: ‘*such* severe weather,’ but not ‘The weather is *such* severe.’
c. Adverbial Use of 'The.' The old neuter instrumental case of the determinative and demonstrative that still survives in the form of the in two common constructions: (1) In clauses of degree expressing proportionate agreement: 'This stone gets the harder the longer it is exposed to the weather.' See Syntax, 29 1 A b for a more detailed description of this construction. (2) As a determinative adverb of cause standing before a comparative, indicating cause, however, in only a formal way, pointing forward to a following clause or phrase of cause which contains the real cause: 'His unkindness hurt me all the more because I had been previously so kind to him' (or because of my previous kindness to him). 'The indications of inward disturbance moved Archer the more that he too felt that the Mingotts (name) had gone a little too far' (Edith Wharton, The Age of Innocence, Ch. V). 'I think a little the worse of him on this account.' 'She clung the more fiercely to her father for having lost her lover.' The cause is often not thus formally expressed in a clause or phrase of cause but implied in something that has preceded: 'Sir Arthur looked sternly at her. Her head only dropped the lower.' 'If she were silent there was one listener the more.'

2. Comparison of Adverbs:

a. Relative Comparison. Adverbs are compared much as adjectives, as described in 43 2. A few monosyllabic adverbs add -er in the comparative and -est in the superlative: fast, faster, fastest. 'He climbed higher.' 'He lives nearer us.' 'He lives nearest to us.' 'Come up closer to the fire.' 'John worked hardest.' 'He couldn't speak finer if he wanted to borrow' (George Eliot). 'I can't stay longer.' 'He stayed longest.' 'I would sooner die than do it.' Also the dissyllables, often and early, are compared by means of endings: 'He is absent oftener than is necessary.' 'You ought to have told me earlier.' Easy, an adverb in certain set expressions, is similarly compared: 'Easier said than done.' Examples of the use of the comparatives farther and further are given in 43 2 A a.

Earlier in the period, terminational comparison was often used where we now employ more and most: 'There is almost no man but he sees clearlier and sharper (now more clearly and sharply) the vices in a speaker then (now than) the vertues' (Ben Jonson, Discoveries, p. 19, A.D. 1641).

Most adverbs are now compared by means of more, most and less, least: rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly; rapidly, less rapidly, least rapidly.

aa. Irregularities. A few irregularities in the form occur, corresponding closely to those found in adjectives (43 2 A a):
well | better | best
---|---|---
il, illy (obs.), badly | worse | worst
much | more | most
little | less | least
near, nigh | nearer, nigher | nearest, nighest, next
far | farther, further | farthest, furthest
late | later | latest, last
rather (comparative of obs. rathe, 'soon')

One of the outstanding features of popular speech is the use of *good* for *well*: ‘I don’t hear *good*’ (instead of *well*).

In American colloquial language *worst* often has the force of *most*: ‘The thing I need *the worst* is money.’ *The worst kind* and *the worst way* are common in popular speech as adverbs with the force of *very much*: ‘I wanted to go *the worst kind* or *the worst way*.’

**bb. Newer Forms of Expression.** Besides the normal usage described in 2a above there is another which is quite common in colloquial speech and occurs sometimes in the literary language. The superlative is formed by employing the adverbial neuter accusative of the noun made from the adjective superlative preceded by the definite article: ‘All good and wise Men certainly take care To help themselves and families *the first*’ (Robert Rogers, *Ponteach*, I, IV, A.D. 1776). ‘I am going . . . to Havre, whence I shall get *the quickest* to Southampton’ (Charlotte Smith, *Emmeline*, IV, 55, A.D. 1788). ‘Of all my books I like this *the best*’ (Dickens, *David Copperfield*, Preface). ‘He was the greatest patriot in their eyes who brawled *the loudest* and who cared *the least* for decency’ (id., *Martin Chuzzlewit*, Ch. XVI). ‘It is impossible to say whose eyes would be *the widest* opened’ (Henry Arthur Jones, *The Divine Gift*, Dedication, p. 49). ‘My father liked this *the best*’ (Alfred, Lord Tennyson, *A Memoir by His Son*, 3, 245). ‘We are sure that those who have known Somerset *the longest* will thoroughly enjoy Mr. Hutton’s pages’ (*Athenæum*, Dec. 28, 1912). ‘Great souls are they who love *the most*, who breathe *the deepest* of heaven’s air, and give of themselves most freely’ (William Allen White, *A Certain Rich Man*, Ch. XXII). ‘Of all the orders of men they fascinate me *the most*’ (H. L. Mencken, *Prejudices*, Series III, p. 217).

This form is now spreading also to the comparative: ‘He runs *the faster*’ (instead of the simple *faster*). ‘This led him to consider which of them could be *the better* spared’ (Dickens, *Martin Chuzzlewit*, Ch. XXXIII). ‘I hardly know who was *the more* to blame for it’ (L. M. Montgomery, *Anne of Avonlea*, Ch. XXIII). ‘Ruth could not tell which she liked *the better*’ (Lucy Fitch Perkins, *The Children’s Yearbook*, p. 17).
In the case of the analytic form with *most, least, more, less*, this adverbial neuter accusative cannot be used at all. We often, however, add the adverbial ending -ly to the analytic adjective, superlative or comparative, preceded by the definite article, thus marking the form clearly as an adverb: ‘If it be true that such meat as is the most dangerously earned is the sweetest’ (Goldsmith, *Natural History*, VI, 82, A.D. 1774). ‘It was difficult to say which of the young men seemed to regard her the most tenderly’ (Thackeray, *Pendennis*, II, Ch. XX). ‘Standing here between you the Englishman, so clever in your foolishness, and this Irishman, so foolish in his cleverness, I cannot in my ignorance be sure which of you is the more deeply damned’ (George Bernard Shaw, *John Bull’s Other Island*, Act IV).

In the relation of sentence adverb the adverbial neuter accusative form of the superlative is replaced by an adverbial phrase, consisting of the preposition at and the noun made from the adjective superlative preceded by the definite article: ‘I cannot hear from Dick at the earliest before Tuesday’ (Mrs. Alexander, *A Life Interest*, II, Ch. XVIII), or ‘At the earliest I can’t hear from Dick before Tuesday.’

When it is not the actions of different persons that are compared but the actions of one and the same person at different times and under different circumstances, we employ the adverbial neuter accusative of the noun made from the adjective superlative preceded by a possessive adjective: ‘Two women shrieked their loudest’ (Thackeray, *Pendennis*, II, Ch. XXXVIII). ‘Carver smiled his pleasantest’ (R. D. Blackmore, *Lorna Doone*, Ch. XXVIII). An adverbial phrase with the preposition at is sometimes used instead of the adverbial accusative: ‘He led me in a courtly manner, stepping at his tallest, to an open place beside the water’ (ib., Ch. XXI). In the relation of sentence adverb this prepositional phrase form is quite common and freely used both with the simple and the analytic superlative, especially the latter: ‘Even at his ungainliest and his most wilful, Mr. Thompson sins still in the grand manner’ (Academy, Apr. 14, 1894, 303). ‘Nature at her most unadorned never takes that air of nakedness which a great open unabashed window throws upon the landscape’ (*Atlantic Monthly*, Mar. 1887, 324).

b. Absolute Superlative. This superlative of the adverb is formed from the absolute superlative of the adjective (43 2 B a).

‘Mary’s mother is a most beautiful woman’ and ‘Mary’s mother sings most beautifully.’

The absolute superlative is sometimes formed by employing the adverbial neuter accusative of the noun made from the adjective
superlative preceded by the definite article: 'I do not the least mind it' (Alfred, Lord Tennyson, A Memoir by His Son, 4, 72). 'It does not matter the least' (Florence Montgomery, Misunderstood, Ch. IV).

Instead of this form we often use a prepositional phrase containing a simple superlative of an adjective in attributive use, standing before a noun or the simple superlative used as a noun and preceded by the definite article: 'The letter was written in the kindest spirit.' 'That does not concern me in the least.' Compare 43 2 B a (3rd par.).

Instead of a superlative here we more commonly use a positive modified by very, exceedingly, absolutely, etc.: 'She sings very beautifully.' In colloquial and popular language, the intensive adverbs, awfully, dreadfully, terribly, etc., are common, sometimes without the suffix -ly before an adverb: 'The work is moving awfully slow.' 'I lived mighty comfortably.'

To express an absolutely high degree of activity in connection with a verb, we place very before an adverb of degree, such as much, greatly, etc.: 'He is suffering very much.' To express an absolutely high degree of a quality, we place very before the positive of the adjective: 'very sick, very pleasing, a very distressed look.' But instead of saying 'I was very much pleased, very greatly distressed,' many incorrectly say 'I was very pleased, very distressed,' feeling pleased and distressed as adjective rather than as verbal forms, which they are. Similarly, we should use too much, too greatly before verbal forms, not simple too: 'I was too much (or too greatly) discouraged by this failure to try again.'
CHAPTER XIV
UNINFLECTED PARTS OF SPEECH

72. Three parts of speech, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, have no distinctive forms to indicate their function.

The position of the preposition before a word indicates that it brings this word into relation with another word (16). It often has a characteristic position at the end of the sentence or clause: 'What do you write with?' 'This is the pen I write with' (16 2).

The preposition plays a very important rôle in English. Its functions are quite fully described in 16.

A conjunction links an independent proposition, or a subordinate clause, or parts of a sentence to the rest of the sentence. Its position immediately before a group of words indicates its function: 'He came early, but soon went away.' 'Wait until I come.'

The functions of conjunctions are described in 18.

Pure conjunctions are regularly uninflected, but there are certain inflected pronouns which perform the function not only of pronouns but also of conjunctions (7 IV a, b, 18 B 6).

Interjections, Oh! Ouch!, etc., are recognized by the peculiar tone which accompanies the spoken words (Syntax, 17 1).
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