A GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
PARTS OF SPEECH

and

ACCIDENCE

BY

GEORGE O. CURME

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY (EMERITUS)
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA (LECTURER)

D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY

BOSTON
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 prejudice 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 demi-gods but as human beings like ourselves, often vacillating, sometimes 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 simplicity 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 sixteenth 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 survives 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 interesting features of current English, having on its conservative side relations with our older literary language and in its newer developments 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 diligently 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 interest in American English among American scholars has been a great help in the preparation of this book. Moreover, the author 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 with the various proofs. He feels especially indebted to Professor McCorkle of the University of Southern California, and to Mrs. Georgia Curme of Claremont, California.

*George O. Curme*

*University of Southern California*

*Los Angeles*
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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

2. 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.

3. 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 deal 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 Marias 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, serfdom, 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: bōnfire (bōne + fire), breakfast (brēkfast = break + fast), fōrehead (fōre + head), shēpherd (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: knōwledge (knōw + -ledge), width (wide + -th), wis-dom (wīse + -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 aa. 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 bb), 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 coppy any part therof' (Bradford, History of Plymouth Plantation, p. 303, A.D. 1630-1648). Similarly: therewith, therefor, thereon, therefore, etc. Therefore (= on account of that) has become differentiated from therefor 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.).

c. 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 condition *whereof* (now *of which*) I spake.’ Only one of these compounds 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 acquired 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 determinative adverb *þær* was used where we now use *where*: ‘on þære byrig þær se cyning ofslægen 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 following 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 common 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 anywhere, somewheres, nowhere, instead of the literary uninflfected 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. Somewhat 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* of money' (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,
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

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).
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
DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES AS PRONOUNS

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 évery óne of you to come.’ ‘I see new developments in art and life, each óne of which is a fresh mode of perfection’ (Wilde, De Profundis, 49). Compare Syntax, 57 1 (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 óne’ (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, *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, *Three Men in a Boat*, Ch. X).
The same individuals who in 1888 read Robert Elsmere with dismay are *the same ones* who now worship what they once denounced (W. L. Phelps, *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, *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, *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, *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, *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, *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 jack) of you, instantly! (Thomas Holcroft, Road to Ruin, I, 2).
Every mother’s son 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 Izrael 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 Am-
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 it: ‘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 pre-
ceding 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.
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; ary 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 everich), 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 anyone) 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.
Amy 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 larning, their offsprings grew 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, 1, 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 nó 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 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 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 pronouns 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 pronouns 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 got (or hâve) our work done.' 'I had (or got) my leg hurt in an accident,' but 'I had (or got) 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 what, earlier in the period by 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 ad­
jjectives, 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), his,
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*’ (instead of *oneself* or *one's self).*

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 ourself 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, *himsélf* (in America *he himsèlf*) 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 Wrexex, 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 himselfe (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).
You 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 Seditious 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 66 (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).

j. ‘SUCH’ WITH THE FORCE OF ‘THAT,’ ‘THOSE,’ ‘THIS,’ ‘THOSE,’ ‘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 30u 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,
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. ‘Ye.’ The definite article the is sometimes still for archaic effect written ye, the y representing older þ and hence pronounced th: ‘ye old town.’

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

a. Cardinal Numeral 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,
tenfold, etc.: ‘a twofold return for your money,’ ‘with twofold care,’
‘a sixfold increase,’ ‘a double portion,’ ‘a double row of policemen.’
‘The glottis is twofold’ (predicate adjective). ‘I’ll return it to you
threfold’ (objective predicate; 8, 4th par.).

Multiplicatives are most commonly adverbs: ‘The fee was
tenfold what I expected.’ ‘It repaid me threefold.’ ‘They outnum-
bered us a hundredfold.’ ‘It is tenfold, a thousandfold, worse.’ ‘He
is double (or twice) my age.’ ‘He now feels doubly guilty.’ Double
is used also as a noun: ‘Ten is the double of five.’

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 in-
definite 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 prin-
cipal 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 lie 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 ad-
verbial concessive clauses (15 2 i, 18 B 5): ‘I am going to pursue
this course, whatever sacrifices it may demand.’ ‘He will find diffi-
culties whichever course he may take.’ ‘Sometimes, turn my
head which 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
English *none* before a vowel: 'to *none* effect,' now 'to *no* effect'),
nary (popular for *ne’er a*, from *never a*); *all*; *any*; *ary* (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;
umerous; innumerable; countless; myriad; various; other, another;
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, pleniest, now most common in the predicate relation,
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 bóy was absent.*

*Not a múscle of his face moved.*

Tibbits is *nót a* (= *nó, i.e. quite other than a*) scholar, *a genius* (Lytton,
*Caxtons*, IV, Ch. III).

*I am *né (= *nót a, i.e. quite other than a*) genius* (*ib.*).

I have *no sécret. I am nót a (= nó, i.e. quite other than a) quack*
(Shaw, *The Doctor’s Dilemma, I, 32*).

This is *né (= nót a, i.e. quite other than a*) part of my plan.

I am in *né hurry = I am not in áný hurry.*

*Né (= not áný) occasion could be more appropriate than this.*

He did it in *né (= hardly áný) 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 (yúnýon); 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

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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: uproot, uplift, undernourish, overcharge, 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,’ ‘befriénd (= 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, cooperate, 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 sét him úp 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.).
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 conjunctival 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 conjunctival clause is treated in 152 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 forgót it.’ ‘He acted promptly.’ After the analogy of ‘She would utterly forgét her past’ many people say, ‘She wishes to utterly forgét 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) underrated 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 John (or 'John 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 John' (or 'John even'). 'None of them will go; at least John (or 'John at least') will not.' 'Exactly what (or 'What exactly') paganism was we shall never know.' 'He did it, not I.' 'He hit me, 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 John' (or 'John 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
enough.' — 'Then let us go!' For fuller information see 18 A 1, 3, 5 and Syntax, 19 1 a, b, c, d, e, 19 2.

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 coordination 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 Æglam., 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 coordinating 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.

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<tr>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>here</td>
<td>present; hence (archaic, poetic, or literary), now usually from here</td>
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<tr>
<td>hence</td>
<td>from here, away, from now; thence, or from hence (archaic, poetic, or</td>
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<td></td>
<td>literary), now usually from there, away; there; yonder; hither</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(poetic or literary), now usually here, to this place; hither, in older</td>
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<td>English sometimes used instead of hither; thither (poetic or literary),</td>
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<td></td>
<td>in plain prose now there, to that place; thither, in older English</td>
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<td>sometimes used instead of thither; in, out, up, down, around;</td>
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<td>first(ly), secondly, etc.; where (interrog.); whither (interrog.; in</td>
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<td>poetry and choice prose) or now more commonly where; whence (interrog.;</td>
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<td>in poetry and choice prose) or now more commonly where — from; etc.</td>
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— ‘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 Manufactory’ (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?’ (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?” In popular speech many say ‘Where is he at?’ to express rest, and ‘Where did he go to?’ to express motion and direction, but in literary language we say here: ‘Where is he?’ and ‘Where did he go?’ preferring the more simple construction, although it is not so expressive. But even in literary language we must say: ‘Where did he come from?’ for otherwise the thought would not be clear. Where 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 prepositional 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 711 a. Also the genitive is used adverbially: *always,* etc. See 711 a.

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 151 c bb, 18 B 4 b.

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 47 4.

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 conjunctional 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
conzert, 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 be­
fore 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 ad­
verb: 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.’ Com­
pare 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 conjunctional comparative clause: ‘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.

j. 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, consequentlly, 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 coördinated. The second proposition is introduced by an adverb or adverbial element with the force of a coördinating conjunctive adverb (15 I c 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 conjunctival 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 conjunctival 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 conjunctival 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 conjunctival 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 conjunctival 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 conjunctival 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.
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, 62 1. 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. An
88 PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE AS ADVERB 16 1 a

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 (12 2) 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 (12 1) 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.
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 con­
nection with a detailed account of their use. The subject is treated
here only in outline.

A. COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

The coördinating conjunctions and conjunctive (15 1 c aa) ad­
verbs 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, not 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 England’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.
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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 shudn't git things clear at fast 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. 'His 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 (appositional clause).
I am troubled by another fear, that Silvio will send out a search-party (appositional clause).
‘I’d a feeling as (popular form for that) maybe you cud give me,’ etc. (Sheila Kaye-Smith, Green Apple Harvest, p. 35) (appositional clause).
There is no doubt that (or sometimes but, but that, or but what) he will come (appositional clause).
I have often asked myself the question whether I have the right to do it (appositional clause; indirect question).
Now arises the question when (interrog. conj. adv.) we should go (appositional 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 (47 5 a, last par.) 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.
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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

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 œz), 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 fräcas in American English and has the regular plural fracases, while in British English it is pronounced fräcah 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 œz: 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-bys, 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 -ies 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: beves, 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, fifes, gulfs, 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: chiefs, 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 –o. 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, banjo, 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, ghetto, gringo, guanaco, gyro, hidalgo, inamorato, junto, kilo, kimono, ladino, lasso, major-domo, merino, mestizo, octavo, palmetto, photo, 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 fet (from still older fōti). 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 were five 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,*
Ch. 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 singulars, 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: bellowses, gallowses, 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 sopranis (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, algæ; alumna, alumnæ; ameba, amebæ or amebas; antenna, antennæ; camera, cameras (photographic apparatus), camææ (‘chambers,’ term used in anatomy); cesura, cesuras or cesurae; cicada, cicadas or cicadæ; corona, coronæ or coronas; curia, curiæ; differentia, differentiæ; drachma, drachmas or drachmæ; fauna, faunas or faunæ; fibula, fibulæ or fibulas; flora, floræ or floræs; formula, formulæ or formulæs; gemma, gemmæ; lacuna, lacunæ; lamella, lamellæ; lamia, lamiae or lamias; lamba, lambæ or lambas; libretto, librettos or libretti (24 8); soprano, sopranos or sopranis (24 8).

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, 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, bronchii; cactus, cacti (in science) or cactuses (in general use); calculus, calculi; cirrus, cirrhi; colossus, colossi or colossuses; cothurnus, 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, fungii or funguses; gladiolus (gladiolus, gladiolus, or, in England, often gladiolus), gladioluses, gladioli, or gladioluses; hippocampus, hippocampi; hippocotamuses or hippopotami; humerus, humeri; iambus, iambi; ichthyosaurus, ichthyosauri; literatus (now little used), literati (more common than the singular); loculus, loculi; locus, loci; magus, magi; modulus, moduli; narcissus, narcissus(es) or narcissi; nautilus, nautiluses or nautili; nidus, nidi; Nimbus, nimbi; nucleus, nuclei or nucleus; opus, opera; plexus, plexi or plexuses; rictus, rictuses or rictus; saltus, saltus; sinus, sinuses or sinuses; viscus, viscera; 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; iuctus, iuctuses or iuctus; lusus, lusus; meatus, meatus or meatuses; nexus, nexus or nexuses; opus, opera; plexus, plexi or plexuses; rictus, rictuses or rictus; saltus, saltus; sinus, sinuses or sinuses; 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, addenda; 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, arboreta or arboretaums; arcanum, arcana; auditorium, auditoriums or auditoria; bacterium, bacteria; candelabrum, candelabra or candelabrums; cerebellum, cerebella or cerebells; cerebrum, cerebra or cerebrums; cilium, cilia; compendium, compendia or compendiums; corrigendum, corrigenda; cranium, crania or crania (jocular use for heads); curriculum, curricula or curriculums; datum, data; desideratum, desiderata; dictum, dicta; effluvium, effluvia; emporium, emporia or emporiums; epiphel-almium, epiphalmiums or epiphalmia; erratum, errata; exordium, exordiums or exordia; frenum, frenas or frenums; frustum, frusta or frustums; gymnasium, gymnasiums or gymnasia; gymnasium (German classical school), gymnasia or in German form gymnasiens; 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, millenniums or millennia; minimum, minima or minimums; momentum, momenta; moratorium, moratoria or mortoria; operculum, opercula; opusculum, opuscula; ovum, ova; palladium, palladia; phylum, phyla; planetarium, planetaria or planetariums; plectrum, plectra; podium, podia; proscenium, proscenia; 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); sacramentum, sacra; sanatorium, sanatoriums or sanatoria; scholium, scholia; scutum, scuta; septum, septa; simulacrum, simulacra; spectrum, spectra; specter, specters; spectrums; speculum, specula; stadium, stadia; sterna or sternums; stratum, strata; substantia, substrata; sudatorium, sudatoria; symposium, symposia; tympanum, tympana; tympana; tympanum;
tympana; ultimatum, ultimata or ultimatus; 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 apices; codex, codices; cortex, cortices; index, indexes (25) or indices (25); murex, muricēs or murexes; vertex, verticēs or vertexes; vortex, verticēs or vortexes; appendix, appendices or appendicēs; helix, helicēs or helices; radix, radicēs or radices; calyx, calyces or calyxēs; administratrix, administratrices; cicatrix, cicatrices; executrix, executrices or executrixes; heritrīx, heritrices or heritrixes; inheritrīx, inheritrices or inheritrices; matrix, matrices or matrixes; mediatrix, mediatrices or mediatrices; prosecutrix, prosecutrices or prosecutrixes; testatrix, testatrices or testatrices; amanuensis, amanuensis; analysis, analyses; apodosis, apodoses; arsis, arses; axis, axes; basis, bases; chrysalis, chrysalides; crisis, crises; diagnosis, diagnoses; dieresis, diereses; emphasis, emphases; hypothesis, hypotheses; metamorphosis, metamorphoses; matathesis, matatheses; metempsychosis, metempsychoses; narcosis, narcoses; neurosis, neuroses; oasis, oasis; parabasis, parabasēs; parenthesis, parentheses; periphrasis, periphrases; proboscis, probosces or proboscides, but not proboscis; prognosis, prognoses; protasis, protases; psychosis, psychoses; sclerosis, scleroses; syllepsis, syllepsēs; synopsis, synopsēs; synthesis, syntheses; thesis, theses, etc. There are other words with the plural in -ēs: pārīes, pārīetēs; vibrio, vibriōnēs.

Iris, metropolis, usually have English plurals, irises, metropolises, but the former sometimes has the foreign plural iridēs. 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; noumenon, noumena; organon, organa or organons; oxymoron, oxymora or oxymora; perispomenon, perispomena; phenomenon, phenomena; prolegomenon, prolegomena (usually in plural); etc. Instead of ephemeron (pl. ephemera or ephemeron) 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 -rota 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, fibrumata; gumma, gummatas or gummas; miasma, miasmata or miasmas; neutrma, neutromata; sarcoma, sarcomata or sarcomas; scleroma, scleromata; stemma, stemmatas; 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.'

Cyclops has a variant form Cyclop. Cyclops has the plural Ciclopés or Ciclopēs. Cyclop has the plural Cyclops.

Sioux has the same form for singular and plural, the final x 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 menínqēs. The plural of phalanges is phalángēs in anatomy and botany, elsewhere phalanges. The singular of phalángēs is also phálange.

8. Italian words with the plural in -i (pronounced as e in react):
bandit, bandits or banditti; carbonaro, carbonari; cicerone, ciceroni
or cicerones; conversazione, conversaziones 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 librettì; niello, nielli or niellos; sbirro, sbirri; soprano, sopranos or soprani; virtuoso, virtuost or virtuosos. The plural of the compound prima donna is prima donnas or prime donne.

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

The contracted form Messrs. (mërsz) 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 shâsè in the singular and shâsèz in the plural. It is sometimes pronounced chasis in both singular and plural. In England the usual pronunciation is shâsè 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 rabbî is rabbîs.

11. Latin: triumvir, triumvirs or triumviri; naiad (naiàd or nayàd), naiads or naiadès.

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 jënyûs), pl. geniusæ; genius (pronounced jëni-ûs) or genie (pronounced jëni), both in the sense of a good or evil spirit with the plural form geniï, or instead of genie the Arabic form jinnee 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; horsemanship, 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 ménkind. In America the colloquial expression is men folks. Womankind has the force of all women, while wómankind or wómenkind 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 I.

2. Syntactical Compounds. Although in the old compounds in 1 the components stand 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, coats-of-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 *courts-martial* 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. (mɛsɛrz) 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.

**Nominaive**

1. **Functions.** The nominative performs three functions. It plays the role 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.
ACCUSATIVE

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 *ës*. This is the survival of older usage when all nouns could take *ës* in the genitive singular. This older usage was still lingering in Shakespeare's day: 'as white as whaleë'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: ‘pa leaf þæs troywes’ = ‘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.
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: ‘Swoorde swebben’ ‘to kill with a sword’; ‘lustfullien paes biscopes 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 role 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).
But even in the literary language in general the fondness for the feminine gender may assert itself in animated style. In *The National Geographic Magazine*, August, 1933, Lieut. Col. L. V. S. Blacker, O.B.E., writes in an article on flying over Mt. Everest: 'A moment later came Everest herself, flanked by the snowy pyramid of Makalu.'

**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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### C. Neuter Nouns

#### Singular

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#### Plural

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<th>wundor</th>
<th>cneo(w)</th>
<th>cild, cildru, cildrum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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

### II. Weak Inflection

#### Masculine  Feminine  Neuter

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

#### Plural

| Nom.         | naman          | tungan| eagan |
| Acc.         | naman          | tungan| eagan |
| Dat.         | namun          | tungum| eagum |
| Gen.         | namena         | tungena| eagena|
30. Middle English Inflection of Nouns

I. STRONG INFLECTION

A. Masculine Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>stone</th>
<th>son</th>
<th>foot</th>
<th>man</th>
<th>brother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ace.</td>
<td>stōn</td>
<td>sone</td>
<td>fōt</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>brōther</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>stōn(e)</td>
<td>sone</td>
<td>fōt(e)</td>
<td>man(ne)</td>
<td>brōther</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fōtes</td>
<td>mannes</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>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fēt</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fēt</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>stōnes</td>
<td>sones</td>
<td>fētes</td>
<td>mennes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Feminine Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>tale</th>
<th>herd</th>
<th>hand</th>
<th>book</th>
<th>mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>herde</td>
<td>hand</td>
<td>bök</td>
<td>mōder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>herde</td>
<td>hand(e)</td>
<td>bök(e)</td>
<td>mōder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tale, -es</td>
<td>herde, -es</td>
<td>hande, -es</td>
<td>bökes</td>
<td>mōder, mōdres</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

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


### C. Neuter Nouns

#### Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. word</th>
<th>hole</th>
<th>wonder</th>
<th>knee</th>
<th>child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. wordes</td>
<td>holes</td>
<td>wondres</td>
<td>knēes</td>
<td>childes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. wordes</th>
<th>holes</th>
<th>wondres</th>
<th>knēes</th>
<th>children, childer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### II. Weak Inflection

#### Masculine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. name</th>
<th>tongue</th>
<th>eye</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc. name</td>
<td>tongue</td>
<td>eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. name</td>
<td>tongue</td>
<td>eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. name, -es</td>
<td>tongue, -es</td>
<td>eye, -es</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Feminine

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

#### Neuter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. namen, -es</th>
<th>tongen, -es</th>
<th>eyen, -es</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc. namen, -es</td>
<td>tongen, -es</td>
<td>eyen, -es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. namen, -es</td>
<td>tongen, -es</td>
<td>eyen, -es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. namen(e), -es</td>
<td>tongen(e), -es</td>
<td>eyen(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 Inflection 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 system 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, untrammeled 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 genitive 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 hing be ge hyrdon' 'the things that you have heard.' Here the article pa has distinctive plural form, while the noun hing, though in the plural, has the same form as the singular. As can be seen by the translation, 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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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>Old Form</td>
<td>Common Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>thou</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>thee</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to me</td>
<td>to thee</td>
<td>to you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for me</td>
<td>for thee</td>
<td>for you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>thine</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of me</td>
<td>of thee</td>
<td>of you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Plural for All Genders</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></td>
<td>for us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of us</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’
(logical subject). '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, yours (or youse and in Ireland also ye, yees, yez, yiz): 'He'll settle yours (= you kids), yours 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 yours.' 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 I 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.

**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></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>DUAL</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIRST PERSON</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ic</td>
<td>wit</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mec, mē</td>
<td>unc, unct</td>
<td>ūsic, ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mē</td>
<td>unc</td>
<td>ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mīn</td>
<td>unct</td>
<td>ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECOND PERSON</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>bū</td>
<td>git</td>
<td>gē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>bēc, bē</td>
<td>inc, incit</td>
<td>ēowic, ēow, iow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>bē</td>
<td>inc</td>
<td>ēow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>bīn</td>
<td>inc</td>
<td>ēower, iower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THIRD PERSON</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hē</td>
<td>hio, hēo</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hīne, hienie</td>
<td>hie</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>hīm</td>
<td>hiere, hire</td>
<td>him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>hiere, hire</td>
<td>hīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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>me</td>
<td>us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>min, mijn, mine, myne, mi, my</td>
<td>ure, 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>3ë, 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, thyn, thine, thyn(e), thi, thë</td>
<td>3ure, youre, your(e)s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**THIRD PERSON**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>he, ha, a</td>
<td>hë, hë, 3hë, 3hö</td>
<td>hit, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td>schë (shee, she, sse)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td>schö (sco, sso)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire, hir, here, her</td>
<td>hit, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire, hir, here, her</td>
<td>him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>hire, hir, her, hire(e)s, her(e)s</td>
<td>his, hit, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural for All Genders**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hie, hi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hie, hi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hiera, hira, hiora, heora</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 *sīo* (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 *hīo* (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 hē. 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). In this Negro dialect e may refer also to lifeless things, as also in British dialect: ‘De bes time to kill grass is wen e (= it) young’ (John G. Williams, Brudder Coteny’s Sermons, Sermon III). ‘E (= she) said smokin would help me to stop bein so nervish.’ — ‘Sho e (= it) will, if you learn to smoke right’ (Julia Peterkin, Scarlet Sister Mary, Ch. XIV). It is employed also as subject of an impersonal verb: ‘E (= it) is gettin dark’ (ib., Ch. XXIX). The accusative of e is em with reference to male, female, or lifeless thing: ‘I'd like to kill Cinder (woman) — kill em dead’ (ib., Ch. XII). ‘You better smoke you pipe. Le me fill em fo you’ (ib., Ch. XXI).

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 (blinders) 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 normal 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 personal 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 pronouns, 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 *ourselves*), *yourselves* (in older English *yourself*), instead of *meself, theeself, usselves, youtself*. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries *its self* was in limited use, but is now replaced by *itself*. In popular speech *hisself, 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 adjective *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 oursevles (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, ii, 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
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>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 reddenest 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 mar­chandise' (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).

*dd*. 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, 232 II 6.

b. 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 uninfl ected 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-every</td>
<td>whose-every</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of whom</td>
<td>whoever's</td>
<td>whose-every'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 prepo-
sition 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 accord­
ance with older usage there is still no apostrophe before the geni­
tive -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 1 (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 þe 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 þæ þing þe þanon cumalp’ = ‘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>hwēne</td>
<td>hwēt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>hwǣm, hwām</td>
<td>hwǣm, hwām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hwǣs</td>
<td>hwǣs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr.</td>
<td>hwīy, hwī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Middle English, what became an uninflected form. Who inflected: whō (nom.), whōm (dat. and acc.), whōs (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 hwat 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 c 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 I 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, some­one 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 foolishe deming (deeming) and none's (now no one's) death discuss' (Barclay, *Shyp of Folys*, 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.

c. 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 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 sole 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).

bb. 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.