CHAPTER XI

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES

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PRESENT INFLATION OF ADJECTIVES

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

1. Inflection of the Positive

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

As in the above examples, the substantive forms of limiting adjectives point to a preceding noun or a following of-genitive, a prepositional phrase, or a relative clause. They are here always employed as convenient substitutes for a noun or a noun and its modifying adjective, so that in fact they are pronouns: ‘these books and those (= those books) on the table.’ As these pronouns are among the commonest in the language, the question of their proper form is of considerable importance. Their form is treated in detail under the head of pronouns in 7 IV b, 7 VI, 7 VII b, c, d, e, 38 b, 41, 42 b, c, d, e. This subject is treated at considerable length in Syntax, 57 1, 2, 3, 5 a, b, c.

Also the substantive forms of descriptive adjectives are pronouns, for they are only convenient substitutes for nouns and their modifying adjective: ‘the black sheep and the white one’ (= white sheep).
The substantive forms of both limiting and descriptive adjectives, though pronouns by function, differ from pure pronouns such as I, you, he, she, etc., in one important point. They not only perform the pronominal function, but they describe or point out, i.e. they have meaning, while the pure pronouns, meaningless and colorless, are mere conventional symbols standing for persons and things. These substantive forms differ from pure pronouns also in that they are freely modified by adherent (8) adjectives, betraying thus their substantive origin, their relation to some noun understood: 'quaint old houses and beautiful new ones'; 'these books and all those'; 'these books and many more, some more, a few more'; 'some fifty of them'; 'John, Fred, and some others'; 'some few of us'; etc.

2. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

There are three degrees — the positive, the comparative, the superlative. The positive is the simple form of the adjective: 'a strong man.' The comparative indicates that the quality is found in the person or thing described in a higher degree than in some other person or thing: 'the stronger of the two men.' ‘This tree is taller than that.’ The superlative is relatively the highest degree and often indicates that the quality is found in the highest degree in the person or thing described: ‘Mt. Everest is the highest mountain in the world.’ Often, however, the superlative is used in a relative sense, indicating that of the persons or things compared a certain person or thing possesses the quality in the highest degree, which need not be a very high or the highest degree in general. ‘John is the strongest of these boys, but there are others in the school stronger than he.’

In general, comparison is characteristic of descriptive adjectives, the comparative and the superlative indicating different degrees of a quality. But a number of limiting adjectives are compared. Here the comparative and the superlative do not indicate different degrees, but point out different individuals: the former; the latter; the first; the last; the topmost round; the southernmost island of the group. In the following discussion of comparison, descriptive and limiting adjectives are, for convenience, treated together.

A. Relative Comparison. In contrast to the older uniform use of endings to construct the comparative and the superlative, we today with some adjectives employ the old terminational, or synthetic, form in -er and -est; with others, influenced by our fondness for analytic form, as described in b, p. 188, we prefer comparison with more and most; with others we fluctuate between
the old terminational, or synthetic, form and the new analytic form. The wide use of the analytic form with more and most in modern English is explained not only by its expressiveness, as described in b, p. 188, but also by its agreeableness of sound and its ease of pronunciation in the case of long adjectives.

Monosyllables and a large number of dissyllabics are compared by means of the comparative ending –er and the superlative ending –est: quick, quicker, quickest; sturdy, sturdier, sturdiest. Before adding the comparative or superlative ending: (1). Drop e: large, larger, largest. (2). Change y to i if a consonant precedes, but retain the y if a vowel precedes: lazy, lazier, laziest; dry, drier, driest; but gray, grayer, grayest. In British English, however, sly and usually shy retain the y although a consonant precedes: sly, slyer, slyest; shy, shyer, shyest. In America the forms –ier, –iest, are the usual ones: sly, slier, sliest; shy, shier, shiest. (3). In mono-syllabic words double the final consonant after a short vowel: hot, hotter, hottest. The British scholar Alfred West on page 114 of his English Grammar remarks, 'A few other adjectives, not mono-syllabic, exhibit the same orthographical change: crueller, hope fuller.' In American usage the l here is not doubled, as it stands in an unaccented syllable: crueller, hope fuler. Americans prefer here, however, the analytic forms with more and most: more cruel, most cruel, etc.

While we may thus compare with –er and –est a number of dis-syllabics, especially those in –er, –le, –y, –ow, –some, such as tender, bitter, clever, sober, able, noble, idle, holy, goodly, narrow, handsome, wholesome, winsome, and some words accented upon the last syllable, such as profound, remote, etc., and also others that cannot be easily described, such as pleasant, cruel, quiet, etc., or in these same words and many others may use both the old form in –er and –est and the newer analytic form with more and most, as in pleasanter or more pleasant, crueller or more cruel, serener or more serene, in many others we usually prefer comparison by means of more and most, as in the case of earnest, eager, proper, famous, comic, docile, fertile, hostile, certain, active, content, abject, adverse, and participles in –ed and –ing and adjectives in –ful and –ish, as learned, strained, charming, useful, childish, etc.

A few monosyllabics, like, real, right, wrong, and wan, which do not naturally incline to comparison, are usually compared by more and most when they are compared, although the terminational form occasionally occurs; in the case of like, however, only in older English, and sometimes still in poetry and dialect, never in colloquial or literary prose: 'I'm liker (now usually more like) what I was than you to him' (Dryden, All for Love, I, 247, A.D. 1678).
'Father is more like himself today.' 'The figures of Spartacus, Montrose, Garibaldi, Hampden, and John Nicholson were more real to him than the people among whom he lived' (Galsworthy, *Freelands*, Ch. X). 'It is wrong to even think it; it is more wrong to do it.'

Monosyllabic adjectives, however, are often compared by more when the adjective is placed after the noun to give it more emphasis and at the same time impart descriptive (8, 3rd par.) force. With classifying force 'There never was a kinder and jüster man,' but with descriptive force 'There never was a man more kind and just.'

In ordinary literary language, words of more than two syllables are seldom compared otherwise than by more and most: beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

a. Irregular Comparison:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bad, ill, evil</td>
<td>worse, badder (in older English)</td>
<td>worst, baddest (in older English)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther, further</td>
<td>farthest, furthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fore</td>
<td>former</td>
<td>foremost, first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good, well</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>late</td>
<td>later, latter</td>
<td>latest, last, lattermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less, lesser</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much, many</td>
<td>more, or in older English, mo or moe</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nigh</td>
<td>nigher</td>
<td>highest, next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old</td>
<td>older, elder</td>
<td>oldest, eldest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td></td>
<td>aftermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>east, eastern</td>
<td>more eastern</td>
<td>easternmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>hinder</td>
<td>hindmost, hindermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hind</td>
<td>inner</td>
<td>inmost, innermost</td>
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<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>lower</td>
<td>lowest, lowermost</td>
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<tr>
<td>north, northern</td>
<td>more northern</td>
<td>northmost, northernmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nether</td>
<td></td>
<td>nethermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outer, utter</td>
<td></td>
<td>outmost, outermost, utmost</td>
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<tr>
<td>rear</td>
<td></td>
<td>rearmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>south, southern</td>
<td>more southern</td>
<td>southmost, southernmost</td>
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<tr>
<td>top</td>
<td></td>
<td>topmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under</td>
<td></td>
<td>undermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>up</td>
<td>upper</td>
<td>uppermost, upmost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>west, western</td>
<td>more western</td>
<td>westernmost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In older English, *mo* or *moe* (Old English *mā*) was used instead of *more* when the reference was to number: ‘Send out *moe* horses’ (Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, V, iii, 34).

In a few cases the variant forms indicate a differentiation of meaning or function. The usual comparative and superlative of *old* are *older*, *oldest*, always so in the predicate relation; but we may use *elder*, *eldest*, in the attributive and the substantive (43 1) relation and *elder* as a noun, especially of relationship and rank: the *elder* brother; the *elder* Pitt; I am the *elder*; He is my *elder* in service; the *eldest* brother, etc. ‘He is an *elder* in the church.’

We use *farther* and *further* with the same local and temporal meaning, but *further* has also the meanings *additional*, *more extended*, *more*: ‘The cabin stands on the *farther* (or *further*) side of the brook.’ ‘I shall be back in three days *at the farthest*,’ or *at the furthest*. But: *further* details; without *further* delay. ‘After a *further* search I found her.’ ‘Have you anything *further* (= *more*) to say?’ In adverbial function *farther* and *further* are used indiscriminately: ‘You may go *farther* (or *further*) and fare worse.’ There is, however, a decided tendency to employ *further* to express the idea of additional, more extended action: ‘I shall be glad to discuss the matter *further* with you.’

*Later* and *latter* are now clearly differentiated in meaning.

The terminations in some of these forms, as *lesser*, *innermost*, etc., express the degree two or three times instead of once. Compare *aa* below.

*aa*. **Older Comparison, Pleonasm, Excess of Expression.** In older English, *old* was not the only adjective that might have a change of vowel in the comparative and superlative. Once this change, called mutation, was with certain words the rule. Later, the tendency toward uniformity brought the vowel of the positive into the comparative and superlative. In the early part of the sixteenth century there are still two adjectives which have mutation, but alongside of the old mutated form is the new unmutated, both forms with exactly the same meaning: *long, longer or longer*, *lengest* or *longest*; *old, elder or older, eldest* or *oldest*. Toward the close of the century the old mutated form of *long* disappeared, while *old* kept both forms but now with differentiated meaning, as described in the second paragraph on this page.

In older English, the comparative and superlative were formed by means of suffixes, not only in the case of monosyllabics but also in the case of longer adjectives, often where it is not now usual: ‘Nothing *certainer*’ (Shakespeare, *Much Ado about Nothing*, V, iv, 62); ‘one of the *beautifullest* men in the world’ (Thomas Fuller, *The Holy State and the Profane State*, V, II, 362, A.D. 1642). Long terminational comparatives and superlatives can still be heard in popular speech, which here preserves older usage: *beautifuler, beautifulest*, etc. This older usage still occurs also in emphatic
and excited colloquial speech, especially in the attributive relation: 'The machine was perfect as a watch when we took her apart the other day; but when she goes together again the 15th of January, we expect her to be perfecter than a watch' (Mark Twain, Letter to Joseph T. Goodman, Nov. 29, 1889). 'There was no crâftier or crûokeder dîrectîr in the habitable world' (Sinclair Lewis, Arrowsmith, Ch. XXX, IV). 'Joe Twichel was the delightepest old bûy I ever saw when he read the words you had written in that book' (Mark Twain, Letter to W. D. Howells, Dec. 18, 1874). 'Our baby is the blêssédest little bundle of sunshine Heaven ever sent into this world.' 'It is the stûpidest nónsense!' The analytic forms with more and most began to appear in the thirteenth century in connection with participles, where they are still the most thoroughly established. This tendency to place the comparative and superlative of an adverb before a participle had already begun in Old English, where the forms swipor and swipost were used, which were replaced by more and most in the thirteenth century. The participles as verbal forms could take adverbs before them just as finite verbs do. The adverbs more and most were often retained when the participles were used as adjectives, since more and most as common adverbs had more concrete force than the endings -er and -est. This new usage spread to adjectives. It was and still is absolutely necessary in the case of nouns, adverbs, and prepositional phrases used as adjectives, as in 'He was more knave than fool' and 'I was more in doubt about it than any of them.' The general development in the direction of more and most was facilitated by the strong English trend toward analytic forms and was also furthered by French influence.

The new analytic forms at first gained ground only slowly, not becoming common until the sixteenth century, then gradually establishing themselves in the literary language alongside of the terminational forms, as we find them today.

The new analytic forms occur also in popular speech, but for the most part only pleonastically alongside of the usual terminational forms: a more abler man; the most carelessest man. Such double forms were once in use in the literary language: 'we will grace his heels With the most boldest and best hearts of Rome' (Shakespeare, Julius Caesar, III, i, 120). In older literary English, we often find double comparison in worser, which still survives in popular speech. Double comparison still survives in the literary language in lesser, which replaces less in attributive and substantive function in certain expressions, especially with reference to concrete things: in lesser things; the lesser grammarians; the lesser of two evils; but less with more abstract reference, as in less degree; at a less depth; also to express amount and quantity, and in adverbial use, as in 'He has less money than I' and 'He works less than I.'

We no longer feel the double comparison in near (comparative of nigh, but now felt as a positive with regular comparison, near, nearer, nearest) and adjectives in -most (now confounded with most, but in older English with the form mest, which consists of the two superlative suffixes, -m and -est), as in foremost, hindmost, inmost, utmost. From the superlative
foremost the comparative former has been formed. In aftermost, hindermost, innermost, nethermost, outermost, uppermost, uttermost, we have a comparative + the two superlative suffixes -m and -est.

While we today in general avoid pleonastic comparison, we do not feel such forms as more perfect, most perfect, deader, deadest, more unique, etc., as pleonastic, since we have in mind degrees of approach to something perfect, dead, or unique.

Somewhat similar to the pleonasm of older English was its excess of expression in using the superlative with reference to two, which still survives in popular and colloquial speech, as in ‘the smallest of the two.’ Sometimes in the literary language: ‘They (i.e. the two squirrels) seemed to vie with one another who should be most bold’ (Thoreau, Journal, XIII, p. 189).

bb. Blending of Superlative and Comparative. In comparisons where there is present the idea of a group or class, the superlative represents the group as complete, while the comparative represents the separation of one or more from all the others in the group. Hence we should say: ‘His versification is by far the most perfect of all English poets,’ or more perfect than that of any other English poet, but we should not blend the two forms, as in the most perfect of any English poet or the most perfect of all other English poets.

b. Advantages of the Analytic Forms. It should be noticed that in the old terminational form the sign of the degree is intimately associated with the stem, so that it is a mere suffix and can never be stressed. On the other hand, in the analytic form the sign of degree, more or most, is still an independent word and is often stressed. There are here two parts, one indicating the degree, the other the meaning. We here, as in 47 3 (1), (2), are fond of using the analytic form, since by means of it we can better shade our thought. We stress the adjective when we desire to emphasize the meaning, but stress the more or most when we desire to emphasize the idea of degree: ‘She is more beautiful than her sister,’ but ‘She is indeed beautiful, but her sister is still more beautiful.’ ‘Of the sisters Mary is the most beautiful and Jane the most beloved,’ but ‘The sisters are all beautiful, but Mary is by far the most beautiful.’

c. Use of the ‘One’-Form in Different Degrees and Different Functions. The different degrees have different forms when used substantively (43 1), the form with one being for the most part required in the positive but often felt as unnecessary in the comparative and superlative. The comparative and the superlative of descriptive adjectives frequently do not need one, since in connection with the definite article, the degree ending, and the context they become in large measure limiting adjectives; i.e. they do not describe persons and things but point them out and thus
mark them so clearly as definite individuals that one is not necessary to indicate the grammatical relation: ‘Which of the two brothers did it?’ — ‘The younger’ or ‘The younger one.’ But in ‘the younger of the two brothers,’ ‘the youngest of the brothers,’ one is not usually felt as necessary. One, however, is now, in contrast to older usage, felt by most people as indispensable after the indefinite article, since the reference is not clear and definite: ‘This cord will not do; I need a stronger one.’ ‘I am not looking for a room today. I have just found a most comfortable one.’

There is also a difference of usage in different functions: ‘This cord is strong’ (predicate adjective) or a strong one (used substantively). ‘This cord is stronger’ (predicate adjective), or in substantive use the stronger or the stronger one, but always a stronger one. ‘This cord is strongest (predicate adjective) at this point,’ but in substantive use ‘This cord is the strongest,’ or the strongest one. ‘The lake is deepest (predicate adjective) at this point,’ but in substantive use ‘Of these lakes this one is the deepest,’ or ‘This lake is the deepest one,’ or simply the deepest. The pure predicate superlative represents the highest degree attained by a person or a thing as compared with himself or itself at different times, places, or under different circumstances: ‘The storm was most violent towards morning.’ ‘The lake is deepest here.’ ‘He is happiest when left alone.’ There is usually no the here before the superlative, but it is now creeping in, as explained in d below.

d. Predicate Superlative in Form of Adverbial Accusative or Prepositional Phrase. Instead of the pure predicate adjective superlative described in c (2nd par.) we sometimes employ in the predicate relation the adverbial accusative (711 a) of a noun made from the adjective superlative by placing the definite article the before it: ‘I doubt whether the actions of which we are the very proudest will not surprise us, when we trace them, as we shall one day, to their source’ (Thackeray, Pendennis, Ch. XXXI), instead of indeed proudest. ‘The rooks settle where the trees are the finest’ (Lytton, My Novel, I, Ch. V), instead of finest. ‘Of these specimens my friend is naturally the most proud’ (J. Conrad, A Set of Six), instead of most proud. ‘It was, perhaps, at this time that Mrs. Henry and I were the most uneasy’ (R. L. Stevenson), instead of most uneasy. This superlative is always used when it is modified by a restrictive relative clause: ‘On that day she looked the happiest that I had ever seen her,’ or often with suppressed relative pronoun: ‘Louise was sitting in a deep chair, looking the happiest [that] I had ever seen her’ (Mary Roberts Rinehart, The Circular Staircase, Ch. XXXIV). ‘On that day she looked the most beauti-
ful that I had ever seen her.’ As described in 71 2 a bb, this adverbial accusative is sometimes used with verbs as the superlative of the adverb, hence it is used also here in the predicate, just as adverbs in general are often used in the predicate with adjective force (8 a).

In the predicate instead of the simple superlative without the or the adverbial accusative of the superlative with the, we may use also a prepositional phrase (16 1 c) composed of at and the superlative modified by a possessive adjective: ‘The steps are at their steepest (or steepest, or the steepest) just here’ (F. M. Peard, *Madame's Granddaughter*, p. 74). ‘She knew that she looked at her best in this attire’ (C. Garvice, *Staunch as a Woman*, p. 83). Similarly, as objective predicate: ‘She first saw the hill at its gayest when that brief, brilliant hour before autumn bedecked Cosdon’ (Phillpotts, *The Beacon*, I, Ch. VI). ‘In “Doctor Dick” we have the author at his most useful’ (Literary World, Apr. 19, 1895, p. 362). Sometimes the takes the place of a possessive here: ‘It was now sunset — the throng at the fullest’ (Lytton, *What Will He Do with It?* I, Ch. I).

e. Two Qualities of One Person or Thing Compared. In comparing two qualities of one person or thing we usually employ more: ‘She is more proud than vain.’ ‘He is more shy than unsocial.’ However, in the case of a few monosyllables, long, wide, thick, high, we still regularly employ the old simple comparative, usually with full clause form in the subordinate clause: ‘The wall was in some places thicker than it was high.’

f. Comparative of Gradation. To indicate that the quality increases or decreases at a fairly even rate we place ever before the comparative, or we repeat it: ‘The road got ever worse (or worse and worse) until there was none at all.’

g. Comparison of Other Parts of Speech Used as Adjectives. Here we usually employ more and most: ‘John is more in debt than I am.’ ‘She is more mother than wife.’ ‘Though the youngest among them, she was more woman than they.’ Where we feel a comparative more as a pronoun than as an adjective we say: ‘Charles was more of a gentleman than a king, and more of a wit than a gentleman.’ ‘Smith is more of a teacher than his brother.’

h. Comparative of Limiting Adjectives Not Used in Predicate. The comparative of limiting adjectives, inner, outer, former, latter, etc., cannot be used as a predicate followed by than, since, according to 43 2 (2nd par.), limiting adjectives do not indicate degrees, but merely point out individuals. The comparative older can, as a descriptive adjective, be used as a predicate; but elder
cannot be so used, for it is a limiting adjective: ‘He is older (not elder) than I,’ but ‘This is the elder brother.’

i. Comparison of Compounds. We compare the first element of a compound where this is possible, usually employing the terminational form, but if the first element is a word that does not admit of this form we use more or most: ‘the biggest-chested and longest-armed man I ever saw,’ but ‘This is the most up-to-date book I know.’ Even if the first element admits of the terminational form, we employ more or most if the first element has fused with the other component so closely that it is not felt as a separate element with a separate function: well-known; better-known; but ‘the more well-to-do tradesmen.’

Of course, we compare the last component if it contains the element capable of comparison, usually employing the form we should use if it were an independent word: bloodthirstier, blood-thirstiest; praiseworthyst, or most praiseworthy; etc.

B. Absolute Comparison:

a. Absolute Superlative. In all the preceding examples the degrees express superiority in a relative sense, some person or thing excelling all the members of a definite group in the possession of a certain quality, while in fact the higher or highest degree here may be a comparatively low degree: ‘John is the taller of the two, the tallest of them all, but he is notwithstanding quite small.’ We may in the case of the superlative, quite commonly, express superiority in an absolute sense, indicating a very high degree in and of itself, not necessarily, however, the very highest.

In lively style, we here often place unstressed most before the stressed positive of the adjective or participle: (relative superlative) ‘It is the most lovely flower in the garden,’ but in an absolute sense: ‘He has the most beautiful of gardens.’ ‘Everything about the place tells of the most dainty order, the most exquisite cleanliness’ (Mrs. Gaskell, Life of Charlotte Brontë, Ch. I). ‘It was a most magnificent exhibition of courage.’ ‘We shall soon see George and his most beautiful wife.’ ‘Most lovely flowers everywhere greet the eye and most fragrant perfumes fill the air.’ We can distinguish only by the stress ‘Most reputable (absolute superlative) writers have now abandoned this claim’ from ‘Most (= the great majority of) reputable writers have abandoned this claim.’

Instead of the usual absolute superlative with most, we sometimes in the case of adjectives which admit of the terminational form employ the simple superlative, often drawling it out and stressing it: ‘Oh, he made the ru-dest remark!’ ‘The letter did not meet with the warmest reception.’ ‘Thus he was perfectly rational,
though when others beheld him he appeared the insânest of mortals' (Meredith, Amazing Marriage, Ch. VI). 'I'm in the best of health.' 'She is in the b6est of company.' 'At all times her dress was of the pdorest.' 'Humphrey's ideas of time were always of the vâgest order' (Florence Montgomery, Misunderstood, Ch. III). 'The letter was written in the kindest terms.' Besides such expressions we find this form sometimes, especially in our own time, when the superlative is modified by a limiting adjective, my, any, every, each, no, some, certain, etc., or, on the other hand, sometimes when it is entirely unmodified, especially in the case of abstract and plural nouns: 'my déarest darling'; 'any plâinest man who reads this' (Trollope, Framley Parsonage, Ch. XIV); 'so completely did it fulfil every fâinest hope'; 'there is no smallest doubt.' 'It was perhaps on some dákest, müdiest afternoon of a London February' (Times Literary Supplement, June 9, 1918). 'A stronger lens reveals to you certain tinyest hairlets, which make vortices for these victims' (George Eliot, Middlemarch, I, Ch. VI). 'Michael and Guy left Oxford in the mellow time of an afternoon in earliest August' (Compton Mackenzie, Sinister Street, p. 760). 'I owed her déepest gratitude' (Elinor Glyn, Reflections of Ambrosine, III, Ch. V). 'Our friendship ripened into closest intimacy.' 'From earliest times.'

The most common way to express the absolute superlative is to place before the positive of the adjective a simple adverb, such as very, exceedingly, highly, absolutely, etc., or in colloquial speech awfully, dreadfully, terribly, beastly, etc., sometimes without the suffix -ly, as in the case of awful, even regularly so in the case of real (711; widely used in America), mighty, jolly (British colloquial for very), devilish, damned, bloody (British), bally (British), etc.: very cold weather; an exceedingly intricate problem; a highly polished society. 'I am awfully (sometimes awful) glad.' 'It's real cold.' 'I'm jolly glad anyhow.' 'It's damned hot.' Also only too, simply too, just too, and just are so used: 'I shall be only too glad if you accept my invitation.' 'It's simply too bad of him!' 'It's just too awful!' 'It's just splendid!' In older English, pure was used with the meaning of absolutely: 'It is pure easy to follow god and serve hym in tyme of tranquylite' (Caxton, Chast. Goddes Chyld, 89, a.d. 1491). This usage is preserved in certain American dialects: 'Dey hides is pure tough' (Julia Peterkin, Scarlet Sister Mary). Compare Syntax, 16 2 a.

b. Absolute Comparative. The absolute comparative is not as common as the absolute superlative: the lower classes; the higher classes; higher education; a better-class cafe; the more complex problems of life; 'the mist, like a fleecy coverlet, hiding every harsher line' (H. Sutcliffe, Pam the Fiddler, Ch. I).
We usually place here before the positive of the adjective a simple adverb, such as tolerably, fairly, rather, etc.: a tolerably (or fairly, or rather) long walk; somewhat talkative; etc.

C. Comparison to Denote Degrees of Inferiority. Here we uniformly employ less and least: wise, less wise, least wise.

3. ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES USED AS NOUNS

In English more easily than in most languages a word can be converted, i.e. made into another part of speech. This usually takes place without any modification whatever, except, of course, the necessary change of inflection. Thus the noun eye is converted into a verb by merely giving it verbal inflection: ‘They eyed the prisoners with curiosity.’ As adjectives are now always uninflected, the conversion of nouns, adverbs, phrases, and sentences into adjectives is very easy. Compare 8 a. On the other hand, the conversion of adjectives into nouns is more difficult and irregular. In old English, adjectives, converted into nouns, often retained their old adjective form. In many cases this old usage survived even after the adjective endings had disappeared; in other cases the loss of the adjective endings brought about new forms of expression. The breakdown of the adjective inflection at the close of the Middle English period forced the English people, who are fond of short-cuts in language, to do something contrary to their nature — to go a roundabout way to express themselves. If we now say the good it can only mean that which is good, but in older English, according to the form of article, it could mean the good man, the good woman, the good thing. We now regularly use man, woman, and thing here, but there are numerous individual survivals of the older use of the simple adjective where the situation of itself without the help of the form of article or adjective makes the thought clear. Of persons: the deceased; the dear departed; my intended; the accused; the condemned; a lover clasping his fairest; my dearest (in direct address); etc. In a few cases a modern genitive form has been created: the Almighty’s strong arm; her betrothed’s sudden death; etc. A large number have a genitive singular in -’s and a plural in -s, since they have become established as regular nouns: a savage, genitive a savage’s, plural savages. Similarly, native, equal, superior, private, male, three-year-old, grown-up, Christian, criminal, red (anarchist), etc. ‘She is such a silly.’ ‘They are such sillies.’ ‘Our wets’ (opponents of prohibition) in Congress.’ (Arthur Brisbane, Jan. 1, 1932).

Alongside of modern plurals here in -s are a number of older plurals without an ending, which are the reduced forms of still
older inflected forms: my own (i.e. my kindred); the rich; the poor; the really (adverb) poor; the seriously (adverb) wounded; the worst (adverb) wounded; the living and the dead; the blind; our wounded; 2000 homeless poor; a new host of workless walking the streets; four other accused; 2000 killed and wounded; rich and poor; old and young; big and little. These nouns usually have no case ending throughout the plural, taking the modern forms of inflection: the wounded; gave food and drink to the wounded; the friends of the wounded. The s-genitive is rare: 'Always just the pausing of folks for the bit of offhand chat and then the hurrying away to their own dinner bells and their own's voices, calling’ (Fannie Hurst, 'White Apes,' in Forum, Mar. 1924, p. 290).

These nouns without an ending in the plural have been preserved because in the competition between the old and the new plural in older English they became differentiated in meaning. They acquired collective force: 'the poor of our city,' but 'the two poor men entering the gate'; 'the state of the heathen and their hope of salvation,' but 'Smith and Jones are regular heathens.' On account of the lack of a plural ending the old uninflected plural, however, is usually ambiguous, so that we often cannot use it at all. We may say 'the poor of the South,' but we must say 'the blacks (or the black people) of the South,' for the black now suggests a singular idea since it is sometimes used in the singular, thus now being felt as a noun: ‘“Fetch a light,” she said to the black who opened for us’ (S. Weir Mitchell, Hugh Wynne, Ch. XXVII). We say also 'the whites of the South.' The old form is thus in quite limited use. A pastor might say to his congregation 'I urge old and young,' but he could not say 'I desire to meet after our service the young.' He would say the young people. But we say 'a picture of a willow-wren feeding its young' (or young ones). In a broad sense the young is used also of human beings: 'Men rode up every minute and joined us, while from each village the adventurous young ran afoot to enter our ranks' (T. E. Lawrence, Revolt in the Desert, p. 303).

Since the names of some peoples have been made from adjectives, as the English, the French, the old uninflected adjective plural has become productive here, and is now used with many names of peoples: the Swiss (in older English Swisses), Portuguese (in older English Portugueses), Japanese, Chinese, etc. We sometimes use the same form for the singular just as we use 'the deceased' for the singular, but we avoid these singulars since we feel these forms as plurals and prefer to say 'a Portuguese gentleman, lady,' etc. In Chinaman, plural Chinamen or Chinese, we have, for singular and plural, forms which may become established. The singular
Chinee, a back-formation from the plural Chinese, is common in a derogatory sense. We usually say 'three, four Chinamen,' but '10,000 Chinese, the Chinese' (not the Chinamen, although in a narrow sense we may say 'the Chinamen sitting on the bench yonder'). The uninflected plural is especially common with the names of uncivilized or less civilized peoples: the Iroquois, Navaho, Hupa, Ojibwa, Omaha, Blackfoot, Duala, Bantu, Swahili, etc. Here the same form is freely used also as a singular: a Blackfoot, etc. We say the English, the French, or Englishmen, Frenchmen, but in the singular only Englishman, Frenchman. Many other words, however, may assume the new, more serviceable, type with the genitive singular and the plural in -s: a German, a German's, the Germans; an American, an American's, the Americans; a Zulu, a Zulu's, the Zulus; and even many of those given above with uninflected plural: an Omaha, an Omaha's, the Omahas. The plural of Blackfoot is often Blackfeet.

In some cases we make nouns out of the substantive form (43 1), i.e. the one-form: the Crucified One; the Evil One. 'He is a queer one.' My dear ones; our little ones; my loved ones; the great ones of earth, etc.

In a few cases nouns made from adjectives may drop the article as in older English: 'My good lady made me proud as proud can be' (Richardson, Pamela, III, 241). 'Eleven years old does this sort of thing very easily' (De Morgan, Joseph Vance, Ch. XV). 'Sweet Seventeen is given to daydreams.' 'Slow and steady wins the race.' 'For 'tis the eternal law That first in beauty should be first in might' (Keats, Hyperion, II, 228). 'First come, first served.' 'First come, first in.' In plain prose an article is usually placed before the noun: 'He is strong for an eleven-year-old.' 'I was the first one served.' 'We were the first ones served.'

Nouns made from adjectives often denote lifeless things, usually with a meaning more or less general or indefinite. They are usually preceded by the definite article or some other limiting adjective: the present (= the present time); the beautiful; the sublime. 'You ask the impossible.' 'He did his best.' As such forms, though now employed as nouns, were originally adjectives, they still are often, like adjectives, modified by adverbs: the genuinely lovable; the relatively unknown; etc. There are still many neuter nouns made from adjectives, but in older English the tendency to use them was stronger than today. A number of these nouns have since been replaced by other words: 'Let me enjoy my private' (Shakespeare, Twelfth Night, III, ii, 99), now privacy. 'Whereat a sudden pale (now paleness) . . . Usurps her cheeks' (id., Venus and Adonis, 589).
While the neuter nouns made from adjectives now usually have the definite article or some other limiting adjective before them, we still not infrequently find the older articleless form, especially in the case of two adjectives connected by and: 'I can spy already a strain of hard and headstrong in him' (Tennyson). 'That is good, but there is better to follow.' 'There is worse ahead.'

The modified or unmodified form has become fixed in many set expressions: in the dark; after dark; through thick and thin; from grave to gay; to keep to the right; to go to the bad; to go from bad to worse; to make short of long; the long and the short of it; before long. 'After frequent interchange of foul and fair' (Tennyson, Enoch Arden, 529). 'The police came up to see fair between both sides' (London Daily News, Mar. 11, 1891). 'That's no fair' (common in the language of children).

A large number of neuters have become concrete nouns: German; Luther's German; the German of the present time; my German; a daily (paper), pl. dailies; a weekly, pl. weeklies; the white of an egg, the whites of eggs. 'They sent him a wireless.' 'He at last got in one with his left' (left hand). 'The combats between the moderates and the extreme left' (more democratic section of European legislative chamber). 'What is the good of lying?' 'It is no good trying to conceal it,' but the plural goods has a much more concrete meaning. A large number are employed only in the plural: greens, woolens, tights, necessaries, movables, valuables, the Rockies, etc.

Most of the adjectives used as nouns in the examples given above are descriptive adjectives, but also some limiting adjectives are used as nouns: 'He has lost his all.' 'He and his (7 VII 66) are all well.' 'I wrote you the details in my last' (= last letter). 'He was successful from the first' (= the beginning). Proper adjectives are often (10 8) limiting adjectives. They can, of course, be used also as nouns: a German; a German's; the Germans; etc. The use of these adjectives as nouns is treated on page 195.

OLDER INFLECTIONS OF ADJECTIVES

44. An outline of older inflection is given below to indicate clearly what a great gain has come to English at this point in the direction of simplicity of expression.

A. Old English Inflection of Descriptive Adjectives. In Old English, there were two different types of descriptive adjective inflection — the strong and the weak. The strong type was the usual one for adjectives that were not modified by a limiting adjective: 'bes mann is eald' = 'This man is old.' 'bas menn sindon ealde' = 'These men are old.' The strong form was used also after one limiting adjective — the indefinite article.
The original meaning of the weak adjective was to point out a definite individual or definite individuals. It was used after limiting adjectives except the indefinite article: 'þes ealda mann' = 'this old man'; 'þas ealdan menn' = 'these old men.' The weak form was always used in the comparative, while the superlative could be inflected strong or weak, as in the case of the positive, but was usually weak. The comparative was formed by adding -r and the superlative by adding -ost or -est. To the comparative stem the regular weak endings were added, to the superlative stem the regular strong or weak endings. The following examples illustrate the inflectional changes for the nominative masculine singular in the different degrees of comparison: leof or leofa 'dear,' leofra 'dearer,' leofost or leofesta 'dearest'; eald or ealda 'old,' ieldra 'older,' ieldest or ieldesto 'oldest.' In Old English there were special endings for the different genders, cases, and numbers, as can be seen in the examples of inflection given below. Some adjectives, as in the case of eald, had a change of vowel in the comparative and the superlative. Elder, eldest, as in 'the elder, or eldest, brother,' are survivals of this older usage. Compare 43 2 A  a aa.

The forms of the two Old English types of adjective inflection are illustrated below by the inflection of eald 'old':

1. Strong Adjective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>eald</td>
<td>eald</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ealdne</td>
<td>ealde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ealdum</td>
<td>ealdre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ealdes</td>
<td>ealdre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr.</td>
<td>ealde</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ealde</td>
<td>ealda, -e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ealde</td>
<td>ealda, -e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ealdum</td>
<td>ealdum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ealdra</td>
<td>ealdra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The nominative of the feminine singular and the nominative and the accusative of the neuter plural in adjectives with a short stem end in -u or -o, as in the case of the corresponding nouns in 29 I B and C: blacu or blaco, nom. fem. sing. and nom. and acc. neut. pl. of blec 'black.'

2. Weak Adjective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ealda</td>
<td>ealde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
<td>ealdan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### B. Middle English Inflection of Descriptive Adjectives

In this period all adjectives became uninflexed except monosyllables ending in a consonant, and they preserved but little of the old wealth of adjective form, as shown by the following inflection of *old* 'old':

#### 1. Strong Adjective

For All Genders

**Singular**
Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. *old*

**Plural**
Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. *ölde*

#### 2. Weak Adjective

For All Genders

**Singular**
Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. *ölde*

**Plural**
Nom., Acc., Dat., Gen. *ölde*

### C. Older Inflection of Limiting Adjectives

In older English *that* and *this* had forms not only for number, but also for gender and case:

#### 1. Old English Inflection of 'That'

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td><em>sē</em></td>
<td><em>sīo, sēo</em></td>
<td><em>bēt</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td><em>bōne</em></td>
<td><em>bā</em></td>
<td><em>bēt</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td><em>bām, bām</em></td>
<td><em>bāre</em></td>
<td><em>bām, bām</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td><em>bās</em></td>
<td><em>bāre</em></td>
<td><em>bās</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr.</td>
<td><em>bī, bōn</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>bī, bōn</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

For All Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td><em>bē</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td><em>bā</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td><em>bām, bām</em></td>
<td><em>bāra, bāra</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
In Middle English, under the influence of the forms in the oblique cases, sæ was replaced by þe, which by 1300 had everywhere developed into the uninflected definite article the and was replaced as a demonstrative by that. In the early part of the period, however, that was used not only as a demonstrative but also as a definite article for all genders, so that there were two definite articles, the and that. That, as definite article, was gradually replaced by the, but it survived for centuries before adjectives or pronouns beginning with a vowel, especially in the expressions that one, that other = the one, the other. That other in the contracted form t'other was still in wide literary use in the eighteenth century and survives in dialect. From 1300 on, the usual function of that was that of a singular demonstrative adjective and pronoun for all genders and cases.

The Old English plural þā became þō in Middle English. Alongside of it there was in common use another plural form — thōs, the Middle English form of Old English þās, plural of ‘this.’ As described in 2 below, þōs was brought into relation to þō by the sameness of vowel. The two forms were long used side by side with the same meaning until the gradual disappearance of þō in early Modern English and the final victory of thōs in the form of those. The Middle English plurals þō and þōs were used for all genders and cases.

The Old English neuter instrumental survives in adverbial the: ‘The more money he has, the more he wants.’ Compare 71 1 c.

2. OLD ENGLISH INFLECTION OF ‘THIS’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>þēs</td>
<td>þīs, þēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>þisne</td>
<td>þēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>þīs(s)um</td>
<td>þis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>þīs(s)es</td>
<td>þisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr.</td>
<td>þīs, þīs</td>
<td>þīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For All Genders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>þīs, þēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>þīs, þēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>þīs(s)um, þīsum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>þīsra</td>
<td></td>
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In Middle English, the neuter form this was early used as a singular for all genders and cases. The Old English plural þēs became in Middle English thōs. The Old English plural þēs developed in Middle English several variants, thōs, theos, thōs. The singular this was for a time employed also as a plural. Alongside of the plurals thēs, thūs, thūs, sprang up the new plurals thēse, thīse, thūse, which had been formed by adding the adjective plural ending -e to the plurals thēs, thūs, and this. All these plurals were used for all genders and cases. The plural these alone survives.
in this meaning. The plural *thōs* gradually ceased to be felt as the plural of *this*, and was employed, as described in 1 above, as the plural of *that* alongside of the regular plural *tho*. *Thōs*, though originally the plural of *this*, was brought into relation to *thō*, the plural of *that*, by the sameness of vowel, being felt as a form of *thō*, a form with a distinct plural ending –*s* and for this reason finally replacing *thō* entirely. This could be brought about since *thōs* was not vividly felt as the plural of *this* and was not needed, for *this* had at that time other plurals besides *thōs*, as described above. Of the later spellings of *thōs* — *those, thoose, thoos*, and *thoes* — only *those* survives. In early Modern English the spellings *thees* and *theese* were used alongside of *these*. 
CHAPTER XII

INFLECTION OF VERBS

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FORMS OF THE VERB

45. The English verb has forms called voices, moods, tenses, aspects, numbers, and persons, which represent the action suggested by the verb as limited in various ways, such as in person, number, time, manner of conception, etc. A verb that can be limited in all these ways is called a finite verb: I go, he goes, they go, he went, he may go, he might go, etc. The infinite forms of the verb — the participle (47 4), the infinitive (47 5), and the gerund (47 6) — are limited in fewer ways.

One of the marked features of the growth of English in the modern period is the amazing activity in the field of the verb. Not only entirely new structures have been reared but also new life has been injected into older creations that were living before only feebly.

VOICE

46. There are two voices, the active and the passive.

ACTIVE VOICE

47. The Six Forms and Their Uses. The active voice indicates that the subject does something, is, or is becoming, something. There are six forms, which fall into two groups. The forms of the first group — the common form, the expanded form, the do-form — are finite (45); the forms of the second group — the participle, the infinitive, the gerund — are infinite (45). The forms of the first group must agree with the subject in person and number (53 a): 'Our bird sings very little.' 'Birds sing.' 'The boat is sinking.' 'The boats are sinking.' 'I am sinking.' 'Does he do his work well?' 'Do they do their work well?' Finite verbs in present-day English are not so rich in endings as in the older periods, but they must agree with the subject whenever they can. The forms of the second group do not have inflectional endings, hence they can never indicate their agreement with the subject: 'Going (= As I was going) down the street I met a friend.' 'Going (= As we were going) down the street we met some friends.' 'I believe him to be (= that he is) honest.' 'I believe them to be (= that they are) honest.' 'After finishing (= After he finishes) his work he goes to bed.' 'After finishing (= After they finish) their work they go to bed.' The infinite forms have fewer tenses than finite verbs, but they express the time relations fairly well. Participle and gerund lack forms for mood and aspect (52). They cannot express mood at all and can express progressive action only
in the perfect tense. See 69 B. The infinitive lacks forms for mood but has forms for the two aspects: 'I expect him to work tomorrow.' 'I expect the engine to be working by this time tomorrow.' 'He is reported to have done it.' 'He is reported to have been playing there at that time.' Compare the full inflection of verbs, 69 A, B. The finite forms can express finer shades of thought than the infinite forms as they are richer in means of expression, hence they must often be used; but the infinite forms are great favorites in practical life by reason of their handiness and are highly prized in choice language by reason of their elegant simplicity. The improvements that in the last five centuries have been gradually introduced into the infinite forms by making them clearer means of expression and by making it possible to use them more extensively show that the English people has appreciated their good qualities and intends to give them a wider place in its everyday speech. The infinite forms, however, are restricted to subordinate clauses. Here they compete with finite verbs, as shown in some of the examples given above. They do not differ from the finite forms in meaning. They are usually only convenient substitutes for them. On account of the great usefulness of the infinite forms they are treated with considerable care in this book.

A description of the six forms follows.

1. Common Form: 'Mary makes good bread.' 'Mr. Smith is a banker.' 'I have just received good news.' For full inflection see 69 A.

The common form has two distinct uses. (1) It expresses a general truth, a fact, a habitual act: 'Water runs down hill.' 'Honesty pays.' 'He smokes.' (2) It expresses a particular act: 'I hear him coming up the stairs.' 'I see him coming up the street.' Although the common form often expresses something general, as in (1), it often expresses something particular, as here. It always expresses an accomplished fact, but the fact is sometimes of a general nature, sometimes refers to a particular occurrence. The idea of a single particular occurrence is indicated not by some peculiarity of form but by the situation, as in these two examples. But sometimes the situation does not show that the act is a particular one. To make it perfectly clear that the act is a particular one, not general, we employ the expanded form, as illustrated in 2 b below.

As seen in the preceding paragraph, the common form has two quite different meanings. They are united, however, in a higher unity. Both meanings represent the act as a whole, as an accomplished fact. Thus the common form always has terminate force. Compare 52 1.
a. **Pro-Verb ‘Do.’** To avoid the repetition of the common form of a verb that has just been mentioned we employ the pro-verb *do* in its stead: ‘He behaves better than you *do,*’ instead of *behave.* ‘We shall have a hard time of it if competition advances as it *has done* for several years.’ ‘He has never acted as he *should have done.*’

In colloquial speech *has* or *have* is often used elliptically for *has done* or *have done:* ‘It is very unkind of you to inconvenience us as you *have.*’

2. **Expanded Form.** It is made up of a form of the copula *be* and the present participle of the verb to be conjugated: ‘He *is writing* a letter.’ For full inflection see 69 B. The expanded form from its frequent use with progressive force, as described in *a* below, is often called ‘the progressive form.’ It has, however, sometimes still the meaning of the common form, as described in *b* below. In the Old English period, when it first, under the influence of church Latin, came into use, it was not differentiated in meaning from the common form. The present differentiation of the two forms is the result of hundreds of years of development. In Shakespeare’s day the expanded form was used as today but not so often and so regularly: ‘What *do you read (now are you reading)*, my lord?’ (Hamlet, II, ii).

The expanded form, though now widely used, is not employed at all with the copula *be* if it is desired to impart progressive force. Thus we still say, as in older English, ‘I *am sick,*’ ‘I *have been* here a month,’ not ‘I *am being* sick,’ ‘I *have been being* here a month.’ The expanded form of the copula *be* always has terminate force. See *b* below.

The expanded form as used today has two quite different meanings.

*a. With Progressive Force.* The expanded form usually represents an act as going on: ‘He *is working* in the garden.’ There is thus usually an idea of progression or continuance associated with this form. Hence with such a verb as *know* we cannot use it at all, for *know* denotes a fact, something complete within itself, not something uncompleted that is still going on: ‘I *have known* (not *have been knowing*) him for ten years.’ Similarly we say, ‘I *hear* (not *am hearing,* for the act of perception is completed) him coming up the stairs.’ On the other hand, the expanded form cannot be employed with verbs denoting a condition, state, even though the idea of continuance is prominent, for it is generally restricted in its use to verbs denoting action: ‘I *have been* (not *have been being*) sick all week.’ We use the common form here. Such verbs as *sit, lie, stand, remain,* however, are thought of as
acts, not conditions, for we can prolong the acts at will: 'He has been sitting on the porch for an hour.' Of course, there are acts beyond the power of our will, such as rain, snow, thunder, perspire, etc. It is here self-evident that these are acts of nature. With all verbs denoting acts the particular phase of the progression is indicated by the meaning of the verb or verbal phrase. With duratives (52 2 a) the expanded form represents the subject as in the midst of the action: 'He is working in the garden.' With iteratives (52 2 b) this form represents the subject as in the midst of action that is often repeated: 'The clock is ticking.' 'The girls are giggling.' With ingressives (52 2 c) it represents progression towards the beginning of an act or state, i.e. a preparing to, a tending to, the initial stage to: 'It is going to rain.' 'Look out! I am going to shoot.' 'I am getting tired.' 'The baby was waking up as I entered.' With effectives (52 2 c) the expanded form indicates that the action is progressing toward, is approaching an end: 'The lake is drying up.' 'His strength is giving out.' Compare 52 2 c.

The progressive idea was once expressed by the common form, which, however, was used also with its present meaning. The introduction of the expanded form to express progressive force was a great improvement of English expression. Compare 52 1.

b. WITH TERMINATE FORCE. The expanded form often represents the act as a whole, hence it has terminate (52 1) force: 'I am sorry you doubt my statement. I am telling you the truth.' The common form, 'I tell the truth,' could not be used here, for its meaning, as in (1) in 1 (2nd par.) above, is so general that it is not felt as suitable for reference to this particular case. The action here is not represented as going on. The reference is to an act as a whole. We must thus often employ the expanded form to indicate that the statement is not general but refers to a particular case. It must not be inferred, however, that the common form cannot be used for reference to a particular case. It often indicates a particular act, as illustrated in (2) in 1 (2nd par.) above. Usually in such cases the situation makes it clear that the reference is to a particular act: 'I hear him coming up the stairs.' 'I demand that you go at once.' But when the situation does not make it perfectly clear that the reference is to a particular act we employ the expanded form: 'I know that I am demanding a good deal of you when I ask this of you, but I hope that you will do it.' Thus though the expanded form is often not employed to indicate a particular act it always stands ready for service when the common form is not a clear means of expression. We have been so often told that we should associate the expanded form with progressive
force that we have overlooked the fact that it often has terminate force, i.e. indicates an act or state as a whole, as a fact. The expanded form of the copula be is always terminate: ‘Perhaps I am being a fool, dearest one. I will go up to my music-room and play myself into reason and leave you to your own work’ (Charles Morgan, *The Fountain*, p. 289). The expanded form refers to the particular moment in question.

The expanded form with terminate force is often associated with our inner convictions and feelings so that statements having this form contain a strong personal element expressing emphasis or feeling: ‘When Elizabeth put Ballard and Babington to death she was not persecuting’ (Macaulay, *Essays*). ‘Somebody has been tampering with my alarm clock!’ The references here are to particular cases, but the expanded form with terminate force often refers also to a general fact imparting likewise emphasis and feeling: ‘A rich man who spends his money thoughtfully is serving (much more emphatic than serves) his country as nobly as anybody’ (Milne, *Mr. Pym Passes By*, p. 10). ‘You are helping me, darling. You are being an angel’ (Noel Coward, *The Vortex*). ‘John is doing fine work at school’ (spoken in tone of praise). ‘John has been neglecting his work recently!’ (vexation). ‘You children are always getting in my way when I am at work’ (scolding). ‘Our vacation is almost over. We shall soon be having to go down to the old shop every morning’ (unpleasant thought). The lively tone associated with the terminate expanded form makes this form peculiarly suitable for use in descriptive style: ‘We are tramping over the hills and reading and writing and having a restful time’ (Jean Webster, *Daddy-Long-Legs*, p. 225).

The terminate force of the expanded form is very old. It was in use in the Old English period. It is probably the oldest meaning of the form. Throughout the centuries progressive force has been becoming more and more associated with this form, but the old terminate force is still often found with it, as seen in the above examples.

3. ‘Do’-Form. In the present and the past tense of verbs of complete predication the simple verb is often replaced by a periphrastic form made up of *do* and a dependent infinitive: ‘Thus conscience does make (= makes) cowards of us all’ (Shakespeare), originally ‘causes a making of cowards out of us all.’ At first, *do* was a full verb with an infinitive as object. Later, it lost its concrete force and became a mere periphrastic auxiliary. In older English, as in the example from Shakespeare, there was usually no clear difference of meaning between the simple and the periphrastic form. This periphrastic form with *do* was rare in Old English, but
it began to become common in the fourteenth century and was at its height between 1500 and 1700. After the periphrastic and the simple form had long been used interchangeably, a desire for more accurate expression led to a differentiation of their meaning, as described in detail below. Present usage became fixed about 1750, but with certain verbs the old simple forms lingered on even in plain prose long after they had elsewhere passed away, indeed here and there linger still, especially in set expressions, as if I mistake not, I care not, I doubt not, I know not, what say you? what think you? etc. Of course, the poet makes still more liberal use of the old forms when it suits his purpose. In popular speech there is a tendency to employ the do-form with the copula be in declarative sentences, which is contrary to literary usage: ‘Some days she do be awful about her food’ (Dorothy Gerard, The Eternal Woman, Ch. XV).

In plain prose we now employ do in the following categories:

(1) In the present and the past tense of a verb of complete predication accented do stands in a question, a declarative statement, or an entreaty where there is a desire to emphasize the idea of actuality, the truthfulness of a claim, realization or a desire of realization: ‘Didn’t he work?’ ‘Did he work?’ ‘Does he cheat?’ ‘I still maintain that you didn’t do it.’ — ‘But I did do it.’ ‘Why don’t you work?’ — ‘I do work.’ ‘I am so happy to learn that you do intend to come.’ ‘“My dear, you did (painful realization) tread on my toe.” — “I didn’t mean to,” muttered Soames’ (Galsworthy, Swan Song, Part II, Ch. II). ‘Do finish your work’ (desire of realization).

(2) Unaccented do is used in the present and the past tense in declarative sentences with inverted word-order and in entreaties and questions in which there is no desire present to emphasize the idea of actuality: ‘Never did I see such a sight.’ ‘Bitterly did we repent our decision.’ ‘Do finish your work.’ ‘Does he believe it?’ ‘How’s (= how does) it strike you?’ (Jack London, The Sea-Wolf, Ch. VII). ‘What’s he say?’ ‘What did he answer?’

The old simple forms are now used in questions only when the subject is an interrogative pronoun: ‘Who met you?’ In older English, the simple forms could be used also when some other word was subject: ‘Discern’st thou aught in that?’ (Shakespeare, Othello, III, iii, 101). The old simple forms are still used for archaic effect in historical novels: ‘Saw you ever the like?’ (Wallace, Ben Hur, Ch. X). Also in certain dialects, as in Scotch English, the old simple forms are still used: ‘What paid ye for’t?’ (George Macdonald, Robert Falconer, Ch. XXI). The older simple form survives widely in the literary language in the case of have,
especially in England: 'Have you swordfish?' alongside of the more common do-form, 'Do you have swordfish?' The old simple form is still often, especially in England, employed with used: 'Used you, or did you use, to do such things?' In indirect questions the old simple form is preserved with all verbs: 'When did you come back?' but 'I asked him when he came back.'

(3) Do is employed also in the negative form of questions, declarative statements, and commands when simple not is the negative, but only in the present and past tense of verbs of complete predication. It is therefore not employed in the case of the copula be, the tense auxiliaries, the modal auxiliaries can, must, etc., the auxiliary-like verb ought, often also the auxiliary-like verbs need, dare, used, which, however, may take do; usually also not in the case of have in unemphatic statements: 'Doesn't he live here?' but 'Isn't he here?' 'I do not often forgèt it,' but 'I must not forget it.' 'I do not go home till eight,' but either 'I need not go home till eight' or 'I do not need to go home till eight.' 'She dared not tell (or to tell) him,' or 'She did not dare tell (or to tell) him.' 'He did not use, or used not, to smoke,' or colloquially 'He didn't use, or usedn't (usen't), to smoke,' where Americans prefer the do-forms, Britishers the simple form. In America and England both constructions are often blended in colloquial and popular speech: 'I didn't used to mind your embarrassing me' (Sinclair Lewis, Dods-worth, last Ch.). 'I didn't used' (Gepp, Essex Dialect, p. 120). Usage fluctuates with have, often even in the same sentence: 'I haven't or don't have, it with me,' but in emphatic statement 'I do nôt have it with me,' where, however, in colloquial speech we may employ also the form without do: 'You have it with you.' — 'I háven't.' In commands and entreaties: 'Don't touch me!' 'Dón't you touch me!' 'Don't have a thing to do with him!' 'Dón't go yet!' In negative commands and in positive and negative entreaties do is used also with the copula be, as do has become associated with negative commands and both positive and negative entreaties: 'Don't be láte!' 'Dón't you be late!' 'Dó be reason­able!' 'Dón't be unreasonable!' In popular speech do is used also elsewhere with be: ‘Now boy, why don't you be perlite and get up and give one of these young ladies a seat?’ (Punch).

Although in negative statements the old simple forms have disappeared from simple prose, the charm of the beautiful older simplicity often asserts itself in the language of our better moments: 'We cannot do wrong to others with impunity. Our conscience rests not until the wrong be righted.'

(4) In our popular southern American English the do-form is used also in the present perfect tense, as in older Scotch English.
(Syntax, 6 A d): 'I [have] done tell you 'bout Brer Rabbit makin' 'im a steeple' (Joel Chandler Harris, *Nights with Uncle Remus*, p. 97). The dependent infinitive following the past participle done is often attracted into the form of the past participle: 'I 'speck I [have] done tole (instead of tell) you 'bout dat.' (ib., p. 97).

4. Participial Form. The forms of the participle are given in 69 and 70. The time relations expressed by them are described in 56 1 d, 65 a, and 70 A a. The participle often has full verbal force and at the same time performs the function and has the position of an adjective. It is used in subordinate clauses as predicate or as predicate appositive. Predicate in adjective relative clauses: 'The boy playing (= who is playing) in the yard is my brother.' 'His last novel, written (= which was written) in 1925, is his best.' 'He is a man broken (= who has been broken) by misfortune.' It is very common as objective predicate (8, 4th par.): 'I see him working in his garden.' It has here progressive (52 2) force. To express terminate (52 1) force, i.e. the idea of an action as a whole, as a fact, we must employ the infinitive as objective predicate: 'He said he didn't do it, but I saw him do it.' In adverbial clauses the participle often stands as a predicate appositive (8, 5th par.) alongside of the predicate or near it, modifying it as to some relation of time, manner, attendant circumstance, cause, condition, concession, purpose. Time: 'Going (= As I was going) down town I met an old friend.' 'Having finished (= After I had finished) my work I went to bed.' Manner (an unusually common category in English): 'I beat him jumping' (indicating manner, respect in which he excelled). 'He was (= was busy) two years writing the book.' 'Are you through asking questions?' Attendant circumstance: 'He was drowned bathing in the river.' Cause: 'I feel it as a rare occasion occurring (= since it occurs) as it does only once in many years.' 'Feeling (= Since I feel) tired I'll stay at home.' 'I was proud of him acting (= since he acted) so unselfishly.' Condition: 'The same thing, happening (= if it should happen) in wartime, would amount to disaster.' Concession: 'Even assuming (= Though we assume) a great willingness on the part of our members to work, we are not properly prepared for the task.' Purpose: 'He went fishing' (= that he might fish). Other examples are given in 15 2 b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j.

The subject of the participle is usually not expressed within the participial clause. It is implied in some noun or pronoun near by to which the participle as a predicate or predicate appositive adjective belongs. The subject of the participle is expressed only in the nominative absolute (27 1 a, 3rd par.) construction: 'Off we started, he remaining (= while he remained) behind.' The use of
the different forms of the participle in the nominative absolute construction is illustrated in 15 2 b, c, d, f, h, i, 18 B 1. On the other hand, the participle often has no subject expressed or implied — the dangling (or unrelated) participle. This construction is usually censured by grammarians, but on account of its easy formation it is in wide use and is even approved natural English expression wherever the reference is quite general and indefinite: ‘Generally speaking (= If one may speak in a general sense), boys are a nuisance.’ ‘So how could I have stolen him from her, even supposing (= if one should suppose) I had the slightest desire to’ (Sinclair Lewis, *Dodsworth*, Ch. XIX).

The participial form was little used in Old English with the full force of a verb. Later in Middle English, under the influence of church Latin, it came into wider use with this force. Little by little it has become a powerful construction, a general favorite by reason of its convenience and forcible terseness.

5. *Infinitival Form.* The forms of the infinitive are given in 69 and 70. The time relations expressed by them are described in 56 1 d, 65 a, and 47 5 b. The infinitive was originally a verbal noun. It was often used as the object of the preposition to, and this older usage survives in many expressions. Preposition and infinitive together form a prepositional object, which is used to complete the meaning of a verb, adjective, or participle: ‘Hunger drove him to steal’ or to stealing. ‘I finally induced him to do it.’ ‘He is eager to do it.’ ‘He is inclined to take offense easily.’ Compare 16 1 b.

The to before the infinitive, however, is now usually a conjunction rather than a preposition. It is now for the most part a mere formal introduction to the infinitive clause just as that is often a mere formal introduction to the full clause with a finite verb. The infinitive itself is the verbal predicate in the subordinate clause in which it stands. It is now widely used in subordinate clauses. Adjective relative clause (8 b, 18 B 6): ‘John is the boy to do it’ (= who should do it). ‘That is the thing for you to do’ (= that you should do). Attributive substantive clause (18 B 2): ‘His desire to succeed (= that he should succeed) spurred him on.’ ‘It is time for you to begin your work’ (= that you should begin your work). Subject clause (18 B 1): ‘It is stupid of you to say it’ (= that you say it). Object clause (18 B 3): ‘I hope to see him today’ (= that I may see him today). Adverbial clause: ‘I am going early so as (or in order) to get a good seat’ (clause of purpose = so that I may get a good seat). Adverbial infinitive clauses of different kinds are given in 15 2 c, d, f, g, h, i, j.

As shown in the examples just given the infinitive clause is an
equivalent of the full clause with a finite verb. As it is usually felt as an easier way of talking, it is a favorite in colloquial speech; but by reason of its elegant simplicity it is much used also in more formal language.

The expression here is often elliptical: ‘I shall go to the celebration tomorrow, or at least I am planning to [go].’

For the split infinitive see 14 (3rd par.).

a. Subject of the Infinitive. The subject of the infinitive is often not expressed in the clause, but is some noun or pronoun performing some function in the principal proposition and at the same time serving as the subject of the infinitive: ‘He desires to go at once’ (= He desires that he may go at once). Here he, the subject of the principal verb, serves also as the subject of the infinitive.

The infinitive construction often has the force of a relative clause. The subject of the infinitive is the noun or pronoun that precedes it: ‘This road car is the latest to be offered to the public’ (= which has been offered). ‘He has an ax to grind’ (= which he wants to grind). ‘The king has no children to succeed him on the throne’ (= who can succeed him).

In ‘She gave him (dative) to understand that he should not come back again’ him, the dative object of the principal verb, is also subject of the infinitive. Likewise in the two following examples: ‘I told him (dative) where to find it’ (= where he could find it). ‘I taught him (dative) how to do it.’ In the passive the infinitive is retained: ‘He was told how to do it.’

In ‘I am depending upon him to do it’ him is the object of the preposition upon and serves at the same time as the subject of the infinitive.

The subject of the infinitive is most commonly an accusative, which serves as the object of the principal verb and as the subject of the infinitive: ‘He begged me (accusative) to go at once.’

After verbs of permitting, allowing, commanding, and ordering the dative object serves also as the subject of the infinitive: ‘I permitted her to take the books out of the library.’ ‘I ordered him to bring in the prisoners.’ When the infinitive is put into passive form its former accusative object becomes its new accusative subject: ‘I permitted them (i.e. the books) to be taken out of the library.’ ‘I ordered them (i.e. the prisoners) to be brought in.’

The infinitive with an accusative subject has its simple form after let, bid, make, have (cause, experience), see, notice, look at, observe, perceive, watch, feel, hear, overhear, listen to: ‘Bid him come in.’ ‘I had him do it yesterday.’ ‘I had the gypsies steal my hens.’ ‘I saw him do it.’ ‘Look at him run!’ ‘I heard (or ‘overheard’) him say it.’ Compare Syntax, 15 III 2 B. In the passive
statement the infinitive is retained, but it takes to: ‘He was heard to say it.’ ‘He was seen to do it.’

The accusative is used as the subject of the infinitive after another, quite different group of verbs, namely, want, wish, desire, like, know, think, believe, suspect, suppose, take (= suppose), imagine, expect, declare, report, represent, reveal, find, prove, etc. The infinitive here arose in the objective predicate (8, 4th par.) construction: ‘She wishes him happy.’ ‘She wished him here.’ ‘I imagined him a respectable man.’ ‘I can’t imagine anyone in better health.’ ‘They represented me as having forsaken my former principles.’ Here an adjective, adverb, noun, prepositional phrase, or a participle is predicated of the preceding object without the aid of the linking verb be, as is usual in this construction, but there is a natural modern tendency to employ the linking verb here as elsewhere: ‘She wished him to be here.’ ‘I know him as an honest man or him to be an honest man.’ ‘I thought, supposed him to be the owner of the house.’ ‘He thought, supposed Richard to be me’ (27 2 c). ‘I took him to be nearer sixty than fifty.’ ‘They report him to be very sick.’ Likewise in the passive: ‘She wished the rubbish removed or the rubbish to be removed.’ The old objective predicate construction without the linking verb be, as in the last example, is still common in the passive.

In the objective predicate construction the predicate is not only an adjective, adverb, noun, prepositional phrase, or participle, but now also an infinitive: ‘She wishes him here with her’ or him to stay with her. ‘His father wants him to give more time to his studies.’ ‘She reports him as improving or him to be improving.’

When the subject of the infinitive is general or indefinite, it is often not expressed: ‘It is wise to be cautious’ (= that one should be cautious).

In Old English the subject of the infinitive was never in native expression formally expressed, but was merely implied in some word in the principal proposition, as in all the examples in the first six paragraphs. The construction was widely felt as very handy, but it could not be used where there was no word in the principal proposition which might serve as its subject. In the fourteenth century arose the desire to extend the use of the construction. The infinitive began to be used with a subject of its own if there was no word in the principal proposition that could serve as its subject. This subject is always preceded by the preposition for. The history and explanation of this for is given in Syntax, 21 e. Though most people know nothing of the origin of this for everybody feels clearly that it must stand before the subject of the infinitive. This new construction occurs most commonly in the subject clause
and in adverbial clauses, much less commonly in object clauses:

'For me to back out now (subject clause) would be to acknowledge that I am afraid.' 'All that I want is for somebody to be thinking about me' (Arnold Bennett, The Glimpse) = that somebody should be thinking about me (subject clause). 'He was too near for me to avoid him' (adverbial clause of result). 'I know how deeply she must have offended you for you to speak like that' (adverbial clause of cause). 'I should be glad for Mary to go' (adverbial clause of condition). 'I see no way out of the difficulty except for them to offer an apology' (adverbial clause of exception). 'There was nothing now but for him and the footman to get into the carriage' (adverbial clause of purpose). 'I hope for the book to make its mark' (Meredith, Letters, p. 550) (object clause). It is common as object of an adjective: 'I am eager for her to see it.'

b. USE OF THE TENSES OF INFINITIVE AFTER FULL VERB. The tenses of the infinitive express time relative to that of the principal verb. The present tense indicates time contemporaneous or future with reference to that of the principal verb: 'I wish to do it.' 'He was foolish to do it,' not usually now as in older English 'He was foolish to have done it.' 'I managed to do it without his help' (I did it without his help). Of course, the present infinitive refers to the past after the annalistic present (51), for the annalistic present itself refers to the past: 'This is the fourth case of lockjaw to occur (i.e. that has occurred) within a week.'

The perfect tense of the infinitive indicates time prior to that of the principal verb: 'I am proud to have been able to help.' 'It gives recreation a better relish to have first accomplished something.' To indicate non-realization many still say 'I intended to have written a line to you,' a survival of older usage. As the perfect infinitive, according to present usage, points to time prior to that of the principal verb, it does not now express here the idea intended. Hence it is now more common in the literary language to say: 'I had intended to write a line to you.' 'He would have liked to have hugged his father' (Hughes, Tom Brown's School-Days, I, Ch. IV) is now usually replaced by 'He would have liked to hug his father.'

The use of the tenses of the infinitive after modal auxiliaries is treated in 50 2 d (next to last par.).

6. Gerundial Form. The forms of the gerund are given in 69 and 70. The time relations expressed by them are described in 56 1 d, 65 a, and 47 6 b. The present participle now has the same form as the gerund. This unfortunate development is described in 56 4 e. Although the gerund is not differentiated from the
present participle in form, it is distinguished by its function. While the participle has the function and the position of an adjective, the gerund has the function and the position of a noun: ‘Rearing a large family is no easy task.’ Here rearing has the full force of a verb, but at the same time it has the function of a noun, for it is the subject of the sentence. A sentence with a subject clause often begins with anticipatory it and closes with a gerundial clause as logical subject: ‘It is no use (predicate) your saying anything about it.’ Compare 18 B 1 (3rd par.). In ‘I like working out my own problems’ working has the full force of a verb, but at the same time it has the function of a noun, for it is the object of the principal verb. Thus the gerund is widely used in subject and object clauses. See 18 B 1 (3rd par.) and 18 B 3 (last par.).

One of the most common functions of the gerund is to serve as the object of a preposition. Preposition and gerund together form a prepositional clause, which modifies a verb, adjective, participle, or noun. Such a prepositional clause is of course an adjective element if it modifies a noun: ‘his disappointment over attaining so little.’ If the prepositional clause modifies a verb, adjective, or participle it is an object if its relation to the governing word is very close, but it is an adverbial element if its relation to its governing word is less close. Prepositional clause as object: ‘Hunger drove him to stealing’ or to steal. ‘He insisted upon his wife’s joining him in the deceit.’ ‘I am afraid of their seeing it.’ ‘I am accustomed to doing (or to do) it this way.’ Adverbial prepositional clause: ‘After finishing my work (clause of time) I went to bed.’ ‘He differed from his colleagues in spending his spare time in reading’ (clause of manner). ‘He never passed people without greeting them’ or without their greeting him (clauses of attendant circumstance). ‘I have gone as far as collecting statistics for my investigation’ (clause of extent). ‘I can’t do anything for thinking of her’ (clause of cause). ‘He can’t walk yet without my helping him’ (clause of condition). ‘I didn’t come with the object of destroying the good feeling prevailing among you’ (clause of purpose).

The gerund, as a noun, often follows a noun in the capacity of a modifying genitive: ‘In the language of scholars the art of speaking simply is almost a lost art.’

The gerund, as a noun, can stand in apposition to a preceding noun: ‘I now have very pleasant work, preparing boys for college.’

As a noun the gerund often forms the first component of a compound: baking-powder, ironing-board, dining-car, drinking-water, sleeping-quarters. A present participle in the same position is distinguished from the gerund by its adjective force and its weaker stress: sleeping children.
a. Subject of Gerund. In Old English the subject of the gerund was always in the genitive, the subjective (27 4 A a) genitive, for the subject of a verbal noun was regularly in the genitive. In general this rule still holds for verbal nouns: ‘man’s love of fairness.’ We often still employ as the subject of the gerund a genitive or a possessive adjective, which historically is an old genitive: ‘I am provoked at John’s (or his, her, your, their) treating him so rudely.’ In contrast to usage with other verbal nouns the genitive subject of our modern gerund with the force of a full verb is always an s-genitive, never an of-genitive. For centuries the English people has been growing ever fonder of the handy, forcible gerund. As soon as it became a favorite means of expression widely used, there arose a serious formal difficulty, which had to be overcome. To the ear the singular and the plural of the s-genitive sound alike. The natural impulse to speak so as to be understood led to an improvement of English expression here. A simple means of removing the difficulty suggested itself. It soon became common to employ an accusative as subject instead of the genitive, for the accusative always distinguishes singular and plural by the form: ‘I don’t approve of my son (sing.), or my sons (pl.), doing that.’ There is a natural inclination to avoid the s-genitive of a noun denoting a lifeless thing. Rather than use the queer obsolete s-genitive here most people prefer to employ an accusative subject: ‘You better not depend on this address reaching me but address c/o Guaranty’ (Sinclair Lewis, Dodsworth, Ch. XIX). There are a large number of uninflected pronouns that have no s-genitive. Of course we have here no choice. We must employ an accusative: ‘Some families may have moved away on account of the repeated failure of crops, but I do not know of any having done so.’ If there is after the subject of the gerund a modifier of any kind the accusative is now always used as subject: ‘Did you ever hear of a man (never man’s) of good sense refusing such an offer?’ Enough has been said to explain the wide use of the accusative today as subject of the gerund. The question is discussed more in detail in Syntax, 50 3. In one group of pronouns, however, the genitive is still preferred — the old genitives my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their: ‘The fact of his (or her, their) being convicted so promptly is gratifying.’ On the other hand, the gerund often has no subject of its own, as there is elsewhere in the sentence a noun or pronoun which is felt not only as performing its own function but as serving also as the subject of the gerund: ‘I am afraid of hurting his feelings.’

b. Origin of Gerund. The gerund was originally a verbal noun. Its object was in the genitive, like that of any other verbal
noun, as in ‘the persecution of the early Christians.’ This old construction is still common: ‘The shooting of birds (genitive object) is forbidden.’ ‘I don’t like his trusting of the secret to his friends.’ The gerund, like every other verbal noun, can take an article or a possessive adjective before it, as in these examples. The article or possessive adjective, however, disappears when the verbal force of the gerund becomes strong, and the genitive object is replaced by an accusative object, as required by verbs: ‘Shooting birds is useless.’ This is the verbal construction that has been treated above. This verbal force has become so strong that, since 1500, forms for tense and voice have been gradually coming into ever wider use: ‘After having finished my work I went to bed.’ ‘The fact of his being (or having been) convicted so promptly is gratifying.’ Though the gerund now often has the full force of a verb and can, like a verb, take an accusative object, it does not, like a verb, take a nominative subject. Just as every verbal noun has a genitive subject, as in ‘a man’s love of fairness,’ so may the gerund often still take a genitive subject, as in the early period when it was a mere verbal noun. Examples are given in a. Moreover, the gerund always has its original construction, i.e. it is still always a noun — the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

**Passive Voice**

48. **Meaning and Use.** The passive voice represents the subject as acted upon: ‘John was punished for disobeying his mother.’ ‘Our house is being painted.’ Only transitives (12 1) can form a passive. Some transitives, however, on account of their meaning do not readily take passive form, especially certain verbs in 12 1 (2nd and 3rd parr.).

The passive is a favorite form of expression in English. See 7 VII c bb for a peculiar feature of our language that has contributed to the spread of the passive.

49. **Formation of the Passive.** The active verb is often a simple form, but the passive is always a compound. It is made in the following ways, of which the forms in 1, 2, 3, 4 are finite, those in 5 infinite (45).

1. **Common Actional Passive Form.** The common literary form is made by combining some form of the copula be with the past participle: ‘The house is painted every year.’ ‘The house was painted last year.’ ‘The house has just been painted.’ In early Modern English, is is often used instead of has been: ‘Besides I met Lord Bigot and Lord Salisbury, With eyes as red as new-enkindled fire, And others more, going to seek the grave Of Arthur
whom they say *is* (now *has been*) *kill’d* tonight On your suggestion’ (Shakespeare, *King John*, IV, ii, 162). In this older English the participle had not only the force of a predicate adjective expressing a state, as in ‘The house is *painted,*’ but also the force of a passive verb pointing to the past, as in the example from Shakespeare. The common actional passive form represents the act as a whole, as a fact, hence it has terminate (52 1) force. Although it always represents the act as a whole, as a fact, it has two quite different meanings. It indicates a single occurrence or a customary, habitual occurrence, the context alone deciding which of the two meanings is present. Single occurrence: ‘The attitude of the community *is well described* in today’s issue of our local paper.’ ‘Our house *was painted* last month.’ Customary occurrence: ‘Our house *is painted* every two years.’ ‘The end of the struggle is nearly always that the public *is conceded* everything.’ For full inflection see 70 A.

To represent the beginning or the end of the occurrence as a fact we place the simple form of *begin* or *cease* before the passive infinitive: ‘Our house *has begun to be painted.*’ ‘This oil well *has ceased to be worked.*’ If we desire to represent a progressive action as just starting or as approaching an end we must employ the expanded form, as explained below in 3 a (last par.).

2. New Passive Actional Forms. Within the modern period have sprung up several valuable new passive forms.

a. ‘GET’-Passive. The common actional form is employed also as a statal passive, i.e. to express a state: ‘The door *was shut* (state) at six, but I don’t know when it *was shut*’ (act). This is explained by the simple fact that in our copula *be* are merged two quite different verbs — *is* and *be.* *Be* had effective (52 2 c) force with the meaning of our modern effectives *get* and *become.* The modern forms of *be* still often have their old effective force: ‘The door *was (= got or became) shut* at six.’ Effective *be* indicates an act, but unfortunately *be* does not always have this meaning. It more commonly indicates a state, retaining the old meaning of *is.* Compare 52 3. We still have a certain feeling for both meanings of the forms of *be,* but the matter is not vividly clear to us, and there has arisen a widely felt desire to express ourselves more clearly. There is a strong drift in England and America to employ *be* to denote a state and use effective *get* to denote an act: ‘He *is married* (state) now, but I can’t tell you when he *got married*’ (act). ‘Your nature is an overbearing one, Sophia, and for once you *got punished* for it’ (A. Marshall, *Many Junes*, Ch. I). ‘The men say: “Good stunt, Mont! But not practical politics, of course.” And I’ve only one answer: Things as big *got done* in the war’
(Galsworthy, The Silver Spoon, Ch. VII). ‘I suppose it will get whispered about, and they’ll hear it’ (Tarkington, Gentle Julia, Ch. XVIII).

b. ‘BECOME’-Passive. This form is made by combining some form of become with the past participle: ‘Beatrice became more and more influenced by Randal’s arguments’ (Lytton, My Novel, II, II, Ch. III). Get and become as effectives (52 2 c) have in general the same meaning, but in passive constructions they are becoming differentiated. The get-passive denotes a simple act, as illustrated in a, while the become-passive represents the occurrence as the final outcome of a development: ‘Good and readable as these addresses are, we should like to see those which deal with these larger topics gathered into a single smaller volume, which at a modern price might become widely read by the people of both countries’ (London Times, Educational Supplement, A.D. 1914).

‘He became seized with a profound melancholy’ (McCarthy, History of Our Own Times, I, p. 228). ‘For the first time the immensity of what she was doing became borne in upon her’ (Dorothea Gerard, Exotic Martha, Ch. V). This is the youngest of the passive constructions, but has already on account of its fine distinctive meaning become common. It is strange that it has been overlooked by grammarians. It is not mentioned even in the great Oxford Dictionary. The first example and the last two are taken from Poutsma’s large English Grammar, II, Section II, p. 100. This Dutch scholar quotes these interesting sentences as examples of English passive formations, but he does not describe their peculiar character.

As become is used here in the common form it represents the development as a fact. If we desire to represent the development as approaching its culmination we employ the expanded form, as explained below in 3 b.

c. ‘COME-TO’-Passive, ‘GET-TO’-Passive. This passive is made by combining some form of come or get with a passive infinitive: ‘He came (or got) to be highly respected by everybody in the community.’ The get-to passive is not so choice English as the come-to passive, and moreover it becomes impossible in the present perfect tense on account of the ambiguity of the form: ‘He has come (not got) to be treated more kindly by his associates.’ Has got here would indicate that the speaker is determined to bring about a better treatment of the person in question. After come we sometimes employ the past participle instead of the present passive infinitive: ‘I can now tie my shoes so that they won’t come untied,’ instead of won’t come to be untied. This construction is after the analogy of ‘It comes true’ (52 2 c).
The *come-to*-passive is sharply differentiated from the *become*-passive: ‘He used to be so hard-headed, but he *has* gradually *come to be influenced* by his wife. Evidently, he *has become softened* by gentleness and kindness.’ Both constructions indicate the end of a development or the outcome of events. *Become* directs our attention only to the final outcome, while *come to* points also to the preceding course of events. In ‘O’Connell *became seized with a profound melancholy*’ *became* cannot be replaced by *came to be*, for the reference is to a sudden development.

As *come* and *get* are used here in the common form they represent the development as a fact. If we desire to represent the development as approaching its culmination we employ the expanded form as explained below in 3 b.

d. Passive of Experience. There is another passive, which, though it did not absolutely arise in the present period, first became common in modern times. It is now widely employed in colloquial speech and is found also in the literary language. It represents the subject of the sentence as experiencing something. In this peculiar construction there is always a past participle with passive force. This participle serves as an objective predicate, predicating something of the object of the principal verb, which is regularly *have* or *get*: ‘Last week I *had* (or *got*) my right leg *hurt* in an accident.’ ‘I have just *had* (or *got*) *given* me (or ‘to me’) a fine new knife.’ In more careful language the usual auxiliary is *have*: ‘In life I *have* *had this truth* repeatedly *driven* in on me.’ ‘In this grammar the spoken language *has* *had its proper importance* *assigned to it*.’

e. Passive after Causatives. The construction is the same as in d, but *have* and *get* are here stressed: ‘I *hád* (or *gót*) a new suit made.’ ‘We *hâve* our work *done*’ (We employ others to do it), but with quite different meaning ‘We *hâve* our work *dôné*’ (It is done, completed). Thus accent can play a rôle in English grammar.

3. Expanded Form. The expanded form has different meanings with different kinds of verbs.

a. With Duratives and Iteratives. With duratives (52 2 a) and iteratives (52 2 b), we employ the expanded form of the copula *be* in connection with the past participle to indicate that the subject is receiving the action continuously and that the attention is directed to the midst of the action: ‘The bread *is being baked* in the new oven.’ ‘He *is being beaten* by some ruffians.’ Here the common form of the copula *be* represents the action as going on, but the common form of another copula, even though it have strong durative force, represents the action, not as going on, but
as a whole, as a fact: 'For a long while she kept being disturbed by her conscience.' 'She kept being startled by the stump of his missing finger' (Robert Raynolds, The Brothers in the West, p. 15). Compare 52 2 a. The passive expanded form with the copula be is used only in the present and the past tense. In other tenses, on account of the clumsiness of the form, it is replaced by the shorter form described in the next paragraph. For full inflection of the two forms as now used in the literary language see 70 B.

There is another expanded passive form than the one described above. It was widely employed between 1700 and 1825, and in the literary language is still in limited use in the present and the past tense and is the usual literary construction for the present perfect, past perfect, and future. It is made by combining a form of the copula be with the present participle, which here contains the passive idea, although elsewhere it usually has active force: 'There is a new bridge building.' This construction first appeared about the middle of the sixteenth century. It gradually replaced in the literary language the much older gerundial construction, 'There is a new bridge a-building,' from older on building, in building. The contracted form a-building survives in popular speech, like many other older literary means of expression.

It does not seem probable that the passive construction 'There is a new bridge building' developed entirely of itself. There was alongside of it, from the start, an older passive with the same construction, i.e. active in form but passive in meaning. It represented something as going on of itself as a natural process or development: 'The heel of my right shoe is wearing badly on the outer side.' 'There is a storm brewing.' 'There is mischief brewing.' See 4 on page 222 for other examples of this passive. It is a marked peculiarity of our language that intransitives develop passive force. Compare 12 2 (last par.). The presence of this passive must have facilitated the establishment of the passive 'There is a new bridge building.'

The passive 'There is a new bridge building' was after 1825 to have a serious competing construction in another passive form, which first appeared about 1447 and was thus a century older but had not yet made much headway: 'There is a new bridge being built.' The present and past tenses, is being built, was being built, though heavier than is building, was building, were felt as clearer passive forms and gradually came into favor and for the most part supplanted the shorter forms. But on account of the impossibility of such clumsy forms as has been being built, had been being built, will be being built, the longer passive construction has not become established in the present perfect, past perfect, and
future. On account of the clumsy combination of be being the longer construction cannot be used also in the present infinitive. On account of these formal difficulties in the way of the long construction the shorter present perfect, past perfect, and future forms — has been building, had been building, will be building — have been retained. In our colloquial speech is a still younger form, which is both handy and accurate. It is made by combining get and the past participle. It can form all the tenses: ‘A new bridge is getting built, was getting built, has been getting built,’ etc. As the literary language has no form in the present infinitive the get-passive is now used here: ‘It is, however, an excellent thing that bicycles should be getting called simply wheels’ (Abercrombie, Poetry and Contemporary Speech). The expanded get-passive may later become more useful in the literary language.

To express the idea of the beginning or end of progressive action with duratives we place the expanded form of begin or cease before the passive infinitive: ‘This paper is beginning to be widely read.’ ‘The village was greatly excited over the murder, but the subject is now ceasing to be discussed.’

6. WITH POINT-ACTION VERBS. With point-action verbs (52 2c) we employ the expanded form to indicate a beginning or an approaching end: ‘The work is just being (or getting) started.’ ‘The last bit of our patience is being (or getting) exhausted.’ The passive constructions described in 2 b, c above become progressive effectives (52 2 c) when they have the expanded form: ‘Our patience is becoming exhausted by these constant annoyances.’ ‘This paper is becoming widely read by the people of this community.’ ‘He is coming (or getting) to be highly respected by everybody.’ The development is here represented as culminating.

4. Passive Force with Active Form. Many intransitives which represent something as going on of itself as a natural process or development acquire passive force: ‘The hat blew (= was blown) into the river.’ ‘Muscles, nerves, mind, reason, all develop (= are developed) under play.’ ‘My coat caught (= got caught) on a nail.’ ‘The plans worked out (= were worked out) successfully.’ ‘The books sold out (= were sold out) in a week.’ ‘The vessel steers (= can be steered) with ease.’ Compare 12 2 (last par.).

The expanded form is used with many of these verbs to express the progressive idea: ‘The plans are working out successfully.’ ‘The books are selling rapidly.’ ‘Snow is blowing in at the window.’ This passive has not shared the fate of the passive construction of the same form described in 3 a above: ‘The bridge is building,’ now supplanted by the more expressive ‘The bridge is being built.’ We say is being built when we think of something being constructed
by visible human hands, but we say 'The lecture hall is rapidly filling up with students and townspeople' and 'Snow is blowing in at the window' because we think of something proceeding of itself, i.e. spontaneously, naturally, without the aid of the conscious effort of hand or brain. The two shades of passive thought were not differentiated in form in early modern English but are now clearly distinguished by the form of expression.

There is another common construction in which the verb usually has passive force with active form. In older English a predicate infinitive after the copula be had passive force with active form. Only a few expressions survive in the principal proposition: 'This house is to let' (= is to be let). 'He is to blame' (= is to be blamed). In abridged relative clauses this old usage is still common: 'He is not a man to trifle with' (= that can be trifled with). 'It is not a place to visit (= that should be visited) at night.' For fuller treatment see Syntax, 7 D 2, p. 47.

5. Infinite Passive Forms. The passive participial, infinitival, and gerundial forms are given in 70. These forms are widely used in subordinate clauses: 'His last novel, written (= which was written) in 1925, is his best.' 'Frightened (= As he was frightened) by the strange sound he halted.' 'Being oppressed (= As I am oppressed) by financial troubles I am not enjoying life much.' 'We are expecting him to get punished (= that he will get punished) for it.' 'After becoming discouraged (= After he had become discouraged) by so much misfortune, he gave up entirely.' 'Having come to be treated (= As he had come to be treated) more kindly by his associates, he found life easier.' 'Having had (= After I had had) my chickens stolen twice, I took greater precautions to save them.' Compare 47 4, 5, 6.

MOOD

50. Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker.

There are three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact. A fact: 'The sun rises every morning.' In a close relation to reality: 'I shall not go if it rains.' The indicative rains here does not state that it is raining, but indicates that the idea of rain is not a mere conception, but something close to a reality, for the speaker feels it as an actual problem in his day's program with which he has to reckon and is reckoning.
The complete inflection of the indicative is given in 69 and 70.

2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive form — the old simple subjunctive and the newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used. The complete inflection of the simple subjunctive is given in 69 and 70. The forms of the modal auxiliaries are found in 57 4. A brief treatment of the meaning of the subjunctive forms and the use of the subjunctive tenses follows. They are discussed in detail in Syntax, 41-44.

The function of the subjunctive is to represent something, not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought; sometimes with more or less hope of realization, or, in the case of a statement, with more or less belief; sometimes with little or no hope or faith. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopefulness, likelihood, while the past and the past perfect subjunctive indicate doubt, unlikelihood, unreality, modesty, politeness: 'I desire that he go at once.' 'May he return soon.' 'O that he were alive and could see the fruits of his labor.' 'I would buy it if I had the money.' 'I fear he may come too late.' 'I am becoming worried; he might come too late.' 'I would have bought it if I had had the money.' 'I should think it rather unfair.' 'You should go at once.'

The various meanings may be classified under two general heads — the optative subjunctive and the potential subjunctive. The optative subjunctive represents something as desired, demanded, or required (by a person or by circumstances). The potential subjunctive marks something as a mere conception of the mind, but at the same time represents it as something that may probably or possibly be or become a reality or on the other hand as something that is contrary to fact. The optative subjunctive is often closely related in meaning to the imperative.

In the four following articles sentences will be given to illustrate the two principal meanings of the subjunctive and the use of the subjunctive tenses.

a. Optative Subjunctive. Examples: 'Part we in friendship from your land!' (Scott, Marmion, 6, 13) now with the auxiliary let: 'Let us part in friendship!' 'Everybody stand up!' or with the auxiliary let: 'Let everybody stand up!' For stronger expression of will we use must: 'We must go!' Also have to and in colloquial speech have got to: 'I insist on it. You have (or have got) to do it,' or 'You must do it.' 'We have to (or must) sell our house' (constraint of circumstances). To indicate the will of the speaker we often use will in the first person and in questions also in the second person, but in declarative statements employ shall in the second and third
persons: 'I will do all I can' (promise). 'I won't have you children playing in my study.' 'Won't you sit down?' (kind in tone). 'You shall have some cake' (promise). 'You shall smart for it' (threat). 'You shall do as I say.' 'You should go at once' is polite, while 'You shall go at once!' is stern. 'We should hurry!' (admonition). 'You should mind your own business!' (polite in form, but stern in tone).

Moral constraint: 'We ought to (or should) do something to help him.' Ideal constraint, i.e. fitness and expediency: 'She ought to (or should) be praised for that.' 'A liar ought to (or should) have a good memory.' We often employ is to, are to, here: 'Such women are to be admired.' Is to, are to, here and elsewhere are as clearly modal forms as are the so-called modal auxiliaries shall, should, etc. In expressions of will we often employ is to, are to: 'You are always to shut the door when you come in.' This form also represents something as planned: 'He is to go soon.' 'He is to be promoted soon.'

In permissions may is the usual auxiliary: 'You may play until noon.' 'Rooms may not be subrented.' In colloquial speech can is widely used in negative form: 'Children, you cannot (or must not) play in the street.' Also in figurative use: 'Society cannot disown its debts.' (J. Arthur Thompson, What Is Man? p. 218.)

In wishing we use the simple subjunctive in a few expressions, but we now for the most part employ auxiliaries: 'The Lord have mercy on us!' 'God bless you!' 'May you see many happy returns of this occasion!' 'Too late! O might I see her just once more!'

The past subjunctive is much used in modest expressions of desire: 'I would rather stay than go.' 'He would like to go,' but 'I should like to go,' for in the first person would expresses desire and its use here would be tautological, as this idea is contained in like. 'Would you tell me the time, please?' 'You might call at the baker's and get some bread.' Instead of the past subjunctive would with the infinitive we sometimes use the past subjunctive had with the infinitive: 'I had rather stay than go.'

Shall, is to, are to, represent something as the inevitable outcome of events: 'Better days are soon to (or shall soon) follow.'

The optative subjunctive can of course be used also in subordinate clauses: 'I beg that I may go, too.' 'I require that you be back by ten.' 'She insisted that he accept and, indeed, take her with him.' 'Though he may make (concession) every effort he cannot succeed.' 'Even though he might make (concession) every effort he could not succeed.' 'I am now going down to Garden City and New York till the President send for me; or if he do not
send for me, I'm going to his house and sit on his front steps till he come out!' (Walter H. Page, Letter to Irwin Laughlin, August, 1916). 'Is she going to keep a lonely vigil till that time shall come?' 'You should be kept at work until you finished it.' 'I locked myself into my study that I might (purpose) not be disturbed.' 'What this country needs now more than it ever did before, what it shall (or is to) need the years following is knowledge and enlightenment.' (Woodrow Wilson, Dec. 9, 1902).

b. Potential Subjunctive. Examples: 'It may rain today.' 'It might rain today.' 'We can (stronger than may) expect opposition from vested interests.' 'Could he have meant it?' 'I should think it rather unfair' (modest statement). 'That would have been rather difficult' (modest statement). 'He could easily do it.' 'Eclipse (horse) ought to (or should) win.' 'You must (or should) be aware of this' (inferred or presumed certainty). 'You must (or should) have been aware of this.' The past subjunctive had with a dependent infinitive is often used to express a statement modestly: 'He had better go' (— He should regard going as better).

The potential subjunctive is common also in subordinate clauses: 'It is not impossible that he may change his plans.' 'I have heard that he may return soon.'

The potential subjunctive often occurs in conditional sentences. It is least common when the reference is to the immediate future: 'We shall all be sorry if it rains tomorrow.' As in this sentence, the indicative is the usual form here. The simple subjunctive was once common here and is still sometimes found in choice literary expression: 'If he confess (more commonly confesses) I shall overlook the offence.' Similarly when the reference is to the immediate past: 'Such an impression is bound to be dissipated if one stay (more commonly stays) long enough to love the land, and if one have (more commonly has) come in the first place remembering that the Master lived a human life amid commonplace surroundings' (Harry Emerson Fosdick, A Pilgrimage to Palestine, Ch. VIII). If the reference is to the future outcome of events the shall-subjunctive is still sometimes used, as in older English: 'If you shall fail to understand What England is . . . On you will come the curse of all the land' (Tennyson).

When future events present themselves to our mind in only a vague, indefinite way we employ a past subjunctive in the condition: 'If we missed (or should miss or were to miss, indicating decreasing grades of probability) the train we should (67 1, 3rd par.) have to wait an hour at the station.' 'If he missed (or should miss or were to miss) the train he would (67 1, 3rd par.) have to wait an hour at the station.' 'If I missed (or should miss, or were to miss)
the train I would (67 1, 3rd par.) come back and try it again to­
morrow.'

When the condition is contrary to fact we employ the past or 
past perfect subjunctive in the condition: ‘If he were here I would 
speak to him.’ ‘If he had been here I would have spoken to him.’ 
‘If Father were here and saw this we should have to suffer.’ ‘If 
they had have (or a or of) said (instead of the correct had said; 
see Syntax, 49 3 b, 3rd par.) so, you’d a sat and listened to 
them.’

The potential subjunctive is common in conditional sentences, 
as in all the above examples, but the optative subjunctive is also 
used here, especially after provided and on condition (that): ‘She 
was granted a year’s probation on condition she send (or should 
send) her son to school.’

The potential subjunctive is often used of actual facts, as the 
abstract conception, the principle involved, is more prominent in 
the mind than the concrete fact: ‘That many men should enjoy 
it does not make it better’ (Matthew Arnold, Essay on Keats). 
‘It seemed incredible that one so young should have done so 
much’ (William B. Maxwell, Gabrielle).

c. Old Simple Subjunctive. In looking over the examples of the 
optative and the potential subjunctive in a and b above, it will 
become apparent that the old simple form does not occur so often 
as the newer form with a modal auxiliary. The latter by virtue 
of its finer shades of meaning has gained the ascendancy in both 
literary and colloquial language. The old simple form, however, 
as older forms in general, is still highly prized in elevated diction 
for its peculiar effect. Although its use is not now for the most 
part common in colloquial speech, the simple past tense is still 
widely used there in the subordinate clause where the idea of 
unreality is prominent, i.e. where the idea of a future act presents 
itself to the mind in only a vague indefinite manner or where a 
condition is contrary to fact or a wish is impossible of fulfillment: 
‘Even if he said (optative subj.) it himself (concessive clause), I 
shouldn’t believe it.’ ‘If he struck (potential subj.) me (conditional 
clause), I would strike him.’ ‘If I had (potential subj.) the 
money (condition contrary to fact), I would buy it.’ ‘O that he 
were alive and could see the fruits of his labor!’ The present tense 
of the old simple optative subjunctive is still common only in a 
principal proposition with an indefinite subject and in a subordi­
nate clause after a strong expression of will or in a subordinate 
concessive clause that has the form of a principal proposition: 
‘Everybody stand up!’ ‘I demand, insist that he do it at once!’ 
‘Sink [I] or swim [I], I shall undertake it.’ ‘Detest [we] him as 
we may, we must acknowledge his greatness.’ Elsewhere the old
simple optative subjunctive survives in normal English only in set expressions: 'Long live the King!' 'God bless you!'

Except in the case of the verb be the simple past subjunctive and the past indicative are identical in form; but they are not confused, for the past indicative points to the past and, according to d, the past subjunctive points to the future: 'He struck (past indic.) me yesterday.' 'If he struck (past subj., pointing to the future) me, I'd strike him.'

d. Use of the Tenses of the Subjunctive. The two groups of tenses employed in the subjunctive — the present tense forms (present, present perfect, or will, may, or shall with a dependent infinitive) and the past tense forms (past, past perfect, or would, might, or should with a dependent infinitive) — stand out in general quite distinctly from each other. The different tenses within each group mark different distinctions of time, while the tenses of one group as compared with those of the other group do not mark different distinctions of time, but differ only in the manner in which they represent the statement. Thus the present and the past subjunctive both denote present or future time, but they usually differ in the manner of the statement, the past tense indicating a greater improbability, or even unreality: 'If there be a misunderstanding between them, I don't know of it,' but 'If there were a misunderstanding between them, I should know of it.' 'If it rain, I'll not go,' but 'If it were to rain, I wouldn't go.' Likewise the present perfect and the past perfect subjunctive both denote past time, but differ in the manner of the statement: 'I ask that every man of any standing in Rome be brought to trial even if he have remained (a quite probable case) neutral' (Masefield, Pompey the Great, Act II). 'Even if he had been (contrary to fact) here, I should have said the same thing.' We feel the distinctions of manner today most vividly in the auxiliaries. Will, may, shall, on the one hand, and would, might, should, on the other hand, all represent present or future time, but the two groups differ markedly in the manner in which they represent the thought: 'I am hoping that he may come this evening,' but 'I think he might come this evening but I am not expecting him.'

In oldest English, when there were only two tenses, the present and the past, the past subjunctive, like the past indicative, pointed to the past, differing from it only in that it represented the act as a mere conception or as contrary to reality. It is sometimes still employed for reference to the past where it is desired to represent something not as a concrete reality but as conceivable, as probably occurring: 'If it were so, it was a grievous fault' (Shakespeare, Julius Caesar, III, ii, 84). 'If ever poet were a master of
phrasing, he (Tennyson) was so’ (A. C. Bradley, *Commentary on Tennyson’s ‘In Memoriam,’* Ch. VI). ‘No Thanksgiving dinner was quite complete unless there were a baby on hand belonging to some branch of the family’ (George F. Hoar, *Autobiography,* I, 57). In Old English the past subjunctive was still used for reference to the past to express unreality. This old usage still lingers in a limited way: ‘I would have denied it if I could’ (Hope, *Dolly Dialogues,* 25). The context here makes the thought clear. Now when it is desired to express unreality the past perfect is the usual subjunctive form for reference to the past: ‘I would have denied it if I had been able to do so.’ As the modal auxiliaries, however, are defective verbs that have never had a past perfect subjunctive, we have to employ here another means to express unreality when the reference is to the past, namely, the past subjunctive of the auxiliary in connection with a dependent perfect infinitive: ‘He might have succeeded if he had tried’ (past perfect subjunctive). Similarly, the present tense subjunctive forms of these auxiliaries with their implication of greater probability may be used for reference to the past if they are associated with a perfect infinitive: ‘The train *may have arrived* by this time.’

As shown in the first paragraph of this article the tense of the subjunctive employed is a point of vital importance. Unfortunately, however, this feeling for the meaning of the subjunctive tenses is only active after a present tense form (present, present perfect, future). After a past tense it is destroyed by our law of the sequence of tenses, which requires a past tense to be followed by a past tense: ‘I am hoping that he *may* come this evening,’ but ‘I *was* hoping that he *might* come that evening.’ Here *might* does not have the usual force of a past subjunctive, for it is a present subjunctive that has been attracted into the form of a past tense after a past tense.

3. **Imperative Mood.** This form is the mood of command, request, admonition, supplication, entreaty, warning, prohibition. It now has many forms. One of them, the simple imperative, is one of the oldest forms of our language: *Go! Run!*

The old simple forms of the imperative are given in 69 and 70.

With the simple imperative the subject was expressed in older English: ‘*Enter ye in at the strait gate . . . because strait is the gate and narrow is the way*’ (*Matthew,* VII, 13). We do not usually express the subject today, but it must stand when we desire to indicate a contrast — now with the subject before the imperative: ‘I don’t know what to say. Norah, *you* go!’ The subject is expressed also in lively language to indicate that the person addressed should take an interest in something, or that it is intended for his
good or for his discomfiture, or that it should concern or not concern him especially: 'You mark my words. He won't do it.' 'He's not an unpleasant fellow at all.' — 'Just you get better acquainted with him and see!' 'You follow my advice and don't go!' 'You leave that alone!'

Negative commands are expressed by the form with unstressed do: 'Don't talk so loud!' In older English the simple form was used here. This older usage survives with the adverb never: 'Never mention it again!' In poetry it occurs also elsewhere: 'Tell me not in mournful numbers . . .'

The form with do is often employed in entreaties and as an emphatic prohibition or a negative entreaty, here usually with stressed do: 'Dó go, please!' 'Dón't go!' 'Dón't you do that!' 'Dón't you forget!'

The simple optative subjunctive is used in a number of expressions as a mild imperative: 'Everybody stand up!' 'What do you say we black our faces and give a little party, now the guests will be asleep?' (Anderson and Stallings, Three American Plays, p. 69). 'Say [we] what we will, he doesn't mind us.' 'Cost [it] what it may, I shall buy it.' More commonly with the auxiliary let: 'Let him come in!' In pleading tone: 'Dó let's come to an understanding!' Negative form of let-form: 'Let's not dó that!' In pleading tone: 'Dón't let us dó that!' In colloquial speech the negative is often don't instead of not: 'Let's don't be serious, George. Let's tánk of something pleasant' (Tarkington, The Magnificent Ambersons, Ch. XVII). 'Let's don't do anything of the kind!' (P. G. Wodehouse, The Coming of Bill, Ch. VII).

We often employ the imperative of the expanded form (47 2): 'Up, be doing everywhere, the hour of crisis has verily come!' (Carlyle, Latter-Day Pamphlets, 28). In colloquial speech get takes the place of be: 'Get going!' The indicative of the expanded form is common in commands: 'You sit down! You're not going yet!'

We often employ modal auxiliaries, which are subjunctive forms: 'You can't do that! You shán't do it. By God you shán't!' (Clemence Dane, Legend, p. 173). 'Positively, you shall not do that again!' or in kinder tone 'You should not do that again.' 'You múst behave!'

We employ the future indicative when we desire to speak courteously and at the same time indicate that we are confidently expecting that our wish will be fulfilled: 'Heads of departments will submit their estimates before January first.'

In lively language, expression is often terse, since the situation makes the thought clear; so that nouns, adverbs, prepositional phrases, etc., serve as imperatives: 'The salt, please!' 'All
aboard!’ ‘Down in front!’ ‘Hats off!’ ‘Forward, brave companions!’ A noun or a noun and an adjective often serve as a warning: ‘Danger!’ ‘Fresh paint!’

The gerund preceded by no has the force of a negative command: ‘No parking here’ = ‘Do not park here.’

Commands such as have been treated in the foregoing articles usually have reference to the present moment or the future. We sometimes use also the present perfect tense of the imperative to represent the action as already performed: ‘Have done!’ or in popular speech ‘A’ done! ‘Have done with such nonsense!’

The uses of the imperative are treated in considerable detail in Syntax, 45.

TENSE

51. Tenses are the different forms which a verb assumes to indicate the time of the action or state. There are six tenses, present, past, present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect: I return (present), returned (past), have returned (present perfect), had returned (past perfect), shall return (future), shall have returned (future perfect). For formation see 55–70.

There were in oldest English only two tenses in general use — the present and the past. These two forms performed the functions of the six tenses we have today. With the rising culture of the Old English period new forms arose to relieve the present and the past of some of their functions.

The present functions of our six tenses are fairly well defined by their names — present, past, present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect.

Only the present tense is loaded with functions. It represents the act as going on: ‘He is writing.’ ‘He is playing.’ It represents an act as habitual, customary, repeated, characteristic: ‘I live in Chicago.’ ‘I call on him whenever I go to town.’ ‘He sings beautifully.’ It expresses a general truth: ‘Twice two is four.’ It is used as a historical present bringing historical events vividly before us: ‘Lincoln stands with bowed head. He looks up and begins to speak. It is evident that he is under the sway of a strong emotion.’ Similar to the historical present is the annalistic present, which registers historical facts as matters of present interest: ‘It is not till the close of the Old English period that Scandinavian words appear. Even late Northumbrian (of about 970) is entirely free from Scandinavian influence’ (Sweet, New English Grammar, p. 216). The present tense is still, as in Old English, widely used to point to the future: ‘The ship sails tomorrow.’ ‘We are waiting till he comes.’
In 65 b are some remarks upon characteristic differences in meaning between the present perfect and the past. The meaning and use of our tenses are described in detail in Syntax, 37.

ASPECT

52. It is a marked characteristic of our language that we usually — almost always — must indicate the aspect of an act, i.e. we must almost always indicate whether the act is thought of as a whole, a fact, or, on the other hand, as going on, as continuing. Hence there are two aspects. Each aspect has six tenses. Thus in our language tense is subordinated to aspect. The six tenses of each aspect indicate the time relations of the aspect.

In the following articles the form of the two aspects and their use are treated, also the meanings of the component elements of the forms.

1. Terminate Aspect. This aspect represents the act as a whole, as a fact. It is usually expressed by the common form of the verb: 'He shot a duck.' 'He wrote a letter.' 'I see him coming up the road.' 'I write a letter every day.' 'Our clock ticks too loudly.' 'He wakes up early every morning.' 'We have no scraps in our house. We eat up everything every meal.' 'He will go tomorrow.' In this aspect the action is always thought of as completed, now or in the past or in the future, for it is represented as a whole, as a fact. Thus it stands in contrast to the second of our aspects, the progressive (2 below), which represents the act as going on.

The terminate aspect has become closely associated in English with the common form of the verb. In oldest English the common form was used also to express progression. In the Old English period under the influence of church Latin the expanded form came into use. At first it had the same meaning as the common form. Later it gradually acquired progressive force and relieved the common form of this function. Gradually the common form was restricted to terminate use — one of the most important developments in the history of our language. Thus it has become possible in English to indicate an action as a whole — something impossible in many languages.

Although the common form always has terminate force, it has two quite different meanings. It expresses a general or a particular fact: 'Lead sinks' (general fact). 'I see him coming' (particular act). The situation makes it clear in the second example that the act is a particular one and not general. Sometimes the situation does not make it clear that the act is a particular one. In this case we must employ the expanded form to bring out this
idea: ‘In honoring him you are honoring yourself.’ ‘You are exaggerating!’ (directed to the person addressed after he had made a rash statement). If the speaker had said in the second example ‘You exaggerate’ it might have been interpreted as a general statement, not a reference to a particular occasion as it really was. The expanded form shows that the reference is to a particular case. The situation or context alone marks this expanded form as terminate. Otherwise it cannot be distinguished from the expanded form with progressive force. Compare 47 2 a. This expanded form with terminate force is often associated with emphasis and feeling. Examples are given in 47 2 b (2nd par.).

2. Progressive Aspect. This aspect represents the action as progressing, proceeding, hence as not ended. It is expressed by the expanded form (47 2). This form is used also with verbs like sit, lie, stand, remain, etc., to express the similar idea of continuation. Compare 47 2 a. The progressive action naturally falls into three classes on the basis of the meaning of the verb or verbal phrase.

a. With Durative Verbs. Such verbs express duration. To express progression we employ the expanded form (47 2). The scene is laid in the midst of the activity, which is still progressing, proceeding: ‘He is working in the garden.’ ‘He is plowing corn.’ ‘Several books are lying on the table.’ The idea of duration may be contained in a verb and yet some other idea may overshadow it: ‘He kept working until he was tired.’ The verb work has strong durative force, but the common form kept indicates clearly that the sentence is a statement of fact, the report of an occurrence in its entirety. It is not represented as going on, as unfinished. Even in ‘He is very tired, but he keeps on working’ our attention is not directed to an action going on, but to the persistency of the person at work. The common form of the verb always expresses an act as a whole, as a fact. Here it calls attention to the fact of persistency on the part of the person at work. To indicate that the action is actually going on we employ the expanded (47 2) form: ‘He is working in the garden.’ The different tenses of the expanded form are used to indicate the different time relations: ‘He was working in his garden when I drove by.’ ‘He has been working in his garden all day.’ ‘You find me at work, and I shall probably be still working when you return.’ Notice that with the present perfect tense, as in the next to the last example, the action is represented as still going on.

It should, however, be noted that the expanded form does not always express duration. It expresses duration only with verbs whose meaning is durative. Compare 47 2 a.
The common form of a durative has terminate force, i.e. denotes an action as a whole, as a fact: ‘He works in his garden every day.’

b. With Iterative Verbs. Such verbs express repetition, iteration. To express progression we employ the expanded form: ‘He is haw-hawing again.’ ‘The fire is crackling on the hearth.’ ‘Leaves are dropping from the trees.’ The idea of duration is closely related to that of iteration. In ‘He has been working on this book for several years’ the first impression is that of duration, but in the exact sense the expression is iterative, for the work was often interrupted.

The common form of such verbs of course has terminate force: ‘The clock is ticking’ (progressive iterative), but ‘A clock ticks (terminate iterative) louder than a watch.’ ‘I have been trying and trying (progressive iterative), but have not succeeded yet,’ but ‘I have tried and tried (terminate iterative), but have not succeeded.’ Only the terminate common form is employed with used and would: ‘They used (as tense found only in the past) to nod to each other when they met, and now and then they would exchange a word or two.’ But both terminate and progressive forms are employed with the participle accustomed: ‘I am accustomed (terminate) to do promptly what I have to do.’ ‘I become easily accustomed (terminate) to do promptly what I have to do.’ ‘I am becoming accustomed (progressive) to do promptly what I have to do.’ Instead of accustomed we may employ used or wont (60 B): ‘I am used (or wont) to do promptly,’ etc.

If we desire to give ingressive (i.e. beginning) or effective (i.e. approaching an end) force to an iterative we place is beginning or is ceasing before the iterative: ‘The clock is beginning, or is ceasing, to tick.’

The expanded form with iterative force does not always have progressive iterative force: ‘He is always getting angry.’ ‘He is always smoking.’ The always in these sentences gives general force to the statement. The reference is to the act as a whole, hence the aspect is terminate. The expanded form is the terminate expanded form described in 47 2 b.

c. With Point-Action Verbs. Such verbs call attention, not to an act as a whole, but to only one point, either the beginning or the end. A verb that calls attention to the beginning of something is an ingressive: ‘I am getting tired.’ If the verb calls attention to the end it is an effective: ‘I am getting deaf.’ In the first example the reference is to the beginning of a temporary state. In the second example the reference is to the end, the outcome of a long development. The verb get is used with ingressive or effec-
tive force. The context alone shows whether the force is ingressive or effective. In English we have a very useful group of copulas, which, like *get*, can be used with ingressive or effective force. See 12 3 (next to last par.).

Certain verbs other than copulas express these ideas. A number of these verbs, such as *begin, commence, start*, etc., have only ingressive force, while others, such as *cease, stop, quit, finish, leave off*, etc., have only effective force.

Ingressive or effective force often lies, not in a copula or other verb with ingressive or effective meaning, but in an adverb or a prefix. Ingressive force: 'Baby is waking *up*, or 'Baby is awaking.' 'Baby is dozing *off*' (beginning to sleep). 'The children quieted *down*.' Effective force: 'He ate *up* the apple.' 'He paid *off* the men and discharged them.' 'He put the rebellion *down*.'

The expanded form (47 2) of an ingressive indicates progression toward the beginning of an act or state, i.e. a preparing to, a tending to, the initial stage to: 'It *is going* to rain.' 'Look out! I *am going* to shoot.' 'I *am getting* tired.' 'Baby *was awakening* as I entered.' The *a*- in *awake* is an old ingressive prefix. We now more commonly employ an ingressive adverb here. The adverbs *up* and *off* are common: 'Baby *was just waking up* as I entered.' 'He *is dozing off*.' 'He *is just taking off* for a nonstop flight to Paris.' The ingressive adverb *out* is widely used: 'The lilacs *are coming out* (beginning to bloom). The idea of ingestion often lies in the verb: 'He *is just starting* for town.' 'He *was just starting* for town as I arrived.' 'Within a week we *shall be starting* for Europe.' 'The baby *was just going* to sleep as I entered.' 'I *am getting* tired.' 'We *were getting* quite tired when John unexpectedly came up with the auto.' It should be noted that the expanded form has pure ingressive force only with ingressives. If it is desired to call attention to the beginning of progressive action expressed by a durative we must employ the expanded form of an ingressive and place it before the durative: 'The baby *is starting to cry*.' 'It *is beginning to rain*.'

In the imperative, to express ingestion, we place the imperative of *be* before the present participle: 'Up, *be doing* everywhere, the hour of crisis has verily come' (Carlyle, *Latter-Day Pamphlets*, 28). In colloquial language we employ *get* instead of *be*: 'Get *going!*' 'Let's *get going!*'

The common form of such verbs has terminate ingressive force: 'The boat *slowed up* (began to go slower) as it came in.' 'The spot where the horse *took off* to where he landed is above eighteen feet' (*Sporting Magazine*, XLI III, 287, A.D. 1814). 'On May 20, 1927, the brave airman Charles Lindbergh *took off* alone from New York
for a successful nonstop flight across the Atlantic to Paris.’ ‘That set me thinking.’

The expanded form of an effective indicates that the action or state is progressing toward, is approaching an end or a culmination or realization: ‘The lake is drying up.’ ‘He is becoming (or going) blind.’ ‘All that he said is coming true.’ ‘The cost of this enterprise is coming high.’ ‘He is coming to see the error of his ways.’ ‘I am just getting through with my work.’ ‘I came up just as they were getting to blows,’ i.e. the final outcome of the dispute was blows. ‘His strength is giving out.’ ‘He is finally getting the machine running.’ ‘We are at last getting to understand each other better.’ ‘Of late we have been getting to understand each other better.’ ‘This bright little boy is going to be a great man some day’ represents the speaker as standing in the present looking forward to the probable outcome of a development. It should be noted that the expanded form has pure effective force only with effectives. If it is desired to call attention to the approaching end of progressive action expressed by a durative we must employ the expanded form of an effective verb and place it before the durative: ‘It is ceasing to rain.’ With terminate force we say ‘It has stopped raining,’ but on account of the unpleasant repetition of -ing we do not employ the expanded form to express progressive effective force: ‘It is stopping raining.’ But where the situation makes the reference clear we may say ‘It is stopping’ or in American colloquial speech ‘It is letting up.’ With terminate force we say ‘I have finished reading the novel,’ but to express progressive effective force we say ‘I am just finishing it.’ The connection makes it clear whether the reference is to the reading or the writing of the novel. We do not hesitate to say ‘Many people are now leaving off sleeping with the windows shut,’ as off separates the two forms in -ing.

The common form of such verbs has terminate effective force: ‘It stopped raining.’ ‘The baby stopped crying.’ ‘He quit smoking.’ ‘They ate up everything that was on the table.’ ‘I hunted up (indicating attainment) my old friend Collins.’ The beginning of something new is often itself the end, the result, the outcome of preceding circumstances, preceding effort: ‘After a while I got to know him better.’ ‘I was so excited that it was morning before I got to sleep.’ ‘I finally got the machine running.’ ‘When he’s (= he has) once got going there is no stopping him.’ ‘His prediction came true.’ ‘He finally came to see the error of his ways.’ ‘We finally got to understand each other better than before.’

An effective adverb gives to the expanded form of a durative verb progressive-durative-effective force: ‘He is fighting it out
with him.' 'They are sitting out the dance.' 'They are working out the problem.' The common form of such verbs represents the durative-effective idea as attained, as a fact: ‘We often sit out a dance.’ ‘We work out our problems by ourselves.’

3. Meaning of Auxiliary ‘Be’ and Participle in Aspect Forms. In the course of the centuries a useful group of point-action copulas have sprung up in English: be, become, grow, turn, get, etc. The oldest of these, be, differs from the others in that it has durative as well as point-action force. This came about through the fusion of the two originally different verbs is and be. The former was a durative, the latter a point-action verb with the force of become. Thus be now may indicate a continuing action or the beginning or the end of an action: Continuing action: ‘He is working in the garden.’ Beginning of an action: ‘We must be going.’ ‘I will not interrupt you any longer. You want to be reading.’ ‘He intimated that they had better be dressing.’ End of a development: ‘This bright little boy is going to be (= become) a great man some day.’ The double meaning of be is apparent in the passive: ‘Our house is painted’ (present state). ‘Our house is (= becomes) painted every year’ (an act). The effective force (52 2 c) of is in the last example indicates that painted is a verb; but as is indicates also a state, as in ‘The house is painted,’ it is not a clear effective form. In colloquial language we often employ get instead of be as it is a clearer effective form: ‘He got (clearer than was) married yesterday.’

In duratives, ingressives, effectives, and iteratives the present participle represents the act as incomplete, while in terminates it represents the act as a whole, as a fact. Incomplete act with durative force: ‘He is working in the garden.’ Incomplete act with ingressive force: ‘He is just getting up.’ Incomplete act with effective force: ‘His strength is giving out.’ Incomplete act with iterative force: ‘The girls are giggling.’ Complete act with terminate force: ‘In honoring him you are honoring (= honor) yourselves,’ representing the act as a whole, as a fact. Compare 47 2 b. This double use of the participle corresponds to usage elsewhere: ‘From here I see the waves beating (act going on) on the shore.’ ‘I was proud of him acting (act as a whole = since he acted) so unselfishly.’

NUMBER AND PERSON

53. There are two numbers, singular and plural: thou singest, ye sing; thou sangest, ye sang; he sings (or singeth), they sing. In poetry we can in the indicative distinguish between singular and plural in the second and third persons of the present tense and in
the second person of the past tense, but in ordinary language only
the third person indicative of a present tense form can indicate the
number, as in the last example. The one verb be can go a little
farther in indicating the number — a survival of the older usage
which in verbs carefully distinguished the singular and the plural
in all tenses and moods. Be still keeps the numbers distinct in the
first and third persons indicative in both the present and the past
tense: I am, he is, we are, they are; I was, he was, we were, they
were. In poetic and biblical style we can always distinguish be­tween singular and plural in the second person: thou givest, ye
give; thou gavest, ye gave.

Elsewhere we do not distinguish singular and plural. We now
feel that the subject makes the idea of number clear: I sing, we
sing; you (speaking to a definite person) sing, you boys sing, I
sing, you (speaking to a definite person) sang, he sang, we sang, you
boys sang, they sang, if he sing, if they sing. The subject here makes
also the idea of person clear.

As can be seen by the examples given above, the few endings
that verbs now have indicate not only the number but also the
person and the mood. The absence of an ending in the third
person singular of any present tense form usually marks it as a
subjunctive: he comes (indicative), if he come (subjunctive). Only
two verbs have here an especial subjunctive form: if he be, if he
have (regularly formed from have, while the indicative has is an
irregular, contracted form).

a. Agreement of Verb with Subject in Number and Person. The
English verb — except in the case of the copula be — has no end­
ings in ordinary speech for the past tense and the first and second
persons of the present tense. It distinguishes the numbers only in
the third person of the present tense: ‘Our dog barks too much.’
‘Our dogs bark too much.’ The verbal ending –s indicates the
singular, and the lack of an ending indicates the plural. These
forms for showing the singular and the plural of the third person of
the present tense are very simple, but they afford us at this point
means of expressing our thought accurately and of making fine
shades of meaning: ‘Three-fourths of the surface of the earth is
(referring to a mass) sea,’ but ‘Three-fourths of our old college
class are (referring to individuals) married.’ Sometimes there is
fluctuation of usage as people look at the matter from different
points of view: ‘Three times 3 is, or are, 9.’

The point of view sometimes shifts from century to century.
In older English it was quite common to put the verb in the plural
after the subjects each one, everyone: ‘Everyone in the house were
in their beds’ (Fielding, Tom Jones, VII, Ch. XIV). The singular
of the verb is now required here in the literary language: ‘_Everyone_ in the house _was_ in _his_ bed.’ The old plural idea survives in part in popular speech: ‘_Everyone_ in the house _was_ in _their_ beds.’ Thus in earlier periods even educated people felt the plural idea in _every_ and _each_, while today they feel in these words the conception of separate individuals. But in colloquial language most people still say, ‘_Everyone_ _was_ here, but _they_ _all_ went home early’ (Current English Usage, p. 104), as there is no appropriate singular pronoun available. We say today ‘The island of Australia with Tasmania _constitutes_ the commonwealth of Australia.’ In older English the verb was generally in the plural. Present-day popular speech preserves this older usage, while the singular prevails in the literary language. We now place the verb in agreement with the formal subject _the island of Australia_ although there is a plural idea present. In many other expressions we follow the meaning: ‘There _is_ lots of fun in it.’ ‘The white and the red _are_ both beautiful.’ ‘The _multitude_, unacquainted with the best models, _are_ captivated by whatever stuns or dazzles them.’

Sometimes the little bit of verbal inflection we have left here causes us untold worry and drives us to dodge the questions of form that arise. One, remembering that he has been told to make the verb agree with the nearest subject, says ‘Either _he_ or _I_ _am_ in the wrong,’ while another says ‘Either, _he_ or _I_, _is_ in the wrong,’ construing _either_ as a pronoun in the subject relation with _he_ and _I_ as explanatory appositives. Still another, terrified by the possibilities of construction here, dodges the issue by giving each subject a separate verb: ‘Either _he_ _is_ in the wrong or _I_ _am_.’ For fuller treatment see Syntax, 8.

54. Number and Person in Older English. A glance at the Old and Middle English inflections in 56 3 a, b, 4, 59 1, 2, 61 2, 3 will indicate how much more importance was attached to endings for number and person in older English. Even in the Old English period, however, changes had taken place that resulted in greater simplicity. The oldest ending of the second person singular was _-s_. The regular ending of the third person singular and the entire plural was _h_ (_th_), but in the North _s_ was often employed here. This northern _s_ is explained by some as a simple sound-change from _h_, by others as an analogical spreading of the ending _-s_ of the second person singular to the plural and the third person singular. Whatever may have been the cause of these changes the result was that all the persons of the singular and the plural now ended in _-s_ except the first person singular. In Middle English in the North the _s_ sometimes spread to the first person singular, so that at this time all persons single and plural could end in _-s_: ‘as _I_ before _you_ _has_ talde’ (Cursor Mundi, 14,135, about a.d. 1300), now ‘as _I_ _have_ told you before.’ ‘That _sais_ the men that _thar_ _has_ _ben_’ (ib., 8854), now ‘That _say_ the men who _have_ been there.’
This dialectic northern s was destined to play an important part in the literary language. In Middle English, as can be seen by the inflections in 56 4, it spread southward to the northern part of the Midland and was used there in the East in the third person singular alongside of older -th. In the West it was often used also in the plural. In Chaucer's time it had not yet reached London, for Chaucer usually employed here the older -th. But the poet was acquainted with it, for in three instances he employed it for the sake of the rime and in his Reves Tale he let the two northern clerks use it. Later, it became established in London and the South generally. Many people from the North and the northern Midland came to the growing national capital to live and of course brought with them their handy s-ending, which by reason of its marked superiority in ease of utterance appealed to the people there as it had appealed previously to the people of the North. It affected at first only colloquial speech, while in literary prose the older and more stately -th maintained itself for a time. In Shakespeare's works -s prevails in the prose of his dramas, where the tone is colloquial, while in the serious style of the Bible -th is used throughout. The poets often employed -s on account of its warm tone or for the sake of rime or meter. After the time of Shakespeare -s gradually became established in all styles of the literary language, but only in the third person singular, not also in the other persons of the singular and throughout the plural, as in northern English. At the time of the landing of the Pilgrims on the eastern shore of America and in the early colonial days generally, -th was occasionally used, but it was ebbing. It occurred most frequently in hath and doth, which by reason of their frequent use were most firmly fixed and lingered longest. They often occurred where all the other verbs had -s: 'But he perverteth the truth in this as in other things, for the Lord hath as well appointed them (i.e. the pastors) to convert as to feed in their several charges; and he wrongs the church to say otherwise' (Bradford, History of Plymouth Plantation, p. 193, A.D. 1630–1640). The ending -s is now in the literary language restricted to the third person singular, but in older literary English was not infrequently used for any person or number, as described in the preceding paragraph for northern usage: 'Freinde, does not thou (or thee) discern an exhortation from a Judgement?' (George Fox, Journal, p. 111, A.D. 1653). 'And, in a word, far behind his worth Cometh the praises that I now bestow' (Shakespeare, The Two Gentlemen of Verona, II, iv, 71).

This tendency to employ the ending -s for all persons and numbers is only one manifestation among others of a general tendency to simplify verbal inflection in the present indicative. This was the strongest of these tendencies and survives in popular speech. Compare Syntax, 8 I 1 h. In early Modern English there was a tendency in the literary language for those who employed the ending -th in the third person singular to use it also in the plural. See 56 2 and 56 4 c. At the close of the Middle English period there arose in the east Midland a tendency to suppress the ending in the third person singular, so that the uninflected form was used in the third person for singular and plural. See 56 4 b. This usage survives
in the dialect of the east Midland, also in American dialect, as described in *Syntax*, 8 I 1 1 Note (next to last par.).

The most important change in the literary language in the direction of greater simplification was the dropping of the Middle English endings \(-e\) and \(-en\). This affected both the present (56 4) and the past (59 2 and 61 3) tense. In the early part of the period the ending \(-e\) of the first person singular in the present tense and of the first and third persons singular in the weak past and the plural ending \(-en\) of the present and the past tense disappeared in the North. In the literary language of the Midland and South these endings did not disappear until near the close of the fifteenth century.

**TENSE FORMATION**

55. English originally had only two tenses — the present and the past — and in one sense still has only two tenses, for the four additional tenses — present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect — have been formed by combining a present or a past tense with a participle or an infinitive, so that every tense in our language contains a present or a past tense.

**PRESENT TENSE**

56. The formation of this tense is simple and there are comparatively few irregularities. The common form for the second person singular is the second person plural form, which is now used also for the singular. Compare 33 $f$. The use and omission of the endings are treated in 53. There were once two types of inflection — strong and weak — but in the present tense the differences have disappeared, so that almost any verb may now serve as a model of inflection of this tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>I walk</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I walk</td>
<td>I walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you walk (old form, thou walkëst)</td>
<td>you walk (thou walk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he walks (old form, walkëth)</td>
<td>he walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td><strong>we walk</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we walk</td>
<td>we walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you walk (old form, ye walk)</td>
<td>you walk (ye walk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they walk</td>
<td>they walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

walk (old forms, walk thou, walk ye)

**Present Participle** walking

**Present Infinitive** (to) walk

**Present Gerund** walking
1. Remarks on Present Tense Forms:
   a. Ending of Third Person Singular and Change of Final 'Y' to 'IE' before an Ending. After a sibilant (s, ss, c, sh, tch, ch, g, dg, x, z) or a vowel not preceded by a vowel, -es is added instead of -s: (e pronounced) passes, pushes, lunches, rages, dodges, relaxes, dozes; (e silent) goes, does, but tiptoes, taboos. Final y remains y after a vowel before the ending, but when preceded by a consonant becomes ie: 'He plays,' but 'He cries.' Before the participial ending -ing, however, final y always remains y: crying.

   In words in which a silent e follows a sibilant, as in splice, singe, pledge, we add only -s, but we pronounce -es: splices, singes, pledges.

   b. Dropping of 'E.' An e at the end of a verb is dropped before a vowel in the ending: love, but loving. Notice, however, that we irregularly write dyeing (from dye to distinguish it from dying, from die), singeing (from singe to distinguish it from singing, from sing), tingeing (from tinge to distinguish it from tinging, from ting), canoeing, hoeing, shoeing, etc.

   Verbs in -ie drop e and change i to y before -ing: tying from tie; lying from lie.

   c. Doubling of Consonants. A final consonant preceded by an accented short vowel is doubled before a vowel in the ending: shop, but shopping, stopped; gas, but gassing, gasses, gassed; quiz, but quizzing, quizzes, quizzed; whiz, but whizzing, whizzes, whizzed.

   d. Time Relations Indicated by Present Tense Form of Participle, Infinitive, and Gerund. The present participle, infinitive, and gerund are not confined to reference to present time. The situation indicates the time: 'the rising sun' (present time). 'My train starts at six, arriving (future time) in Chicago at ten.' 'Hearing (past time) voices I stopped and listened.' 'I came late, arriving (past time) after all the others.' 'I expect to arrive (future) late.' 'He was very foolish to do (past time) it' (= It was very foolish that he did it). 'After finishing (with the force of a present tense = After I finish) my work, I go to bed.' 'After finishing (or having finished = After I had finished) my work, I went to bed.' Compare Syntax, 48 2 (2nd par.), 49 3, 50 2.

   e. The Old Present Tense Forms. The old forms for the second and third persons are now used only in poetry and biblical language. The usual old ending for the second person singular is -est for full verbs and -st for auxiliaries: 'thou helpest,' 'thou walkëst,' 'thou runnëst' (doubling a final consonant after a short vowel); 'thou mayst' (57 4 B), 'thou canst' (57 4 B), 'thou hast' (57 2), 'thou dost' (57 3), etc. But be, shall, will, have the old ending -t: 'thou art' (57 1), 'thou shalt' (57 4 B), 'thou wilt'
(57 4 B). For the use of the old forms for the second person see 33 f.

The old ending for the third person, -th, is discussed in 54 (2nd par.), 56 2, 56 4 c.

f. Assimilation in Popular Speech. In popular speech, the last consonant in the stem of the imperative is often assimilated to the m of the following me: 'Gimme (for give me) a bite.' 'Lemme (for let me) see it.'

2. Early Modern English Forms. In the early part of the present period the old third person singular ending -eth was still widely used in the South and the Midland, also in the literary language, which was based upon the speech of this part of England. For the origin and spread of the new northern ending -s see 54.

In early Modern English, -th is often used also as a plural ending: 'Blessed are they that heare the word of God and keepeth it' (Latimer, Seven Sermons before Edward VI, p. 129, A.D. 1549). Compare 4 c below and 54.

3. Old English Forms. Contrasting with the simplicity of Modern English, the Old English forms were many and complicated without any corresponding gain in expressive power.

There were two conjugations — the strong and the weak. In both of these conjugations there was at this time in the North alongside of the regular ending -p in both singular and plural the ending -s, so that in the North the second and third persons in the singular and all the persons in the plural often ended in -s, the second person singular always. For fuller information see 54. This dialectic -s was destined to play an important rôle in the language later, and in Middle English will appear in the regular inflection. For fuller account of the part it has played in the language, see 54.

a. Strong Present. In the second and third persons singular indicative, there was in many verbs a change of vowel; in others the vowel remained unchanged. In the inflections given below, where there are two forms, the first is older, i.e. is found chiefly in the early part of the period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDICATIVE</td>
<td>SUBJUNCTIVE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular, 1, 2, 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. binde</td>
<td>helpe</td>
<td>fare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bindes</td>
<td>hilpst</td>
<td>faer(e)st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bintst</td>
<td>hilpþ</td>
<td>faer(e)þ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. bindeþ</td>
<td>hilþþ</td>
<td>faer(e)þ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bint</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural, 1, 2, 3

bindþþ helpþþ farþþ
binden helpen faren
b. Weak Present. There are three classes of weak verbs, which, however, do not differ much in the present tense. The differences are more marked in the past tense, as is seen in 59 I, where the past tense forms are given.

The present tense forms of three representative weak verbs are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. weðrie</td>
<td>lūfie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. weðres(t)</td>
<td>lūfas(t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. weðreþ</td>
<td>lūfæþ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural, 1, 2, 3</td>
<td>wēriaþ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The present tense forms of three representative weak verbs are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wēre</td>
<td>lūfa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>wēriæþ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. Gerund in Old English and Its Later Development. In Old English, there was in use a verbal noun ending in -ung or -ing, which later developed into our gerund in -ing. At this time it was still a mere noun, with the inflection of a strong feminine, as tālu in 29 I B, except that final u in the nominative had disappeared: Gyristandæg ic wæs on huntunge (dative) = Yesterday I was hunting, lit. on hunting. The Old English gerund, like other verbal nouns, usually took a genitive object. When used merely as a noun, it still takes a genitive object: ‘The overcoming of a besetting weakness is an important victory.’ The infinitive, though also originally a noun, was in Old English farther developed toward the estate of a verb than the gerund was. It took an accusative object, like a transitive verb, and was developing a passive form. In Middle English, it developed a perfect tense. The gerund was soon to develop in the same direction. In Middle English, it began to take an accusative object, like a transitive verb, and in early Modern English it developed forms for tense and voice. (Compare 47 6 b.) Today, the verbal gerund is a very
common construction, but in certain expressions older gerunds have been replaced by present participles. In the Old English expression ‘on hun-tunge’ given above, the gerund has been replaced by the present participle, i.e. we now say ‘Yesterday I was hunting,’ but in popular speech the old gerund has been preserved: ‘Yesterday I was a-hunting’ (contracted from on hunting).

4. Middle English Present. In Middle English, the vowel change in the second and third persons singular of the strong present disappeared, as the vowel had by the process of leveling been conformed to that of the first person. Also other simplifications had taken place, so that any regular strong or weak verb may serve as a model for the inflection of the present tense, although the formation of strong and weak verbs differs radically in the past tense and must be treated separately there.

The Middle English present tense is characterized also by a change in the endings. The northern ending -s for the third person singular spread to the northern part of the Midland and was used there alongside of the old -þ. For an account of the origin of this -s see 54. In the North and often also in the West Midland this s-ending was used also in the plural.

Another characteristic Middle English change of ending is the replacing of the old plural ending -ep by -en, which spread from the past indicative and subjunctive and the present subjunctive to the present indicative, since this ending had become intimately associated with the plural and had come to be felt as a sign for the plural in general. This development was confined to the Midland, but is of importance on account of the high rank of some of the writers of this part of England. Chaucer employed the en-plural or its reduced e-form.

In the examples of inflection given below, if there are two or three forms the second form or the second and third forms are usually reduced or contracted forms, but in the case of the Midland forms those with the ending -s occur only in the northern part of the territory where they are used alongside of the regular forms. The forms of binde(n) ‘bind’ represent the regular Middle English inflection of the present tense. Alongside of it are given the forms of the present tense of have(n) ‘have’ to show how certain auxiliaries and very common verbs of complete predication by reason of their loss of stress had already in Middle English begun to suffer a marked reduction of form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive, 1, 2, 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. binde</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bindest, bintst</td>
<td>hābbe, hāve, hā降水, hāst, hēst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Southern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bindth, bint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. bindeth, bindes</td>
<td>hāth, hēth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bindeth, bindes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bindes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>binden, hābben, hāve(n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Southern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hā(ve)th, hās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hāues, hās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>hāve, hā, hāf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Plural, 1, 2, 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Southern)</th>
<th>(Southern)</th>
<th>(Northern) bindeth, minde, bind;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bindeth</td>
<td>hæbbeth, hæveth</td>
<td>(Northern) bindes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td>(East Midland)</td>
<td>hæveth, hæve, hæ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binden, binde</td>
<td>hæve(n), han</td>
<td>(Northern) hæues, hæs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
<td>(West Midland)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binde(n), bindes</td>
<td>hæve(n), has</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td>(Northern)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bindes, bind</td>
<td>hæues, hæs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive**

binden, binde

**Participle**

(Southern) (East Midland) (Northern)
bindind(e) bindend(e) bindand(e)
(Southern) (East Midland) (Northern)
havinde havende havand(e)

in the 14th century becoming binding(e), having(e), except in Northern dialect where bindand, havand survived.

**Gerund**

bindinge, havinge

**a.** The different variants of the same form for different sections of the country or for the same section are characteristic of the fluctuating usage of the Middle English period.

**b.** The Midland dialects are influenced by their position. Those to the North often have northern characteristics, i.e. -s in the singular and plural instead of -th or -e(n). Those to the South have southern characteristics, i.e. -th in the singular and plural.

The east Midland developed in the fifteenth century a peculiarity of its own — the suppression of the ending in the third person singular indicative: as 'John Dam kno' (Agnes Paston, *Paston Letters*, 183, A.D. 1452), instead of knows. Shakespeare has observed this peculiarity of dialect, but in *Henry the Fifth*, III, ii, 116, he erroneously puts it into the mouth of an Irishman: 'The town is beseech'd, and the trumpet call (for calls) us to the breach.' Traces of the east Midland peculiarity are found in our early American documents written by people from this part of England. This is a trend toward simplicity as in the use of the ending -s for all persons and numbers, described in 54. This older east Midland usage survives in England in the east Midland dialect. It is still found also in American dialect. Compare *Syntax*, 8 I 1 h Note (next to last par.). In the use of the auxiliary do for all persons and numbers this popular usage is much more widespread, but it is not due to the influence of the east Midland dialect. See *Syntax*, 8 I 1 h Note (next to last par.).

**c.** In the sixteenth century -th was frequently used in the plural in the literary language, which was usually without an ending here, as the old Middle English -e(n) had disappeared in the course of the fifteenth century: 'them that servyth hym' (Lord Berners, *Huon*, I, p. 62, A.D. 1534). This use of plural -th is not a spreading of southern plural -th to the literary language, but the use of the common singular -th in plural
function, i.e. a spreading of Middle English singular -th to the plural, a Midland development corresponding to the spreading of singular -s to the plural in the North, as described in 54. The common use of plural beth (= are) and hath in Midland texts, however, may be explained differently. In these very common words the -th is probably the old original plural -th, which in the Midland was preserved in these forms by reason of their frequent and constant use from the earliest times. Elsewhere, it was preserved only in the South.

d. The northern plural in -(e)s was the more common form. The plural without an ending, as bind, had the ending -en at the beginning of the Middle English period. Early in the period the n of the ending dropped out and soon the vowel itself disappeared. The Midland plural ending -en met the same fate in the fifteenth century. The development began early in the North. The northern plural without an ending is only used when it has preceding it immediately a single plural personal pronoun as subject: 'Men bindes,' 'We that bindes,' but 'We bind.' This usage survives in northern British dialect, as illustrated by the following examples from Scotch dialect: 'Weemin kenz dhawt fein' (Women know that well). 'Mee un you kenz dhawt fein.' But 'Wee ken dhawt fein.'

e. The participial ending -ing arose in the South early in the Middle English period as a corruption of -inde. It was later adopted by Chaucer and gradually supplanted the old -ind or -end form. This is one of the most unfortunate developments in the history of our language, as it gave the present participle the same form as the gerund and sometimes makes English expression unclear.

f. The long a in behave goes back to Middle English hāve. Have had ā when accented and ā when unaccented. As the auxiliary have was usually unstressed, ā became established with simple have.

IRREGULARITIES IN MODERN PRESENT TENSE

57. In a number of English verbs there have developed irregularities in inflection.

1. Inflection of Present Tense of 'Be':

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I am</td>
<td>I be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you are (old form, thou art)</td>
<td>you (thou) be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he is</td>
<td>he be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we are</td>
<td>we be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you are (old form, ye are)</td>
<td>you (ye) be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they are</td>
<td>they be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Imperative | | Present Infinitive (to) be |
|------------|------------|
| be (old forms, be thou, be ye) | | |

Present Participle being

Present Gerund being
a. Contractions: ‘He isn’t rich,’ ‘we, you, they aren’t rich.’ As can be seen by the examples, there is in the literary language no contraction with n’t after am. In the declarative form, however, we can contract am to ‘m: ‘I’m not rich.’ In interrogative form contraction does not take place here in the literary language at all. In colloquial speech am I not? or am not I? often becomes ain’t I? or aren’t I? — the latter regarded as choicer by many in England and by some in America: ‘I’m such a catch, ain’t I?’ (A. Marshall, Exton Manor, Ch. V). ‘Well, man alive, I’m bound to know, aren’t I?’ (Hutchinson, If Winter Comes, p. 101). ‘Aren’t I silly to weep?’ (Francis R. Bellamy, The Balance, Ch. XX). ‘Aren’t I silly to weep?’ (Francis R. Bellamy, The Balance, Ch. XX). The first person singular form aren’t is a leveled form, after the analogy of we aren’t, you aren’t, they aren’t. Similarly, the first person singular ain’t is after the analogy of we ain’t, you ain’t, they ain’t, where ain’t is corrupted from aren’t. Colloquially ain’t is often felt as a useful contraction in ain’t I?, but it is elsewhere shunned. As the r in aren’t is not pronounced in England before a consonant, we often find this form written an’t, especially a little earlier in the period, as in Smollett and Dickens. Of course, the r is still silent in England, but it is now usually written. In Ireland the contraction amn’t is sometimes used instead of ain’t in the first person singular: ‘Amn’t I after telling you she’s a great help to her mother?’ (Lennox Robinson, The Whiteheaded Boy, Act I, p. 9).

In older English, the usual contraction of is with the subject it was ‘tis, which is still used, but now the common contraction is it’s.

b. Indicative ‘Be.’ In early Modern English, the form be was sometimes used also as a plural indicative: ‘Here be my keys’ (Shakespeare, Merry Wives, III, iii, 172). ‘It is true, there be large estates in the kingdom, but not in this county’ (Fielding, Tom Jones, Book VI, Ch. II). This older usage survives in popular speech. Also in the literary language in certain set expressions: ‘The public is suspicious of the powers that be’ (Chicago Tribune, Apr. 20, 1926). Compare d below.

c. Subjunctive ‘Beest.’ In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the form beest, though properly an indicative, was much used as the second person singular present subjunctive: ‘Be’est thou sad or merry, The violence of either thee becomes’ (Shakespeare, Antony and Cleopatra, I, v, 59).

d. Older Inflection of Present Tense of ‘Be.’ The present tense of be is made up of three different roots — in older English with different variants, so that the present forms are the result of a long period of development and differentiation:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Middle English</th>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Middle English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subjunctive</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subjunctive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. eom, bīo, bēo</td>
<td>am, bē, es</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eart, bist</td>
<td>bist, bēst;</td>
<td>sīe, sī, bīo, bēo</td>
<td>bē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>art</td>
<td>es or bēs</td>
<td>(North)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. is, biþ</td>
<td>bith, bēth;</td>
<td>es or bēs</td>
<td>(North)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aron (North)</td>
<td>arn, are</td>
<td>sī(e)n, bīon, bēn, bē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sint, sindon</td>
<td>bēth, bē(n), bōn</td>
<td>es or bēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biþ, bēþ</td>
<td>(North)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Middle English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bīo, bēo, wes</td>
<td>bīop, bēop, wesap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Middle English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Participle</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bē</td>
<td>bōnde, bōonde, wesende</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bēs (North)</td>
<td>bēinge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gerund</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bēth</td>
<td>bēand (North)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bēs (North)</td>
<td>bēinge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In oldest English, the be-forms were used as indicatives and subjunctives, but later, in the Middle English period, be began to be felt as a subjunctive. In Shakespeare's day, and even later in Fielding's time, this differentiation was not yet complete, as be was still used as a plural indica-
tive, as illustrated in \(b\) above. In England, the dialects of the South and the East still employ \(be\) in the singular and the plural indicative, so that \(be\) is not differentiated here as a subjunctive form. \(Be\) is used here and there also in American dialect as a singular or plural indicative, especially in the second part of a double question and in subordinate clauses, rarely however in the third person singular: 'You ain't tired, \(be\) you?' (Susan Warner, *The Wide, Wide World*, Ch. XIII). 'Now, Hiram, you ain't agoin' t' the store tonight!' — 'I say I \(be\) agoin' tew!' (Dialect Notes, I, p. 340).

Our plural form \(are\) was long a dialect word confined to the North of England. For centuries before the Modern English period the standard words for the South and the Midland were \(beth, ben, be\). But \(are\) was all this time spreading southward in colloquial speech. In the early part of the sixteenth century it began to appear in standard English alongside of \(be\), later gradually supplanting it.

2. **Inflection of Present Tense of 'Have':**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have</td>
<td>I have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you have (old form, thou hast)</td>
<td>you (thou) have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he has (old form, hath)</td>
<td>he have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we have</td>
<td>we have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you have (old form, ye have)</td>
<td>you (ye) have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they have</td>
<td>they have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

have (old forms, have thou, have ye)

**Present Participle** having

**Present Infinitive** (to) have

**Present Gerund** having

**Contractions:**

\(a\). The forms \(hath\) and \(has\) (formerly often written \(ha's\)) are contractions of older forms once in use — \(hafep, haves\). In early Modern English the first person singular \(have\) was often contracted to \(ha\): 'I ha but two hands' (Middleton-Rowley, *The Spanish Gipsie*, III, II, 128, A.D. 1661). In older English, the negative form was \(ha'n't\). It still lingers in dialect: 'I ha'n't seen him' (Susan Warner, *The Wide, Wide World*, Ch. IX). The dialectic form \(hain't\) (or less commonly \(ain't\) with the \(h\) dropped) is used for all persons and numbers: 'Caleb (name) hain't no monopoly' (J. R. Lowell, *Biglow Papers*, No. II). 'Bein' they hain't no lead, they make their bullets out o' copper' (ib.). 'Oh! Then you ain't the money?' (Lynn Riggs, *A Lantern To See By*, III). The usual colloquial contractions are 'I, you, we, they haven't,' 'he hasn't.'
On the other hand, *hain't* is used in dialect for all persons and numbers as a contraction of the forms of *be* with *not*: ‘I *hain't* bad nor mean’ (Eugene O'Neill, *Desire under the Elms*, I, iv). ‘Sun's a-rizin’. Purty, *hain't* it?’ (ib., last page).

b. In early Modern English, there were three other plural forms in use — *hath, han* (a contraction of the Middle English plural *haven*), and *ha*: ‘The rulers in this realm *hath* no better a God than the poorest in this world’ (Latimer, *Serm. and Rem.*, 201, A.D. 1555). ‘When shepheares gromes *han* leave to playe’ (Spenser, *Shep. Cal.*, Mar. 62, A.D. 1579). The plural *ha* was very common as an auxiliary: ‘Till we *ha* dined’ (Middleton-Rowley, *The Spanish Gipsie*, II, i, 145, A.D. 1661), ‘now ’till we’ve dined.’ The negative form of *ha* was *ha’n’t*. It still lingers in dialect: ‘You *ha’n’t* had supper, have yous?’ (Susan Warner, *The Wide, Wide World*, Ch. XII).

For an explanation of the plural form *hath* see 56 4 c.

c. In early Modern English, the infinitive *have* was often contracted to *ha*, especially in its use as an auxiliary: ‘It should *ha* been so’ (Beaumont and Fletcher, *The Maids Tragedie*, II, ii, 49, A.D. 1622). This contraction is still common here, but we write it ‘a.’ We now use also the contraction ‘of’ here. Although in rapid speech we often use both contractions, we usually write *have*. In realistic literature, however, ‘a’ and ‘of’ are sometimes written: ‘It should a (or of) been so.’

d. The contractions in a, b, c are the result of the weak stress that *have* often has as an auxiliary and as a verb of complete predication. The fuller Old and Middle English forms are given in 56 3 b and 4.

3. Inflection of Present Tense of ‘Do’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do</td>
<td>I do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you do (old forms, thou doest [full verb], dost [auxiliary])</td>
<td>you (thou) do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he does (old forms, doeth, doth)</td>
<td>he do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we do</td>
<td>we do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you do (old form, ye do)</td>
<td>you (ye) do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they do</td>
<td>they do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Present Gerund</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>doing</td>
<td>(to) do</td>
<td>doing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a. The old forms in the second and third persons are used only in poetry and biblical language. In early Modern English, the plural ending -th was sometimes used: 'as wild horses doth race' (Ascham, *Toxophilus*, 8, A.D. 1545). For explanation of this form see 56 4 c.

b. The contractions of do with a following not are: *I, you, we, they don’t; he (she, it) doesn’t*. In colloquial speech, *he, she, it don’t* are much used instead of the literary *he, she, it doesn’t*. Compare *Syntax*, 8 I 1 h *Note* (next to last par.).

4. **Present and Past Tense of Past-Present Verbs.** There is a group of strong verbal forms which were originally past tenses, but have come to have the meaning of the present tense. Originally the past tense had close relations to the present, much as the present perfect (65 b) today, so that it pointed not only to the past but also to the present. In course of time the past tense became the tense of narrative, pointing purely and simply to the past without reference to the present. Thus in the course of the development of most verbs the past idea in the past tense form overshadowed that of the present, which was once also present there. In a few verbs, however, the opposite development took place — the idea of the present in the past tense form overshadowed that of the past, which was once also present there, so that these forms are now felt as present tenses. A comparatively recent case of this development is seen in *have got*: ‘I’ve got a cold.’ Here the present perfect tense form now has the force of a present tense. Similarly, in the prehistoric period the old past tense forms *can, dare, may, shall,* and the archaic *wot (= know)* developed the force of the present tense. Although we now use them as present tenses, their form still shows that they were originally past tenses. They all have a third person singular without the ending -s: ‘In summer Mother *cans* as much fruit as she *can.*’ The first *can* is a real present tense. The second *can* is a present tense with the form of the past tense — a past-present verb. In the prehistoric period after these old strong past tenses had come to be felt as present tenses, new weak past tense forms were coined for reference to the past: *could, durst, might, should, wist.* In early Modern English, another verb belonged to the list of past-present verbs — *mote.* It survives in its past subjunctive form *must.* This past subjunctive is now felt as a present tense. This development is an easy and natural one, as every past subjunctive may refer to present time, differing from the present indicative only in expressing the thought more modestly: ‘I *should prefer* to stay at home,’ a modest way of saying ‘I prefer to stay at home.’ Similarly, *ought,* old past subjunctive of *owe,* is now felt as a present tense: ‘I
ought to do it,' originally = 'I should owe the doing of it.' Thus in comparatively recent times two past subjunctives — must and ought — have joined the list of past present verbs. This development has a counterpart in very early times. Will, now for many centuries felt as a present tense, was originally a past subjunctive.

A. Historical Remarks. These verbs, like other verbs, once belonged to regular inflectional systems, but have come down to us as shattered fragments.

a. Can, dare, may, shall, wot, are old past indicatives; will, must, ought, old past subjunctives. They are now all felt as present tenses.

b. Will once had a variant form, wol, which survives in won't (= wol not). In early Modern English, the full form of wol was still in use: ‘God, I say, woll judge such Judges as ye are’ (Thomas Cromwell, Letter to the Bishop of Salisbury, March, 1538).

In older English, the old negative ne (= not) and a following will were often contracted to nil: ‘If I may rest, I nil live in sorrowe’ (Spenser, The Shepheards Calender, May, 151, A.D. 1579). The old form survives in the expression willy-nilly, from will he, nil he = Let him like it or not. It is now a mere adverb referring to all persons and numbers: ‘I, you, we, they, must go, willy-nilly.’ In older English, the proper person could be used: ‘And, will you, nil you, I will marry you’ (Shakespeare, Taming of the Shrew, II, 173).

c. Ought is an old past subjunctive of owe. In early Modern English, it was used also as a past indicative alongside of the newer past indicative owed. The original meaning of owe is have, own, possess — words which in the seventeenth century entirely replaced owe in this meaning. In early Modern English, the past indicatives ought and owed were still used with this meaning: ‘Who ought (now owned) your castel thre thousande yere agoe?’ (More, Comfort against Tribulation, III, Wrks., 1219, A.D. 1534). ‘For several virtues Have I liked several women, never any with so full soul but some defect in her Did quarrel with the noblest grace she ow’d’ (Shakespeare, The Tempest, III, 1, 43), now possessed. Ought and owed served also as past participle. The past participle was originally strong. This old past participle with the original meaning survives in our present adjective own, literally possessed.

In Old English, the original meaning of having often went over into that of having to pay, owing. In this meaning owe has become a regular verb — owe, owed, owed. In early Modern English, the old past indicative ought was still in use in this meaning: ‘He said . . . you ought (now owed) him a thousand pound’ (Shakespeare, Henry the Fourth, First Part, III, ii, 152). Also the newer
past owed was in use at this time in this meaning. Ought was once employed here also as a past participle: ‘a gentleman who had ought (now owed) us money a long time’ (A.D. 1639, quoted from the Oxford Dictionary).

In older English, the old meaning of having often went over into that of having to do as a duty. In this meaning the present indicative owe was frequently employed, often alongside of the past subjunctive ought, which here, as the past subjunctive in general, had the force of the present indicative, only with a touch of modesty and cautiousness not found in the indicative: ‘Y haue herd summe men seie (say) pat a man owith to lyue (live) in his world moraly, vertuosely. And summe men Y haue herd seie bat a man in bis world ow$t to lyue aftir be lawe of god’ (Pecock, The Donet, p. 14, about A.D. 1449). Later, the present indicative in this meaning entirely disappeared.

The common people, however, did not give up the old literary distinction between the present indicative and the past subjunctive of owe in the sense of ought. They created new forms to bring out the idea clearly. They employ the unclear past subjunctive ought as an infinitive and place before it a clear present indicative or a clear past subjunctive auxiliary: ‘He don’t ought to do it.’ ‘He shouldn’t (or hadn’t or didn’t) ought to do it.’ When the reference is to the past, the infinitive dependent upon ought is usually in the perfect tense: ‘You shouldn’t ought to have done it.’ Also ought itself is sometimes in the perfect tense: ‘You shouldn’t have ought to have done it.’ Compare Syntax, 44 I a (last par.). Similarly, in the case of other past-present verbs the past subjunctive is often in popular speech treated as an infinitive: ‘Better not tell me de bad news; ef it is terrible, I might not could stan’ to hear ’em’ (Julia Peterkin, Green Thursday, p. 183). Could is now used as an infinitive also in other constructions: ‘I can’t do it now like I used to could’ (Gepp, Essex Dialect Dictionary, p. 183). Also used and was are now employed as infinitives: ‘He didn’t used to be so foolish’ (ib.). ‘That used to was’ (ib.).

According to our English sequence a verb is attracted to the form of the past tense after a past indicative: ‘He told me yesterday that he would (instead of will) help me.’ That must and ought, originally past subjunctives, can stand after a past indicative shows that we still have a vague feeling that they are here past subjunctives, although we elsewhere regard these forms more commonly as present tenses: ‘I thought it must kill him’ (Meredith, The Ordeal of Richard Feverel, Ch. XLV). ‘I thought he ought to do it and told him so.’ Under the influence of must and ought we sometimes employ dare and need as past subjunctives after a past
indicative, although we elsewhere regard them more commonly as present tense forms: ‘He felt he dare not reply.’ ‘He had a good hour on his hands before he need go back.’ Compare Syntax, 44 I a, 49 4 C (1) a (4th par.).

d. The present subjunctive of must survives in archaic mote (in older English sometimes written mought): ‘So mote (= may) it be!’ In early Modern English, mote was still used as an ordinary present tense with the force of may (permission or possibility) or must. In early Modern English, mote, though a present tense, was sometimes, like dare and need in c (last par.), employed as a past tense form after a past indicative or a past subjunctive pointing to the past: ‘Therefore he her did court, did serve, did wooe, With humblest suit that he imagine mot’ (Spenser, Faerie Queene, IV, II, VIII, A.D. 1596), now could. ‘However loth he waere his way to slake, Yet mote he algates now abide and answere make’ (ib., V, VIII, V) = ‘However loath he was to slacken his pace, he must nevertheless stop and answer.’

e. Wot, an old past indicative used as a present: I wot, he wot = I know, he knows. It survives in the infinitive to wit, now with the meaning namely. The present participle survives in the adverb unwittingly. The new past wist, once common, was still in use in early Modern English, and is still found in the Bible (Mark, IX, 6): ‘For he wist not what to say.’ In early Modern English, the old forms for the present tense were still in use, but alongside of them appeared new, regular forms made from wot as a base: (present indicative) he wotteth or wots, (present participle) wotting. From this new base a new, regular past tense was formed, wotted: ‘He stood still and wotted not what to do’ (Bunyan, Pilgrim’s Progress, I). The fact that new, regular forms could thus be made and used indicates clearly that wot was felt as no longer belonging to past-present verbs, which had now come to be modal auxiliaries, subjunctive forms. Later, wot disappeared for the most part from the language, since it was not in any way differentiated in meaning from know and hence was not needed.

In early Modern English, the old negative form not (or note) — contracted from ne wot — was still used. The old negative ne was employed here as in b above. Not(e), though a present tense, was sometimes, like dare and need in c (last par.), employed as a past tense form after a past indicative: ‘Ere long so weake of limbe and sicke of love He woxe, that lenger he note (= couldn’t, literally didn’t know how to) stand upright’ (Spenser, Faerie Queene, IV, XII, XX, A.D. 1596) = ‘he couldn’t stand upright any longer.’

f. The verb need has been drawn into this group under the in-
fluence of its meaning, which is similar to that of must. In the meaning to be without, want, it is always a regular verb: 'He needs, needed, men and money.' Elsewhere, there is fluctuation between the regular inflection of the different tenses and that of past-present verbs: 'He doesn't need to (or need not) go.' Compare Syntax, 49 4 C (1) a.

g. Dare, on the other hand, is manifesting a tendency to leave this group. It is always a regular verb throughout in the sense of challenge: 'He dares, dared, me to do it.' Elsewhere, there is fluctuation between the regular inflection of the different tenses and that of past-present verbs: 'He doesn't dare to (or dare not) reply.' Compare Syntax, 49 4 C (1) a. Also will is a regular verb when we feel its meaning as related to the noun will: 'God wills, willed, that man should be happy.'

h. What has drawn verbs of such different origin together? They are all verbs that do not state facts, but merely present conceptions, representing something as possible, necessary, desirable, befitting. These are ideas closely related to those expressed by the subjunctive, so that they have come to be felt as modal auxiliaries, as subjunctives, and, as subjunctives, naturally take no -s in the third person singular. The oldest of these forms once had an indicative alongside of the subjunctive in both the present and the past tense, the indicative with more positive force than the subjunctive. The old past indicatives could refer to the past, while our present past tenses, could, durst, might, should, would, prevailingly point to the present or the future, differing from the present tenses only in the manner of the conception, as described in 50 2 d: 'It might rain,' indicating only a faint prospect of rain, but 'It may rain,' indicating a greater possibility. The past is often milder than the present: 'You should go,' but in a harsh tone 'You shall go!' 'Will you do it for me?' but in a politer tone 'Would you do it for me?' When a past tense that does not depend upon a past indicative points to the present or the future, as might, could, should, would, in these examples, it must be a subjunctive. Thus the past tenses of these verbs are losing their power to point to the past and are gradually becoming inflectional forms used in connection with an infinitive to express subjunctive ideas, modal auxiliary and infinitive together having the force of a simple subjunctive, pointing to the present or the future: 'You might post this for me.' 'We must do what we can for him.' 'We ought to go at once!' 'If it should rain, I would stay at home.' 'I could do it if I had time.' Could and would, however, are still, not infrequently, used as past indicatives, referring to the past. But this can be done only when the context clearly indicates that the
reference is to past time, for these forms cannot of themselves point to the past: 'I couldn't find him yesterday.' 'This morning I tried to persuade him, but he wouldn't listen to me.' The must that is now used comes for the most part from the old past subjunctive and points to the present or the future, but it is sometimes the old past indicative, and hence points to the past: 'In those days he could not bear to be idle. He must always be doing something.' In early Modern English, also, should could thus point to the past, often being used with the infinitive with the force of a past indicative: 'When the priest should ask (= asked), if Katherine should be his wife, "Ay, by gogswouns" (= God's wounds), quoth he' (Shakespeare, The Taming of the Shrew, III, ii, 160). The perfect infinitive was often used here to bring out more clearly the idea of past time: 'There are some rumors that the conspirators should have taken some other places' (Andrew Marvell, Correspondence, Works, II, 92, A.D. 1663). This older usage survives in dialect: 'They tell me so-and-so should say' (= said), etc. (Edward Gepp, Essex Dialect Dictionary, p. 137). 'Cordin' t' Bill, Sam sh'd a said (= said) I was a liar' (Ozark Dialect, American Speech, III, p. 4).

Must and ought were originally past subjunctives expressing a mild tone or a cautious statement, and this old meaning is still common: 'In such a trying situation you must (or ought to) think things over carefully before you act.' 'He must (or ought to) be there by this time.' As the past subjunctive often refers to present time these forms are often construed as present tenses, and as present subjunctives they express a more positive tone: 'You must (or ought to) go at once!' Unfortunately there are not two forms here for the differentiation of the thought, as in the case of may-might, can-could, shall-should, will-would. One form must serve for the two meanings. After the analogy of this usage dare and need are sometimes in questions and negative statements employed as subjunctive forms with a twofold force — with the force of a past subjunctive imparting a mild tone or with the force of the present subjunctive imparting a more positive tone: 'Dare she now hope for a favorable turn of things?' 'Need she worry so?' In a more positive tone: 'She dare not say that again!' 'He need not ask me for help again!' Compare Syntax, 49 4 C (1) a (4th par.).

That all the verbs in this article (h) have for the most part lost their power to mark the time relations indicates that they are developing into subjunctive forms, mere coloring particles to tint thought and feeling. As can be seen by the examples in the preceding paragraph, the development here is uneven. Some of
these verbs do not have the usual complement of two tenses — the present and the past — which most subjunctives have for the differentiation of thought and feeling. Compare 50 2 d.

i. Although these verbs now for the most part have the force of subjunctives, they have in poetry and in biblical language an ending in the second person singular of the present tense, 'thou mayst,' 'thou shalt,' etc., which is contrary to the usage observed in other subjunctives. Originally the indicative and the subjunctive of the modal auxiliaries were differentiated in form, but by the end of the Middle English period they had for the most part become identical. Occasionally, however, in early Modern English we still find the old subjunctive form for the old second person singular to the present tense: 'Saue thy head if thou may' (Udall, Royster D., IV, VII, 72, A.D. 1553). The indicative form has replaced here the subjunctive. Must, which is now felt as a present tense, although historically a past subjunctive, has not followed the analogy of the present tense forms in this group. It is uninflected throughout.

B. Inflection. These verbs inflect in the present and the past tense as follows:

### Present Tense

#### Singular

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. can</th>
<th>dare</th>
<th>may</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. can (canst)</td>
<td>dare (darest)</td>
<td>may (mayst)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. can</td>
<td>dares, dare</td>
<td>may</td>
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#### Plural for All Persons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>can</th>
<th>dare</th>
<th>may</th>
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#### Singular

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<th>1. shall</th>
<th>will</th>
<th>must</th>
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<tr>
<td>2. shall (shalt)</td>
<td>will (wilt)</td>
<td>must (must)</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. shall</td>
<td>will</td>
<td>must</td>
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#### Plural for All Persons

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<th>shall</th>
<th>will</th>
<th>must</th>
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#### Singular

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<th>1. ought</th>
<th>need</th>
<th>wot</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. ought (oughtest)</td>
<td>need (needest)</td>
<td>wot (wottest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ought</td>
<td>needs, need</td>
<td>wot (wotteth, wots)</td>
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#### Plural for All Persons

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>ought</th>
<th>need</th>
<th>wot</th>
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</thead>
</table>
Past Tense

Singular

1. could  dared, dare  might, mought †
   (durst 1)
2. could (couldst)  dared, dare  might, mought †
   (daredst, durst)
3. could  dared, dare  might, mought †
   (durst)

Plural for All Persons

could  dared, dare  might, mought †
   (durst)

Singular

1. should  would  must
2. should (shouldst)  would (wouldst)  must (must)
3. should  would  must

Plural for All Persons

should  would  must

Singular

1. ought  needed, need
2. ought (oughtest)  needed, need
   (neededst)
3. ought  needed, need

Plural for All Persons

ought  needed, need

1 The past durst is often in older English, as the past subjunctive in general, used with the force of the present indicative, only expressing more caution, modesty: ‘I have no desire, and besides, if I had, I durst not for my soul touch upon the subject’ (Sterne, Tristram Shandy, III, xx). This usage is still very common in popular speech: ‘He put (= puts) on mo’ a’rs dan w’at I dast ter do’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 307). ‘I durstn’t (or dasn’t or darsn’t) do it.’ In older English, the past tense form durst was used also as a past indicative. In connection with a past indicative this form is sometimes in popular speech still used as a past indicative: ‘I wasn’t allowed to come into the house unless I changed my boots for slippers at the door. I darsn’t smoke a pipe for my life unless I went to the barn’ (L. M. Montgomery, Anne of Avonlea, Ch. XXV).

In popular speech the past subjunctive dast, like the past subjunctive ought (see A c, p. 254), is used as an infinitive: ‘He wouldn’t dast put in an appearance’ (Lucy Furman, Mothering on Perilous, Ch. XV).

2 In early Modern English widely used in the literary language, now replaced by might in literary usage, but still employed in dialect: ‘He mought have done it and then again he moughtn’t’ (Dialect Notes, II, p. 231).
a. The inflection of *shall* and *will*, as given above, holds only for the use of these forms as modal auxiliaries. For their use in the future tense see 67 2.

**FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE**

58. There are two types of inflection—the weak and the strong. The two types were originally quite distinct in form and for the most part still are, but in a number of words do not now have distinctive forms. Compare 60 A f.

**Formation of the Regular Weak Past**

59. This type of inflection forms the past tense and past participle with the suffix -ed, in which e is silent except after d and t. With silent e: work, *worked* (past tense and past participle); taboo, *tabooed*; boo, *booed*; stew, *stewed*; flow, *flowed*. With pronounced e: hand, *handed*; hunt, *hunted*. Contrary to this principle, however, the e in a number of distinctively *adjective* participles is pronounced: *learned*, *beloved*, *blessed*, *accursed*, etc. In 'on bended knees' the old adjective form is still used, while we elsewhere use the newer contracted form, even in adjective function, as in 'a bent twig.' We say 'a man aged (ajd) sixty-five,' but 'an aged (ajid) man.' The old full form with pronounced e is also preserved in derivative adverbs, *assuredly*, *avowedly*, etc. In all the cases where the e is silent, whether in past tense or past participle, the d is sounded as d only after vowel sounds or voiced consonants, as in snowed, delayed, warmed, oiled, feared, robbed, raised, elsewhere being pronounced t, as in crossed, watched, locked, jumped, scoffed. In earlier Modern English, the apostrophe often took the place of silent e: *fear'd*, etc.

A final consonant, preceded by an accented short vowel, is doubled before e of the ending -ed: drop, dropped; rebel, rebelled. But: travel, *traveled*; devil, *deviled*; develop, *developed*; nonplus, nonplused, but nonplús, nonplussed. The doubling of the l in 'rebelled' shows that the second syllable is stressed, while the single l in 'traveled' indicates that the second syllable is unstressed. British orthography differs from American in that final l is doubled also after an unstressed vowel: travel, *travelled*; devil, *devilled*. In both American and British orthography a k (which virtually doubles c) is placed after an unstressed c, for it is necessary here to mark c as hard: picnic, *picnicked*; bivouac, *bivouacked*.

After a consonant, y becomes ie before -ed: rely, relied; but play, *played*.

Final silent e is dropped before -ed: love, loved.
After un-English vowel terminations (a, i, o, etc.) the contracted suffix -'d sometimes makes the grammatical relations clearer than does the full suffix -ed: one-idea'd, ski’d, mustachio’d (more commonly mustached), etc. In the case of the verb O.K. the contracted suffix is always employed: O.K., O.K.‘d.

This class of verbs — regular weak verbs — is the largest in the language. There are, moreover, many irregular weak verbs, which are treated in 60. These irregular weak verbs fall into certain definite groups described in 2 B below. There are also a few very irregular weak auxiliaries, treated in 57 4. The weak class along with its irregular verbs comprises all the verbs in the language except about one hundred — the strong class described in 61, 62, 63. Many verbs, once strong, have become wholly or partially weak. The regular weak class is the only living type. All new verbs enter this class.

**Regular Weak Past**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I loved</td>
<td>I loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you loved (thou lovèdst)</td>
<td>you loved (thou lovèdst)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he loved</td>
<td>he loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we loved</td>
<td>we loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you loved (old form, ye loved)</td>
<td>you (ye) loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they loved</td>
<td>they loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In early Modern English, the ending -st of the old thou-form was sometimes dropped: ‘Thou made answere vnto the prophete,’ etc. (John Fisher, E.E.T.S., Ex. ser. XXVII, p. 172, early 16th century). Poets still employ this form occasionally: ‘Where thou once formed thy paradise’ (Byron). This form without -st served both as an indicative and a subjunctive. In accordance with older usage, the thou-form is still the same for the indicative and the subjunctive in the past tense, but it now has the ending -st. Compare 61 (last par.), where the absence of -st is explained and a fuller treatment of the old second person singular form is given.

1. **Old English Weak Past.** The three representative Old English weak verbs werian ‘defend,’ lufian ‘love,’ habban ‘have,’ inflected in the present tense in 56 3 b, are here given with their Old English past tense forms:
defend  love  have

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th></th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
<td>Singular, 1, 2, 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. wērede</td>
<td>lūfode</td>
<td>hāfde</td>
<td>wērede</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. wēredes(t)</td>
<td>lūfodes(t)</td>
<td>hāfdes(t)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. wērede</td>
<td>lūfode</td>
<td>hāfde</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural, 1, 2, 3

wēredon  lūfodon  hāfdon  wēreden  lūfoden  hāfden

**PAST PARTICIPLE** gewēred, gelūfod, gehāfđ

*a. Verbs without a Medial Vowel.* In the examples of inflection given above ‘wērede’ represents the first class. It has the medial vowel e. A large number of verbs in this class, however, did not have this medial e. The medial e of the past tense was regularly dropped if the stem syllable had a long vowel or ended in -dd, -tt, -ll, -ss, or two different consonants: dēman ‘judge,’ ‘deem,’ past dēmede. A double consonant was simplified before -de: fyllan ‘fill,’ past fyldė. A final d in the stem syllable preceded by a consonant disappeared before -de: sendan ‘send,’ past sende. The suffix -de became -te after a voiceless consonant: grētan ‘greet,’ past grēṭe. A double consonant was simplified before -te: cysstan ‘kiss,’ past cyste. A final i in the stem syllable preceded by a consonant disappeared before -te: fēstan ‘make fast,’ past fēste. A few verbs, however, that have at the end of their stem syllable a combination of consonants difficult to pronounce together with a following -de always took the medial e: hyngran ‘hunger,’ past hyngrēde; etc. The past participle in all these verbs usually ended in -ed: gedēmed, gefylgd, etc. But in verbs whose stem syllable ended in -d or -t the e of the suffix -ed was often suppressed and the final dd or tt then simplified: gesend, gegrē(t), etc. instead of gesended, gegrēted, etc.

There is another large group of verbs in the first class that have no medial e. They differ from the verbs in this group in that the vowel of the past tense and past participle is not identical with that of the present tense, while this group has the same vowel throughout. The group with the change of vowel is described in b (3) below.

*b. Mutation.* In Old English, many verbs of the first class experienced in all or some of their principal parts a change in the stem vowel called mutation. The cause of this change was the presence once of a j after the stem syllable in the present tense and the presence of an i after the stem syllable in the past tense and past participle. There are three groups of these verbs:

(1). This small group of verbs has a short stem syllable: wērian (Gothic wōrjan) ‘defend,’ past wērede (Gothic wōrīda), past participle gewēred (Gothic wōrīþs). As in this example the old j of the present tense is preserved as i in all the verbs of this group ending in -r, and the old i
of the past tense and past participle is preserved in the reduced form of e in all the verbs of this group. The older Gothic forms in parentheses show that the old j and i have mutated the old stem vowel a of the English verb to e. The vowel was not mutated in Gothic because mutation had not yet begun to operate. Mutation took place in English in the prehistoric period, probably in the sixth century.

(2). This large group of verbs has a long stem syllable, as described in a above. In most of these verbs every trace of j and i had disappeared except the reduced e of the participial suffix -ed: deman (Gothic dōmjjan) 'judge,' 'deem,' past démde (Gothic dōmida), past participle gedemed (Gothic dōmips). Although there is here no medial vowel in the present and the past tense, the mutated stem vowel e — mutated form of o — in all the principal parts of this verb tells the story of the presence here formerly of j and i. The Gothic forms with their j and i show the older principal parts. Out of this large group of Old English verbs, described more fully in a above, have come the three Middle English groups described in 2 B b, c, d below.

(3). There is in Old English another large group of verbs in the first class, which are like the verbs in (2) in that they have no medial e, but which are unlike them in that there is a change of vowel in the different parts: tellan 'tell,' past teald, past participle geteald. In some verbs of this class the final consonant of the stem syllable was affected in prehistoric times by the suffixes of the past tense and past participle, so that there is in the different parts a difference of consonants as well as a difference of vowels: bycgan 'buy,' bohte, geboht; sēcan 'seek,' sōhte, gesōht. These verbs represent an old type of inflection which had no medial vowel in the past tense and past participle, but had once a j after the stem syllable of the present tense. In the period of mutation the j in the present tense mutated the stem vowel, but there was no medial i in the past tense and past participle to cause mutation there, so that there arose a difference of vowels in the different parts. The j that once stood after the stem of the present tense has disappeared, but the mutated stem vowel tells of its former existence. From this group of verbs comes the Middle English group described in 2 B a below.

c. Size and Importance of the Different Classes. In the Old English period, the verbs in the first class were numerous, but their inflection lacked simplicity, falling into three different types described in b above, from which four types were formed in Middle English, described in 2 B a, b, c, d below. The verbs in the second class were far more numerous than those in the first class and at the close of the period were growing in numbers at their expense. Moreover, they had a uniform inflection. In Middle English, this class developed the new past tense suffix -ed, which was to become the usual suffix for all regular weak verbs. In late Middle English the new type with the suffix -ed must be considered the regular weak inflection, while the four types developed in verbs of the first class, described in 2 B a, b, c, d below must be considered as irregularities of weak inflection. The third class was small in the Old English period, but it possessed the common verb habban, which in its modern form have is
still playing an important part in the language. The third class as a class has disappeared.

2. Middle English Weak Past:

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<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>III</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Singular, 1, 2, 3

Plural, 1, 2, 3

PAST PARTICIPLE (y)wëred, (y)lôved, (y)håved, (y)hådë, (y)håd

The participial prefix y-, Old English ge-, is cognate with German ge-. It was at this time in general characteristic of southern English.

The inflections given above in 1 (p. 262) and 2 (p. 264) and the important notes a and b under 1 serve as the basis of the following detailed description of the Middle English inflection of weak verbs. Middle English inflection here rests upon Old English inflection, and Modern English inflection with its numerous irregularities cannot be understood as a system without a careful study of Middle English inflection. If the Middle English categories given below be mastered, the Modern English weak inflection will seem a fairly consistent system instead of a mass of inconsistencies. In looking back at the changes of the Middle English period it is interesting to note how Englishmen were struggling with the weak verb. This activity in the field of verbal expression was followed by a still greater activity there in the modern period. In Middle English the main effort in the field of the verb was in the direction of simplifying the inflection. In the modern period the main effort here has been in the direction of creating new verbal forms for the needs of an unfolding intellectual life. Compare 45 (2nd par.).

A. The endings in the singular and the plural of the weak past disappeared early in the period in the North. As can be seen in the paradigms in 2, above, the singular ending -e and the plural ending -ë(n) began early in the period to disappear also in the Midland and the South in trisyllabic forms. There was for a while a tendency here to suppress final e or e(n) when the stem syllable was long and to retain final e and suppress medial e when the stem syllable was short: wëred(e), but lôv(e)de. This tendency was not strong, for also wër(e)de and lôved(e) were used. Later, the tendency to suppress uniformly final e became strong, utterly
destroying the older tendency and creating the new past tense suffix -\textit{ed}. This new past tense ending developed in trisyllabic past tense forms like \textit{l\lowercase{oved}(e), h\lowercase{ated}(e)} by the suppression of final \textit{e}, whether the stem syllable was long or short. These words belonged for the most part to the second class of weak verbs, of which \textit{love\lowercase{de}} is given above as a model. This was a powerful, growing group of words capable of exerting a strong influence in the language, so that the new suffix -\textit{ed} was destined to spread to other verbs and in the course of the Middle English period become the usual suffix of regular weak verbs. This new development brought into our language at this point great simplicity where there had been great complexity. All the trisyllabic past tense forms in the first class, like \textit{w\lowercase{ered}(e)} in the paradigm given above, went over into the new class, but there weren’t many of them. On the other hand, there was a very large group of dissyllabic past tense forms in the first class that on account of the peculiarity of their form could not easily fit into the new class. As described in 1 \textit{a} and \textit{b} (2), (3), pp. 262–263, they had already in Old English lost their medial \textit{e} or had never had one, so that it was unnatural for them to take an \textit{e} before the suffix -\textit{d}. This large group of words developed in a manner natural to their form, falling into four distinct groups described in \textit{B a, b, c, d} below. But even here the new regular type with the suffix -\textit{ed} made itself felt from the start and began early to influence the inflection of a number of verbs in each group. In the course of the Middle English period a large number of the verbs in these four groups went over into the regular class. A number of the Old English verbs in 1 \textit{a} above never went over into one of these four groups, but after retaining their Old English form for a while became regular: \textit{kys\lowercase{se} ‘kiss,’ past kyst\lowercase{e}, later kys\lowercase{se}de, kiss\lowercase{ed}. Some were in one or other of the four groups and at the same time had a regular form, which later prevailed: \textit{d\lowercase{em}e ‘judge,’ ‘deem,’ past d\lowercase{em}de, later d\lowercase{em}pte (see \textit{B c} below) and alongside of it the new regular form d\lowercase{em}ed, later de\lowercase{emed}. With the exception of a few isolated cases the very large number of foreign verbs that were introduced in the Middle English period joined the new regular class. It continued to grow in early Modern English, and is still, in the literary language, the only class that is growing.

The suffix -\textit{ed} has become in many words a form without a real meaning, as in the case of \textit{kiss\lowercase{ed}}, where -\textit{ed} is pronounced \textit{t}. Compare 59.

\textbf{B.} A large number of Middle English verbs did not follow the general development described in \textit{A} above, but formed four distinct groups, each preserving certain Old English features of inflection curiously mingled with new, Middle English characteristics. The common feature to all these groups is that there is no vowel before the suffix of the past tense and past participle, as explained in 1 \textit{a, b} (3), pp. 262–263. In early Middle English, the suffix was -\textit{de} or -\textit{te}, which later in the period were reduced to -\textit{d} or -\textit{t}, which in some verbs survives, in others has disappeared.

\textit{a.} As a result of phonetic developments in older periods, described in 1 \textit{b} (3), p. 263, there was in Middle English in a large group of words a difference of vowels, and in some words also a difference of consonants,
in the different principal parts: selle ‘sell’, sölde, sóld; telle ‘tell’, töld, töld; bye ‘buy’, boughte, bought; sêke ‘seek’, soughte, sought. In the course of the Middle English period final e disappeared in the spoken language, though it often lingered longer in the written language. The parts now are: sell, sóld, sóld; tell, töld, töld; buy, bought, bought; seek, sought, sought. In the course of this development the suffixes -de, -te have become -d, -t, and certain phonetical changes have taken place, but the peculiar difference of vowels in the principal parts has been preserved. Also the old difference of consonants has been preserved in the written language, but in the spoken language gh has become silent: buy, bought, bought; seek, sought, sought; teach, taught, taught.

b. From the Old English verbs described in 1 a (p. 262), there was in earlier Middle English a large group ending in -t or -d with the past tense suffix -te after t and -de after d, and in the past participle with the suffix -t after t and -d after d: sêtte ‘set,’ sêtte, sêt; shêde ‘shed,’ shêdde, shêdd. In adding the suffixes to the stem syllable the final t of the stem syllable was simplified to t. The early Middle English verbs had, in general, the same type of inflection as the Old English verbs, but in the course of the Middle English period they experienced a further development that radically changed the old type. The vowel of the present tense in this group was shortened wherever it was long, so that the vowel throughout the parts was short. Through the suppression of final e and the simplification of tt or dd to t or d there resulted the simplest and most modern type of verbal inflection in our language: set, sêt, sêt; shêd, shèd, shêd. In late Middle English the list of these verbs was large, and today after considerable reduction the list is still large. They are given in 60 A c. Though the list is decreasing in the literary language, a few strong verbs are joining it in popular American: begin—begin; sing—sing; sit—sit; win—win, the present and the past tense having the same form after the analogy of set—set. See the separate treatment of these verbs in 63.

In Middle English, as a result of peculiar developments, some of these verbs with the stem vowel e had a double past tense and past participle: sprêde ‘spread,’ sprêdde or sprêddde, sprêdd or sprêdd; drêde ‘dread,’ drêdde or drêddde, drêdd or drêdd. In the course of the Middle English and the early Modern English period final e was dropped, the final double consonants were simplified, and the vowel of the present was shortened so that all the parts had the same vowel: sprêd, sprêd, sprêd; later spread, spread, spread. In the sixteenth century dread became regular: dread, dreaded, dreaded.

c. There is another group of Middle English verbs which come from the same Old English source (1 a, p. 262) as the verbs in b, but have a different development. They all have a long vowel, which in late Old English or early Middle English was shortened before the combination of consonants arising in the past tense and past participle from the addition of the suffixes. Thus they all have a long vowel in the present tense and a short one in the past tense and the past participle. In Old English, the suffixes here were for the past tense -de after voiced consonants and -te after voiceless consonants, and for the past participle -ed for all verbs. In
Middle English, –te was used for the past tense and –t for the past participle, not only after voiceless consonants but also after the voiced consonants l, m, n, and v: kēpe ‘keep,’ kēpte, kēpt; mēte ‘meet,’ mētte, mētt; fēle, ‘feel,’ fēlle, fēlt; dēme ‘judge,’ dēm, dēmpt, dēmpt; drēme ‘dream,’ drēmpt, drēmpt; lēne ‘lean,’ lēnte, lēnt; lēne ‘lend,’ lēnte, lēnt; mēne ‘mean,’ mēnte, mēnt; lēve ‘leave,’ lēfte, lēft. After the voiced consonants d and r the suffixes were –de and –d; blēde ‘bleed,’ blēdde, blēdd; brēde ‘breed, brēdde, brēdd; chide ‘chide, chidd, chidd; fēde ‘feed,’ fēdde, fēdd; hide ‘hide,’ hīdde, hīdd; spēde ‘speed,’ spēdde, spēdd; hēre ‘hear,’ hērde, hērd; shōo ‘shoe,’ shodde, shodd. The last word shōo was attracted into this group by its long stem vowel. As there is here no final d in the stem of the present tense the first of the two d’s in the past tense and the past participle short. The long vowel of the present tense led to the idea that the vowel of the past tense and the past participle must be made short. Similarly the strong verb flee ‘flee’ was attracted into this group by the long vowel of its present tense. A d was inserted into the past tense and the past participle and an e of the stem there was dropped to make the stem vowel short: flee, fleede, fledd. In the course of the Middle English period final e disappeared, so that the past tense suffix –de or –te became –d or –t: blēde (silent final e), blēdd, blēdd; mēte (silent final e), mētt, mētt; kēpe (silent final e), kēpt, kēpt; etc. Also in the course of the period final dd and tt were simplified: blede, bledd, bledd; mete, met, met; etc. Now bleed, bled, bled; meet, met, met; etc. In the course of the Middle English and the early Modern English period dēme and a number of other verbs that used to belong here, such as sēme ‘seem,’ belēve ‘believe,’ hēde ‘heed,’ went over into the regular weak class: deem, deemed, deemed; seem, seemed, seemed; believe, believed, believed; heed, heeded, heeded. Some verbs, like drēme, fluctuated between their old inflection and that of the regular weak verbs, and some still fluctuate: dream, dreamed or dreamt, dreamed or dreamt; leap, leaped or leapt, leaped or leapt. In early Modern English, chide and hide were under the influence of the strong verb ride, rode or rid †, ridden, so that strong forms were used alongside of the original weak ones: chide, chid or chode †, chid or chidden; hide, hid, hid or hidden. The strong past chode has disappeared, but the strong past participle hidden is still used and is even more common than the old weak form hid. The strong past participle chidden is still in use alongside of the perhaps more common weak form chid. Still more common, at least in America, are the regular weak forms chide, chided, chided. Alongside of Middle English lēne (Old English hlænan) ‘lean,’ lēnte, lēnt were regular forms going back to the Old English variant hleonian, a verb of the second class: lēne, lēned, lēned. The present parts of these verbs are lēan, lēant, lēant and lēan, lēaned, lēaned, the former more common in England, the latter in America. Compare lean, 60 B.

The natural tendency for verbs in this group is to leave it and join the regular verbs, as in the case of greet (60 B), heat (60 B), mete (60 B), etc., but some strong verbs and some weak verbs from other groups have been drawn into it by virtue of their long stem vowel. In the Middle English
period five strong verbs with the long stem vowel e joined this group and have remained in it: creep, crept, crept; flee, fled, fleet; leap, leaped or leapt, leaped or leapt; sleep, slept, slept; weep, wept, wept. Leap did not come over into this group entirely but often has regular weak forms: leap, leaped, leaped. Compare 60 B. Three other strong verbs on account of their long stem vowel have been attracted into the Middle English group with long present and short past and past participle: cleave, cleft (or clove), cleft (or cloven); lose, lost, lost; shoot, shot, shot. Compare cleave and shoot in 60 B and lose in 63. Two weak verbs with a long stem vowel have joined this group: kneel, knelt (or kneeled), knelt (or kneeled); say, said (pronounced sed), said (pronounced sed). In popular speech still other weak verbs now follow this type of inflection: clean, clent, clent; peel, pelt, pelt. These forms are common in the British dialect of Essex.

As a result of peculiar developments several verbs in this group with the stem vowel e had in Middle English a double past tense and past participle: rede ‘read,’ redde or rëdde, rëdd or rëdd; clepe ‘clothe,’ clëdde or clâdde, clëdd or clâdd; lêde ‘lead,’ lêdde or lâdde, lêdd or lâdd; spëte ‘spit,’ spëtte or spâtte, spëtt or spâtt. Later, final e disappeared and dd or tt was simplified: rede (silent e), rëdd or rëd, rëd or rëdd; later read, read, read, the form rad disappearing. Lëde had the same development. The parts now are lead, led, led, the form lad disappearing. Clëpe had the same development, only that the form cled disappeared. In Middle English, there was alongside of clëpe a regular verb with the same meaning: clothe, clothed, clothed. Today, there is here in the present tense only one verb, clothe, but both verbs are represented in the past tense and past participle: clothe, clothed or clad, clothed or clad. Similarly, alongside of the Middle English spëte was another verb, spitte, with the same meaning. Spitte was inflected according to b above, so that in the course of the Middle English period its parts became spit, spitt, spitt. Americans still often employ here spit, spitt, spitt. Britishers say spit, spat, spat, the form spat being the present tense of spit, the form spat being the past tense and past participle of spëte. The present tense of spëte disappeared in the fifteenth century. Compare spit, 60 B.

d. A few verbs coming from the same Old English source (1 a, p. 262) as the verbs in b and c have retained more of their Old English forms. They have a stem syllable ending in -nd and retain their stem vowel throughout the principal parts. In early Middle English they had almost the same form as in Old English: sende ‘send,’ sende, send. The final d of the stem here is suppressed before the -d of the suffix. The -d of the suffixes soon developed into -t: sende, sente, sent. In the course of the Middle English period final e disappeared: send, sent, sent. The following verbs have had the same development: bend, blend, rend, spend, wend. Blend is now more commonly regular: blend, blended or blent, blended or blent. The development of wend is peculiarly interesting. In older English it had the meanings wend, turn, go. At the close of the Middle English period went, past tense of wend, became the past tense of go. Compare 63, close of first paragraph and footnote under go. In its other meanings wend became regular: wend, wended, wended. In the Middle
English period lenē ‘lend,’ belonging to c above and thus having the same form of the past tense and the past participle as the send group of words, was often drawn into the send group, the present tense stem ending in -d, as in the other words of this group: lënde, lënte, lënt. It now always belongs to this group: lend, lent, lent.

The verbs build, gild, gird, have had a development similar to that of the verbs in the preceding paragraph. The final d of the stem syllable disappears in the past tense and past participle before the suffix, which is here -t as in the verbs in the preceding paragraph: build, built, built; gild, gilt, gilt; gird, girt, girt. Alongside of these forms are regular ones, which are now more common except in the case of those of build: gild, gilded, gilded; gird, girded, girded. Build, builded, builded were in use earlier in the present period. In pure adjective function the common form for the past participle is still gilt: ‘a book with gilt edges,’ but in figurative use ‘the gilded youth,’ i.e. the young men of wealth and fashion. In England the House of Lords is called ‘the Gilded Chamber.’

With another group of verbs — burn, learn, smell, spell, spill, spoil — there is an inclination to employ -t as suffix in past tense and past participle, especially in England: burn, burnt, burnt; learn, learnt, learnt; smell, smelt, smelt; spell, spelt, spelt; spill, spilt, spilt; spoil, spoilt, spoilt. Americans prefer, in general, here the regular forms: burn, burned, burned, etc. See the separate treatment of these words in 60 B.

**IRREGULARITIES IN THE WEAK PAST IN MODERN ENGLISH**

60. The weak type of inflection is much simpler than it once was, but older conditions have left traces behind, so that there are still a number of irregularities. These irregularities are survivals of once widely used regular types of inflection, which in the struggle for greater simplicity have for the most part been abandoned for one regular type for all weak verbs. Only the commonest words formed on the older regular types have survived, protected by the frequency of their use. The study of the Old and Middle English types in 59 1 and 2 will explain the irregular forms of today.

A. General and Special Remarks:

a. A number of verbs having a long stem vowel suffer in the past tense and past participle a shortening of their stem vowel and take as suffix -t or -d, except in the case of verbs whose stem ends in -t or -d, where the -t or -d of the suffix has disappeared, as being identical with the final t or d of the stem: keep, këpt, këpt; leave, lef, lef; shoo, sho, sho; etc. But meet, met, met; bleed, bléd, bléd; etc. A historical explanation of this development is given in 59 2 B c.

b. In a number of verbs ending in -nd or -ld the stem ending -d
disappears in the past tense and past participle before the suffix, which is here regularly –t: bend, bent, bent; build, built, built; etc. Compare 59 2 B d.

c. A number of verbs ending in –d or –t now have no suffix whatever for the past tense and past participle, the older suffix having disappeared, leaving the present and the past tense and past participle alike: cut (present), cut (past), cut (past participle). The peculiar historical development of these forms is given in 59 2 B b. There are a large number of such verbs: bid (make an offer), burst, cast, cost, cut, hight (60 B), hit, hurt, let, put, rid, set, shed, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust. Some of these verbs: bid, burst, hight, let, are strong verbs which have been drawn into this class under the influence of their final d or t. Alongside of the literary forms burst, burst, burst are the colloquial and popular forms bust, busted, busted, which have become especially common in the meaning to break. In a few cases we use either the full or the contracted form: bet, bet or betted, bet or betted; knit, knitted or knit, knitted or knit; quit, quit or quitted, quit or quitted; rid, rid or ridded, rid or ridded; shred, shredded or shred, shredded or shred; sweat, sweat or sweated, sweat or sweated; wed, wed or wedded, wed or wedded; wet, wet or wetted, wet or wetted. In America we usually say spit, spit or spat, spit or spat, but in England the parts are uniformly spit, spat, spat. In older English the list of the short weak forms was longer, as can be seen by examining the alphabetical list of irregular weak verbs given below, in which the short forms once in use but now obsolete are marked by a dagger. This is also attested by their survival in certain adjective participles: ‘a dread foe,’ but ‘The foe was dreaded’; ‘roast beef’ but ‘The meat was roasted.’ The extensive use of these short forms in older English and in the language of our own time is in part explained by the fact that in the third person singular the –s of the present tense distinguishes the two tenses: he hits (present) hard; he hit (past) hard. Elsewhere we gather the meaning from the situation. As the past tense is the tense of description, there is here usually something in the situation that makes the thought clear.

In older English, there were in use a number of short past participles — addict, alienate, associate, attribute, celebrate, communicate, compact, consecrate, consolidate, consummate, contaminate, contract, convict, correct, create, decoct, dedicate, degenerate, deject, designate, detect, devote, disjoint, distract, elect, erect, exasperate, excommunicate, exhaust, exhibit, incorporate, indurate, infect, inflict, initiate, institute, instruct, mitigate, prostrate, reintegrate, reject, satiate, separate, situate, suffocate, suspect, etc. — which were borrowed directly from the Latin or Old French and hence did not arise from con-
traction, as in the weak verbs described above: ‘Observe wherein
and how they have degenerate’ (Bacon, Ess. Great Place, Arber,
285, a.d. 1625), now degenerated. ‘And this report Hath so exas­
perate their king, that he Prepares for some attempt of war’ (Shake­
speare, Macbeth, III, ii, 38), now exasperated. In older English
these short forms were supported by the analogy of the English
short forms, but later were replaced by the regular long forms just
as many of the short forms resulting from contraction were later
replaced by the regular long forms. Historically speaking, the
regular weak verbs addict, alienate, associate, attribute, celebrate,
communicate, compact, consecrate, consolidate, consummate, con­
taminate, contract, convict, correct, create, decoct, dedicate, degenerate,
deject, designate, detect, devote, disjoint, distract, erect, exasp­
erate, excommunicate, exhaust, exhibit, incorporate, indurate, infect,
inflict, initiate, institute, instruct, mitigate, prostrate, redintegrate,
reject, satiate, separate, situate, suffocate, suspect, etc., are derived
from the old borrowed short past participles. This list is not
complete. Other verbs are added in B below, but also this larger
list is incomplete. The use of the short past participle with bor­
rowed verbs in -t or -te (from Latin participle in -tus or -atus) is
a marked feature of early Modern English. As these old parti­
ciples, when still used as adjectives or nouns, are no longer vividly
felt as participles of these verbs, they are now in certain cases
distinguished from them by a difference of accent or by the obscur­
ing of the last pronounced vowel: (verbs) attribute, cónsum­
mate, convict, deliberate (with long a), sèparate (2nd a long); but
attribute (noun), consúmate (adjective), cónvict (noun), délibrate
(adjective; with obscured a), sèparate (adjective; with 2nd a ob­
scured).

d. In a number of words ending in -l or -n the ending is either
-ed or -t, the latter especially in England: spell, spelled or spelt;
learn, learned or learnt; etc. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).
e. Had and made are contracted from haved and made.
f. In a large number of words the difference of vowel between
the present and the past gives them the appearance of strong
verbs, but the past tense ending -t or -d marks them as weak:
bring, brought; tell, told; etc. But in the forms hide — hid, bleed —
bled, breed — bred, feed — fed, lead — led, meet — met, shoot — shot,
there is nothing that clearly marks them as weak. Upon the
basis of their present forms these and other words of this group
might be classed as strong, but their older forms reveal them as
weak verbs that have had a peculiar development. Compare 59
2 B c and footnote under shoot in 60 B.
g. The ending of the second person singular of the old form is
-est or -st. The former is used with full verbs, the latter with the auxiliary had: 'thou leitest'; 'thou hadst.'

B. Alphabetical List. In a number of cases the irregularities are only orthographical, as in dressed or drest. Where there is fluctuation in usage the more common form is given first. Sometimes the variant (i.e. the second form) is an old strong form, retiring from general service, now serving preferably in figurative use, as in the case of shorn, or, in the case of others now employed only in poetic style; sometimes, on the other hand, it is a vigorous, new, more regular form which is working its way to the front. Wherever the form is obsolete in plain prose or now used only in poetry, it is marked by a dagger. On the other hand, in older English these words were in common use. By older usage is here meant the usage of the earlier part of the Modern English period. This older usage, in certain words, survives in popular speech or in certain dialects. Wherever the form is used only in adjective function, there is an asterisk after it. In most cases these forms once had verbal force. Some of the verbs in the list were once strong and still have strong forms. The forms now employed in the literary language and good colloquial speech are given in roman type. Dialectic and popular forms are given in italics. A dagger after a word in italics indicates an older literary form. In early Modern English there were in a large number of cases, even in the literary language, two or more forms for past tense and past participle. Besides the list given below there are a few very irregular auxiliaries, treated at length in 574.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accurse †</td>
<td>accursed †</td>
<td>accursed *</td>
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<td>acquit</td>
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<td>addict</td>
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<td>admit</td>
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<td>apocopate</td>
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### List of Irregular Weak Verbs

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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><strong>articulate</strong></td>
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<td><strong>ask</strong></td>
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<td><strong>ax</strong>, <strong>ass</strong>, <strong>ast</strong></td>
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<td><strong>associate</strong></td>
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<td><strong>attack</strong>, <strong>attacked</strong></td>
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<td><strong>beseech</strong></td>
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<td><strong>bet</strong></td>
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1 Heard in dialect. *Ax, axed* were once used also in the literary language.
2 Now used only in adjective function: *an associate professor.* In older English it could have pure verbal force: *'I chance to be assocyat (now associated) with a doctor of Physik'* (Barnes, *Defence of the Berde*, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser. 10, p. 307, 16th century).
3 Heard in American popular speech.
4 Survives in the noun *attribute*, which has been made from the old past participle. For the difference of stress here see 60 A c (close of 2nd par.).
5 Lingering in poetry. Compare footnote to *dight* below.
6 Compare 59.
7 *'A man bereft of consciousness by a blow,'* 'a bereaved mother.' *The blow bereft him of consciousness.'* *Death has bereaved, or bereft, her of her children. 'Bereave, bereft, bereft follow the old type described in 59 2 B c.*
8 Survives in American speech, where it is often still heard. Obsolete in England.
9 Lingering in poetry: *'his boots with dust and mire besprent'*(Longfellow, *Sir Christopher*, 133). It is the past participle of obsolete *bespreng* *besprinkle,* *besprent, besprent.*
10 Fowler in his *Modern English Usage* says that in England the shorter form is used of a definite transaction, while *betted* is employed when the sense
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>betide</td>
<td>betided</td>
<td>betided</td>
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<tr>
<td>beware</td>
<td>bewared↑</td>
<td>betid↑</td>
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<td>bid (‘offer’)</td>
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<td>bide 2</td>
<td>bided</td>
<td>bid</td>
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<td>bleed</td>
<td>bled (60 A f)</td>
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<td>bless</td>
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<td>bless'd *4</td>
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<td>bolt</td>
<td>bolted, bolt↑</td>
<td>bolted, bolt↑</td>
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<td>breed, brede↑</td>
<td>bred (60 A f)</td>
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<td>build</td>
<td>built (59 2 B d)</td>
<td>built</td>
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<tr>
<td>burn</td>
<td>burned 7</td>
<td>burnt 7</td>
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is more general: ‘I have bet £500 against it,’ but ‘They betted a good deal in those days.’ American English prefers bet in both senses.

1 In use in older English: ‘I had bewar’d if I had foreseen’ (Milton). Beware is now confined to the imperative and the infinitive, is hence a defective verb: ‘Beware of self-deception.’ ‘Let us beware of self-deception.’ We now feel ware as a predicate adjective, as it once was, and hence hesitate to use it except where the be before it can be construed as a form of the verb be.

2 Now little used except in the expression ‘bide one’s time’ (await one’s opportunity): ‘He held his peace and bided his time.’ Tennyson employs the old past tense bode in the meaning remained: ‘And thither wending there that night they bode’ (Lancelot and Elaine, 410). ‘And there awhile it (i.e. the cup) bode’ (Holy Grail, 54). Compare footnote under abide in 63. The explanation for the old parts bide, bode or bid, bidden or bid is the same as that given for the old parts bite in 62 (p. 302).

3 Compare 59 2 B d.

4 According to 59 the e in the suffix -ed is still pronounced in bless'd when used as an adjective. This is still the usual adjective form: ‘the bless'd unconsciousness and ignorance of childhood.’ Often used ironically: ‘We were interrupted every bless'd night.’ ‘There wasn’t a bless'd one there.’ The adjective and noun form blest is now confined to a few set expressions: ‘that blest abode,’ ‘the mansions of the blest,’ etc.

5 Common in popular speech.

6 Common in popular and colloquial speech.

7 Burnt is the more common form in England. In America burned is the more common form, although burnt is also widely used, especially in adjective use, as in ‘a burnt match.’ Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</table>

1 Common in colloquial and popular speech.
2 Popular and colloquial form used in adjective function: ‘boughten stockings, bread, cake,’ etc. Sometimes found in poetry for the sake of meter.
3 The parts in dialect are often strong, ketch, kotch, kotch, after the analogy of get, got, got: ‘Paw got wind of it and kotch ‘em a-hanging around one day’ (Lucy Furman, Mothering on Perilous, Ch. XX). Sometimes the weak ending -ed (t) is added to the strong form: ketch, kotched, kotched. Compare footnote to fetch. The parts are often weak throughout: ketch, ketched, ketched.
4 ‘Our straw catch’d a Fire’ (George Washington, Diary, Apr. 2, 1748). ‘On every side new prospects catch’d the eye’ (Freneau, The American Village, about A.D. 1772).
5 The forms chode, chidden are after the analogy of rode, ridden. Compare 69 2 B c. The most common parts are chide, chided, chided for America, chide, chid, chid or chidden for England.
6 In American authorities cleft is usually represented as more common than clove, but according to the author’s observation clove occurs more frequently, and in England it is surely the leading form. Likewise in the past participle cloven seems to be more common than cleft. In certain expressions, however, the one or the other form has become fixed: ‘a cloven hoof,’ ‘a cleft palate,’ ‘in a cleft stick’ (in a tight place). The originally strong inflection is now represented by the parts cleave, clove, cloven. In Middle English arose the weak forms cleft (69 2 B c) and cleaved. Thus there has been fluctuation of usage for a long while, and this fluctuation still continues, for the word is little used and there is hence no firm impression on our minds as to the proper parts.
7 Strong forms heard in dialect. Clome is a recent dialectic spelling for...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
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<td>correct</td>
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<tr>
<td>cost</td>
<td>cost (60 A c)</td>
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<td>create</td>
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<td>creep</td>
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</table>

_clomb_, which was once a literary form. _Clomb_ survives in the literary language in poetry: 'Hither . . . she _clomb_’ (Tennyson), rinking with _dome_. In northern British dialect are heard the parts _clim_, _clam_, _clum_ — after the analogy of _swim_, _swam_, _swum_. In certain dialects, especially American, _climb_ (present), _clim_ (past) are heard — after the analogy of _ride_, _rid_. The dialectic past participle _clum_ often serves also as a past tense. The past participle _clum_ (once also with the spelling _dom_) was in the sixteenth century a literary form.

1 This old participle survives in adjective function in the technical language of Semitic grammar: 'a noun in the _construct_ (or sometimes _constructed_) state,' or 'a noun in the _state construct_,' or 'a noun in the _construct._'

2 Survives in the noun _convict_, which has been made from the old participle. For the difference of stress here see 60 A c (close of last par.).

3 In Middle English, the strong past tense of _crepen_ 'creep' was _creep_, the regular form of the second class (62): 'He _creep_’ (Chaucer, _The Reues Tale_,...
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<th>Past Participle</th>
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<td>cut (60 A c)</td>
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339). This old form survives in dialect, only the vowel is now short: crēp, now used also as a past participle. Compare footnote to leap. The old strong past participle was cropen. The vowel of this form spread to the past, so that the past tense was often crope, which was used also as a past participle. Crope survives in dialect as past tense and past participle. In the literary language the weak forms creep, crepe, creped were once in use. They are still heard in dialect. In the literary language all these forms have been gradually supplanted by the weak forms creep, crept, crept. Compare 60 B c. ¹ ‘He crowed over me.’ ‘The baby crowed with delight.’ ‘The cock crowed (in America, but in England also crew, as in older English) at five.’ All the older parts, crow, crew, crown, are still heard in northern British dialects. ² Common in colloquial and popular speech. ³ Formerly used as a verbal participle. See 60 A c (last par.). It is still used as an adjective participle: ‘a degenerate family.’ For pronunciation see 60 A c (close of last par.). ⁴ For pronunciation see 60 A c (close of last par.).
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<th>Present</th>
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<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tr>
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<td>drown, drownd † 6</td>
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</table>

1 Lingering in poetry: 'the clouds in thousand liveries dight' (Milton). 'Why do these steeds stand ready dight?' (Scott, The Lay of the Last Minstrel, I, 42). 'Many a rare and sumptuous tome, In vellum bound, with gold bedight' (Longfellow, Tales of a Wayside Inn, Prelude, 1, 128).

2 Sometimes still used as predicate adjective participle instead of the more common distracted: 'Her mind was distraught with her misfortunes.' 'I lay awake distraught with warring thoughts.' Sometimes still used attributively: 'He knelt down beside the distraught woman and tried to take her hand.' It was earlier in the period employed also with pure verbal force.

3 Dove is widely used in colloquial and popular speech, div has a much narrower territory. These forms follow the analogy of the parts of drive (63).

4 Common locally in popular speech.

5 In England dreamt is more common, in America dreamed. Compare 59 2 B c.

6 In older English these forms occur in the literary language: 'Take Pity on poor Miss; don't throw water on a drownded Rat' (Swift, Polite Convers., 17, a.d. 1738). Drown, drownded, drownded survive in popular speech.
<table>
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<th>Present</th>
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1 Earlier in the period the parts *fetch, faught, faught* (as in *stretch, straught*, straught) were in limited use: 'He fetched, or faught (now took), a walk.' The parts in dialect are often strong, *fetch, fotch, fotch* after the analogy of *get, got, got*: 'Trojan fotch him his revolver' (Lucy Furman, *Mothering on Perilous*, Ch. XXVIII). Sometimes the weak ending -ed (t) is added to the strong form: 'They fotched me here' (S. V. Benét, *John Brown’s Body*, p. 227).

2 The regular present tense form, still in use earlier in the period, from the sixteenth century on gradually replaced by the irregular form *flay* with the vowel of the old past participle *flain*.

2 Examples are given in 63 under *fly*.
<table>
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<td>hād (60 A e)</td>
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<td>heat †</td>
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</table>

1 'This measure is fraught with danger.'

2 This verb was originally strong. It is a derivative made up of the prefix fra (= away) and the verb eat.

3 In popular speech the parts of hear are heer, past heerd, heard, heern, hearn, past participle heerd, heard, heern, hearn. The past participles heern, hearn are formed after the analogy of strong verbs, as explained in the footnote to shut. The past participles heern, hearn are sometimes used by the common people as past tense forms, just as the past participle seen is used by them as a past tense. Hard is still employed in northern British dialect as past tense and past participle.

4 Used in older English and still in popular speech or dialect. The form is explained in 59 2 B c.
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<td>holf (^2)</td>
<td>holpen,(^\dagger) holf (^2)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>infect (^\dagger)</td>
<td>infect (^\dagger)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inflict</td>
<td>inflicted</td>
<td>inflicted</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>inflict (^\dagger)</td>
<td>inflict (^\dagger)</td>
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<tr>
<td>initiate</td>
<td>initiated</td>
<td>initiated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>initiate (^\ast)</td>
<td>initiate (^\ast)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) 'The frost heaved the young plants out of the ground.' 'She heaved a heavy sigh.' 'Her face lit up and her bosom heaved.' 'We hove up the anchor. The sailors hove the bodies overboard.' 'A ship hove in sight.' 'The steamer hove to a little.'

\(^2\) Old strong form; still used in dialect.

\(^3\) In verbal function more common than hid, in adjective function the usual form. 'He has hidden, or hid, my hat,' but 'a hidden treasure.' Compare 59 2 B c.

\(^4\) Archaic forms. In older English, the third person singular of the present tense often had no ending, as it was in fact a past tense used as a present: 'that shallow vassal, which, as I remember hight Costard' (Shakespeare, Love's Labor's Lost, I, 258). The old past tense hight was used also as a past participle.

\(^5\) In older English, the parts were sometimes hit, hot, hot after the analogy of git \(^\dagger\) (now get) got, got. Hot survives in dialect. In northern British dialect this verb is usually strong: hit, hat, huten or hitten. Compare footnote to shut.

\(^6\) Sometimes still used: 'The gentlemen may sit tight as long as they please, but they will be hoist by powers they cannot control' (Woodrow Wilson, Feb. 24, 1912). From hoist has been formed a regular weak verb — hoist, hoisted, hoisted — now in common use.

\(^7\) Still used in dialect.

\(^8\) Earlier in the period employed in adjective function: 'Initiate in the secrets of the skies' (Young, Night Thoughts, VI, 95). The old adjective participle is still used as a noun: the initiate, the uninitiate.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>instigate</td>
<td>instigated</td>
<td>instigated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>institute</td>
<td>instituted</td>
<td>instituted</td>
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<tr>
<td>instruct</td>
<td>instructed</td>
<td>instructed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep</td>
<td>kept (59 2 B c)</td>
<td>kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kemb</td>
<td>kempt</td>
<td>kempt,† unkempt *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knead</td>
<td>kneaded</td>
<td>kneaded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kneel</td>
<td>knelt 2</td>
<td>knelt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knit 3</td>
<td>knitted</td>
<td>knit, knitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lade 4</td>
<td>laded</td>
<td>laden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laugh 5</td>
<td>laughed, lough †</td>
<td>laughed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lay</td>
<td>laid (but belayed)</td>
<td>laid (belayed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lead</td>
<td>led (60 A f)</td>
<td>led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>laded † (59 2 B c)</td>
<td>laded † (59 2 B c)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The dialectic parts keep, kēp, kēp are strong after the analogy of dialectic leap, lēp, lēp. Compare footnote to leap.
2 At present knelt seems to be more common than kneeled in both England and America. For the history of this interesting form see 59 2 B c (2nd par.).
3 Older knit, knitt, knit are slowly yielding to newer knit, knitted, knitted. The older forms, however, are still favorites in figurative use: ‘knitted (also knit) goods.’ ‘Her mother knitted (or knit) quietly beside a shaded lamp.’ But: ‘The two were knit in friendship together.’ ‘She knit (or knitted) her brows angrily.’ ‘A well-knit frame.’ The past participle used as a noun always has the old short form: ‘stunning knits’ (advertisement). Compare 60 A c.
4 In the sense to load the parts in early Modern English were lade, laded, laden or laded, but lade is now usually replaced in the present and the past tense by load, a derivative from the noun load: ‘They load the wagons every morning.’ ‘They loaded the wagons early this morning.’ The past participle laden is still widely used in poetic style, but it is elsewhere more commonly replaced by loaded, except in adjective function in figurative use and in compounds in literal and in figurative meaning, where laden is the usual form: ‘heavily loaded trucks,’ ‘a wagon loaded with hay,’ ‘a ship loaded with wheat,’ but ‘a soul laden with sin,’ ‘a sin-laden soul,’ ‘a hay-laden wagon.’
In the sense to dip out with a ladle, bail, the parts are lade, laded, laded. The word is now little used in this meaning.
5 In the literary language always transitive, but in British and American popular speech used also intransitively corresponding to literary tie, lay, lain. In older English this usage sometimes occurs in the literary language: ‘And dasheth him again to earth — there let him lay’ (Byron, Childe Harold, IV, CLXXX).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lean</td>
<td>leaned</td>
<td>leaned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leap, lepe † 2</td>
<td>leaped, leped † 2</td>
<td>leaped, leped † 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn</td>
<td>learned 3</td>
<td>learn 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leave</td>
<td>left (59 2 B c)</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lend</td>
<td>lent (59 2 B d)</td>
<td>lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let (arch.) ('hinder')</td>
<td>letted †</td>
<td>letten † 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lift</td>
<td>lifted</td>
<td>lifted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light</td>
<td>lighted, light †</td>
<td>lighted, light †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>('set fire to')</td>
<td>light 5</td>
<td>light 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light</td>
<td>lighted, light †</td>
<td>lighted, light †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>('descend')</td>
<td>light 5</td>
<td>light 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Learned is more common than leant in the written language, but it is often pronounced leant (i.e. lënt). In general, the more common pronunciation of the past tense and past participle is leant (i.e. lënt) in England and leand (i.e. leend) in America. Compare 59 2 B c.

2 Lepe †, leped †, leped † are older spelling variants of leap, leaped, leaped. Leapt (= lëpt) and lept † are spelling variants. The more common form for past tense and past participle is leaped in America. In England, both leapt and leaped are widely used, the former leading in frequency. Compare 59 2 B c. The old literary strong forms lôpe and lôpen survive in dialect. The dialectic past tense lëp is the shortened form of the Middle English literary strong past tense. It is now used also as a past participle, so that the parts are: leap, lëp, lëp. Creep, sleep, sweep, also originally strong verbs, have had in dialect the same development: creep, crëp, crëp; sleep, slëp, slëp; sweep, wëp, wëp. In comparatively recent times three weak verbs have joined in dialect this strong group: keep, këp, këp; reap, rëp, rëp; sweep, swëp, swëp. Compare creep.

3 Learned is more common than learnt in the written language, but it is often pronounced learnt. In general, the more common pronunciation of the past tense and past participle is learnt in England and learned in America. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.). The adjective form learned (learned men) is in universal use. For the pronunciation of e in –ed here see 59.

4 Still heard in northern British dialect. Let was originally strong. In the literary language it has become weak, following the analogy of set; but in northern British dialect the old strong past participle is preserved, as the past participle in –en is a favorite, being often used even with weak verbs. Compare footnote to shut.

5 In the sense 'set fire to' lighted or lit are both common in verbal function and in the predicate, while in attributive adjective use lighted is the usual form: 'He lighted, or lit, a cigar.' 'Even at a distance I could see that the house was all lighted, or lit, up,' but 'a lighted cigar,' 'a well-lighted room.'
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>limit</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>limited</td>
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<tr>
<td>list 1</td>
<td>listed 1</td>
<td>listed 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>load</td>
<td>loaded</td>
<td>loaded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lose 3</td>
<td>lost</td>
<td>lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>made (60 A e)</td>
<td>made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manifest</td>
<td>manifested</td>
<td>manifested</td>
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<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>meant</td>
<td>meant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meet</td>
<td>met (60 A f)</td>
<td>met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>melt</td>
<td>melted</td>
<td>melted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mete, met</td>
<td>meted, met</td>
<td>meted, meted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In figurative use *lit* is the more common form: "Her eyes *lit* up." "A star-*lit* night," "a mirth-*lit* face." In compounds instead of *lighted* we sometimes find the irregular adjective form -litten: "red-litten windows" (Poe, Haunted Palace, VI), "dim-litten chamber" (Morris, Earthly Paradise, III, 9). In this sense the derivative verb *alight* has become obsolete, except the past participle *alight* in adjective function in the predicate relation: "Mine's (my candle is) alight" (Browning, The Ring and the Book, XII, 581). "Having the little brazen lamp alight" (Shelley, Julian, 553). "But, then, evening came, and the stars sprang alight" (S. G. Millin, God’s Stepchildren, Ch. II, 1).

In the sense 'descend' the derivative verb *alight* is common. The regular weak forms are more common than the strong: "We alighted and walked a little way." "They alighted from their car." "The aviator has just alighted from his airplane." We do not use *lit* or *lighted* of persons getting down from a horse, car, or airplane, as in these examples, but we use these forms freely of persons, animals, and things in other applications of the meaning 'descend': "He fell from the tree, and *lit*, or *lighted*, on his head." "The bird came down, and *lit*, or *lighted*, on a limb of a tree." "A snowflake *lit*, or *lighted*, on his nose." "A curse *lit*, or *lighted*, upon the land." "I have never *lit*, or *lighted*, upon this meaning of the word before."

The parts *light, lit, lit* follow the analogy of *bite, bit, bit*. See 62 (p. 302).

1 Archaic forms. The third person singular of the present tense has three forms: *listeth, list, (contracted from listth), lists.* 'The wind bloweth where it *listeth.*' 'Let him come when he *list.*'

2 After the analogy of *laden:* 'loaded with heavy news' (Shakespeare, Henry the Fourth, First Part, I, r, 37).

3 In older English, *loose* was employed as a variant spelling of *lose.* Although we now feel *lose* as a weak form, it is historically an old strong present. See *lose* in 63.

4 Of metals and other things difficult to liquefy we say "*melted* or *molten* gold, lava, glass," etc., but always "*melted* butter, snow," etc.

5 In older English, *mete* was a strong verb in the same class as *eat,* and
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mitigate</td>
<td>mitigated</td>
<td>mitigated</td>
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<tr>
<td>mow</td>
<td>mowed</td>
<td>mowed</td>
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<tr>
<td>mulct</td>
<td>mulcted</td>
<td>mulcted</td>
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<tr>
<td>obligate</td>
<td>obligated</td>
<td>obligated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>owe (57 4 A c)</td>
<td>owed, ought</td>
<td>owed, own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pave</td>
<td>paved</td>
<td>paved</td>
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<tr>
<td>pay</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pen, pend † (‘confine’)</td>
<td>payed (‘let out rope’)</td>
<td>payed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitch</td>
<td>pitched</td>
<td>pitched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plead, plede †</td>
<td>pleaded</td>
<td>pleaded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plight</td>
<td>plighted</td>
<td>plighted</td>
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<tr>
<td>prostrate</td>
<td>prostrated</td>
<td>prostrated</td>
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<tr>
<td>protect</td>
<td>protected</td>
<td>protected</td>
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<tr>
<td>prove</td>
<td>proved</td>
<td>proved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

formed its parts in the same way: mete, mete, mete(n), as in ete, ete, ete(n). These parts have disappeared from the literary language, but, in the case of eat, they survive in dialect. See eat in 63. At this time mete was associated also with get, and sometimes formed its parts in the same way: met, mot, motten. It was also under the influence of meet, as can be seen by its older parts: mete, met, met. It is now entirely regular.

1 After the analogy of shaven, now little used outside of poetry.

2 An adjective participle of the obsolete pend (once a variant of pen): 'his pent-up fury,' 'pent-up emotions.'

3 Pronounced pled and in older English often written so. It was once used in choice language: ‘And with him . . . came Many grave persons that against her pled.’ (Spenser, The Faerie Queene, V, IX, XLIII, A.D. 1596). It is now little used in England, but lingers in American colloquial speech: ‘They plead so hard that I finally gave in’ (Theodore Roosevelt, Letter to Miss Emily T. Carow, Aug. 6, 1903).

4 A northern British participle that is sometimes used in the literary language. There is a trend in northern British dialects toward the past
### List of Irregular Weak Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>put</td>
<td>put (60 A c)</td>
<td>put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quake</td>
<td>quaked</td>
<td>quaked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quit</td>
<td>quit, quitted</td>
<td>quit, quitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rap ('strike')</td>
<td>rapped</td>
<td>rapped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reach</td>
<td>reached</td>
<td>reached</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read, rede, read</td>
<td>read, red</td>
<td>read, red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reap</td>
<td>reaped</td>
<td>reaped</td>
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<tr>
<td>reave</td>
<td>reft</td>
<td>reft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redd (now pop.)</td>
<td>red</td>
<td>redd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redintegrate</td>
<td>redintegrated</td>
<td>redintegrated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participle in "-en." Even a number of weak verbs take this strong participial ending in these dialects: proven, shutten (see shut), etc. In the eighteenth century, under Scotch influence, proven began to appear in the literary language of the South of England. It is still occasionally used in the literary language. It is most common with passive force in the predicate relation: "That is not yet proven." But the regular form proved is more common even here.

1. In northern British dialect this verb is strong: put or pit, pat, pitten or pitten.

2. After the analogy of shook.

3. The ordinary form in England. American English preserves the older form quit. In the meaning cease this word is very common in America but in this sense is not used at all in England: 'He has quit smoking.' This meaning is a survival of older British usage. It survives also in Scotch and Irish English, which may have strengthened the American tendency. The form in "-ed" is regularly used also in American English with acquit, also with simple quit when used in archaic language with the meaning of acquit. Compare 60 A c.

4. 'The rapt saint is found the only logician' (Emerson). 'It is not the poetry of deep meditation or of rapt enthusiasm.' In older English a present and a past tense were formed from this participle, but they have gone out of use. The participle itself comes from Latin raptus.

5. Older spelling variants of read, read, read are rede or reed, red, red, which indicate the pronunciation more accurately than read, read, read, but have not become established in the language.

6. Often written red: 'I red(d) up the house before they came.' Rid has the same force, but it is usually associated with out: 'I rid the closets out while you were gone.' But we hear also: 'I rid up the house before they came.'
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reeve</td>
<td>rove</td>
<td>rove</td>
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<td></td>
<td>reeved</td>
<td>reeved</td>
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<td>reject</td>
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<td>rend</td>
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<td>rent</td>
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<td>rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring (cattle)</td>
<td>rung ↑</td>
<td>rung ↑</td>
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<td>rive</td>
<td>rived</td>
<td>riven</td>
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<td>roast</td>
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<tr>
<td>satiate</td>
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<td>satiate *</td>
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<tr>
<td>saw</td>
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<tr>
<td>say 5</td>
<td>said</td>
<td>said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seek</td>
<td>sought (59 2 B a)</td>
<td>sought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seem</td>
<td>seemed</td>
<td>seemed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 In the active now the more common form in England: ‘We ridded, have ridded (or rid), the land of robbers,’ but ‘I thought myself well rid (passive) of him.’ In America rid is the usual form for past tense and past participle, active and passive. Compare 60 A c.

2 ‘He prefers roast beef,’ but ‘He prefers his meat roasted.’ Compare 60 A c.

3 Rotted is used both in verbal and adjective function. Rotten is the old strong Danish form of the participle, used only in adjective function. The two adjective participles differ in meaning in that rotten always contains the idea of the undesirable, unpleasant, bad, disgusting: ‘Rotted leaf-mould is a good fertilizer,’ but only unpleasant ideas are associated with ‘rotten eggs,’ ‘rotten politician,’ etc.

4 In the fifteenth century saw had besides the old regular weak forms also new strong ones: past sew, past participle sawn, after the analogy of draw, drew, drawn. The strong participle survives. In England it is now the more common form, and is the decided favorite in adjective function, as in ‘sawn wood.’ In America the old weak form is preferred.

5 The vowel is long in the present tense except in the 3rd pers. sing. form says (= says): It is short in says and in the past tense and the past participle, but the vowel of said is often long in gainsaid, past tense and past participle. Compare 59 2 B c.
288 LIST OF IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS 60 B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>see the</td>
<td>seethed</td>
<td>seethed, sodden *1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sell</td>
<td>sold (59 2 B a)</td>
<td>sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>send</td>
<td>sent (59 2 B d)</td>
<td>sent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>separate</td>
<td>separated</td>
<td>separated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set</td>
<td>set 3 (60 A c)</td>
<td>set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sew, sow †</td>
<td>sewed</td>
<td>sewed, sewn 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shape</td>
<td>shaped</td>
<td>shaped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shave</td>
<td>shaved</td>
<td>shaved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Now usually employed as a pure adjective without any feeling of its relation to see the: ‘The cake was sodden’ (= doughy). From this adjective a verb sodden has been coined: ‘The rains have soddened the earth.’ Earlier in the period the participle sodden could have pure verbal force and its relation to see the in its old meaning boil was still clearly felt: ‘We saw crabs swimming on the water that were red as though they had bene sodden’ (T. Stevens, Hakluyt’s Voy., II, 110, A.D. 1579). Sod was used here alongside of sodden: ‘Fysshe may be sod, rostyd, and baken’ (Andrew Boorde, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser. 10, p. 277, A.D. 1542).

2 Now employed only in adjective function. Earlier in the period it could have pure verbal force: ‘After they have separate from all other Churches’ (R. Baillie, Anabaptism, 51, A.D. 1646). For the difference of pronunciation between verbal separate and adjective separate see 60 A c (close of last par.).

3 In many dialects the parts are strong, set, sot, sot, after the analogy of get, got, got. In northern British dialects the past participle setten is widespread. Compare footnote to shut. In older English set sometimes replaced sit, even in the literary language: ‘It is very possible that the President and the new Congress are sitting at New York’ (Jefferson, Writings, II, 385, A.D. 1788). This usage survives in popular speech: ‘He set, or sot, down on the bench.’ On the other hand, in older literary English sit sometimes replaced set: ‘The foremost sat (now set) down his load (B. Church, Hist. Philip’s War, I, 119, A.D. 1716). Compare 63 footnote to sit.

4 Of the two verbs sew and sow † the form sew alone survives, but it has the pronunciation of sow. The strong past participles sown †, sewn show the influence of the strong participle blown. The form sewn is little used in America, but is common in England, where it is competing with the old original weak form sewed. In America the old weak form is still the usual one.

5 Now obsolete or archaic except in the adjective participle misshapen. The adjective participle well-shapen is somewhat archaic, well-shaped being now more common. The older strong form was in early Modern English still used also in the past tense, where shoope (also spelled shope) was employed alongside of the more common shaped.

6 Now employed only in adjective use, but in early Modern English employed also with verbal force.
### Present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shear</td>
<td>sheared</td>
<td>sheared, shorn(^1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shed, shode †(^2)</td>
<td>shed (60 A c)</td>
<td>shore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shend</td>
<td>shent †</td>
<td>shent †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoe</td>
<td>shod,(^3) shoed (^3)</td>
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<td>shot, shotle †</td>
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<td>shotted, † shotled †</td>
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1. This form is the common one in figurative use and in poetical style: ‘Shorn of one's authority, one's privileges.’ ‘These are the unshorn fields, boundless and beautiful’ (Bryant, *Prairies*, 2). In England, however, it is still quite common in its old concrete meaning: ‘The sheep are being shorn’ (in America usually sheared). When employed as an adjective, it is often used in England of human hair, and is sometimes indispensable here, as it cannot be replaced by another word: ‘the caresses of the old gentleman unshorn and perfumed by tobacco’ (Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*, Ch. XXXIX). In America we avoid this use of the word wherever we can: ‘a neglected beard,’ ‘a neatly trimmed beard,’ etc.

2. Old weak forms once used in the literary language: ‘Who can recount what plente of teares she shodd for her owne sinnes’ (Lives of Women Saints, 102, 9, A.D. 1610). This form survives in dialect. Older shode † — shod † shows the same development as shoot — shot, i.e. long present, short past. See 69 2 B c.

3. In the modern period there has been a tendency towards the regular parts shoe, shoed, shoed, but it has not become strong in either dialect or the literary language. For an explanation of the short vowel in shoed see 69 2 B c.

4. In older English, shote, shoote, shoute, shute, were employed as variant spellings of shoot. Shute, however, had a little different pronunciation. There was an i sound before the vowel, as in chuse (63 under choose). The past form shotle is an older spelling variant of shot. In Middle English, the final e was sounded. Shotle † is an old weak past, later shortened to shott, still later entirely replaced by the spelling shot. The older spelling shotle continued to be used for a while in early Modern English, but the final e was no longer pronounced. Instead of shoot there were in Old English two verbs, one strong, one weak, with different forms throughout — the strong verb of the second class (62) sceotan and the weak verb scotian. The strong form survives in the present tense shoot and the weak in shot, past tense and past participle. As the vowel is long in shoot and short in shot, the feeling arose that the short past belonged to the long present, as in the large group in 59 2 B c. We see the same development in lose, lost, lost as explained in 63 under lose. In early Modern English there was in limited use the old strong past participle shotten, which has since disappeared in the literary language, but survives in northern British dialect, also here and there in American dialect. In northern British English it is still employed with verbal force, in America it survives widely only in adjective function: ‘You are as lean as a shotten herring.’ Compare ‘If manhood, good manhood, be not forgot upon the face of the earth, then am I a shotten herring’ (Shakespeare, *Henry the Fourth*, II, iv, 143). The *Santa Ana* (Calif.) *Register* (Mar. 3, 1931) reports a Negro as using this form with verbal force: ‘I has shotten craps for 45 years.’
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1 Popular strong past of show, earlier in the period employed also in the literary language. Show, shew †, shown were formed after the analogy of blow, blew, blown. The strong past participle, shown, is still the usual literary form.

2 Survives in dialect: 'When we growed up, and they shet down on me and her a-runnin' roun' Together' (James Whitcomb Riley, Marthy Ellen).

3 Heard in British dialect. In some dialects the past participle in -en is a favorite, especially in northern British. It is even used, as here, with weak verbs. Compare the footnote to hear, let, and prove.

4 Heard in American dialect. These parts are formed after the analogy of popular begin, begun, begun.

5 Smelled is the more common form in America, smelt the more common form in England. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

6 After the analogy of blow, blew, blown.

7 In rather choice literary English we still use speed in the general sense of a rapid movement, now usually with the parts speed, sped, sped: 'I sped to meet them' (Keats, A Galloway Song, 14). 'In two autos they sped along
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<th>Present</th>
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<th>Past Participle</th>
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<td>spill</td>
<td>spilled²</td>
<td>spilled²</td>
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<tr>
<td>spēte †</td>
<td>spat, spit, spet †</td>
<td>spitted, † spitten †</td>
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the Lincoln Highway’ (Chicago Tribune, Apr. 24, 1927). ‘The bullet sped on its fatal course.’ ‘The glance he sped towards his betrothed was brimful of expectant love’ (H. Herman, His Angel, XII, 236). In older English, also speed, speeded, speeded were used here: ‘I have speeded (now sped) hither with the very extremest inch of possibility’ (Shakespeare, II Henry the Fourth, IV, III, 37).

Where there is a reference to an engine or to mechanical or routine movement or work of any kind, the usual parts are speed, speeded, speeded: ‘This engine is speeded to run 300 revolutions per minute.’ ‘I speeded up, or speeded up the motor, so as to arrive on time.’ ‘We speeded up the work on the house as much as we could.’ ‘Ship-construction is to be speeded up as much as possible.’ ‘He speeded through the main thoroughfare of the city and was fined for it,’ i.e. he drove his car faster than the law permits. Speeded is often used of a high engine speed in general, where also sped might be employed: ‘The machines speeded (or sped) on south and across the boulevard’ (Chicago Tribune, Mar. 23, 1927).

¹ Spelled is the more common form in America, spell the more common form in England. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

² Spilled is the more common form in America, spill the more common form in England. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

³ In American English the usual colloquial form for past tense and past participle is spit, but spat is coming into ever wider use in the literary language and will doubtless ultimately prevail: ‘She spat in his face’ (The New York Times, July 19, 1934). ‘The boy took a gulp, choked, and spat it out’ (Ralph Connor, The Man from Glengarry, Ch. I). ‘Crooked Jack spat on his hand and resumed his work’ (L. M. Montgomery, The Chronicles of Avonlea, Ch. II). ‘As they passed, he spat tobacco juice on the dog’ (E. T. Seton, Ralph in the Woods, Ch. XVII). ‘The blood came, but the shiftless one merely spat it out’ (J. A. Altscheler, The Scouts of the Valley, Ch. X). ‘As Dar Mennou came into view, Madani turned back and spat on the new road’ (Wythe Williams, Saturday Evening Post, Aug. 28, 1926). ‘Jack spat’ (S. V. Benêt, John Brown’s Body, p. 367). ‘Now and then a wave spat in the faces of the passengers huddled aft’ (Harry A. Franck, A Vagabond Journey around the World, Ch. III). In England spat is the more common form for past tense and past participle. In older English, two different verbs were in use here — spit and spēte. The principal parts of spit were spēt, spēt, spēt. The parts of spēte were spētē, spētē or spēt, spētē or spētē. The form spat survives. The parts spēt, spēt, spēt seem to be after the analogy of sit, sat, sat, which may have facilitated their establishment, but historically spat is past tense and past participle of spēte. For the weak past tense forms spat and spēt † see 59 2 B c (last par.). The influence of sit here can be seen also in the older past tense spate and in the older past participles spitten and spattem. Compare
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<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>split</strong></td>
<td>split (60 A c)</td>
<td>split</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>spoil</strong></td>
<td>spoiled ¹</td>
<td>spoiled ¹</td>
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<td><strong>spread</strong></td>
<td>spread (60 A c)</td>
<td>spread</td>
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<td><strong>start</strong></td>
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<td>started</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>stave</strong></td>
<td>staved ²</td>
<td>staved ²</td>
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<td><strong>stay</strong></td>
<td>stayed</td>
<td>stayed, staid</td>
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<td><strong>stretch</strong></td>
<td>stretched</td>
<td>stretched, straight ²</td>
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<td><strong>strew,</strong> strown ¹</td>
<td>strow ¹</td>
<td>strowed</td>
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<td><strong>subject</strong></td>
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<td><strong>subjugate</strong></td>
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<td><strong>suffocate</strong></td>
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<td><strong>suspect</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>sweat</strong></td>
<td>sweat, ² sweated</td>
<td>sweat, ² sweated</td>
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**sit, 63.** In the meaning ‘transfix’ spit is regular: ‘He spitted some meat and set it to roast.’

¹ *Spoiled* is the more common form in the written language, but the more common pronunciation of the past tense and past participle is *spoilt* in England and *spoild* in America. These forms, however, are pronounced *spoid* also in England in the sense of despoil, plunder, deprive. Compare 59 2 B d (3rd par.).

² ‘I staved, have staved, off a bad cold.’ ‘Two of his ribs were stove, or staved, in.’ ‘The fore compartment of the boat was stove (nautical term) in by the collision.’

³ ‘A staid elderly man.’

⁴ ‘A straight line,’ ‘straight dealings.’

⁵ The strong past participles *strown* ¹, *strewn* show that *strow* ¹ and *strew* have been influenced by *blow — blowen*. In pure verbal use the weak past participle *strewed* is more common than the strong form *strewn*, but in adjective use the strong form seems to be the favorite: ‘They have *strewed* (or *strewn*) the floor with sand,’ but ‘a floor *strewn* (or *strewed*) with sand,’ ‘a pathway *strewn* (or *strewed*) with flowers.’ ‘The table was *strewen* (or *strewed*) with papers.’

⁶ ‘Enemy statements are suspect.’ Compare 60 A c (2nd par.). This form has become established under French influence.

⁷ Widely used in America though now obsolete in England, which prefers the newer form *sweated*: ‘He *sweat* plentifully during the night.’ As a causative the form in -ed is the usual one also in America: ‘His physician *sweat*
Present | Past | Past Participle
--- | --- | ---
sweat (caus.) | sweated | sweated
sweep | swept | swept
swell | swelled | swelled
 | swoll † | swollen 2
 | | |
taint | tainted | tainted †
teach | taught (59 2 B a) | taught †
teach | taught | taught †
tell | told (59 2 B a) | told †
tell | told | told †
thaw | thawed | thawed
 | thew † 4 | thawn †
think | thought | thought
 | thunk (dial.) | thunk (dial.)
threat † | threatened † | threatened †
thrett † | thrett † | thrett †
thresh, thrash 5 | thresher, threshered | thresher, threshered

him.' This form is universal also in 'sweated labor,' 'sweated workman,' 'sweated clothes,' etc. Compare 60 A c.
This word is avoided in refined speech in the ordinary physical senses, where it is replaced by perspire: 'He perspired plentifully during the night.' It is, however, still freely used of things, also of persons in figurative language: 'The place was so damp that the walls sweat.' 'They made him sweat for it.'

1 The dialectic forms sweep, swep, swep 1 are strong after the analogy of dialectic leap, lep, lēp. Compare footnote to leap.
2 Swollen is for the most part the usual form in adjective function: 'swollen cheeks,' 'the swollen river,' 'swollen estimates.' 'The cheeks are swollen.' 'The river is swollen.' Swollen and swelled are now differentiated in 'swollen head' (swollen from physical causes) and 'swelled head' (swelled by conceit). As a pure verb swelled is the more common form: 'The wood has swelled from moisture.' 'A creek that had been swelled by a spring freshet' (Victor Appleton, Don Sturdy in the Port of Lost Ships, Ch. I). 'Our hearts have often swelled with indignation at the sight of these conditions.' 'The crowd around the door had swelled to a considerable size.' 'The army had been swelled by large reinforcements.' 'A lively breeze has swelled our sails.' Even in pure verbal function, however, swollen is sometimes still used of a swelling arising from a diseased condition: 'My face has swelled, or swollen, considerably in the last two hours.' Figuratively: 'The river has swelled, or swollen, a good deal during the night.' The past participle swollen is used more widely in England than in America.
3 Still used in popular speech.
4 In popular speech the parts of thaw are sometimes thaw, thaw, thawn after the analogy of draw, drew, drawn. In older English thawn was in limited use also in the literary language.
5 Thrash was originally a mere variant of thresh, but it has become differentiated in meaning from it, now being used with the force of flog soundly, conquer, surpass, and, in a nautical sense, make way against wind or tide, as in 'We thrashed to windward.'
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<th>Present</th>
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<th>Past Participle</th>
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<td>thrive</td>
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<td>thrust</td>
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<td>toss</td>
<td>tossed (\text{tost}](^\dagger)</td>
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<td>touch, tech(^2)</td>
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<td>use to (\dagger) (522b, \text{2nd par.})</td>
<td>used to ((\text{astu}) (\text{or \text{aste}})) usen to ((\text{dial.}) (3))</td>
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1 Thrive, thrived, thrived are the more common forms in America, while thrive, thrrove, thriven are preferred in England.

2 The parts in popular speech are locally tech, toch, toch: ‘Trojan fotch him his revolver and he wouldn’t tech it’ (Lucy Furman, *Mothering on Perilous*, Ch. XXVII). ‘I haint toch my hand to a game of keeps this whole school’ (*ib.*, Ch. XXVIII).

3 In older English employed in the different tenses, but now confined to the past tense and the past participle: ‘I used to do it.’ ‘I am used to doing it.’ ‘He did not use, or used not, to smoke,’ or colloquially ‘He didn’t use, or usedn’t (usen’t), to smoke,’ where Americans prefer the do-forms, Britishers the simple form. In America and England both constructions are often blended in colloquial and popular speech: ‘I didn’t use to mind your embarrassing me’ (Sinclair Lewis, *Dodsworth*, last Ch.). Similarly in the positive form: ‘It did used to be a willow’ (Wells, *Mr. Britling Sees It Through*, p. 74). In questions we say: ‘Did you use to do such things?’ or ‘Used you to do such things?’

In dialect the strong past participle usen is employed, which is used also as a past tense: ‘Me and you ain’t usen ter dese small-town slow ways’ (DuBose Heyward, *Porgy*, p. 82). ‘He usen tuh hate all dese children’ (*ib.*, p. 64). Originally, of course, the verb was weak. In certain British dialects a weak suffix is added to the strong: ‘I can’t think as it usened to smell so’ (George Eliot, *Silas Marner*, p. 268).

4 A little earlier in the period still in use in adjective function: ‘With washen hands They took the salted meal’ (W. C. Bryant, *Iliad*, I, 563, A.D. 1870). In a recent poem of the English poet Rupert Brooke, *The Great Lover*, which appeared in 1914, we find ‘Washen stones gay for an hour.’ Still earlier in the period it was employed with full verbal force: ‘When you give her casting of flannel or cotton, take care to have them washen as clean as they can be’ (J. Campbell, *Mod. Faulconry*, 199, A.D. 1773).

6 The parts wed, wedded, wedded are the usual ones in England, while in America wed, wed, wed (60 A c) are more common: ‘MISS LUCIA B. PAGE TO BE WED ON SEPT. 9’ (headlines in *The New York Times*, Aug. 31, 1933).
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In adjective function, however, the past participle wedded is universal: 'wedded life.' 'I am not wedded to this idea.' In the substantive relation we say 'newly wed,' but 'among the happily wedded.'

1 The short form wet is little used in England for either the past tense or the past participle, but it is widely employed in America: 'He wet his lips.' 'The rain has wet the grass.' But the longer form wetted is used also in America in the passive to distinguish the participle from the adjective wet: 'The particles of copper sulphide become wetted by the oil' (Smith's Intermediate Chemistry, p. 511). It is used in America also with the objective predicate (8, 4th par.) adverb down to indicate the result of the action: 'He filled the ditch with earth and wetted it down.'

2 Wont, the past participle of the obsolete verb won (= dwell, be accustomed), has an expanded form wonted, which is used principally as an adherent (8) adjective: 'He is (was, has been) wont to act with energy,' but 'He acted with his wonted energy.' From the past participle wont, used in the sense of accustomed, has been formed the verb wont, which has as past tense the forms wonted or wont: 'He wonts to act with energy.' 'In those days he wonted, or wont, to act with energy.' In older English, the third person singular of the present tense was sometimes without an ending, after the analogy of list and hight, which also end in t: 'I bear it on my shoulders as a beggar wont (= wonts to bear) her brat' (Shakespeare, The Comedy of Errors, IV, iv, 38). The verb wont has not yet developed an infinitive or a participle. It has also never become so common as is (was) wont, which itself is only used in poetry or choice prose. From the old participle wont has been formed the noun wont: 'He will, as is his wont, act with energy.'

Scott used archaically the old form wonn’d in the sense of dwell: 'Up spoke the moody Elfin King, Who wonn’d within the hill' (Alice Brand, X).

3 'Wrought iron,' 'overwrought nerves.' It is used also in certain expressions as a verbal participle: 'a belief which has wrought much evil.' Also the past wrought is still used in certain expressions: 'She wrought upon his feelings.' 'This wrought infinite mischief.'
61. Strong verbs form the past tense without a suffix, by changing the root vowel: eat, ate; know, knew.

They form the past participle with the suffix -en or -n: eaten, known. The vowel of the past participle may be either the same as that of the past tense, or the same as that of the present tense, or it may be different from that of both: tread, trod, trodden; shake, shook, shaken; drive, drove, driven.

In many verbs the suffix of the past participle has disappeared: bind, bound, bound. The older form of the participle in -en is often preserved in adjectives: ‘The ship has sunk,’ but ‘a sunken ship.’

The past tense of see may serve as an example:

1 These old forms, still found in poetic language, are old strong participles of the once strong verb writhe, which formerly had a wider meaning than now, namely, ‘twist,’ ‘turn,’ ‘bind.’ The old participles preserve the old meaning: ‘The tawny stream . . . Of intertwining writhen snakes was full’ (Morris, *Earthly Paradise*, Doom of King Acrisius, 72, A.D. 1868–1870). ‘“Red Injun stuff, hey?” scoffed Beemis from between writhen lips’ (Albert Payson Terhune, *Treasure*, Ch. XIII, A.D. 1926). ‘And they put the two wreathen chains of gold in two rings on the ends of the breastplate’ (*Exodus*, XXXIX, 17). ‘And all the scowling faces became smile-wreathen’ (Annie Besant, *Autobiography*, 74, A.D. 1893). Wreathen arose in Middle English as writhen, a variant of writhen (a regular past participle of the first class [62] of strong verbs). This Middle English development of i into e (later often written ea) was once a common feature of the past participles of this class. Wreathen is the only surviving participle with this form. In early Modern English, there were other participles with this form: ‘I would have wreiten (now written) to you’ (*Seafield, Letter*, A.D. 1685).

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<th>Subjunctive</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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<td>I saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you saw (old form, thou sawest)</td>
<td>you saw (thou sawest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he saw</td>
<td>he saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we saw</td>
<td>we saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you saw (old form, ye saw)</td>
<td>you (ye) saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they saw</td>
<td>they saw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Middle English, there was in strong verbs no *est*-ending in the second person singular of the *thou*-form as now. See Middle English past tense in 3 below. In early Modern English, the weak *est*-ending was extended to strong verbs, but in the early part of the period there was sometimes no *-est* here, as in older English: ‘And nowe behold the thing that thou erewhile Saw only in thought’ (Thomas Sackville, *Induction to Mirror to Magistrates*, LXXVI, A.D. 1563). This form without *-est* was sometimes extended to weak verbs. Compare 59 (last par.). This form served also as a subjunctive: ‘If thou saw thyne enimie thus mangled and wounded, it might styrre thee to take compassion vpon him’ (John Fisher, *Works*, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser., p. 403, early sixteenth century). Later, the subjunctive here, differing from usage in the present, took *-(e)st*, as in the indicative. The ending *-(e)st* is now usually employed in all past indicatives and subjunctives, strong or weak, except in the case of *wast* and *wert* (1 c below). The regular ending of full verbs not ending in *-ed* is *-est*, but it is *-st* for those ending in *-ed* and for the auxiliaries other than *wast* and *wert*: ‘thou wrotest,’ ‘thou sleptest,’ but ‘thou lovèdest,’ ‘thou didst,’ ‘thou shouldst,’ ‘thou wouldst.’ Sometimes, however, the ending is dropped, whether the form be indicative or subjunctive: ‘I heard Thee when Thou bade me spurn destruction’ (S. V. Benét, *John Brown’s Body*, p. 32).

1. **Irregular Past Tense.** There is one irregular strong past tense form — that of the verb *be*. It preserves certain peculiarities of older inflection, as can be seen by comparing its forms with the Old English forms in 2 below. The vowel of the plural indicative is different from that of the singular. As the common form for the second person singular is historically the second person plural, as in 56, its vowel is different from that of the first and third persons. The vowel of the subjunctive is uniform throughout, being the same as that of the indicative plural.

Past tense forms of *be*:


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I was</td>
<td>I were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you were (old forms, thou wast, wert, wart, † werst, † were †)</td>
<td>you were (thou wert, werest, † werst, † were †)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he was</td>
<td>he were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we were</td>
<td>we were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you were (old form, ye were)</td>
<td>you (ye) were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they were</td>
<td>they were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. In older English, war was dialectically used instead of was. The singular form war or were is still heard here and there in British dialect. Also in American dialect: ‘Robbins (name) war a good man’ (DuBose Heyward, Porgy, p. 33). ‘I follered singing when I were young’ (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. I). The contracted negative form wa’n’t or warn’t was once sometimes employed in the literary language: ‘No, that wa’n’t it’ (Sheridan, The Rivals, II, 1, a.d. 1775). This form survives in popular speech: ‘I’m plumb sure it was a Swamp Hole boat. Reckon ‘twan’t none of ourn’ (Ralph Henry Barbour, Pud Pringle Pirate, Ch. XIX). ‘When she warn’t scoldin’ Amos, she was scoldin’ about him’ (Amy Lowell, East Wind, p. 113). The contraction in the literary language is now, of course, wasn’t, as it rests upon the literary past tense was.

b. In older English, in accordance with the general usage elsewhere of one form for singular and plural in the past tense, was was often used for were in the second person where the reference was to a single individual: ‘And was you in company with this lawyer?’ (Fielding, Tom Jones, Book XVIII, Ch. V). ‘I conclude you was eased of that friendly apprehension’ (Alexander Pope, Letter to Swift, Mar. 25, 1736). Compare Syntax, 8 I 1 h

Note.

c. In the second person singular the indicative form wert occurs sometimes still as a variant of wast: ‘Just now thou wert but a coward’ (Kingsley, Westward Ho! Ch. XVIII). In early Modern English, the old forms were, wart, werst, were still in use here. Were is the old original form without a consonantal ending, as in 61 (last par.). The ending –t in wert, wart, and wast is after the analogy of the –t in art (thou art). The –st in werst is after the analogy of the usual modern ending –st, as in 61 (last par.). The corresponding early Modern English subjunctive forms were were, wart, and werest or werst. In the Bible of the seventeenth century the
indicative and subjunctive were differentiated here by the employment of *thou wast* for the former and *thou wert* for the latter. This differentiation is in general still observed, but there is some fluctuation, *thou wert* sometimes being used instead of *thou wast*.

d. As the past subjunctive has become identical in form with the past indicative in all verbs except *be*, we often in colloquial speech find the past indicative singular *was* used as a past subjunctive singular instead of the regular *were*, after the analogy of other verbs in which the past subjunctive is identical in form with the past indicative: ‘He looks as if he *was* sick.’ In older English, this usage often occurs in the literary language: ‘I shall act by her as tenderly as if I *was* her own mother’ (Richardson, *Pamela*, II, p. 216). Compare Syntax, 44 II 5 C (2nd par.).

2. Old English Past Tense. The vowel of the plural indicative and the second person singular is, in most verbs, different from that of the first and third persons singular. The vowel of the subjunctive is uniform throughout, being the same as the vowel of the indicative plural.

The strong verbs *bind, help, fare*, inflected in the present tense in Old English form in 56 3 a, are inflected in the past tense in Old English form as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. band</td>
<td>bande</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
<td>band</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bunde</td>
<td>healp</td>
<td>för</td>
<td></td>
<td>bunde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. band</td>
<td>healp</td>
<td>för</td>
<td></td>
<td>bunde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural, 1, 2, 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bundon</td>
<td>hulpon</td>
<td>föron</td>
<td></td>
<td>bunden</td>
<td>hulpen</td>
<td>fören</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Participle (ge) bunden, holpen, faren**

3. Middle English Past Tense. The past tense forms of the verbs in 2 above are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>help</th>
<th>fare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. { band</td>
<td>bande</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
<td>bounde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bounde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
<td>bond</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. { band</td>
<td>bande</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
<td>bounde</td>
<td>hulpe</td>
<td>före</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The participle prefix \(-y\) was at this time in general characteristic of southern English. The plural ending \(-en\), as found in the inflections given above, was characteristic of the Midland and South. In the North it was dropped early in the period. In the literary language the \(-e(n)\) disappeared at the close of the fifteenth century.

**CLASSES OF STRONG VERBS**

62. There were in older English seven well-defined classes of these verbs, grouped together on the basis of the vowels of their present and past tense and their past participle, as illustrated by the following seven verbs, each of which represents its own class:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Old English Classes**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>writan</td>
<td>write</td>
<td>writen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>ceosan</td>
<td>choose</td>
<td>coren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>singan</td>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>beran</td>
<td>bear</td>
<td>boren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>sittan</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>seten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>scacan</td>
<td>shake</td>
<td>scacen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>blawan</td>
<td>blow</td>
<td>blawan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>write(n)</td>
<td>write(n)</td>
<td>written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>cheese(n), chöse(n)</td>
<td>curen, chöse(n)</td>
<td>coren, chösen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>singe(n)</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>bëre(n), bäre</td>
<td>bëre(n)</td>
<td>bören</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>sitë(n)</td>
<td>såt, såte</td>
<td>sæte(n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>schäke(n)</td>
<td>schök</td>
<td>schäken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>blowe(n)</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blowan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Alongside of this form was the variant ceosan, from which M.E. choose(n) and our present form choose come.
2 Spelling variants of schök, schöke(n).
Modern English Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. write</th>
<th>wrote</th>
<th>wrote</th>
<th>written</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II. choose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>chosen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. sing</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. bear</td>
<td>bare,¹ bore</td>
<td>bare,¹ bore</td>
<td>born, borne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. sit</td>
<td>sat, sate¹</td>
<td>sat, sate¹</td>
<td>setten,¹ sitten¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. shake</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>shaken, shook¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. blow</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For many years there have been forces working upon the vowels of these verbs and upon the verbs themselves, affecting them in many ways and thus breaking up the old classes. Earlier in the present period, a number of words in the fourth class had a in their past tense and o in the perfect participle: bear, bare, born; break, brake, broken; speak, spake, spoken; steal, stale, stolen. Gradually the o of the past participle assimilated to itself the a of the past tense, so that bare, brake, spake, stale, became bore, broke, spoke, stole. In choose, cleave, freeze — verbs of the second class — a similar development has taken place, the Old English plural vowel u of the past tense conforming in Middle English to the o of the past participle, to which still later the singular vowel conformed. Thus the Old English past tense plurals curon, clufon, fruron, later in the Middle English period, following the analogy of the past participles chosen, cloven, frosen, became chose(n), clove(n), frose(n). Still later in early Modern English, the vowel of the singular was conformed to that of the plural, chees — chose(n), cleef — clove(n), frees — frose(n), becoming chose — chose, clove — clove, froze — froze. In the thirteenth century, get and speak were in the fifth class with the principal parts geten, gat, geten; spéken, spack, spéken. Later these verbs came under the influence of the fourth class (bear, bar or bare, born), their principal parts becoming gét, gat or gate, göten; speak, spack or spake, spöken. Then in the modern period get and speak developed along with bear, as described above, so that the parts became gét, göt, göten; speak, spöke, spöken. Thus certain verbs from the second, fourth, and fifth classes have been thrown together and the old organization has in part been broken up. In older English the vowels in the parts of get were long or short. The short vowels have prevailed: get, got, gotten.

In all these examples the common feature is that the vowel of the past participle has influenced the vowel of the past tense. Something similar and yet different has taken place in modern popular speech in a number of verbs — the past tense has assumed

¹ Now obsolete.
the form of the past participle: seen, done, taken, etc., serving both as a past tense and as a past participle. The monosyllabic forms, as seen and done, are widely used, but the disyllabic forms, as taken, written, etc., are for the most part confined to popular southern American English, also been and gone. Earlier in the period, gin, contracted past participle of give, was widely employed as past tense, but it is now yielding to give (63 under give), a present tense used as a past tense. The use of past participle as past tense originated in southeastern British, but now has its widest boundaries in southern American English. For examples see footnotes in 63 under be, do, go, see, take, write. In all these cases the past tense has not only the vowel of the past participle but also the -(e)n of the participial suffix.

On the other hand, the past tense, in a number of verbs, has assimilated to itself the form of the past participle: abide — abode (in older English abidden); bite — bit — bit (or more commonly bitten, as in older English); shine — shone — shone; get — got — got (or in America still quite commonly gotten, as in older English); sit — sat — sat (in older English setten or sitten). Similarly, instead of drive — drove — driven, ride — rode — ridden, write — wrote — written, shake — shook — shaken, etc., we often find in older English drive — drove — drove, ride — rode — rode, write — wrote — wrote, shake — shook — shook, etc. These new forms, however have not become established. The older past participles are now always used in the literary language, but the newer ones survive in popular speech.

In a few cases the vowel of the past tense was in early Modern English influenced by the vowel of the past participle, and later the new past tense was used also as a past participle: bite, bote,† bitten becoming bite, bit, bit; slide, slode,† slidden becoming slide, slid, slid. The new past participle slid is more common than the older form slidden, but the new past participle bit is not so widely used as the older form bitten. There were once more verbs in this new class: write, writ, writ; ride, rid, ridd; stride, strid, strid (still lingering in England). For the most part these new forms survive only in popular speech. A weak verb has been attracted into this strong class: light, lit, lit after the analogy of bite, bit, bit. Compare light in 60 B. The formation of this new strong type was facilitated by the old weak type of the same form, hide, hid, hied, described in 59 2 B c. It is characterized by a long vowel in the present tense and a short vowel in the past tense and the past participle.

The old classes have been disturbed, not only by analogies between the past tense and the past participle, but also by analogies
between the singular and the plural of the past tense. In older English, there is often a different vowel in the singular and the plural of the past indicative, as can be seen by a glance at the classes given above. In modern English, the plural vowel has, in a number of verbs, especially in the third class, become assimilated to the vowel of the singular: (Middle English) rang — runge(n), sang — sung(e)n, schrank — schrunke(n), sank — sunke(n), sprang — sprunge(n), stank — stunke(n), swam — swumme(n); (Modern English) rang — rang, sang — sung, shrank — shrank, sank — sank, sprang — sprang, stank — stank, swam — swam.

On the other hand, six words in this class now have in both singular and plural the old plural vowel, which has thus assimilated to itself the vowel of the singular: slung — slung, slunk — slunk, spun — spun, strung — strung, swung — swung, wrung — wrung.

In a number of verbs in the fourth class the quantity of the vowel in the plural of the past tense has influenced the quantity of the vowel in the singular of the same tense. In the fourteenth century the vowel of the singular was still usually short — bar, brack, cam, spack, stal, tar. Occasionally the singular vowel became long under the influence of the long plural vowel e in the same tense: spak (Wyclif, Sel. Wrks., III, 265, A.D. 1380). Later, long a was indicated by writing e after the final consonant: spake (Paston Letters, II, 14, A.D. 1461). The long past — bare, brake, spake, stale, tare — was the common form from the late fifteenth to the seventeenth century, although the older form with the short vowel still lingered on alongside of it. These new singular forms soon became established also in the plural, displacing the older forms with the stem vowel e. But, as described above, there arose in the sixteenth century a new type of past tense here — bore, spoke, stole, tore.

The long a of the past tense, described in the preceding paragraph, should not be confounded with the long a found in northern British dialect in the past tense of verbs of the first class — drawe, rade, rase (or raise), strade, strake, strawe, thrave, etc.: 'Where'er I gaed, where'er I rade' (Burns, Mauchline Lady). In Scotch this long a is often written ai. This long a is a development out of the long a found here in Old English. Earlier in the present period we find a long a in this same group of words also in the literary language, but it is an analogical formation following the example of spake and the other past tenses described in the preceding paragraph: 'Huon lyft up his sworde and strake therewith the admyrall' (Lord Berners, Huon, I, p. 153, A.D. 1534).

The verb choose in the second class has experienced a number of
assimilations. By 1200 the consonants of the past participle *coren* had become assimilated to the consonants of the present tense and the singular of the past tense, becoming *chosen*. Later, this form assimilated to itself the old plural *cure(n)* of the past tense, which thus became *chose(n)*.

There is another force that has long been active in breaking up the old classes — a strong trend in the direction of the weak inflection, so that parts of certain verbs are now weak.

Consequently, what we have left of the old classes is merely scattered clusters of words which still cling together. Thus after the model of *write, wrote, written* in the first class we still inflect *drive, ride, rise, arise, shrive (60 B), smite, stride, thrive (60 B), strive*. There are also other groups of verbs which cling together, but there are so many irregularities that it is thought best to recognize that the old classes are definitely broken up and hence to put all the strong verbs into an alphabetical list (63) for convenient reference.

**LIST OF STRONG VERBS**

**63.** There are now less than one hundred strong verbs in our language. For many centuries there has been a steady loss in favor of the weak class. In only a few cases have weak or foreign verbs been drawn into the strong class. *Ring* was originally weak, but in Middle English became strong after the analogy of *sing*. Similarly, the originally weak verb *string* has become strong under the influence of *sling*. The weak verbs *chide, hide,* and the borrowed verb *strive* have been influenced by the strong verb *ride*, the first two following it frequently in the past participle, *strive* following it throughout. Similarly, *wear* has become strong under the influence of *tear*. In early Modern English, *stick* could still be inflected weak. Also *dig*, once regularly with the past tense and past participle *digged*, has, for the most part, become strong. After the analogy of *blow — blown* have arisen *show — shown, sow † (now *sew*) — sown † (now *sewn* in England, but in America *sewed*), *straw † (now *strew*) — strown † (now *strewn*). After the analogy of *blow, blew, blown* came into use *snow, snew † (now *snowed*), snown † (now *snowed*). After the analogy of *draw, drew, drawn* arose *saw, sew † (now *sawed*), sawn* (used in England, but in America the original weak *sawed* is still the common form). As can be seen by the examples the development here is uneven. In some cases the new strong forms have become established, in others they have disappeared, yielding to the original weak forms. The new strong forms maintained themselves better in England.
than in America. The weak class has made another important contribution to the strong. The old weak verb *wend, went, went* with the transitive meaning *direct* (one's way, course) and the intransitive meaning *go* has furnished the old strong verb *go* with a past tense, relinquishing to it its past tense *went* for use as an intransitive and reforming its parts to *wend, wended, wended* for use in its old transitive meaning. Compare 59 2 B d.

In the following list are given only such strong verbs as are still prevailingly strong. Old strong verbs that are now prevailingly weak but have strong forms alongside of the weak are given in 60 B with irregular weak verbs. Where there is fluctuation in usage, the more common form is given first. The variant (i.e. the different form) may be a less common strong form, or, on the other hand, a vigorous weak form, as in the case of *waked*, which is now widely used, especially in the past participle. Sometimes, as in the case of *weaved*, the weak form has not yet gained wide currency. The verb *shine* is strong only as an intransitive. The causative (12 1 a) *shine* is weak although the intransitive *shine* is strong, while in general causatives have the forms of the corresponding intransitives: ‘The boy *swam* across the river’ and ‘The boy *swam* his horse across the river,’ but ‘The sun *shone* brightly all day,’ while we say, ‘He *shined* our shoes last night.’ We now feel the causative *shine* as belonging to the noun *shine* rather than to the intransitive *shine*. Causative *shine* is an American verb. In the case of one old verb only the form for the first and the third person of the past tense survives, namely, *quoth* (= *said*), now only used archaically or in quoting contemptuously, always with the inverted word-order: *quoth he* (or *she*, etc.). Another old strong verb — *worth* ‘be’ — survives only in a few expressions in the third person singular of the subjunctive: *Woe *worth* the day! = Woe *be* to the day! Compare *Syntax*, 6 B (last par.). Forms now used only as adjectives have an asterisk after them. In most cases these forms once had verbal force. Whenever a verbal form is obsolete in plain prose or now used only in poetry, it is marked by a dagger. On the other hand, in older English these words were in common use. By older usage is here meant the usage of the earlier part of the modern English period. This older usage, in many cases, survives in popular speech or in certain dialects. This is usually indicated in the case of widely used popular forms. Many other old literary forms, however, survive here and there in out-of-the-way places that are not in easy touch with the rest of the country. The forms now employed in the literary language and good colloquial speech are given in roman type. Dialect, popular speech, and older literary forms
are given in italics. A dagger after a word in italics indicates an older literary form. In early Modern English there were in a large number of cases, even in the literary language, two or more forms for past tense and past participle. This older order of things survives in popular speech.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>abode, abidden†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>arised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>awake ²</td>
<td>awoke</td>
<td>awoke, awoken,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>awake *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ In the meaning ‘dwell’ the more common parts are abide, abode, abode, but in other meanings the parts abide, abided, abided now seem more natural: ‘All the other thinkers abided by the conclusions to which they were led’ (Lewes, Hist. of Phil., p. 63).

² Wake, awake, waken, and awaken are closely related. They are now usually progressives (62 2 a), i.e. indicate entrance into the waking state: ‘I awoke early.’ In older English, wake was often used also as a durative with the meaning remain awake: ‘You promised to wake with me the night before my wedding’ (C. Brontë, Jane Eyre, Ch. XXV). The first two of these verbs are often strong, the last two are always regular weak forms. Wake is often accompanied by the ingressive particle up to emphasize the moment of awaking. Examples: ‘I woke (or waked) up early.’ ‘He woke (or waked) me up early.’ ‘I’ve just waked up.’ ‘I’ve just waked him up.’ Likewise awake: ‘I awoke early.’ ‘I’ve just awaked.’ ‘I awoke him early.’ ‘I’ve just awaked him.’ In the passive waken and awaken are the favorites: ‘I was wakened (or awakened) by the noise.’ In figurative language awake and awaken are preferred, awake in intransitive and awaken in transitive or intransitive function: ‘After that new ambitions arose (or awakened) within him.’ ‘That awakened new ambitions within him.’ Awaken is the proper form here in the passive: ‘New ambitions were awakened within him.’ In Middle English (a)wake belonged to the same strong class as shake, and if it had developed regularly, its parts would now be (a)wake, (a)wook, (a)waken. The shortened form of the past participle, namely, awake, survives as an adjective. In the fourteenth century weak forms began to appear alongside of the old strong ones, and in Shakespeare’s day entirely displaced them. In the seventeenth century, however, new strong forms sprang up under the influence of speak: (a)wake, (a)woke, (a)woke(n). In our own time the new strong form is quite a favorite in the past tense and the weak form a favorite in the past participle, but sometimes we hear (a)waked in the past tense. In British English the strong forms awoke, awoken, woken, woke still occur in the past participle: ‘They had woken her from a very delightful sleep’ (Walpole, Fortitude, I, Ch. III). ‘It was seven years since Horace Walpole, sleeping beneath the crochets of Strawberry Hill, had seen the giant fist of mail lying on his banisters and woken to write “The Castle of Otranto” ’ (London Times, Sept. 15, 1932). ‘An evil dream from which you had awoken’ (ib., July 5, 1925). ‘Past woke, waked, past participle waked, woken, woke’ (Concise Oxford Dictionary). In American English the past participle (a)woke(n) is confined to colloquial and popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be, bee †</td>
<td>was (61 1)</td>
<td>been, † bene †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(57 1)</td>
<td>been (pop. 2)</td>
<td>bin, † ben, † be †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bear, bere † 3</td>
<td>bore</td>
<td>borne 4, borned 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(‘bring forth’)</td>
<td>bare †</td>
<td>borne 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bear, bere † 3</td>
<td>bäre, † beared †</td>
<td>borne 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(‘carry’)</td>
<td>beat, bel † 5, belt † 5</td>
<td>beaten, beat 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beat, bète, † 5 bel † 5</td>
<td>beat, bett † 5, beated †</td>
<td>beated, † bett, † betten † 6, befallen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>befall</td>
<td>befall</td>
<td>begotten</td>
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<tr>
<td>beget</td>
<td>begot</td>
<td>begoten</td>
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<tr>
<td>begät, † begäte †</td>
<td>began, begun † 9, begun, began †</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>begin 10</td>
<td>begin, began †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 In England ‘been’ is pronounced been or bin, more commonly the former. In America the usual pronunciation is bin, dialectically bën. In the period before the colonization of America ‘been’ was often pronounced and written bin by prominent English writers, so that bin is not an American creation: ‘if it had bin possible’ (Sir Walter Raleigh, Discoverie of Guiana, p. 6, A.D. 1596). In older English bene was sometimes employed as a spelling variant of been. Bee was a common spelling variant of the present tense form be.

2 ‘Dat ol’ shu’t o’ you’ own been (= was) too ol’ fo’ patch any mo” (Julia Peterkin, Green Thursday, p. 59). This is popular southern American English. See 62 (p. 302).

3 An older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by bear.

4 ‘He was born in Chicago.’ But: ‘She has never borne children.’ ‘He was the last child borne by her.’ ‘The tree has never borne fruit.’ In many British and American dialects the weak -ed is added to the strong past participle born: ‘He was borned in 1852.’ This new past participle is sometimes used as a past tense: ‘The mare borned a colt’ (Dialect Notes, III, p. 537). The old literary past participle bore (= borne) is still widely used in popular speech: ‘My trees ain’t bore so good this year.’

6 Older spelling, later in the sixteenth century replaced by beat. In early Modern English there was alongside of the long-voweled bete or beat the short-voweled bett.

7 Often in the sense ‘surpassed’: ‘In football we have always beaten (or often beat) them.’ ‘Well I [have] got you beat, I [have] been in leather longer than that?’ (John Herrmann, The Big Short Trip). In adjective function in the position before the noun the past participle is usually beaten: ‘the beaten football team.’ Used as a predicate adjective the past participle is now always beat in dead-beat (tired out): ‘She sank down dead-beat on the doorstep.’ In this meaning this word is not now so common in America as in England, but it is widely used in America as a noun: a deadbeat, one who sponges on others.

8 ‘No such misfortune has befall me these douzen years’ (Franklin, Works, I, 191, A.D. 1732).

9 Survives in popular speech.

10 Popular form after the analogy of set — set: ‘Half ways back to camp, Smoky begin to notice big dusts on both sides of him’ (Will James, Smoky, Ch. VIII). Compare 59 2 B b.
LIST OF STRONG VERBS

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<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>behold</td>
<td>beheld</td>
<td>beholden *1</td>
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<tr>
<td>bespeak</td>
<td>bespoke</td>
<td>bespoken</td>
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<tr>
<td>bid 3</td>
<td>både (bâde), båd †</td>
<td>bidden, unbidden *</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bid</td>
<td>bid, bâde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bode, † bod †</td>
<td>boden, † bodden †</td>
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</table>

1 'I don't like to be beholden to anybody.' Earlier in the period it could have pure verbal force: 'Within a small distance we might perceive a farre more cleere and radiant light than euer before till that present wee had beholden' (B. Rich, Greenes Newes from Heauen and Hell, p. 13, A.D. 1593).

2 In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the past tense form spoke was often used also as a past participle alongside of spoken. In England bespoke is in adjective function still widely used as a past participle: 'bespoke boots,' i.e. made to order in contrast to ready-made.

3 Bid represents two verbs which in Old English were distinct in form and meanings — biddan (fifth class) 'pray,' 'beg,' 'ask,' 'bid' ('request') and beodan (second class) 'order,' 'command,' 'offer.' The forms of the two old verbs became confounded in Middle English. The forms in present use all belong to Old English bidden. The early Modern English forms bode and bod belong to Old English beodan. The past participle bidden is not a phonetical development of the Old English past participle beden but an analogical formation showing the influence of the vowel of the present tense. The shortened form bid serves also as a past tense.

Modern bid contains the meanings of the two old verbs and in addition the new meanings 'bid at an auction,' 'bid for votes, public favor,' 'bid for the construction of a house,' etc., developments of the old meaning 'offer,' belonging to Old English beodan. The usual parts for all the old original meanings are bid, bade (or less commonly bid), bidden or bid: 'I bade him go.' 'A haggard man bid (more commonly bade) them depart' (Eden Phillpotts, Eng. Rev., Oct., 1913, p. 344). 'I was bidden to go.' 'Do as you are bid.' 'I bade him welcome.' 'The proposed expedition bade fair to be successful.' 'For a long while they bade us defiance.' In Middle English, the idea of bidding, requesting led to that of inviting, which still survives but is not common: 'They were all bidden.' Earlier in the present period the old meaning of 'offer' was still found here: '(They) bade her half the price she asked' (Johnson, The Rambler, No. 161, 10, A.D. 1751). Bade is now replaced here by bid in British English and by offered in American English. The parts for the new meanings are bid, bid, bid: 'Someone bid five dollars.' 'He has often bid for public favor.' 'He bid too high and thus failed to get the contract.' These are weak forms after the analogy of rid, rid, rid, so that bid with these meanings is listed in 60 B among the weak verbs. These parts are used also for the modern meaning invite to membership in a college fraternity or sorority: 'He (or she) had been bid.'

The vowel a of the past tense is long or short, much more commonly, however, short, so that the present spelling bade is misleading. This past tense is not infrequently used by good authors also as a past participle, though not usually recorded as such by grammarians: 'Suppose Pauline had bade me sing!' (Robert Browning, One Way, 12).

In the meaning 'command' bid is now in colloquial speech replaced by tell. 'I told him to do it.'
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bind</td>
<td>bound</td>
<td>bounden * 2</td>
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<td>bite</td>
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<td>bitten</td>
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<td>blow 3</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
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<tr>
<td>blow (poetic)</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
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<tr>
<td>break, breke 4</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chide (59 2 B c)</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>broke † 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>choose, chose, † 6</td>
<td>chose, chase †</td>
<td>chosen, chose † 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chuse † 6</td>
<td>chose, chase †</td>
<td>chosen, chose † 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>cling</td>
<td>clung, clang †</td>
<td>clung, clang †</td>
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<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>came, côme † 8</td>
<td>came, comen † 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cam, † come 8</td>
<td>comed, † came 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 These old forms are preserved in the nouns band, bond, which were originally different forms of the same word, but later became differentiated in meaning.
2 It is still used in attributive adjective function in 'It is my bounden duty.' Earlier in the period it was much used in the predicate: 'I am much bounden (now obliged or indebted) to your Majesty' (Shakespeare, King John, III, iii, 29). Bound is now the usual form also in adjective function: 'a bound volume.' 'I am not bound to do it.'
3 Earlier in the period sometimes weak: blow, blowed, blowed. In loose colloquial and popular speech weak forms sometimes still occur: 'It blowed terribly.' 'He blowed in all the money he had.' 'He cheated in examinations, and even blowed about it.' 'He blowed (told) on me.' In slang: 'I'll be blowed (hanged) if,' etc. In popular speech the past tense blew is sometimes used as a past participle.
4 An older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by break.
5 In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the past tense form broke was often used also as a past participle alongside of broken. It survives in popular speech. It is still used also in colloquial language in the meaning out of money: 'I'm broke.'
6 In older English, chose and chuse were employed as variant spellings of choose. Chuse, however, had a slightly different pronunciation. There was an i-sound before the vowel. This pronunciation survives in British dialects.
7 Still heard in popular speech.
8 In the sixteenth century côme was still in use in the literary language. It was in Old English the usual past tense form. It survives in British dialect, now written coom. In popular speech there is another past tense form come with a different pronunciation, which is the past participle côme used for the past tense. The stem vowel is a short u-sound. The use of this past tense form is furthered by the fact that the present tense has the same form. Compare 59 2 B b.
9 Still heard in British dialects.
10 Heard in American popular speech.
Present | Past | Past Participle
--- | --- | ---
dig | dug (see footnote to strike) | dug

do (57) | did, done | digged, done, did

draw | drew, drewed | drawn, drewed

drink | drank, drunk, drunken | drunk, drunken

drive | drove, drove, driven, drove | driven, drove

eat, eate, ete, ette | ate, ate, ate | eaten, eat, ate

1 Heard in popular speech or dialect. The past participle done is now widely used as a past tense, but usually only as an independent verb: ‘I done my best,’ but ‘I didn’t (auxiliary) go.’ In southern American popular speech done is employed as a past tense auxiliary, but it is then usually followed by a past tense: ‘Tain’t so mighty long sence I done tol’ you ‘bout old Mr. Benjermin Ram’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 297). For explanation of this construction see 47 3 (4). On the other hand, the past tense did is sometimes in American popular speech used also as a past participle.

2 Drew arose in the fourteenth century after the analogy of threw, later gradually replacing older drough and drow.

3 In older English used sometimes in the literary language. It is still sometimes heard in popular speech.

4 Sometimes used in American popular speech.

5 Forms sometimes used in older English in the literary language. They survive in popular speech.

6 Sometimes heard in dialect.

7 Drunk is not only used with pure verbal force but also as a predicate adjective: ‘He has already drunk two cups of coffee.’ ‘He is drunk.’ Also drunken is employed in adjective function, usually however only before a noun in the attributive relation: ‘Before me reeled a drunken sailor.’ In older English, drunken could be used with pure verbal force: ‘Yf it (i.e. cider) be dronken (older spelling variant of drunken) in haruyst, it doth lytell harme’ (Andrewe Boorde, Dyetary of Helth, E.E.T.S., Ex. Ser. 10, p. 257, A.D. 1542).

8 Forms heard in popular speech.

9 The past tense form ate has two different pronunciations. In England, it is pronounced et, less commonly øte (a as in late), in America øte, much less commonly øt, which for the most part is now confined to popular speech. The form øt (now written ate in England) has resulted from a shortening of Middle English øt (e as in there). The long form øt became in early Modern English øt (written eet, ete, øet). Since 1900 this form has been restricted to popular speech. In the language of the common people both øt and øet are used also as past participles, a usage which earlier in the present period obtained also in the literary language. The common American literary past tense øte (a as in late) is of the same origin as the less common British form øte. It arose in the thirteenth century as øt (short ø) after the analogy of spøce. Later, the ø became long and developed into the sound of ø in late: spøke, øte. Spøke has disappeared, but øte survives. In dialect øte is used also as a past participle.
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Present | Past | Past Participle
---|---|---
fall | fell | fallen, fell
fight | fought | fought, foughten
find | found |
fling | flung, flang | flung, flang
fly | flew | flown
forbear | forbore |

1 Survives in dialect and popular speech: ‘But now I know I have fell short of what the Lord my God required of me’ (Lucy Furman, The Glass Window, p. 284).

2 Archaic attributive form: ‘foughten field’ = ‘battle field.’ In older English, foughten was used also with pure verbal force.

3 In popular speech fight, fit, fit are often used after the analogy of bite, bit, bit. The similar analogical development light, lit, lit has become established in the literary language. Compare 62 (p. 302).

4 In Old English, fly had two different sets of meanings, as fly and flee had become confounded. On the one hand, it expressed the idea of a movement by means of wings or rapid movement in general. On the other hand, it was used in the sense of flee with its different shades of meaning. Today fly is still the usual word to express the idea of movement by means of wings or rapid movement in general: ‘The birdies, flew, has flown.’ ‘Fast the happy moments flew’ (R. Browning). In England, fly is still the usual present tense form in the sense flee, so that the parts in this meaning are fly, fled, fled: ‘the flying enemy.’ ‘When the enemy flies, the enemy is flying, the enemy will fly, the enemy fled, has fled.’ Americans use flee, fleeing, fled, fled in this meaning.

A little earlier in the present period, however, fly occurs in this meaning also in American English: ‘When first seized with that indescribable terror which induces them (i.e. frightened horses) to fly, they seem to have been suddenly endowed with all the attributes of their original wild nature’ (Kendall, Narrative of the Texan Santa Fe Expedition, A.D. 1844). Everywhere the past participle flown is still sometimes used instead of fled: ‘It was to England he must have flown (now more commonly fled) for protection’ (Jas. Mill, British India, III, V, VIII, 641). ‘In all ages solitude has been called for, has been flown to’ (Disraeli). ‘O faith, where art thou flown from out the world?’ (Browning, The Ring and the Book, IX, 1319). As fled is not a clear participial form distinct from the past tense flew and there is often need of such in adjective function, most writers avoid it in adjective function and employ the distinctive participial form flown: ‘He had returned to Birmingham to find his lady-love flown’ (Rider Haggard, Mr. Meeson’s Will, Ch. XXII). ‘Time fleets how fast, And opportunity, the irrevocable, Once flown, will flout him’ (Browning, The Ring and the Book, IX, 1230). In the eighteenth century the past tense form flew could still be used instead of fled for sake of rime: ‘And as a hare, whom hounds and horse pursue, Pants to the place from whence at first she flew’ (Goldsmith, Deserted Village, 94), now fled.

The past tense form flew arose in the fifteenth century under the influence of blew, replacing older spigh, spough, and spow. The past participle fine (also written flyen) was formed in the sixteenth century from the present tense and continued in limited use throughout the next century.

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<tr>
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<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>forbid</td>
<td>forbade</td>
<td>forbidden, forbid</td>
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<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>forgot</td>
<td>forgotten</td>
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<td>forsake</td>
<td>forgat, forgate</td>
<td>forgot</td>
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<tr>
<td>freeze</td>
<td>froze, fraze</td>
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<td>get, gæte, git</td>
<td>got, gote</td>
<td>gotten, goten</td>
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<tr>
<td>give, gæve, gin</td>
<td>gave, gived</td>
<td>given, gaven</td>
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<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>went, rope</td>
<td>gotten</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Common in popular speech.
2 Once a literary form, still used in popular speech.
3 In older English the vowel i was sometimes used here instead of e, and git is still heard in certain British dialects, also in American popular speech. In the sixteenth century older gæte still lingered on. Compare 62 (p. 301).
4 Very common in early American English and still common in the spoken and written language of America, though little used in Great Britain. At the time when the first English colonists left England for their new home in America, gotten was a common form also in the mother country. The colonists simply brought it along with them. The later form got — the past tense used as a past participle — began to be used in England in the sixteenth century and gradually displaced gotten there. It is now widely used also in America alongside of gotten. It is even the rule where the form is a mere auxiliary: 'He has never got punished enough.' It is always employed in the expression has got used as a present tense: 'He has got a black eye.'
5 Used in popular speech. Give, shortened from given, is an old past participle once used in the literary language. In popular speech it is still employed as a past participle and now used also as a past tense: 'I had give my hand to the woman there would be no drinking' (Lucy Furman, The Quare Women, Ch. I). 'I give it to him yesterday.' The common use of give as a past tense is furthered by two tendencies — the tendency to employ the past participle also as a past tense and the tendency to use the present tense also as a past tense after the analogy of set — set. Compare 62 (toward end of 2nd par. under Modern English Classes, p. 302) and 59 2 B b. The past tense form gave was once employed also as a past participle: 'O had she then gave over, Such nectar from his lips she had not suck'd' (Shakespeare, Venus and Adonis, 1. 571). This usage survives in popular speech. The popular past participle gin, shortened from given, is used also as past tense: 'His folks gin the letter to me' (James Russell Lowell, The Biglow Papers, No. II). This once common popular past is now largely replaced by give, as described above. Gin is sometimes used as a present: 'Gin it to me.'
6 In early Modern English, yede and yode, older past tense forms of go, were still lingering on. But some of those who used these old forms did not
understand them, for they construed *yede* (also spelled *yeed*) as a present tense and *yode* as its past: ‘On foot was forced for to yeed’ (Spenser, *The Faerie Queene*, II, iv, 2, 3). ‘Forth they yode’ (ib., IV, viii, 34, 6). These two old past tense forms were gradually supplanted by another word which had a similar meaning. *Went* is the old past tense and past participle of the weak verb *wend*, which was once used intransitively in the sense of *go*. In early Modern English, it became established as the usual past tense of *go*. It was at this time sometimes used also as a past participle of *go*, but this usage later disappeared in the literary language. The present use of *went* in popular speech as the past participle of *go* has resulted from the spreading of the past tense form to the past participle. Compare 59 2 B d and 63 (1st par.).

In early Modern English, *go*, the old shortened form of *gone*, was still in use. It survives in *ago*, past participle of the old derivative verb *ago* ‘go by’: ‘Three days ago (lit. *gone by*) I became sick.’ We now feel *ago* as an adverb, since we are no longer conscious that it has anything to do with *go*.

7 ‘I aint fo’git how good you been to me sence Bully gone off an’ lef me’ (Julia Peterkin, *Green Thursday*, p. 154). *Gone* is common as past tense in popular southern American English. Compare 62 (toward end of 2nd par. under Modern English Classes), p. 302.

1 In older English, sometimes used in the literary language, but now restricted to popular speech.
2 In early Modern English, the parts *hang*, *hanged*, *hanged* had not yet become restricted to the narrower sense, but could be used also in the general sense: ‘Also the chambre was *hanged* with riche clothes’ (Lord Berners, *Huon*, I, p. 102, A.D. 1534). In northern British at this time the parts were *hing*, *hang* (or *hung*), *hung*, in the general sense. These northern forms have influenced the literary language. As there is no such verb as *hing* in the literary language, the northern parts have been modified to *hang*, *hung*, *hung*, which have replaced the older literary forms *hing*, *heng* or *hing*, *hangent*. In the best literary usage these new parts are now employed in the general sense and *hang*, *hanged*, *hanged* are restricted to the narrower sense. There is a strong tendency in American and southern British colloquial speech to use *hang*, *hung*, *hung* in both senses. Northern British dialect now has here two verbs with different parts: (general sense) *hing*, *hang* (*hung*), *hung*; (narrower sense) *hang*, *hanged*, *hanged*.
3 An old past participle that still lingers in archaic language, especially in formal reports of meetings, in legal expressions, and in poetry: ‘O yesterday, you know, the fair *Was holden at the town*’ (Tennyson, *The Talking Oak*, 101).
# List of Strong Verbs

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<th>Past Participle</th>
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<td>know</td>
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<tr>
<td>lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>lose, loose</td>
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<td>lorn *</td>
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<td>run, runned</td>
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<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td></td>
<td>seen, saw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. In older English, sometimes used in the literary language, but now restricted to popular speech.
3. In popular speech intransitive lie is often confounded with transitive lay, so that the parts lay, laid, laid are used both intransitively and transitively: ‘Lay (instead of the correct lie) down.’ ‘Lay it down.’ ‘She laid (instead of correct lain) down for a little rest.’ ‘She has laid (instead of the correct lorn) down for a little rest.’ ‘She has laid it down.’ Compare *lay* in 60 B.
4. A strong present tense of the same class as *shoot* and *choose*. Its past tense and past participle have been replaced by the weak form lost, past tense and past participle of a lost weak verb. As the vowel is long in lose and short in lost, the feeling arose that the short past belonged to the long present, as in the large group in 59 2 B c. The same development took place in shoot, shot, shot. Compare 60 B, footnote under *shoot*. Though lose has lost its old strong participle in general use, the old strong forms lorn and forlorn are still employed in adjective function in the meaning ‘forsaken.’
5. Very common in Washington’s Diary: ‘Rid to the Mill and returned to Dinner’ (Dec. 7, 1770). It is still often heard in popular speech. It was earlier in the period used also as a past participle: ‘He has rid out this morning with my father’ (Jane Austen, *Northanger Abbey*, Ch. X). Also this form survives in popular speech: ‘I would have rid to The Forks today, but I hain’t got my strength good yet’ (Lucy Furman, *The Glass Window*, p. 203). Compare 62 (p. 302).
6. Once a literary form, still employed in popular speech or dialect.
7. *Rise, ris, and riz are variant spellings of the same form. The usual spelling now is *riz*, in older English *rise* or *ris*. This form for past tense and past participle was once used in the literary language, but is now confined to popular speech.
8. Once literary forms, now confined to popular speech.
9. Forms used in popular speech. For the use of *seen* as a past see 62 (2nd par. under Modern English Classes, p. 302). *Saw* as a past participle is a new form now heard in popular American English.
10. An old past tense form once used in the literary language, but now confined to popular speech.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shake</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>shaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shaked†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shuck (pop.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shine</td>
<td>shone</td>
<td>shone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(intrans.)</td>
<td>shined†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shrink</td>
<td>shrank, shrunk</td>
<td>shrunk, shrunken*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shronked†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sang, song† 2</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sung, sing 3</td>
<td>song</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sink</td>
<td>sunk</td>
<td>sunk, sunken*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit</td>
<td>sat, sate†</td>
<td>sat, sate†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sot, 4 sit 4</td>
<td>sitten, 4 sitten†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sit(t), 4 sot 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slay, slee,† 5 slea 5</td>
<td>slew</td>
<td>slain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slide</td>
<td>slid (62, p. 302)</td>
<td>slid, slidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>slode,† slided†</td>
<td>slided†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sling</td>
<td>slung, slang†</td>
<td>slung</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>slong,† slinged†</td>
<td>slinged†</td>
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<tr>
<td>sink</td>
<td>slunk, slack†</td>
<td>slunk, slunkened 6</td>
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<td></td>
<td>slonk,† slinked†</td>
<td>slinked†</td>
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<td>smite</td>
<td>smote, smit†</td>
<td>smitten, smote†</td>
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<td></td>
<td>smited†</td>
<td>smit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 An older literary form which survives in dialect.
2 This form was a natural development out of older sang, and was used for a time alongside of it. It has survived in the noun song. But the verb was under the influence of other verbs, as drink (drink, drank, drunk), so that the older form sang finally prevailed.
3 Popular form after the analogy of set — set: ‘I set there and sing for an hour’ (Dialect Notes, III, p. 448).
4 In popular speech and dialect the parts are often set, set or sot, set or sot, i.e. sit is replaced by set. The latter is now often used here in all transitive and intransitive functions: ‘He set or sot (in the literary language always set) it down.’ ‘He set or sot (in the literary language always set) down.’ ‘He set or sot (in the literary language always set) out for home.’ On the other hand, in older English sit was sometimes used in the literary language for intransitive set (Syntax, 46, 4th par.): ‘The coach being ready, the ladies sate (now set) out for the hall’ (Toldervy, Hist. 2 Orphans, I, 109, A.D. 1756). Compare 60 B, footnote to set. In popular speech sit is sometimes used intransitively, as in the literary language, but with the popular parts sit — sit, after the analogy of set — set. Compare 69 B b. The old literary past participles sitten and sitten are still used in northern British dialects. Compare 60 B, let, footnote.
5 Slee and sleea are spelling variants of the old regular present tense, which was still used in early Modern English, but was replaced after the sixteenth century by the irregular form slave with the vowel of the past participle. The past tense form slave arose in the fourteenth century after the analogy of throw, later gradually replacing the older form slough.
6 Used in dialect.
316 LIST OF STRONG VERBS 63

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>speak, spēke †¹</td>
<td>spoke, späck, † späke †</td>
<td>spoken, spoke, †² späke †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spin</td>
<td>spin</td>
<td>spinned †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spring</td>
<td>sprang, sprung</td>
<td>sprung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand</td>
<td>stood, stode †⁴</td>
<td>stood, stode †⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steal, stèle 6</td>
<td>stole, stāl †</td>
<td>stolen, stōle †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stick 7</td>
<td>stuck, sticked †</td>
<td>stuck, sticked †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sting</td>
<td>stung, stang †</td>
<td>stung, stōng †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stink</td>
<td>stank, stuck †</td>
<td>stank, stōck †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stride</td>
<td>strode, striked †</td>
<td>stridden, strīded †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strike, 10 strick †</td>
<td>struck, stroke †</td>
<td>struck, stricken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by speak.
² Once a literary form, still used in popular speech.
³ Still used in England though the less common form.
⁴ In early Modern English stood and stode were different spellings for the same word.
⁵ Stood is the past tense form used also as a past participle, replacing the older past participle stand(ē), which was employed also in the shortened form stand(e). Similarly the old past participle sitten has been replaced by the past tense form sat. In older English, shaken was sometimes replaced by the past tense form shook. We feel shook today as plebeian when used as a past participle. There is nothing plebeian in the use of a past tense as a past participle when good authors so employ it, as in the case of sat and stood. There is often nothing good or bad in the form itself. The use of the best authors stamps it as good. Usage not in harmony with that of the best authors is bad usage. The common people often still use the forms of the great masters of earlier centuries, but these forms are now felt as plebeian because they are not now used by our best authors. Forms, like fashions, come and go. They find favor only when used in season.
⁶ An older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by steal.
⁷ Stick was originally a weak verb. In the first half of the sixteenth century it came under the influence of sting, stung, stung, and the new parts stick, stuck, stuck arose. The past tense stack, which was very common at this time alongside of sticked, shows that stick had been influenced in its inflection by the strong steek †, stack † (or stake † or stoke †), stoken †, a verb with the same meaning. Toward the end of the first half of the sixteenth century stuck began to be common and in the seventeenth century replaced both sticked and stack.
⁸ Occurs occasionally in good authors.
⁹ According to the Concise Oxford Dictionary a rare past participle, but it does not now occur at all in the literary language of America.
¹⁰ In the first half of the sixteenth century it was still usual to employ the
old regular forms strike, stroke, stricken — a verb of the first class, like write, wrote, written. Instead of stroke the spelling stroak was in limited use. In the second half of the sixteenth century the two forms stroak and struck began to compete with the old past stroke. Later, struck replaced both stroke and stroak. The past tense forms strook and struck show that strike was being influenced by other verbs. The past tense strook was after the analogy of shook, past tense of shake. Strook survives in British dialects. The past tense struck was after the analogy of stuck, past tense of stick. Stuck itself was after the analogy of stung, past tense of sting. The development of stuck was facilitated by the old present tense form strick, which had the same vowel as sting and stick. The old weak verb dig joined this group of verbs, the past tense becoming dug. After the analogy of stung the forms stuck, struck, and dug were used also as past participles.

In early Modern English, there were still other past tense forms — strick and strake. Strick had the short vowel of the past participle, as often other words of the same (i.e. the first) class: strike, strick †; write, wrīt †. The once common past tense strake was after the analogy of spake,† stale,† etc.

The old past participle stricken survives in the passive meaning afflicted and, in archaic language, in the old intransitive meaning gone, advanced: ‘I was stricken with fever, paralysis, grief.’ ‘I am stricken in years.’ Elsewhere the past participle is now struck: ‘I was struck with a cane, with amazement.’ But in pure adjective function stricken is still often used, especially in the position before the noun: ‘They were struck with terror,’ but ‘the terror-stricken city.’ The archaic expressions ‘a stricken (i.e. full) hour’ and ‘a stricken field’ (= a pitched battle) still linger on. In American English, stricken is still sometimes used with full verbal force in the expression ‘stricken out’: ‘The clause was objected to and was finally struck (or sometimes stricken) out.’ The past participle stricken † is still heard in northern British dialect. Also in Negro speech: ‘strucken wid de palsy’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 715).

Strick — an old present tense form with shortened vowel — survives in British dialect.

1 Originally weak and still occasionally so earlier in the period. The parts are now, under the influence of sling, always strong, without regard to the meaning. A useful differentiation might be made here between strong forms and regular weak ones: The bow is stringed (provided with a string) and strung (bent to the string). But we now usually say strung in both meanings. As a pure adjective, however, stringed is the usual form: stringed instruments, a gut-stringed racket. We should say hamstring, hamstrung, for the verb is made from the noun hamstring, but some say hamstring, hamstrung.

2 Originally strong or weak, now usually strong, but in America the weak forms sometimes still occur: ‘to achieve a world state of peace, for which men have strived since the time of Alexander’ (Edgar Snow in The Saturday Evening Post, Aug. 26, 1933, p. 69). In older English the past tense strove was used also as a past participle. This older usage survives in popular speech.
### List of Strong Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>swear, swere †</td>
<td>swore, sware †</td>
<td>sworn, swore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swim</td>
<td>swam, swum †</td>
<td>swum, swam †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swing</td>
<td>swung, swang †</td>
<td>swung, swang †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>took, toke †</td>
<td>taken, lane †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tear, tère †</td>
<td>tore, tare †</td>
<td>torn, tore †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throw</td>
<td>threw</td>
<td>thrown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tread</td>
<td>trod, tröde †</td>
<td>trodden, trod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand</td>
<td>understood</td>
<td>understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wake (see awake)</td>
<td>woke, waked</td>
<td>waked, woke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wear, wère †</td>
<td>wore, ware †</td>
<td>worn, wore †</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by *swear*.
2. Once literary, still common in popular speech.
3. In early Modern English, *took* and *toke* are different spellings for the same word.
4. ‘He was working on the highway when I *taken* the order’ (from the letter of a salesman, San Francisco, Aug. 12, 1927). *Taken* as past tense is most common in popular southern American English. Compare 62 (2nd par. under Modern English Classes, p. 302).
5. Once literary, still used in popular speech.
6. Heard in popular speech.
7. Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by *tore*.
8. Once literary, still heard in popular speech.
9. In older English the past tense form *tore* was often used also as a past participle. This usage survives in popular speech. The common people sometimes add the weak ending -ed to the strong past *tore* to form past tense and past participle: *tear, tored, tore*. Compare 60 B (footnote under *fetch*).
10. Once literary, still used in popular speech.
11. Heard in popular speech.
12. Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by *wear*.
13. *Wear* was originally weak. Chaucer used the weak forms, and much later, in the eighteenth century, the weak past *weared* was still lingering alongside of the more common strong form *wore*. *Wear* has become strong under the influence of *tear*.
64 FORMATION OF THE COMPOUND TENSES

64. A compound tense is formed by the use of a present or a past tense of an auxiliary in connection with a participle or an infinitive. The treatment of the different compound tenses follows.

1 Older spelling, replaced in the sixteenth century by weave.
2 Older variant spelling of won.
4 In early Modern English, winded was the regular past tense and perfect participle of the weak verb wind (= sound, blow), which was formed from the noun wind in the fifteenth century at a time when it was pronounced wind: ‘Horns winded within’ (Shakespeare, Midsummer-Night's Dream, IV, i, 106). After the pronunciation of the noun became wind in the course of the eighteenth century, the verb wind was no longer vividly felt as belonging to it and was gradually, by the likeness of sound, brought into relation to the strong verb wind ‘coil,’ ‘twine,’ ‘turn about something’ and finally assumed its parts. Today the old weak forms linger on alongside of the more common strong: ‘And raised a bugle hanging from his neck, And winded it’ (Tennyson, Pelleas and Ettarre, 364). ‘Thither he made and wound the gateway horn’ (id., Elaine, 169). ‘The horn is wound faintly’ (Whittier). ‘The apostles of melancholy wound their faint horns’ (Athenæum). The verb wind ‘get wind of,’ ‘exhaust wind of,’ which is felt as belonging to the noun wind, is always weak: ‘The hounds winded the fox.’ ‘I am winded with the climb.’

5 Still heard in popular speech.
8 See writhe in 60 B, footnote.
65. Present Perfect. This tense is made up of the present tense of the auxiliary *have* and the past participle of the verb to be inflected.

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you have taken (thou hast taken)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he has taken (he hath taken)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. we have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you (ye) have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. they have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participle</strong> having taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infinitive</strong> (to) have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gerund</strong> having taken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a. Time Relations Indicated by Perfect Tense Form of Participle, Infinitive, and Gerund.* As there are no participial, infinitival, or gerundial forms corresponding to the past perfect tense, the present perfect forms must serve both as a present perfect and a past perfect: 'Having been (= As I have been) sick so much, I have learned to take good care of my health.' 'Having finished (= After I had finished) my work, I went to bed.' 'I rejoice to have finished (= that I have finished) it so soon.' 'He is said to have spoken (= It is said that he had spoken) to his brother about it before he did it.' 'After having taken (= I have taken) some exercise, I feel like studying.' 'After having completed (= I had completed) my work, I went to bed.' Compare *Syntax*, 48 2 (6th par.), 49 3, 50 2.

*b. Origin of Present Perfect and Its Present Nature.* We now say 'I have written a letter.' The original form was 'I have a letter written,' so that the form was at the start a present tense. The present form arose from a slight change of the original word order: 'I have written a letter.' Back of this change, of course, was a desire to express an idea a little different from the original one—to express a past act but at the same time to bring it into relation to the present. Our name of this tense—present perfect—is a terse and apt characterization of the inner nature of the form. The original form and meaning, however, did not disappear, for we still often desire to use the words with the full force of the present tense: 'I have all my letters written.' 'I have my garden
spaded and ready for planting.' 'Our football team has all the other teams beaten to a frazzle.'

Our present perfect tense was a natural, much-needed development. It arose in Old English, probably under the influence of the compound popular Latin perfect with the same formation. This Latin formation has become established in a number of other languages, but its original meaning has changed in most of them. In German and French it points not only to the immediate past — its original meaning — but also to a remote act without the slightest relation to the present, thus taking over the two meanings of the simple Latin perfect. In Italian, Spanish, and English it retains more of its original meaning, pointing for the most part to the immediate past. In English the person or thing referred to must be living or still existing and thus related to the present: 'My grandfather has seen a good deal in his lifetime,' but not 'Caesar has seen a good deal in his lifetime.' 'England has had many able rulers,' but 'Assyria had many able rulers,' for Assyria does not now exist as an independent country. The English present perfect can refer to the remote past if the present is not excluded by the statement: 'Such epidemics have occurred in all ages.' Such statements are in English always indefinite. On the other hand, the passing of a single minute may make it impossible to employ the present perfect. A minute before 12 o'clock in the morning we may say 'I have bought a new hat this morning.' A minute later this morning is gone forever and the afternoon is ushered in. After the bell taps twelve we must say 'I bought a new hat this morning,' for the morning belongs to the past. Thus the present perfect distinguishes sharply between present and past. It can never be used for something past. We can say 'I have been in England twice,' for we are thinking of our life, which is not ended; but we cannot say 'I have been in England twice last year,' for last year is past forever.

In the above examples we have seen how closely the present perfect is associated with the present. Sometimes it seems to have the full force of the present: 'I have got a cold' = 'I have a cold.' In our southern American dialect the present perfect assumes the ending of the present tense — the -s that appears in all persons and numbers, as described in 54: '[I have] gots good news' (DuBose Heyward, Porgy, p. 54). Here, however, have got can take the place of have only with reference to the present moment. It can never, like the present of have, be used to express customary action. Thus it cannot replace have in 'We have a good deal of rain here in the fall.'

On the other hand, we often do not employ the present perfect
of a past event closely connected with the present moment. If we think of the past event as past we use the past tense even though only a moment has passed since its occurrence: ‘I am glad you came’ (Hergesheimer, Balisand, p. 203). These words are spoken by a woman standing in the doorway of her house welcoming two visitors. The following examples are similar: ‘Did you see him do it?’ (referring to something that has just taken place). ‘I am sure he did it. I saw him do it.’ ‘Did you ever see anything to beat it?’ (Tarkington, Napoleon Was a Little Man). In referring to something that has taken place the speaker uses the past tense when he speaks in a lively tone with a vivid impression of the past in his mind, i.e. with his mind still turned to the past. He employs the present perfect when he speaks in a calmer, more detached tone, feeling clearly that he is standing in the present looking backward: ‘Have you ever seen anything to beat it?’ Thus the present perfect is the tense of personal experience.

Earlier in the present period the auxiliary of the present perfect of intransitives was often be instead of have. In accordance with older usage be was used with verbs indicating a change of place or condition: ‘The King himself is rode to view the battle’ (Shakespeare, Henry the Fifth, IV, iii, 2). ‘I am this instant arrived here’ (William Marsh, Letter, written at Albany, N. Y., Apr. 18, 1763). ‘Nor do I know what is become of him’ (Butler, Hudibras, I, III, 263, A.D. 1663). ‘For this orphan I am come to you’ (Tennyson, Dora, 89). We still use be when we think of a state pure and simple: ‘My money is all gone.’ ‘Children, you must be good while I am gone.’ ‘He is so terribly changed that you wouldn’t recognize him.’ ‘My children are all grown-up.’ But where the idea of an action as a whole is in our mind, as in the example from Shakespeare, we now employ have, not be, for we now feel have as the more appropriate tense auxiliary to express the terminate (52 3) idea, i.e. an action as a whole: ‘The King has ridden away to view the battle.’ ‘John has grown (an action as a whole) a good deal the last two years, but he is not yet fully grown’ (state). This change has brought us more accurate expression. We can now distinguish action and state.

c. Use of ‘Be’ instead of ‘Have’ with Transitive Verbs. In certain British dialects the auxiliaries have and be are sometimes confounded, so that forms of be are used instead of forms of have. Also in certain American dialects: ‘Is (instead of have) you seed any sign er (of) my gran’son dis mawnin’?’ (Joel Chandler Harris, Nights with Uncle Remus, p. 55).

66. Past Perfect. This tense is made up of the past tense of the auxiliary have and the past participle of the verb to be inflected.
The future tense is expressed in English in two entirely different ways. In the oldest English, the present tense was the usual form employed to express future time, and it is still commonly employed for this purpose where an adverb or conjunction of time or the situation makes the thought clear: 'The ship sails tomorrow.' 'Wait until I come.' For fuller statement see Syntax, 371e. As this old means of expression is not accurate enough for higher purposes, it has long been common to employ an especial form to express future time, the future tense described in 2 below.

This is true, however, only for the indicative. No especial future form for the subjunctive has developed, nor has there been any need for such, for the old type of expression had great possibilities of development.

In the oldest English, the simple present subjunctive was much used to express future time, and it can often still be used in choice language: 'We shall have passed Dover tomorrow if the wind keep favorable.' The simple subjunctive has for the most part been gradually replaced by a compound form made up of a modal auxiliary (may, might, shall, should, will, would, etc.) and the infinitive of the verb to be conjugated. The newer compound subjunctive forms have by virtue of the fine expressive power of these various modal auxiliaries more shades of meaning than the old.
simple forms. The old type of expression, however, has been re-
tained. In this old type there are two tenses of the subjunctive
employed for reference to the future — the present and the past —
which differ only in the manner of the conception, the present
tense expressing a greater degree of probability. Thus the pres-
ent tense in 'It may rain' expresses greater probability than the
past tense in 'It might rain.' Compare 50 2 d. As the uncer-
tainty in the outcome of future events is great, the past tense form
of the subjunctive is a pronounced favorite. In conditional sen-
tences (50 2 b) when future events present themselves to our mind
in only a vague, indefinite way, we employ a past subjunctive in the
condition, and in the conclusion employ should in the first person
and would in the second and third persons: 'If it rained (or should
rain or were to rain — indicating decreasing grades of probability)
tomorrow, I should, or he would, be very much disappointed.'
Would here in the first person of the conclusion represents the
future act as intended: 'If it rained (or should rain or were to rain)
tomorrow, I would stay at home.' A modest opinion as to a future
result is expressed by should in the third person: 'If everything
goes right, the work should be done by tomorrow evening.' In
wishing with the verb like we employ should in the first person
and would in the second and third persons; but we use should in
the second person in questions, for we expect the person addressed
to answer in the first person with should: 'I should like to go.' 'I
know he would like to go.' 'Should you like to go?'

The use of the subjunctive forms is treated in 50 2 and in
Syntax, 41–44.

2. Future Indicative. This form is made up of the present tense
of the auxiliary shall or will and the simple infinitive of the verb
to be inflected. In independent declarative sentences shall is
employed in the first person and will in the second and the third:

Singular
1. I shall take
2. you will take you'll take
(thou wilt take)
3. he will take he'll take

Plural
1. we shall take
2. you (ye) will take you'll take
3. they will take they'll take

There are peculiar difficulties connected with the use of the
indicative of this tense, since the employment of shall and will
in the different persons varies according to the form of the sentence and the meaning to be conveyed. To express the idea of pure futurity we employ for the declarative form shall in the first person and will in the second and third persons: ‘We shall be very poor, at the start, but we feel sure that things will improve later.’ ‘I shall be nineteen years old on the third of July, and my brother will be twenty-two on the same day.’ ‘If he doesn’t come tomorrow I shall be very sorry, and I know that you will [be], too.’ If an element of will, desire, determination enters into the statement we employ will for the first person and shall for the second and third persons: ‘I will (or I’ll) help you all I can,’ but ‘You shall do as I say.’ ‘We will (or we’ll) do our best,’ but ‘You shall pay for that.’ ‘I’ll (or will) never give my consent to that,’ but ‘I mean it; nothing shall stop me.’ Thus will in the first person and shall in the second and third persons are not tense auxiliaries but modal auxiliaries. Shall in the first person is not always, however, a future tense auxiliary. Sometimes it is a modal auxiliary, clearly differentiated from modal will in meaning. Modal will represents something as sprung from the feeling of the moment. Modal shall represents the resolution as the result of previous deliberation, or deep conviction, or deeply rooted feeling, and represents the execution as assured: ‘I shall stand my ground as firmly as I can.’ ‘Then, Patty, since you make me choose, I shall not give up the Lord even for you’ (Eggleston, Circuit Rider, Ch. XIX). ‘“I shall do my share,” said Unkerlarther sturdily’ (J. B. Priestley, The Good Companions, p. 499).

In the second person in questions that auxiliary is used which is expected in the answer, so that also in questions we must carefully distinguish between tense and modal auxiliaries: ‘Shall (tense auxiliary) we have the pleasure of seeing you tomorrow?’ ‘Will (tense auxiliary) he come tomorrow?’ ‘Shall (tense auxiliary) you have time enough tomorrow to do this for me?’ corresponding to the expected answer, ‘I shall have time enough’; but ‘Will (modal auxiliary) you do this for me?’ i.e. ‘Are you willing to do this for me?’ corresponding to the expected answer, ‘I will do it for you.’

Will is used by some in the first person as a pure future when in a compound subject I or we is preceded by a pronoun in the second person, or by a noun or pronoun in the third person: ‘you and I will get on excellently well’ (Dickens, Martin Chuzzlewit, Ch. V). ‘Eddie and I will be delighted to come on Monday’ (A. Marshall, The Greatest of These, Ch. X). The preceding pronoun or noun in the second or third person here influences the selection of the auxiliary. But we employ will here also to express
willingness, intention, so that the tone of the voice or the context must decide the meaning: 'John and I will assist you.' To express the pure future idea, however, others employ shall if one of the subjects is a pronoun in the first person: 'I hope Chattam and I shall (preferred by many to will) always be good friends' (George Eliot, *Middlemarch*, I, Ch. VI).

In dependent clauses the use of shall and will is the same as that found in independent statements except that instead of will in the third person shall is in British usage often employed where it corresponds to a shall in the direct statement: 'Sir Hugo says he shall (in the direct I shall) come to stay at Diplow' (George Eliot). 'He thinks himself that he shall (in the direct I shall) recover, but the doctor says that he will die soon.' In America we employ will here.

The use of shall and should (see 1 above) as future forms for the first person is literary usage. In our colloquial speech we employ will or would for all persons uniformly. The modal forms are the same for both literary and colloquial language. The literary pure future forms developed in the southeastern part of England, and in early colonial days were spoken and written in New England and in a general sense are still recognized as our literary standard. Our American colloquial speech has been influenced by heavy streams of immigration which have brought us large numbers of people from Ireland and other parts of Great Britain than the southeast. These immigrants brought with them will as a uniform pure future form. At the present time it is natural for most Americans to use this pure future form in colloquial language.

For a more detailed treatment of the future tense see *Syntax*, 57 5 a.

a. Aspect Form Instead of the Future Tense. The usual future tense (67 2) has terminate (52 1) force, i.e. represents the act as a whole. The expanded form of go often points to the future. In 52 2 c we see that the expanded form is widely employed as an aspect form to call attention to the beginning or to the end of an act. Beginning: 'Look out! I am going to shoot!' Here the expanded form of go points to the preparations for the act, indicating that it will follow immediately. The expanded form of go is much used to make known that preparations are being made for some act, either one near at hand or one farther off: 'There is going to be a circus here next week.' 'I am going to study in Germany next year.' This form is much used to point also to the end of a development: 'This bright little chap is going to be a great man some day.' Again, it is widely employed to point to the outcome of events: 'The world is going to look at this differently some day.'
The expanded form of *go* is often called a future tense form, but two things — the expanded form and the peculiar meanings of the form — show that it is primarily an aspect form. It points, not to the future act as a whole, but to a preparing for or an outcome.

68. **Future Perfect Tense.** This tense is differently formed in the indicative and the subjunctive:

1. **Future Perfect Indicative.** This form is the same as the future indicative, described in 67 2, with the exception that the present perfect infinitive is used instead of the present infinitive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shall have taken</td>
<td>1. we shall have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. you will have taken</td>
<td>2. you (ye) will have taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou wilt have taken)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. he will have taken</td>
<td>3. they will have taken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This form represents that an action or state will be completed at or before a certain time yet future: ‘I shall have completed the task by evening.’ ‘He will have completed the task by evening.’ For fuller treatment see Syntax, 37 6.

2. **Future Perfect Subjunctive.** To express the probable completion of an act in the future we employ the past subjunctive *should* in the first person and the past subjunctive *would* in the second and third persons in connection with a perfect infinitive: ‘I should have finished (or he would have finished), the work by tomorrow evening if everything had gone right.’ The use of *would* in the first person represents the completion of the future act as intended: ‘I would have gone tomorrow evening if things had gone right.’ A modest opinion as to a future result is expressed by *should* in the third person: ‘If things should go right, they should have completed the work by tomorrow evening, or they should complete the work by tomorrow evening.’

**FULL INFLECTION OF VERBS**

**ACTIVE**

69. *Take* may serve as a model.

A. **Common Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou takëst)</td>
<td>(take)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he takes</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(he takëth)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they take</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative** take (old forms, take thou, take ye)

**Participle**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participles</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>taking (56 1 d)</td>
<td>to take (56 1 d)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund** taking (56 1 d and 47 6 b)

**Past**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I took</td>
<td>took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you took</td>
<td>took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou tookěst)</td>
<td>(tookěst)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he took</td>
<td>took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we took</td>
<td>took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) took</td>
<td>took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they took</td>
<td>took</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Present Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you have</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou hast)</td>
<td>(have)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he has</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(he hath)</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we have</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) have</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they have</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative** have done (50 3, next to last par.)

**Participle**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participles</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>having taken (65 a)</td>
<td>(to) have taken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund** having taken (47 6 b)

**Past Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you had</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou hadst)</td>
<td>(hadst)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he had</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we had</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) had</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they had</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Full Inflection of Active Verb

#### Future

**INDICATIVE**
- I shall take
- you will take
- (thou wilt take)
- he will take
- we shall take
- you (ye) will take
- they will take

For SUBJUNCTIVE see 67 1.

**Future Perfect**

**INDICATIVE**
- shall have taken
- will have taken
- (wilt have taken)
- will have taken
- shall have taken
- will have taken
- will have taken

For SUBJUNCTIVE see 68 2.

#### B. Expanded Form (47 2)

**Present**

**INDICATIVE**
- I am
- you are
- (thou art)
- he is
taking
- we are
- you (ye) are
- they are

**SUBJUNCTIVE**
- be
taking

**IMPERATIVE**
- be taking

**INFINITIVE**
- (to) be taking

**Past**

**INDICATIVE**
- I was
- you were
- (thou wast)
- he was
taking
- we were
- you (ye) were
- they were

**SUBJUNCTIVE**
- were
taking

**Present Perfect**

**INDICATIVE**
- I have been
- you have been
- (thou hast been)
- he has been
- (he hath been)
- we have been
- you (ye) have been
taking
- they have been

**SUBJUNCTIVE**
- have been
taking

- have been
- (have been)
- have been
- have been
- have been
- have been
### Participle

**Infinitive**

having been taking  

**Gerund**

having been taking

### Past Perfect

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou hadst been)</td>
<td>taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye)</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(hadst been)</td>
<td>taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye)</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou wilt be)</td>
<td>taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye)</td>
<td>will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>will be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect**

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(wilt have been)</td>
<td>taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye)</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The future and future perfect **Subjunctive** forms are treated in 67 1, 68 2.

### C. ‘Do’-Form (47 3)

#### Present

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou dost take)</td>
<td>taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>does take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(he doth take)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye)</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(do take)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(he doth take)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye)</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>do take</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Past

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou didst take)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(didst take)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Indicative

- **Passive**

- **Subjunctive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>we did take</td>
<td>did take</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) did take</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they did take</td>
<td>did take</td>
<td>did take</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### 70. The full forms follow.

#### A. Common Form

**Present**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are</td>
<td>be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou art)</td>
<td>(be)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he is</td>
<td>taken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we are</td>
<td>be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) are</td>
<td>be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they are</td>
<td>be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

- be taken

**Infinitive**

- (to) be taken

**Gerund**

- being taken

**Participle**

- being taken

**Past**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you were</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou wast)</td>
<td>(wert)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he was</td>
<td>taken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we were</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) were</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they were</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Present Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you have been</td>
<td>(have been)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(thou hast been)</td>
<td>taken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he has been</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we have been</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) have been</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they have been</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In older English, the present perfect passive had the form of the present passive: I am taken, etc. See 49 1.

Past Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you had been (thou hadst been)</td>
<td>had been (hadst been)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they had been</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In older English, the past perfect passive had the form of the past passive: I was taken, etc.

Future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>FUTURE PERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall be</td>
<td>shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you will be (thou wilt be)</td>
<td>will have been (wilt have been)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we shall be</td>
<td>shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (ye) will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they will be</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Time Relations Indicated by the Passive Forms of the Participle. The different tenses of the verbal forms indicate accurately the time of the action, but in the case of the adjective forms the time relations are indicated only by the situation: this broken (a present state) chair; a man respected (= who is respected) by everybody; a bridge destroyed (past perfect = which had been destroyed) two hours before by the enemy; a feat often performed (present perfect = which has often been performed) by me. Having been deceived (= Since I have been deceived) so often, I am now on my guard. He is a man broken (= who has been broken) by misfortune. Having been more strongly opposed (= Since they had been more strongly opposed) than they expected, they retreated. 'His last novel, written (past = which was written) in 1925, is his best.' Compare Syntax, 48 2 (2nd par.).
### B. Expanded Form (49 3)

#### Present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am being</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Imperative, Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, are lacking.

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71. In the following articles are discussed matters pertaining to the form of adverbs in the positive, comparative, and superlative.

1. **Form of Simple Adverbs.** Adverbs have in part no distinctive form, as in the case of *here, there, then, when, where, why, late, straight, far, near, close, quick, slow, fast, high, low, much, little, very, right, wrong, cheap, just, well, etc.;* in part they have the distinctive suffix *-ly,* as in *rapidly, diligently, hurriedly, powerfully,* etc.; also often in the case of some of the words in the first group, which have a form in *-ly* alongside of their simple form, as in *slowly, quickly, highly, rightly, cheaply,* etc. Sometimes the two forms are differentiated in meaning: ‘I’ll go as *high* as a hundred dollars,’ but ‘The wood is *highly* polished.’ ‘He aimed *higher,*’ but ‘We ought to value our privileges more *highly.*’ ‘He sat up *late,*’ but ‘He died *lately.*’ ‘We are doing *fine*’ (colloquial for *very well,* but ‘These greenish tints contrast *finely* (= splendidly) with the moon’s own soft white.’ ‘He works *hard,*’ but ‘I could *hardly* hear him.’ ‘He lives *near* (originally an adverb, as shown here by its comparative form *nearer,* but now widely felt as a preposition) us, *nearer to us,*’ but ‘It is *nearly* done.’ ‘He is *real* (colloquial for *very*) good,’ but ‘He is *really* (sentence adverb) good.’ ‘The bird is now flying quite *low,*’ but ‘He bowed *lowly* before the duchess,’ i.e. bowed humbly and respectfully. ‘You know *jolly* (slang for *very*) well,’ but ‘He smiled *jollily.*’ ‘Speak *loud* and distinctly,’ but ‘He boasted *loudly* of his power.’ With certain adverbs we use the simple form after the modified word and the form with *-ly* before it: ‘He guessed *right,*’ but ‘He

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CHAPTER XIII

FORM AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

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rightly guessed that it was safe. 'He spelled the words wrong,' but 'the wrongly spelled words.' Earlier in the period the old simple form was often used where we now employ the form in -ly: 'to haue him stand in the raine till he was through (or thorough) wet' (Thomas Nashe, The Vnfortvnate Traveller, Works, II, p. 246, A.D. 1594), now 'thoroughly wet'; but the old simple form is preserved in thoroughbred, thoroughgoing, etc. 'She is not near (now nearly) so small as I had expected' (Horace Walpole, Letter to Miss Mary Berry, Sept. 25, 1793). Scarce was widely used in early Modern English, but is now employed only in rather choice language, yielding to scarcely in normal speech.

In older English, many adverbs had the suffix -e, which distinguished them from the corresponding adjectives. In the fifteenth century, after this ending had disappeared, many adjectives and adverbs had the same form. For a long while there has been a tendency to distinguish the adverb from the adjective by giving it the suffix -ly, as indicated above. The old simple form, though often replaced by the new form in -ly, often remains firm before an adjective or participle: light yellow, dark blue, dead drunk, precious little, mighty delightful, burning hot, red hot, stark naked, pretty bright; new laid eggs, modern built house, foreign born citizens, etc. These are in large measure modern formations, but we feel them as groups akin to our old compounds for which we still have a lively feeling. In the old compounds the modifying word always precedes the governing word, so that the word-order of itself makes the grammatical relations clear and hence the lack of a distinctive adverbial ending is not keenly felt. But here, as also elsewhere, distinctive grammatical forms are sometimes introduced: an uncommon or uncommonly fine fellow; terrible or terribly strong; an exceeding or exceedingly great joy; a newly married pair; the newly appointed chaplain; etc. We should distinguish between 'a good-natured boy,' where the compound good nature has been converted into a derivative adjective by means of the suffix -ed, and 'a well-behaved boy,' where behaved is an adjective participle and well the modifying adverb. Similarly, we say 'a high-tempered man,' but 'highly seasoned food.' In many cases we can construe a group of words according to either of these two types, hence we often find a difference of usage: ill-mannered, 'the most sweetly mannered gentleman alive' (Disraeli, Endymion, III, III, 25), but also gentle-mannered, simple-mannered. In both constructions the stress shifts to the second component in the predicate: 'He is good-natured.' 'He is well behaved.'

On the other hand, after verbs, where the word-order is always different from that required in compounds, the tendency is to give
the adverb its distinctive suffix: 'wide-open,' but 'He advertises widely'; 'tight-fitting,' but 'He clasped his hands tightly together.'

While in the literary language the form with -ly is becoming ever more firmly fixed, colloquial and popular speech still cling tenaciously to the older type of expression without -ly, especially in American and Irish English: 'I wanted to do it bad (instead of the usual literary form badly) enough, and if it was to do over again I would' (Mark Twain, Joan of Arc, Book I, Ch. IV). 'He (a certain dog) isn’t anyway near (instead of literary nearly) as full-blooded as Duke' (Tarkington, Penrod Jashber, Ch. I). 'I beat them easy' (instead of the literary form easily), but also in good English with the short form in 'to take it easy' and 'to let one off easy.' This conservative tendency in colloquial and popular speech to employ the old type is especially noticeable in the case of sentence adverbs (see 15 1 b), where in the literary language the form with -ly is most firmly established: 'It sure (in the literary language surely) will help.'

In older English, -ly was often added to adverbs formed from adjectives in -ly, and this older usage survives in a few adverbs: holily, jollily (see 1st par.), sillily, wilily. In general, -ly is now avoided here as awkward, although elsewhere there is a strong tendency toward it on account of its distinctiveness. The present tendency in this particular group is to employ the adjective also as an adverb, as in early, daily, hourly, friendly, kindly, only, etc. In many other words, however, we avoid such adverbs, as we feel their lack of distinctive form.

It is common to form an adverb out of a compound adjective provided the final element in the compound is an adjective form: world-wide, adv. world-widely; high-minded, adv. high-mindedly. If the final element is a noun we must employ the compound adjective also as an adverb: 'a first-rate (adj.) machine.' 'I am getting along first-rate' (adv.).

a. Genitive, Dative, and Accusative Used Adverbially. In oldest English, nouns in the genitive, dative, and accusative were often used adverbially. The old adverbial genitive survives in a few nouns and adverbs in the literary language and in a much larger number in popular speech: must needs, nowadays, once (i.e. ones, from one), twice (formerly twies), thrice, unawares, afterward (especially in America) or afterwards, backward or backwards, forward or forwards, onward or less commonly onwards, seaward or seawards, sideways, always, etc.; in popular speech anywheres, somewheres, nowhere, etc., instead of the literary forms anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, etc. In colloquial speech it is still common in a few nouns to indicate repeated occurrence, but is now felt as an
accusative plural: ‘returning nights to his home’ (F. J. Mather, Chaucer’s Prologue, p. vii). ‘Farmer Spurrier could see the plow at work before he got out of bed mornings’ (H. C. O’Neill, Told in the Dimpes, p. 28). After the analogy of such common expressions we now often use this plural accusative: ‘The museum is open Sundays’ (or on Sundays). The modern prepositional genitive is used in ‘of a morning,’ ‘of an evening,’ ‘of a Sunday afternoon,’ ‘of late years,’ ‘of rainy afternoons,’ etc. In popular speech an excrescent t is often added to the genitive form once: wunst. While the literary language rejects the genitive form with excrescent t here, it has adopted it in the case of amongst and whilst, adverbial genitive forms now used alongside of among and while as preposition and subordinate conjunction.

The old dative plural survives in whilom (= formerly), now used only in poetry or archaic language. It is the old dative plural form of the noun while, used adverbially: ‘Whilom she was a daughter of Locrine’ (Milton, Comus, 827). It is sometimes, like certain other adverbs, used also as an adjective: ‘his whilom associates.’

The old adverbial accusative of extent is well preserved in the case of nouns: ‘They remained a long while, three years.’ ‘It is a long way off.’ ‘He went the full length.’ ‘That went a long way toward remediing the evil.’ ‘He walked two miles.’ ‘He will not swerve a hair’s breadth from the truth.’ ‘The lake is three miles wide.’ ‘He is fourteen years old.’ ‘The garden is one hundred and seventy feet long.’ ‘He towers head and shoulders above his contemporaries.’ ‘The sober sense of the community are heart and soul with the Chief of Police in his crusade.’ ‘Vivisection must be abolished root and branch.’ In early Modern English, the genitive was not infrequently used here instead of the accusative, and this older usage still lingers in popular speech, which here, as in the first paragraph, is quite fond of the genitive as a more distinctive form: ‘He’d given up sea-faring and moved quite a way’s inland’ (Amy Lowell, East Wind, p. 188, A.D. 1926). ‘It seems a long ways off.’

The adverbial accusative of extent is common also in the case of indefinite pronouns, especially a bit, every bit, a lot, lots, a sight (colloquial and popular), and whatever in the meaning at all, also with other indefinites when used in connection with too or a comparative: ‘Wait a bit.’ ‘I am every bit as good as you.’ ‘I am not a bit tired.’ ‘I have a lot (or lots) more to tell you.’ ‘I have lots more things to show her’ (Clyde Fitch, Letter, Feb. 10, 1903). ‘It is a long sight better’ (Concise Oxford Dictionary), or more commonly ‘a darn sight better.’ ‘There is no doubt whatever.’ ‘Is there any chance whatever?’ ‘I cannot see anyone whatever.’ ‘No
one whatever would have anything to do with him.' 'What (= to what extent or in what way) is he the better for it?' 'The help came none too soon.' 'It is much too large.' 'The triumphant people haven’t any too much food' (Westminster Gazette, No. 7069, 6 a). 'He is none the worse for his fall.' 'The baby is dying slowly but none the less surely.' 'He is resting all the better for it.' 'Is he resting any the better for it?' 'Is he resting any better today?' 'I began to think that it was of no use crying any more.' 'She is not any less beautiful today than she has ever been.' 'Isn’t it any later than that?' or in American colloquial speech also: 'Is that all the later it is?' 'Nothing daunted, he began again.' 'He is a little better.' 'He is much better, much taller.' Much and little are often used outside of the comparative: 'I don’t care much about it.' 'I care little about it.' Much is often used sarcastically: 'Much (= not at all) you care about my feelings!'

In general, any, some, none, except with too and the comparative, are now not so common in England as earlier in the period, but in American colloquial speech there is still a great fondness for these forms: 'I slept none that night,' or 'I didn’t sleep any that night.' 'If our readers are any like ourselves, we think they cannot help laughing' (Analectic Magazine [Phila.], IX, 437, A.D. 1817). 'A tall fellow ... stammers some in his speech' (runaway advertisement in Mass. Spy, Apr. 28, 1785). 'I walk some every day.' This usage survives also in Scotland: 'You will quarrel nane with Captain Cleveland' (Scott, Pirate, Ch. XVIII). 'Having slept scarcely any all the night' (Hugh Miller, Scenes and Legends, XXX, 450). Scotch influence has strengthened the conservative American tendency here. It occasionally occurs in English writers after verbs: 'He may walk some, perhaps — not much' (Dickens in Forster’s Life, III, IV). In American slang some often assumes strong intensive force: 'The papers will make it some hot for you' (Robert Herrick, Memoirs of an American Citizen, p. 310).

Similarly, the accusative of the comparatives more, less, and the superlatives most, the most, least, the least are much used adverbially: 'If indiscretion be a sign of love, you are the most a lover of anybody that I know' (Congreve, Love for Love, I, 11, 354, A.D. 1695); now more commonly 'the most a lover of all that I know,' or 'more a lover than any other person that I know.'

The old adverbial accusative of goal (Syntax, 11 2) after verbs of motion is preserved in home: 'He went home.' 'They brought the charge home to him.' 'I was home by six.' In the last example the verb of motion is not expressed, but the idea of motion is implied. In colloquial and popular speech home is improperly used where there is no idea of motion implied: 'I won’t live home (for
literary at home)—even if the old gent would let me’ (Eugene O’Neill, *Dynamo*, p. 99). In compounds, however, *home* is used also in the literary language where there is no idea of motion implied: *home-made, home-grown, home-brewed*, etc. *Home* is here an old uninflected locative (*Syntax*, 62, next to last par.) meaning at home. This type of expression has come down to us from the prehistoric period.

The accusative of definite and indefinite time is common: ‘I go to Europe every two years.’ ‘The money was paid the following day.’ ‘First thing in the morning he smokes a cigarette’ (Krapp, *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English*). ‘He often goes round the last thing to make sure that all is right’ (*Routledge’s Every Boy’s Annual*). ‘I met him one day on the street.’ Also the accusative of way: ‘Step this way, please!’ ‘I will take you another way.’ Also the accusative of price: ‘This hat cost five dollars.’

The adverbial accusative construction has replaced others less common and even some once common, since we now feel that the accusative is the natural case form of a noun that completes the meaning of the verb. It is now much used to denote manner: ‘He came full speed.’ ‘The blindfolded man ran full tilt into the fence.’ ‘Have it your own way.’ ‘The windows of the tower face both ways.’ ‘Having sampled America [in] that way, Europe believes and trusts America’ (Woodrow Wilson, July 4, 1919). ‘She ran her fingers comb fashion through her hair.’ ‘They went at it hammer and tongs.’ ‘Let us go shares, halves!’ ‘I came in and went to bed the same as usual.’ ‘Then why do you come your frowning high and mighty airs with me?’ (William Heyliger, *American Boy*, Sept., 1927, p. 34). ‘You can’t come it with me.’ In colloquial speech *sure thing* is often used as an intensive form of colloquial *sure (= literary surely): ‘Now that you boys know what the expedition is going to face are you still anxious to go along?’ — ‘Sure thing’ (Victor Appleton, *Don Sturdy in Lion Land*, Ch. IV). Also to indicate time, where in more careful language we find a preposition: ‘What (or at what) time do you go?’ Also to indicate place in certain set expressions, but rarely with a single unmodified noun: ‘He struck me on the head,’ but ‘He smote them hip and thigh.’ ‘Bind them hand and foot!’ In the concrete language of popular speech the adverbial accusative of a modified noun is often used instead of an adverb: ‘I looked every place (instead of literary everywhere) for it.’ ‘What place (instead of literary where) would we run?’ (*Synge, The Well of the Saints, Act.III*). Compare 27 2 b for the use of the relative pronoun *that* as an adverbial accusative.

In many distributive expressions, the noun following *a* is now
This and That Used Adverbially

construed as an adverbial accusative of extent, but the *a*, though now felt as an indefinite article, is in fact the reduced form of the preposition *on*: ‘I visit him twice a year.’ A robin frequently raises two broods a *season*. This construction was originally confined to expressions of time, as in these examples, but it now has much wider boundaries: ‘His terms are a penny a *line*.’ ‘She asks five dollars a *lesson*.’ ‘I paid six dollars a *pair* for my shoes.’ The definite article is sometimes used here instead of the indefinite: ‘She sold her corn at ten shillings the *bushel*’ (Winthrop, *Journal*, Apr. 27, 1631). ‘Wheat was at twenty shillings the *quarter*’ (Macaulay, *History*, I, Ch. III). ‘Five cents the *copy*’ (The Saturday Evening Post, Aug. 8, 1925). ‘How much is salmon the *can* now?’ (Zona Gale, *Miss Lulu Bett*, Ch. I). We now feel *can* in the last example as an accusative of extent; but perhaps, originally, it was a nominative, an appositive to *salmon*. Most of these expressions, except those indicating time, may have originated in this way.

b. ‘This’ and ‘That’ Used Adverbially. In the fifteenth century the principle of employing the accusative of indefinite pronouns adverbially to indicate extent or degree was extended to the definite pronouns *this* and *that*: ‘This (or that or thus or so) much I hold to be true.’ This usage is best established in the case of ‘*this* much’ and ‘*that* much,’ but in colloquial language it has spread much farther: ‘I’ve never been *this* sick before.’ ‘He didn’t get home until after one o’clock, and his mother told him if he ever came home *that* late again she would punish him severely.’ On account of the accuracy of expression here adverbial *this* and *that* are sometimes employed in the literary language, in spite of the protests of grammarians: ‘“Oh, Mimo! how could you let him sit on the grass!” Zara exclaimed reproachfully, when he got *this* far’ (Elinor Glyn, *The Reason Why*, Ch. XV). ‘I didn’t think he was *that* young’ (Jack London, *Martin Eden*, I, Ch. II). Also used like *so*, pointing to a following clause of result: ‘I’m *that* hungry, I could eat a dog’ (Hall Caine, *The Woman Thou Gavest Me*, Ch. IV). Quite commonly in popular speech: ‘I was just *that* pleased I set down an’ bust out cryin’” (Alice Hegan Rice, *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*, Ch. VII).

The demonstrative *that* is thus often used adverbially, but the demonstrative *such*, which has a somewhat similar meaning, always remains an adjective, although often classed as an adverb. That it is an attributive adjective when it stands before a descriptive adjective is shown by the fact that it can never be used when there is no noun after the descriptive adjective, i.e. when the descriptive adjective is used predicatively: ‘*such* severe weather,’ but not ‘The weather is *such* severe.’
c. Adverbial Use of 'The.' The old neuter instrumental case of the determinative and demonstrative that still survives in the form of the in two common constructions: (1) In clauses of degree expressing proportionate agreement: 'This stone gets the harder the longer it is exposed to the weather.' See Syntax, 29 1 A b for a more detailed description of this construction. (2) As a determinative adverb of cause standing before a comparative, indicating cause, however, in only a formal way, pointing forward to a following clause or phrase of cause which contains the real cause: 'His unkindness hurt me all the more because I had been previously so kind to him' (or because of my previous kindness to him). 'The indications of inward disturbance moved Archer the more that he too felt that the Mingotts (name) had gone a little too far' (Edith Wharton, The Age of Innocence, Ch. V). 'I think a little the worse of him on this account.' 'She clung the more fiercely to her father for having lost her lover.' The cause is often not thus formally expressed in a clause or phrase of cause but implied in something that has preceded: 'Sir Arthur looked sternly at her. Her head only dropped the lower.' 'If she were silent there was one listener the more.'

2. Comparison of Adverbs:

a. Relative Comparison. Adverbs are compared much as adjectives, as described in 43 2. A few monosyllabic adverbs add -er in the comparative and -est in the superlative: fast, faster, fastest. 'He climbed higher.' 'He lives nearer us.' 'He lives nearest to us.' 'Come up closer to the fire.' 'John worked hardest.' 'He couldn’t speak finer if he wanted to borrow' (George Eliot). 'I can’t stay longer.' 'He stayed longest.' 'I would sooner die than do it.' Also the dissyllables, often and early, are compared by means of endings: 'He is absent oftener than is necessary.' 'You ought to have told me earlier.' Easy, an adverb in certain set expressions, is similarly compared: 'Easier said than done.' Examples of the use of the comparatives farther and further are given in 43 2 A a.

Earlier in the period, terminational comparison was often used where we now employ more and most: 'There is almost no man but he sees clearlier and sharper (now more clearly and sharply) the vices in a speaker then (now than) the vertues' (Ben Jonson, Discoveries, p. 19, A.D. 1641).

Most adverbs are now compared by means of more, most and less, least: rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly; rapidly, less rapidly, least rapidly.

aa. Irregularities. A few irregularities in the form occur, corresponding closely to those found in adjectives (43 2 A a):
well, better, best
ill, illy (obs.), badly, worse, worst
much, more, most
little, less, least
near, nigh, nearer, nigher, nearest, nighest, next
far, farther, further, farthest, furthest
late, later, latest, last
rather (comparative of obs. rathe, ‘soon’)

One of the outstanding features of popular speech is the use of good for well: ‘I don’t hear good’ (instead of well).

In American colloquial language worst often has the force of most: ‘The thing I need the worst is money.’ The worst kind and the worst way are common in popular speech as adverbs with the force of very much: ‘I wanted to go the worst kind or the worst way.’

bb. Newer Forms of Expression. Besides the normal usage described in 2 a above there is another which is quite common in colloquial speech and occurs sometimes in the literary language. The superlative is formed by employing the adverbial neuter accusative of the noun made from the adjective superlative preceded by the definite article: ‘All good and wise Men certainly take care To help themselves and families the first’ (Robert Rogers, Ponteach, I, IV, A.D. 1776). ‘I am going . . . to Havre, whence I shall get the quickest to Southampton’ (Charlotte Smith, Emmeline, IV, 55, A.D. 1788). ‘Of all my books I like this the best’ (Dickens, David Copperfield, Preface). ‘He was the greatest patriot in their eyes who brawled the loudest and who cared the least for decency’ (id., Martin Chuzzlewit, Ch. XVI). ‘It is impossible to say whose eyes would be the widest opened’ (Henry Arthur Jones, The Divine Gift, Dedication, p. 49). ‘My father liked this the best’ (Alfred, Lord Tennyson, A Memoir by His Son, 3, 245). ‘We are sure that those who have known Somerset the longest will thoroughly enjoy Mr. Hutton’s pages’ (Athenæum, Dec. 28, 1912). ‘Great souls are they who love the most, who breathe the deepest of heaven’s air, and give of themselves most freely’ (William Allen White, A Certain Rich Man, Ch. XXII). ‘Of all the orders of men they fascinate me the most’ (H. L. Mencken, Prejudices, Series III, p. 217).

This form is now spreading also to the comparative: ‘He runs the faster’ (instead of the simple faster). ‘This led him to consider which of them could be the better spared’ (Dickens, Martin Chuzzlewit, Ch. XXXIII). ‘I hardly know who was the more to blame for it’ (L. M. Montgomery, Anne of Avonlea, Ch. XXIII). ‘Ruth could not tell which she liked the better’ (Lucy Fitch Perkins, The Children’s Yearbook, p. 17).
In the case of the analytic form with *most*, *least*, *more*, *less*, this adverbial neuter accusative cannot be used at all. We often, however, add the adverbial ending -ly to the analytic adjective, superlative or comparative, preceded by the definite article, thus marking the form clearly as an adverb: 'If it be true that such meat as is *the most dangerously* earned is the sweetest' (Goldsmith, *Natural History*, VI, 82, A.D. 1774). 'It was difficult to say which of the young men seemed to regard her *the most tenderly*' (Thackeray, *Pendennis*, II, Ch. XX). 'Standing here between you the Englishman, so clever in your foolishness, and this Irishman, so foolish in his cleverness, I cannot in my ignorance be sure which of you is *the more deeply* damned' (George Bernard Shaw, *John Bull's Other Island*, Act IV).

In the relation of sentence adverb the adverbial neuter accusative form of the superlative is replaced by an adverbial phrase, consisting of the preposition *at* and the noun made from the adjective superlative preceded by the definite article: 'I cannot hear from Dick *at the earliest* before Tuesday' (Mrs. Alexander, *A Life Interest*, II, Ch. XVIII), or 'At the earliest I can't hear from Dick before Tuesday.'

When it is not the actions of different persons that are compared but the actions of one and the same person at different times and under different circumstances, we employ the adverbial neuter accusative of the noun made from the adjective superlative preceded by a possessive adjective: 'Two women shrieked *their loudest*' (Thackeray, *Pendennis*, II, Ch. XXXVIII). 'Carver smiled *his pleasantest*' (R. D. Blackmore, *Lorna Doone*, Ch. XXVIII). An adverbial phrase with the preposition *at* is sometimes used instead of the adverbial accusative: 'He led me in a courtly manner, stepping *at his tallest*, to an open place beside the water' (ib., Ch. XXI). In the relation of sentence adverb this prepositional phrase form is quite common and freely used both with the simple and the analytic superlative, especially the latter: 'Even *at his ungainliest and his most wilful*, Mr. Thompson sins still in the grand manner' (Academy, Apr. 14, 1894, 303). 'Nature *at her most unadorned* never takes that air of nakedness which a great open unabashed window throws upon the landscape' (*Atlantic Monthly*, Mar. 1887, 324).

b. Absolute Superlative. This superlative of the adverb is formed from the absolute superlative of the adjective (43 2 B a). 'Mary's mother is *a most beautiful woman* and 'Mary's mother sings *most beautifully*.'

The absolute superlative is sometimes formed by employing the adverbial neuter accusative of the noun made from the adjective
superlative preceded by the definite article: 'I do not the least mind it' (Alfred, Lord Tennyson, A Memoir by His Son, 4, 72). 'It does not matter the least' (Florence Montgomery, Misunderstood, Ch. IV).

Instead of this form we often use a prepositional phrase containing a simple superlative of an adjective in attributive use, standing before a noun or the simple superlative used as a noun and preceded by the definite article: 'The letter was written in the kindest spirit.' ‘That does not concern me in the least.’ Compare 43 2 B a (3rd par.).

Instead of a superlative here we more commonly use a positive modified by very, exceedingly, absolutely, etc.: ‘She sings very beautifully.’ In colloquial and popular language, the intensive adverbs, awfully, dreadfully, terribly, etc., are common, sometimes without the suffix -ly before an adverb: ‘The work is moving awfully slow.’ ‘I lived mighty comfortably.’

To express an absolutely high degree of activity in connection with a verb, we place very before an adverb of degree, such as much, greatly, etc.: ‘He is suffering very much.’ To express an absolutely high degree of a quality, we place very before the positive of the adjective: ‘very sick, very pleasing, a very distressed look.’ But instead of saying ‘I was very much pleased, very greatly distressed,’ many incorrectly say ‘I was very pleased, very distressed,’ feeling pleased and distressed as adjective rather than as verbal forms, which they are. Similarly, we should use too much, too greatly before verbal forms, not simple too: ‘I was too much (or too greatly) discouraged by this failure to try again.’
CHAPTER XIV
UNINFLECTED PARTS OF SPEECH

72. Three parts of speech, prepositions, conjunctions, and inter­
jections, have no distinctive forms to indicate their function.
The position of the preposition before a word indicates that it
brings this word into relation with another word (16). It often
has a characteristic position at the end of the sentence or clause:
‘What do you write with?’ ‘This is the pen I write with’ (16 2).
The preposition plays a very important rôle in English. Its
functions are quite fully described in 16.

A conjunction links an independent proposition, or a subordi­
nate clause, or parts of a sentence to the rest of the sentence. Its
position immediately before a group of words indicates its function:
‘He came early, but soon went away.’ ‘Wait until I come.’
The functions of conjunctions are described in 18.

Pure conjunctions are regularly uninflected, but there are cer­
tain inflected pronouns which perform the function not only of
pronouns but also of conjunctions (7 IV a, b, 18 B 6).
Interjections, Oh! Ouch!, etc., are recognized by the peculiar tone
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The references are to sections and subsections. The abbreviation p.p. after verbs stands for 'principal parts.'

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