blench (A.-S. *blencan*) from blink (A.-S. *blincan*).
drench (A.-S. *drencan*) from drink (A.-S. *drincan*).
fell (A.-S. *fellan*) from fall (A.-S. *feallan*).
lay (A.-S. *lecgan*) from lie (A.-S. *licgan*).
raise (A.-S. *ræsan*) from rise (A.-S. *risan*).
set (A.-S. *settan*) from sit (A.-S. *sittan*).
wend (A.-S. *wendan*) from wind (A.-S. *windan*).

Change of Consonant. (Nouns) house, house ; wreath, wre*a*th*e* ; thief, thieve.
(Verbs) wink, wince ; pink, pinch.

Change of Vowel and Consonant. (Nouns) bath, ba*th*e ; grass, graze ; breath, breathe.
(Verbs) drag, dredge ; wake, watch.

395. 2. *By a Suffix.*

-en, -n, signifying 'to make, or to cause.' These suffixes had originally a reflexive or passive sense. (Compare Goth. *full-j-an,* 'to make full,' with *full-n-an,* 'to be filled.') By a curious change the latter suffix (*-n-*) supplanted the former. From adjectives we have deaf-en, fatt-en, moist-en, short-en, and from nouns length-en, strength-en. In drow-n (A.-S. *drunc-n-ian* from A.-S. *drunc-en,* past p. of *drinc-an,* to drink) and ow-n (A.-S. *āg-n-ian* from A.-S. *āg-en,* 'own,' originally a past p. of *āg-an,* to possess) the participial origin of *-n* is manifest.

-er, implying frequency ; batt-er (from beat), mutt-er, flitt-er (from float), glimm-er (from gleam). When added to adjs. it is causative, ling-er (from long).

-k, denoting repetition or intensity ; har-k (allied to A.-S. *hyr-an,* to hear), smir-k (A.-S. *smer-c-ian,* to smile), wal-k (A.-S. *weal-c-ian,* to roll about), stal-k (A.-S. *steal-c-ian,* to walk warily).

-l, -le, implying frequency, especially in words formed by imitation of sound—cack-le, tink-le, rumb-le, dragg-le, a frequentative of drag, dribb-le of drip, nibb-le of nip.

-se ; bles-s, originally 'to consecrate by blood' (A.-S. *blēdsian* from A.-S. *blōd,* 'blood'), clean-se (A.-S. *clænsian,* to make clean), cur-se (A.-S. *cursian* from *curs,* imprecation).

396. 3. *By a Prefix.*

a- (A.-S. *a-*) ; a shortened form of the old preposition *ant* ;[1] a-rise,

[1] Professor Key on *ana, Trans. Phil. Soc.* 1854.

a-wake, a-rouse. This preposition is seen again in *c-lope*, 'run off.'

a- (A.S. *a-*); a-bide, a-bear, a-light, a-bet.

at- (A.-S. *æt-*); an Early English prefix meaning 'away,' 'against'; at-fly, at-go, at-stand, at-hold, at-fall.

be- (A.-S. *be-*); be-come, be-gin, be-take. This prefix has been identified by Professor Key with the Gothic *ge-* and the Latin *con-* (*Alphabet*, pp. 181-2). It often adds intensity to the meaning of the simple verb.

en-, *em-*, *in-*, *im-* (A.-S. *in-*); en-dear, en-thral, en-grave, em-body, em-bower. in-graft, in-fold, in-lay, im-bed.

for- (A.-S. *for-*); for-bid, for-give, for-sake, for-swear, for-do.

fore- (A.-S. *fore-*); fore-tell, fore-bode, fore-see, fore-warn.

mis- (A.-S. *mis-*); mis-lay, mis-lead, mis-take, mis-spend.

of- (A.-S. *of-*); an E. E. prefix; of-seek (seek out), of-send (send for), of-take (overtake).

out- (A.-S. *ut-*); out-do, out-sail, out-strip, out-speed.

over- (A-S. *over-*); over-come, over-look, over-take, over-throw.

to- (A.-S. *to-*); an E. E. prefix adding the meaning of 'asunder, to pieces,' to the simple verb; to-break, to-hew, to-rend, to-tear; Germ. *zer-*.

> Her·hondes she set on her hair,
> And her faire tresses all *to-tare*.—*Rom. of Merlin.*

um-, *umbi-* (A.-S. *ymb-*, 'around'); an E. E. prefix: umbi-stand (surround), um-go (go-round), um-clip (embrace).

un- (A.-S. *un-*); another form of *ant* or *unt* = un-do, un-lock, un-fold.

under- (A.-S. *under-*); a comparative form of the above prefixed to verbs; under-go, under-take, under-stand.

up- (A.-S. *up-*); up-set, up-rear, up-braid, up-hold.

ver- (Germ. *ver-*); another form of *for-*: ver-clef (cloven), ver-lore (lost).

with- (A.-S. *with-*); signifies 'opposition,' 'back,' 'against,' with-draw, with-hold, with-stand.

B. CLASSICAL.

397. ### 1. *By a Suffix.*

ROMANCE.

-ate, *-t*, *-te*, *-ss*, *-se*, are derived from the past part. or supine of Latin verbs; complic-ate, anticip-ate; trea-t (*tractare* from *tractus*, past part. of *trahere*); no-te (*notare* from *notus*);

profes-s (*professus*, past part. of *profiteri*); ra-se (Low Latin *rasare* from *rasum*, supine of *radere*, to scrape). A very large number of verbs in *-ate* have no corresponding past part. in Latin; expatri-ate, isol-ate, &c. Verbs in *-itate* were originally frequentative or causal; ag-itate, debil-itate, facil-itate.

-esce, *-ish* (Lat. *-esco*, Fr. *-iss*, a part of the present part. suffix of verbs in *-ir*), originally inceptive in meaning; coal-esce, efferv-esce; cher-ish, flour-ish, nour-ish.

-fy (Lat. *-ficare*, Fr. *-fier*); mysti-fy, justi-fy.

-ply (Lat. *-plicare*, Fr. *-plier*); multi-ply, re-ply.

GREEK.

-ize; critic-ize, harmon-ize, theor-ize.

398. 2. *By a Prefix.*[1]

LATIN.

abs-, *ab-*, *a-* } abs-tain, ab-jure, a-vert.
ad-, *ac-*, *af-*, *ag-*, *al-*, *an-*, *ap-*, *ar-*, *as-*, *at-*, *a-* } ad-mire, ac-cuse, af-firm, ag-grieve, al-lude, an-nul, ap-prove, ar-rive, as-sume, at-tend, a-scribe.
am-, am-putate.
ante-, *anti-* } ante-date, anti-cipate.
circum-, circum-vent.
con-, *col-*, *com-*, *cor-*, *co-* } con-tend, col-lect, com-mend, cor-rupt, co-erce.
contra-, *counter-* } contra-dict, counter-act.
contro-, contro-vert.
de-, de-part.
dis-, *dif-*, *di-* } dis-join, dif-fuse, di-vide.
ex-, *ef-*, *e-* } ex-tort, ef-face, e-duce.
in-, *en-*, *im-*, *em-*, *il-*, *ir-* } in-cite, en-dure, im-prove, em-ploy, il-lude, ir-radiate.
in- = *not*, in-jure.
inter-, *enter-* } inter-rupt, enter-tain.
intro-, intro-duce.
manu-, *main-* } manu-mit, main-tain.
ob-, *oc-*, *of-*, *op-* } ob-tain, oc-cur, of-fend, op-pose.
outr = *ultra*, outr-age.
par-, par-boil.
per-, per-form.
pro-, *por-* } pro-mote, por-tend.
pur-, *pol-* } pur-vey, pol-lute.
post-, post-pone.
pre-, pre-vent.
red-, *re-* } red-eem, re-duce.
retro-, retro-grade.
se-, se-cede.
sub-, *suc-*, *suf-*, *sug-*, *sup-*, *sus-*, *su-* } sub-tract, suc-ceed, suf-fer, sug-gest, sup-pose, sus-pend, su-spect.
super-, *sur-* } super-vise, sur-mount.
trans-, *tra-*, *tres-* } trans-late, tra-duce, tres-pass.

GREEK.

en-; en-throne, en-sphere.

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[1] These prefixes are explained § 183. Verbs formed directly from nouns and adjectives are omitted.

399. Many nouns in English are converted into verbs without altering the form of the word—*plant, stone, butter, nail, hammer, pin, thread, chain, fetter*, &c.

Adjectives frequently become verbs without alteration—*idle, better, dry, wet, smooth, double*, &c.

Adverbs occasionally become verbs—*further, forward*, &c.

400. Verbs are sometimes formed from other verbs by dropping a part of the root—*ram, c-ram ; rumple, c-rumple ; rumble, g-rumble ; melt, s-melt ; tumble, s-tumble ; mash, s-mash ; welter, s-welter*, &c. Verbs are occasionally formed by a species of reduplication—*shilly-shally, fiddle-faddle, dingle-dangle, tittle-tattle*, &c.

Compound Verbs.

401. (1) *Noun* + *noun* ; ham-string, hand-cuff.
(2) *Noun* + *verb* ; back-bite, brow-beat, way-lay.
(3) *Adjective* + *noun* ; black-ball, holy-stone, black-lead.
(4) *Adjective* + *verb* ; white-wash, ful-fil, rough-hew.
(5) *Adverb* + *verb* ; gain-say, fore-tell, cross-question.
(6) *Verb* + *adverb* ; do-on (don), do-off (doff), do-out (dout, O. E. and *Provinc.*), do-up (dup, *Pr.*).

ADVERBS.

402. Adverbs are indeclinable words, employed to modify the meaning of adjectives, participles, verbs, nouns, pronouns, and other adverbs.

(*a*) Adjective. "This has rendered them *universally proud*" (*Burke*).

(*b*) Participle. "A *greatly honoured* friend and teacher" (*Trench*).

(*c*) Verb. "The dogs *howled fearfully* during the night" (*Waterton*). "The voice of the public was *not long* divided, and the preference was *universally* given to Pope's performance" (*Johnson*).

(*d*) Noun. "I shall dismiss all attempts to please, while I study *only instruction*" (*Goldsmith*).

(*e*) Pronoun. "*Even* you were not successful" (*Id.*).

(*f*) Adverb. "Why was the philosopher *more easily* satisfied than the mechanic?" (*Macaulay*). "Both his person and his party were exposed in their turns to the shafts of satire which, though neither *so* well pointed, nor perhaps *so* well aimed, undoubtedly drew blood."

403. Adverbs are, strictly speaking, abbreviated or elliptical expressions; e. g. *sometimes* = 'at some time'; *here* = 'at this (place)'; *to-day* = 'on this day' (*hodie*), &c.

Occasionally the governing preposition is retained, as *for-sooth*, *indeed*, *per-chance*, &c.

Hence any phrase or combination of words indicating the time, manner, or locality of an action is virtually an adverb.

It was written *a thousand years before our Christian era.*—*De Quincey.*

In the evening, when we went away, the old water-hen came back to the nest.—*Waterton.*

The legions stood to their arms *in well-ordered ranks and awful silence.*—*Gibbon.*

In a cowslip bell I lie.—*Shakspere.*

It is usual, however, to limit the term *adverb* to derived and compound words.

404. Adverbs are frequently classed in accordance with their meaning.

(1) *Time*; once, always, daily, before, to-morrow.

(2) *Place*; here, aloft, below, inside, around.

(3) *Degree*; much, very, greatly, almost, nearly.

(4) *Manner*; well, thus, truly, softly, so.

(5) *Cause*; therefore, wherefore, hence, why.

405. Adverbs are formed from nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and prepositions.

I. From cases of nouns and adjectives—

(1) Genitive; needs (of necessity), lengthways, nowadays; else, unawares, always, once.

(2) Dative; whilom, seldom; the final syllable of piecemeal, combined with the dative plur. suffix *-um*, was frequently used in A.-S. to form adverbs. (Compare *heapmælum*, 'by heaps,' *dropmælum*, 'by drops.'

(3) Accusative; home, back (A.-S. usually *on bæc*), north, south; somewhile, otherwise, meanwhile.

Most of the English adverbs are formed from adjectives and the suffix *-ly*, a shortened form of *like*; *sure-ly*, *loving-ly*.

II. From pronouns (see § 288).

III. From prepositions (often combined with nouns)—

(1) *a* = A.-S. *on*; a-sleep, a-blaze, a-drift.
(2) *be*, *by*; be-times, be-sides, by and by.
(3) *ere*; ere-while.
(4) *for*; for-sooth.
(5) *in*; with-in, in-deed.
(6) *neath*; be-neath, under-neath.
(7) *on*; on-ward.
(8) *over*; over-head, over-board.
(9) *through*; thoroughly.
(10) *to*; too, to-ward.
(11) *under*; under-hand, under-foot.
(12) *up*; up-per, up-wards.

406. Adverbs derived from adjectives ending in *-ly* do not add a second *-ly*; the simple adjective is used as an adverb—*hour-ly*, *night-ly*. In *holi-ly*, from *holy*, the *l* is part of the root.

When the adjective ends in *-ble*, a contraction takes place—*noble*, *nobly*; *sensible*, *sensibly*. In the old Scotch poet Dunbar, we find the form *nobil-ly*. If the adjective ends in *-y*, the *y* is written *i* when the suffix *-ly* is added—*weary*, *weari-ly*.

407. Adverbs formed from the Relative pronoun serve at the same time to connect propositions, and may be called *Conjunctive Adverbs*.

Wherever they marched, their route was marked with blood.—*Robertson.*

Shall I be frighted, *when* a madman stares?—*Shakspere.*
The world was all before them, *where* to choose
Their place of rest, and Providence their guide.—*Milton.*

408. Those derived from the Interrogative are frequently employed to ask a question, and may be termed *Interrogative Adverbs.*

Mother, oh! *where* is that radiant shore?—*Hemans.*

When shall we three meet again?—*Shakspere.*

Why dimly gleams the visionary sword?—*Pope.*

How could I name Love's very name,
Nor wake my harp to notes of flame?—*Scott.*

409. Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison—*soon, soon-er, soon-est;* others, from their nature, are incapable of being compared—*now, then, there, to-morrow.*

The rules already given for expressing the comparison of adjectives apply equally to adverbs. In A.-S. the adverbial suffixes are *-or, -ost;* those for adjectives, *-er, -est.* In Modern English this distinction is lost.

Adverbs formed by the suffix *-ly*, usually express the comparative and superlative by *more* and *most;* but in the older writers they occasionally receive a suffix—"*earthlier* happy" (*Shakspere*).

Destroyers *rightlier* called the plague of men.—*Milton.*

Derivation of Adverbs.

A. Teutonic.

410. 1. *By a Suffix.*

-e (A.-S. *-e*); an O. E. suffix; *soft-é, bright-é, swift-e.* "*e* is the usual termination by which adverbs are formed from adjectives; as, *wide*, widely."[1] It seems to be the suffix of the dative, that case

[1] Rask, *Ang.-Sax. Gram.*, § 335.

being employed to express the *manner*. See § 174. When the suffix is lost, these adverbs assume the appearance of adjectives—'the moon shines *bright*'; 'the stream runs *fast*.'

-er; ev-er, nev-er. It represents *-re* in A.-S. *æf-re*, *næf-re*, which is the fem. dat. or instrumental suffix. In *yest-er-day*, A.-S. *geost-ran-dæg*, the suffix is acc. masc.

-es, *-se*, *-ce*, *-s*: unawar-es, sometim-es, besid-es; el-se, E. E. el-es, ell-es, el-s (Lat. *al-io-*, *al-iter*); on-ce, hen-ce, then-ce, sin-ce (E. E. on-es, henn-es, thenn-es); need-s, outward-s, E. E. eftsoon-s.

These forms were probably identical in origin (A.-S. *-es*), and seem to have been old genitives.

-ling; this suffix is found in the words *darkling*, *grovling* (E. E.)—

> Oh, wilt thou *darkling* leave me?—*Shakspere.*
>
> So out went the candle, and we were left *darkling.*—*Id.*

These forms in *-l-ing* are derived from the gen. plur. (*-unga*) of A.-S. fem. nouns in *-ung*, later *-ing*. (Comp. A.-S. *eall-unga*, *eall-inga*, 'entirely,' E. E. *hed-l-ing*, 'headforemost,' afterwards corrupted to *head-long*.) Hence *dark-l-ing* means 'in the dark.'

-ly (A.-S. *-lice*, E. E. *-liche*). In the A.-S. *-lic-e*, the final *e* is the dative suffix—*clæn-lic*, 'pure'; *clæn-lic-e*, 'purely,' 'in a pure manner.' In later English the case-ending is lost, and the adverb and the adjective assume the same form.

-meal (E. E. *-mele*, A.-S. *-mælum*, dat. plur. of *mæl*, time, meal) is now found only in *piece-meal*. (Comp. the A.-S. word *stycce-mæl*, 'here and there,' lit. *piece-meal*.)

-om; a suffix of this form is seen in the two words *whil-om* and *seld-om* (A.-S. *hwil-um*, dat. plur. of *hwil*, while, time; A.-S. *seld-um*, dat. plur. of *seld*, lit. 'at rare times').

-ther (A.-S. *-ther*); hi-ther, thi-ther, whi-ther, &c. See § 274.

-ward, *-wards* (A.-S. *weard*); home-ward, heaven-ward, in-ward. (A.-S. *weardes*, genit.); home-wards, heaven-wards, in-wards.

-way, *al-way* (A.-S. *ealne weg*, accus.); straight-way, no-way, mid-way. *Al-way* is more usual in the gen. form *al-ways*.

-wise, *-ways* (genit.): (A.-S. *-wis*.) This suffix is the A.-S. and E. E. *wise*, 'manner,' 'fashion,' = 'in this wise.' *Other-wise* means 'in another way.' The Northern dialect has *gate; al-gate.*

411. 2. *By a Prefix.*

a- (A.-S. *a-*); an old preposition *an* or *on*, found prefixed to nouns and adjectives—*a-shore*, *a-board*, *a-loft*. Compare the equivalent forms 'on shore,' 'on board,' E. E. 'on lyft' (in air). Adjectives—a-new, a-fresh, a-broad, a-far. The Northern dialect prefers *on*.

al- (A.-S. *al-*); al-most, al-ways, al-one, al-so.

be- (A.-S. and E. E. *bi-*); the preposition *by;* be-fore (E. E. bi-fore), be-sides (E. E. bi-sides).

to- (A.-S. *to-*); the demonstrative 'this'; to-day, to-morrow, to-night (§ 259).

412. B. CLASSICAL.

a-; a-part, a-pace, a-cross.

per-; per-chance, per-force, per-adventure. *Per-haps* is a hybrid.

413. COMPOUND ADVERBS.

(1) *Noun + noun*; side-ways, length-wise, guest-wise (*Shakspere*).

(2) *Noun + adjective*; head-foremost, breast-high, knee-deep.

(3) *Adjective + noun*; mean-while, al-ways, mean-time.

(4) *Pronoun + noun*; to-night, some-times, other-wise.

(5) *Pronoun + preposition*; here-tofore, here-after, there-upon.

(6) *Preposition + noun*; in-deed, out-side, above-board.

The adverbs derived from numerals have been specified and explained in §§ 237, 238; those derived from pronouns, in §§ 262, 274, 280.

414. Some adverbs are merely elliptical expressions, or truncated propositions, as *may-be*, *may-hap*. Compare the Latin *forsitan*.

415. Adverbs are occasionally formed by reduplication, as, *pit-pat*, *zig-zag*, &c., and sometimes by a species of alliteration—*topsy-turvy*, *pell-mell*, *helter-skelter*, *higgledy-piggledy*, &c.

Most of the prepositions are also used as adverbs.

PREPOSITIONS.

416. Prepositions, being the modern equivalents of case-endings, are employed with nouns to mark the relation in which these nouns stand to other words of the sentence. Thus in 'the song *of* the bird,' the word *of*, showing that the song proceeds *from* the bird, is identical in meaning with the suffix *s* in 'the bird*'s* song' (§§ 156, 157, 158).

In Modern English, prepositions are used more frequently than in the ancient inflected languages, because the case-endings have, with few exceptions, disappeared.

417. Hence prepositions are found before nouns of every kind.

(1) *Simple noun.*

The Christmas bells *from hill to hill*
Answer each other *in the mist.*—*Tennyson.*

(2) *Numeral.* And *unto one* her note is gay.—*Id.*

(3) *Pronoun.* I sing *to him* that rests below.—*Id.*

(4) *Infin. in* ing. And we *with singing* cheered the way.—*Id.*

(5) *Infin. with* to. Could save the son of Thetis *from to die.*
Spenser.

(6) *Infin. sentence. In* [honouring God, and doing His work], put forth all thy strength.—*Jer. Taylor.*

(7) *Sentence.* They made ready the present *against* [Joseph came home at noon].—*English Bible.*

418. Prepositions usually stand *before* the nouns they govern, and hence their name.

She is far *from the land* where her young hero sleeps,
And lovers are *round her* sighing;
But coldly she turns *from their gaze* and weeps,
For her heart *in his grave* is lying.—*Moore.*

Occasionally they are found suffixed to them—*here-with, there-by, where-in, there-fore, where-fore.*

There be two things *where-of* you must have special caution.
Bacon.

419. Prepositions are frequently placed after verbs. These are, in reality, adverbs employed to form compound verbs.

Tie up the knocker; say I'm sick, I'm dead.—*Pope.*

420. This suffixed preposition, or, more correctly, *adverb*, often makes an intransitive verb transitive—

Full well they *laughed*, with counterfeited glee,
At all his jokes, for many a joke had he.—*Goldsmith.*

List of English Prepositions.

421. All the prepositions contained in this list, with the exception of those marked P. (Provincial), have been taken from old or modern English writers.

1. An (A.-S. *an*), an O. E. word, meaning *on* or *in*. "Children leveth French, and construeth and lerneth *an* Englisch."—*Trevisa.*
   a (A.-S. *a*). In Modern English the inseparable form of *an*. In O. E. it was an independent word—"Women are all day *a* dressing."—*Burton.*
2. At (A.-S. *at*, *æt*)
   att-en; "atten ende" (*Rob. Glouc.*); at-then-end = at-the-end.
   att-é; "atté last" (*Id.*); probably = at-the.
   et (P.); Old Frisian *et*.
   a (O. F. *a*). "*A* Bangore" (*Rob. Glouc.*) = 'at Bangor.'
3. Baft (A.-S. *bæft-an*, O. Fr. *beft-a*)
   a-baft (O. Fr. *a-beft-a*)
   aft (A.-S. *æft*, O. Fr. *eft*). The initial *b* is dropped.
   aft-er (A.-S. *æft-er*, O. Fr. *aft-er*)
   eft-er (O. Fr. and L. Sc. *eft-er*)
   ef; O. E.
   at-aft-er. "I trust to see you *atafter* Easter" (MS. quoted by Hall).
4. Bout (A.-S. *but-an*, around)
   about-en (A.-S. *a-but-an*)
   a-bout-é
   a-bout
5. Bove (O. Fr. *bov-a*, A.-S. *buf-an*)
   a-bov-en
   a-bou-en
   a-bou-n
   a-bo-ne
   a-bo-ve
   a-bo-ffe
   a-buf
   a-bew (P.)
   } A.-S. *a-buf-an.*

ov-en (A.-S. *uf-an*). The initial *b* is dropped.
an-ov-en (A.-S. *on-uf-an*)
ov-er
af-our
aw-or
o-er
(A.-S. *of-er*, O. Fr. *ov-er*)

6 (*a*). But; without, except.
but-en
bout-en
beout-en
A.-S. *but-an*.
but-é (O. Fr. *but-a*)
bote
bute
but
bot
bout
bo
boh (P.)
a-but-an
a-but-en
(A.-S. *a-but-an*)
a-bawt (P.)

(*b*) Out.
ut-en
out-en
(A.-S. *ut-an*). The initial *b* of *butan* is dropped.
ut-é
out-é
A.-S. *ut-e*.
ut
out
A.-S. *ut*.
for-out-in (*Gawaine*) = without.
forth-out—"Fly *forthout* my heart."—*Chaucer*.
through-out
thorgh-out
thorth-out
with-out-en
with-out-é
with-out; sometimes written in O. E. *out-with*.
from-out; usually written separately—

From out waste places comes a cry.—*Tennyson*.

7. By (A.-S. *big*, Mod. Fr. *by*)
be (A.-S. *be*)
bi (A.-S. *bi*)
beo, O. E.
for-by
for-bi
= before. "Forbi everilk one" (*Rob. Br.*), *i. e.* 'before every one.'

8. Down (A.-S. *dun*, a slope)
a-dun
a-doune
a-down
a-dawe
A.-S. *a-dun*. Compare the O. French *à mont* and *à val* for 'upwards' and 'downwards.'

9. ERE (A.-S. *ær*, *er*) = before. The adverb *er-st* is the superlative.

are, ar } O. Fr. *ar*.

ore, ar } Would I had met my dearest foe in Heaven,
Or ever I had seen that day.—*Shakspere.*

10. FOR (A.-S. *for*) = instead of, because of, &c.
fore. Found only in compounds—*there-fore*, *where-fore*, &c.

11. FORE (A.-S. *fore*) = before, of place or time.

for-n, fer-ne } A.-S. *for-an.*
a-for-en (O. Fr. *a-for-en*)
a-for-n
a-fore (O. F. *a-fore*) ; still seen in *afore-said.*
at-fore (A.-S. *æt-for-an*)
be-for-en (A.-S. *be-for-an*)
be-for-n
bi-for-n
be-for-é (A.-S. *be-for-e*)
bi-for-é (O. Fr. *bi-far-a*)
be-fore
bi-fore
bi-vore (compare the German *be-vor*)
to-for-en (A.-S. *to-for-an*)
to-for-n
to-fore (O. Fr. *to-far-a*) ; still seen in *here-tofore.*

12. FORTH (A.-S. *forth*)—

Steal *forth* thy father's house.—*Shakspere.*

13. FROM.
fram (A.-S. *fram*)
fra (A.-S. *fra*), Scotch, 'Til and *fra.*'
fro ; seen in *fro-ward*, 'to and *fro.*'

14. GAIN (P.), A.-S. *on-gegen*, *on-gen*.
gain-st
o-gain, a-gain } (A.-S. *on-gean*, *on-gegen*). Compare the Germ. *ent-gegen.*
a-gen (A.-S. *a-gen*)
a-yen (O. Fr. *a-ien*)
o-ge, a-ge, a-ye }
a-gain-is, a-gen-es, a-gain-s, a-gen-s, a-yen-s, a-yan-ce }

a-gains-t
a-gen-st
a-yen-st
oven-against
over-against

15. AN-ENT = opposite, concerning; connected with *on-gean*, against.[1]

an-ont
a-yont (L. Sc.), '*ayont* the ingle.'
an-ent-is
an-empt-es
an-en-s
on-en-ce
an-en-st
an-emp-st
en-ant-y
en-unt-y
for-enenst

16. HIND (A.-S. *hind-an*); "wind hind waves" (*Dunbar*). *Hind* is said to have originally meant 'tail.'[2]

a-hint (P.)
be-hind (A.-S. *be-hind-an*)
bi-hynde
be-hint (P.)

17. IN (A.-S. *in*).
i (O. N. *i*)—"A worm *i* the bud."—*Shakspere.*
an (A.-S. *an*). See 1.
a (A.-S. *a*). See 1.
on (A.-S. *on*)—"Stories said *on* gud manere."—*Barbour.*
with-inn-é (A.-S. *with-inn-an*)
with-in; in E. E. often written *in-with.*

18. LONG (P.); A.-S. *lang*, along.
ande-long (A.-S. *and-lang*, German *ent-lang*)
end-long—"*Endlong* the lusty river."—*Dunbar.*
end-lang
a-lang
a-long
a-lonk
a-long-st

The word *long* or *along* in the phrase 'along of,' 'long of' ("all this coil is *long of* you."—*Shakspere*), is of different origin. It is the A.-S. *gelang*, from *gelingan*, to happen.[3]

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[1] Mr. Wedgwood (*Dict. Eng. Etym.*) thinks that the *nt* is due to Norse influence.
[2] *Id.*, v. behind.
[3] Wedgwood, *Dict. Eng. Etym.*, v. along.

19. Mid (A.-S. *mid*) = with. O. F. *mith*, O. N. *meth*.

20. Mid (O. Fr. *midd-a*)
mid-st
a-midd-é (A.-S. *a-midd-an*)
a-mid
a-mod
a-midd-es (A.-S. *midd-es, to-midd-es*)
e-midd-es
a-mid-s
a-mid-st
in-mid (A.-S. *on-midd-an*); "*inmid* the sea" (*Ch.*); *on-mydde* (*R. C. de Lion*).

21. Mong (O. Fr. *mong*); root *mog*, *meg*, or *mig*, in *meng-en*, E. E. = *ming-le*.
mong-st
a-mog (O. Fr. *mog*)
a-mong
a-mang (A.-S. *a-mang*)
a-mang-is
a-mong-es
e-mang-es
e-mong-es
a-mong-s
a-mong-st
bi-mong (A.-S. *ge-mang*)

22. Neath (A.-S. *neoth-an*)
a-neath (P.)
be-neath (A.-S. *be-neoth*)
bi-neth (O. Fr. *bi-neth-a*)
bi-neth-an (A.-S. *be-nith-an*)
bi-nith-er
under-neath

23. Nigh (O. Fr. *ni*, *nei*, A.-S. *neah*)
nigh-er
nigh-est (A.-S. *neh-st*)
next (A.-S. *next*)
near (A.-S. *near*)
near-er
near-est
a-nigh (P.)
a-nighst (P.)
a-near (P.)
a-neast (P.)

24. Of (A.-S. *of*)
af. Compare *ab* and *apo*.
o; 'Will-*o*-the wisp.'

out-of. Though written separately, these words form a real compound—'He did it *out of* kindness.'

25. OFF. A later form of *of*, with another meaning.

26. ON (A.-S. *on*)
an (A.-S. *an*)
a (O. N. *a*)
o
oven-on = above
anoven-an = above
in-an = upon
up-on

27. ROUND. This is the A.-S. *rand* and *rond*, 'border,' or 'rim.' It was not employed as a preposition in A.-S.; *ymbe* supplied its place.
a-round
a-roun (P.)

28. SINCE.

(*a*) sith, suth, seth } (A.-S. *sith*). This word meant 'time'; 'a hundred sith' (§ 237). Compare the Germ. *seit* and *zeit*.
sith-en (A.-S. *sith-an*)
seth-é, suth-é }
sith-en-ce, sith-en-s }

(*b*) sin (O. N. *sinn*); possibly a contraction of *sithen*.
sin-ce, sin-s }

29. TILL (A.-S. *til*); probably a contraction of 'to while' = 'to the time.' Robert of Gloucester has 'to whille' = *till*. In L. Sc. *til* means simply *to*—'*til* and fra' = 'to and fro.'
tille.
in-til = into—"*Intil* ane glen."—*Dunbar*.
on-til
up-til = upon. "Leaned her breast *uptil* a thorn."—*Shakspere*.
un-til; 'as far as,' and 'as long as.'

30. To (A.-S. *to*)
ta (Mod. Fr. *ta*)
te (O. Fr. *te*)
to-ward
to-ward-es
to-ward-s
for-to = until
in-to
un-to

31. (*a*) TWEEN (A.-S. *twegen*, two)
a-tween
be-tween (A.-S. *be-twin-an*)
bi-tween
bi-ten
be-twe

(*b*) TWIXT (O. Fr. *twisk*) = tweg-st.
a-twix-é (O. Fr. *a-twix-a*)
a-twixt
be-twix-en } (A.-S. *be-twux*)
be-twux-en } (A.-S. *be-tux*)
bi-tux-en }
be-twix-é
be-twix
bi-twex
be-twesh
be-twixt-é
be-twixt (A.-S. *be-twyxt*)

32. THROUGH (O. Fr. *thruch*)
thrugh
thurh (A.-S. *thurh*)
thurch
thurgh
thorgh
thurch
thorth
thurf
thurs
thorough ; 'thoroughfare.' "*Thorough* flood, *thorough* fire"—*Shakspere.*
thoru

33. UMB-EN = about, E. E. (O. Fr. *umb-e*, A.-S. *ymb-e*)
embe

34. UNDER (A.-S. *under*)
onder (O. Fr. *onder*)
an-under (P.)
an-onder ; "Ther nis non betere *anonder* sunne."—*G. K. Horn.*

35. WITH (A.-S. *with*)
wit

The following are Compounds of Prepositions and Nouns, or Adjectives.

36. A-BOARD (A.-S. and O. Fr. *a bord*) = on a plank, the deck of a vessel.

37. A-CROSS. From the Lat. *crux* through the French.

37 *. A-LOFT (A.-S. *a-lyft*) in the air—

The rampant bear chained to a ragged staff
This day I'll wear *aloft my burgonet.*—*Shakspere.*

38. A-SCANT [1] = across. "There is a willow grows *ascant* the brook."
—*Shakspere.*
a-scaunt

39. A-STRIDE (O. Fr. *a stride*), connected with the root of *straddle.*

40. A-THWART (A.-S. *on thweorh*) ; from *thwart,* 'cross.' E. E. over-twert, over-thorte, P. athirt.

41. A-TOUR [2] = about, around (Halliwell). It seems sometimes to mean 'above.' "The horse *atour* the green did glide."—*Dunbar.* "*Atour* the flood," "*Atour* al thinge," "*Atour* measure."—*Dunbar.*

42. BE-LOW (A.-S. *lah,* low), not used as a Preposition in A.-S.

43. BE-SIDE
be-sid-en
be-sid-é (O. Fr. *bi-sid-a*)
be-side
bi-side
be-sid-es
along-side
in-side
out-side

44. BE-YOND (A.-S. *be-geond*) ; demonstrative pron. *yond* (§ 261).
be-yund
bi-yonde
bi-yende

422. The following words are used apparently as prepositions :—

bating	excepting	regarding
concerning	maugre	notwithstanding
despite	opposite	sans, E. E.
during	pending	save, sauf, E. E.
except	respecting	

All these, with the exception of *notwithstanding*, are of classical origin, and all but *sans* and *despite* are participles. Their true character is explained in the Syntax (§ 484).

[1] Of doubtful derivation. See Mr. Wedgwood, *Dict. Eng. Etym.*
[2] "*Atour* = *at over*, i. e. across."—Skeat, *Gloss. Index to Lanc. of the Laik.*

423. Many of the prepositions in the list given above have a suffix *-st*. The true nature of this suffix has yet to be determined. It may possibly be superlative, intensifying the meaning of the simple word—*a-mid*, 'in the middle of;' *a-mid-st*, 'in the *very* middle of.'

424. Some of the English prepositions are employed occasionally as adverbs and conjunctions: *e. g.*—

Before their eyes the wizard lay.—*Scott.* (Prep. *ante.*)

A likeness hardly seen *before.*—*Tennyson.* (Adv. *antea.*)

Before the garrison had recovered from their surprise, the governor was master of the outworks.—*Macaulay.* (Conj. *antequam.*)[1]

The young student should be trained to distinguish these, as a knowledge of the distinction is essential, not only in translating into other languages, but in explaining the structure of English sentences.

CONJUNCTIONS.

425. Conjunctions are words used to connect propositions—

Cheerful he seemed, *and* gentleness he loved.—*Crabbe.*

He chid their wanderings, *but* relieved their pain.—*Goldsmith.*

The word *and*, though commonly employed to connect propositions, sometimes has a different meaning (*with, together with*). It then has a prepositional character, and should not be treated as an ordinary conjunction. Many grammarians, overlooking this double property of the word *and*, assert that conjunctions connect *words* as well as propositions.

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[1] Though usually termed a conjunction, *before*, in such constructions, is in reality a preposition governing a sentence—'I left *before* [he came].' Hence in E. E. the demonstrative *that* is frequently found preceding the sentence, to direct emphatic attention to it—'I left before *that* [he came].' This remark applies equally to *after*, *while*, and *since*. Compare the Latin *antequam*, *postquam*.

426. Conjunctions sometimes couple independent propositions, and are then called *co-ordinate.*

His words were few, *and* special was his care
In simplest terms his purpose to declare.—*Crabbe.*

A wise man's circumstances may vary and fluctuate like the floods about a rock; *but* he persists unmovably the same and his reputation unshaken.—*Barrow.*

Sometimes they subjoin a dependent to a principal sentence, and are then called *sub-ordinate*—

Ere the high lawns appeared
Under the opening eyelids of the morn,
We drove afield.—*Milton.*

If Homer had not led the way, it was not in Virgil to have begun Heroic poetry.—*Dryden.*

427. Dependent propositions are frequently subjoined by relative and interrogative pronouns, and by the adverbs derived from them. These words may then be viewed as true conjunctions, or subjunctive particles. They differ, however, from ordinary conjunctions in the fact that, while connecting propositions, they still retain their pronominal or adverbial character. See § 407.

428. Conjunctions are frequently used in pairs, one being placed before each of the connected words or sentences—*as-so; both-and; either-or; neither-nor; whether-or; or-or; though-yet*, &c.

Though Birnam wood be come to Dunsinane,
Yet will I try the last.—*Shakspere.*

Neither history *nor* biography is able to move a step without infractions of this rule.—*De Quincey.*

These words are often called adverbs, but, as they too serve to connect sentences, they deserve like the rest the name of conjunctions. They bear, in fact, the same relation to the other conjunctions that the so-called antecedent does to the relative.—Prof. Key, *Alphabet*, p. 136.

429. The demonstrative pronoun *that* is often used in apposition to a sentence forming the subject or object of a

verb, to fix the attention more strongly upon the collective idea contained in the sentence—

Experience tells me *that* [my past enjoyments have brought no real felicity].—*Goldsmith.*

That [a human being cannot be justly held and used as property] is apparent from the very nature of property.—*Channing.*

In such phrases it has now the force of a conjunction.[1]

INTERJECTIONS.

430. Interjections are words expressing sudden or deep feeling, which have no grammatical connection with the sentences in which they occur.

O blest retirement, friend to life's decline!—*Goldsmith.*

Where, then, *ah* where shall Poverty reside?—*Id.*

The Interjection has one important peculiarity, which not only vindicates its claim to be regarded as a constituent of language, but entitles it unequivocally to a high rank among the elements of discourse. It is in itself expressive and significant, though indeed in a low degree, whereas, at least in uninflected languages like the English, other words, detached from their grammatical connections, are meaningless and become intelligible only as members of a period.[2]

431. There are two classes of Interjections—

(1) Simple sounds elicited by some excitement of the mind—*O*, *ah*, *fie*, *pshaw*, *pish*, *ugh*.

(2) Fragments of entire sentences consisting sometimes of two or more words—*Byrlakin! Odsbodikins!* &c.; and sometimes of single words—(*a*) nouns, *Peace! Silence! Marry!* &c. (*b*) verbs, *Hark! Hush! Lo!* (*c*) adjectives, *Strange! Shocking! Dreadful!* (*d*) adverbs, *Soft! Away!*

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[1] For a detailed explanation of the true character of this word, see Prof. Key's article on conjunctions (*Alphabet*, p. 133).

[2] Marsh, *Lecture XIII.*

DIMINUTIVES.

432. Diminutives are words with the original meaning of the root modified by various suffixes signifying 'little'; as, *hill-ock*, 'little hill'; *duck-ling*, 'little duck'; *shall-ow*, 'little shoal'; *glimm-er*, 'little gleam'; *black-ish*, 'rather black'; *maid-en*, 'little maid,' &c.

They denote smallness, tenderness or affection, pity and contempt. Many words with a diminutival suffix have lost their diminutive meaning, and in many instances the primitive word has become obsolete.

The various diminutival suffixes have been given under the derivation of the different parts of speech.

AUGMENTATIVES.

433. Augmentatives are words formed by the addition of a suffix which strengthens the meaning of the simple word, as *dull; dull-ard*, 'a *very* dull person.'

In Modern English the primitive word is often obsolete.

434. Augmentatives are of two kinds—(I.) Teutonic; (II.) Classical.

(I.) Teutonic: *-art, -ard, -rd.* This suffix appears to have been introduced by the Franks, Vandals, and other German tribes, into the languages of France, Spain, and Italy, and hence is often found affixed to words of classical origin. It is used with various significations—

(*a*) Praise—*Leon-ard, Rich-ard.*

(*b*) Blame—*drunk-ard, cow-ard, slugg-ard, bragg-art, dast-ard* (daze), *dot-ard, nigg-ard.*

(*c*) Male sex—*wiz-ard, mall-ard, lenn-ard* (male linnet).

(*d*) State or condition—*bay-ard* (a bay horse), *li-ard* (a gray horse), *stand-ard, cust-ard, poll-ard.*

(*c*) Intensity—*poin-ard, tank-ard, gris-ard* (very gray), *hagg-ard.*

The words *steward, lizard, orchard, leopard* are not augmentatives (*stow-ward, lacerto-, ort-gard, leopardo-*).

435. (II.) CLASSICAL: *-on, -one, -oon* (Ital. *-one*): *galle-on, poltr-on,* or *poltr-oon, tromb-one, ball-oon, cart-oon, pont-oon, drag-oon, buff-oon, barrac-oon, harp-oon, bab-oon,* &c.

This suffix, *on*, is thought by some to have originally signified *man*, and to have had no intensive force. Hence the Roman names *Cicer-on-, Tuber-on-, Nas-on-*, &c.

PATRONYMICS.

436. Patronymics are names formed by adding a suffix or prefix to the name of the father to indicate the son.

As Englishmen bear names derived from various stocks, it may be useful to exhibit such of the forms employed in the Indo-European languages as are not unfrequently found among English surnames.

437. One mode of expressing the patronymic was to employ the genitive case—

(1) English—*Richard-s, Wilkin-s, Roger-s.*
(2) Greek—*Ho Platon-os* (the [son] of Plato).
(3) Latin—*Tull-ius* (son of Tullus), *Mar-cius* (son of Marcus).

In A.-S. the suffix *-ing* was employed for this purpose—*Brown-ing, Hard-ing, Bald-ing.*

In Greek the suffix *-ida* was also commonly used—*Leon-ida-s* (Leon's son).

438. A second mode was to suffix the word *son*, or its equivalent—

(1) English—*Dick-son, John-son, Robin-son.*
(2) Slavonic—*-vitch, -ski; Petro-vitch, Petrow-ski.*
(3) Spanish—*ez; Fernand-ez.*

439. A third mode was to *prefix* a word meaning *son*—

(1) Norman French—*Fitz-* (filius); *Fitz-osborne, Fitz-william Fitz-roy, Fitz-herbert.*

(2) Irish Gaelic—*O-*; *O'Conner, O'Connel, O'Niel.*

(3) Scotch Gaelic—*Mac-*; *Mac-Ivor, Mac-Intosh.*

(4) Welsh—*ap-*; *ap-Evan* (Bevan), *ap-Howel* (Powel), *ap-Hugh* (Pugh), *ap-Richard* (Pritchard), *ap-Adam* (Badham), &c.

(5) Hebrew—*Bar*; *Bar-tholomew, Bar-jonas. Ben*; *Ben-jamin, Ben-hadad, Ben-oni.*

PART III.

SYNTAX.

440. *Syntax*, derived from two Greek words signifying 'arranging together,' is that part of grammar which describes the arrangement of words in sentences.

Propositions.

441. The simple statement of a fact is called a *proposition.*

When a fact is *affirmed*, the statement is an *affirmative* proposition—

Thou art a witch.—*Shakspere.*

When a fact is *denied*, the statement is a *negative* proposition—

My hour is not yet come.—*Id.*

442. In a proposition, that of which we speak is called the *subject*—

Thou art a witch.

What we say of the subject is the *predicate*—

Thou *art a witch.*

443. Writers on logic divide the proposition into *three* parts—(1) the *subject*—that respecting which the assertion is made ; (2) the *copula*—the verb *be* expressed or implied in the statement ; and (3) the *predicate*—what is stated of the subject.

In *grammatical* analysis this division is both unnecessary and inaccurate.

444. A *sentence* is one or more propositions expressing a complete thought.

A *simple* sentence states a single fact, as,

I hear thee speak of the better land.—*Hemans.*

445. Sentences may be divided into two classes—*Principal* and *Subordinate.* (1) A *Principal Sentence* forms the main assertion and is complete in itself. (2) A *Subordinate Sentence* is not complete in itself, but is attached to the Principal Sentence to qualify or modify some word in it, or stands as subject, object, or in apposition to it.

(*Prin.*) The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.—*Gray.* Simple.
(*Prin.*) *Who shall decide,* when doctors disagree?—*Pope.*
(*Sub.*) *Just as the twig is bent* the tree's inclined.—*Pope.*
(*Sub.*) The man *that blushes* is not quite a brute.—*Young.*
(*Sub.*) But this informs me *I shall never die.*—*Addison.*

446. Sentences are said to be—(1) *Simple,* when they consist of a single principal sentence; (2) *Compound,* when formed by the union of two or more principal sentences; (3) *Complex,* when formed of principal and subordinate sentences.

(*Simple*) The paths of glory lead but to the grave.—*Gray.*

(*Compound*) Weave the warp, and weave the woof.—*Gray.*

(*Complex*) Who, as they sung, would take the prison'd soul
And lap it in Elysium.—*Milton.*

Subordinate Sentences may be sub-divided into three classes—Noun, Adjective, and Adverbial Sentences. These are so called because they are used like Nouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs respectively.

(1) *Noun Sentences* stand as the subject or object of some verb, or are in apposition to some word.

(*Subj.*) *Whatever is*, is right.—*Pope.*

(*Obj.*) Some asked me, *where the Rubies grew.—Herrick.*

(*Appos.*) And *it* must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.—Shakspere.

(2) *Adjective Sentences* qualify some noun or pronoun—

A verse may find him, *who a sermon flies.—Herbert.*

There stood a hill not far, *whose grisly top*
Belched fire and rolling smoke.—Milton.

important { Adjective sentences are generally introduced by a Relative Pronoun, or by one of the Relative Adverbs—*when*, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *why*; but these latter serve also to introduce Adverbial Sentences, when they refer to a verb and not to a noun or pronoun.

(3) *Adverbial Sentences* modify a verb, adjective, or adverb. The following relations are expressed by adverbial sentences—

(*a*) *Place*, as—I am *where I would ever be.—Procter.*

(*b*) *Time*, as—Abide with me *when night is nigh.—Keble.*

(*c*) *Cause*, as—Cursed be I *that I did so.—Shakspere.*

(*d*) *Condition*, as—*If he had loved her before*, he now adored her. *Irving.*

though

(*e*) *Concession*, as—*Much as he loved his wealth*, he loved his children better.—*Cooper.*

(*f*) *Consequence*, as—He gazed so long
That both his eyes were dazzled.—Tennyson.

(*g*) *Purpose*, as—I came, *that Marco might not come.—L. Hunt.*

(*h*) *Manner*, as—Tears, ~~*such as angels weep,* burst forth~~.—*Milton.*

I came just as I was

447. Sentences which are of equal rank grammatically are said to be *Co-ordinate.* Thus one principal sentence may be co-ordinate with another principal sentence, and one subordinate sentence with another.

They are generally joined by the copulative conjunctions —*and*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, *for*, *as well as*, *now*, *nevertheless*, *then*;

or by pairs of conjunctions—*both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, whether . . . or, or . . . or.*

Principal Co-ordinate Sentences—

God made the country and man made the town.—*Cowper.*

My hair is gray, but not with years;
Nor grew it white
In a single night.—*Byron.*

Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them.—*Shakspere.*

Subordinate Co-ordinate Sentences—

'Tis hard to know, *if greater want of skill*
Appear in writing or in judging ill.—Pope.

Some natural sorrow, loss, or pain,
That has been, and may be again.—Wordsworth.

Co-ordinate Sentences are often placed together without any connecting word, as—

Weep no more, lady, weep no more;
Thy sorrow is in vain.—*Percy's Reliques.*

The Parts of a Sentence.

448. The *Subject* may be—

(1) A *noun.* The *combat* deepens.—*Campbell.*

(2) A *pronoun.* Too late *I* stayed.—*Spenser.*

(3) An *adjective used substantively.* The *good* die first.
Wordsworth.

(4) An *infinitive mood. To be* contents his natural desire.—*Pope.*

(5) A *subordinate sentence. That you have wronged me* doth appear in this.—*Shakspere.*

449. The *Predicate* may consist of a single finite verb, as—Day *dawns;* but verbs of *being, becoming,* &c., and passive verbs of *naming, making, appointing,* &c., require a

noun, adjective, or pronoun to complete their meaning, and hence are sometimes called verbs of incomplete predication, as—He was *made king.* The sky *became clear.* It *was you.*

Transitive verbs are also called verbs of incomplete predication, their meaning being completed by the *object.*

450. The *Object* may take the same forms as the subject, as—

(1) A *noun.* Each cursed his *fate.*
(2) A *pronoun.* We have lost *him.*
(3) An *adjective used substantively.* He slew the *young* and *innocent.*
(4) An *infinitive mood.* Learn *to do* well.
(5) A *subordinate sentence.*—Who can tell *how hard it is to climb?*

But there are two other cases that require notice. *First,* when a noun (or pronoun) is followed by an infinitive mood, which completes the action of the predicate, and does not qualify the object, as—He had a *coat made,* i. e. *to be made,* and, He caused *him to stumble.* The noun (or pronoun) together with the infinitive here form the object. *Secondly,* when verbs of *making* are followed by a factitive object, as—They made Cromwell Protector, where the factitive object is best analyzed with the verb as part of the predicate.

An object is said to be *Indirect* when it denotes the person *to* or *for whom* the action is done. He brought *me* a flower. I told *them* a tale.

451. *The Enlargement*—The subject and object may have a word or phrase added to them to qualify them; this is called the *enlargement* of the subject (or object). (It should be noticed, that the enlargement *limits the signification* of the word it qualifies.) The enlargement may have the following forms—

(1) A *noun in apposition.* Hope, *the charmer,* lingered still behind.
(2) An *adjective.* *Honest* labour bears a *lovely* face.

(3) A *possessive case.* A *beehive's* hum shall soothe my ear.
(4) A *participle.* Praise *undeserved* is scandal in disguise.
Or *participial phrase.* The soldier, *worn out with toil*, lay down to rest.
(5) A *prepositional phrase.* He wears the rose *of youth* upon him.
(6) An *infinitive mood.* Leaves have their time *to fall.*

452. *The Extension*—The predicate may be modified by a word or phrase, which is usually called an extension. The extension may be—

(1) An *adverb* or *adverbial phrase.* The sun shines *brightly.*
(2) A *prepositional phrase. Beyond this flood* a frozen continent lies.
(3) A *noun.* We went *home.* They arrived *last week.*
(4) A *participle* or *participial phrase.* He allowed himself no great leisure, *being busily engaged with the supper.*
(5) An *infinitive mood.* Suns *to light me* rise.

453. The *Nominative Absolute*—When a participle qualifies a noun (or pronoun), which is not the subject or object of the sentence, the noun is said to be used *absolutely*, and its case is the *Nominative Absolute*, as—*The enemy being defeated*, the army retired into winter quarters; *the rain ceasing*, we went out. These phrases, which express the time, cause, or condition of the action, may be analyzed as extensions of the predicate.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS.

The Simple Sentence.

1. Vice itself lost half its evil, by losing all its grossness.
2. The trappings of a monarchy would set up an ordinary commonwealth.
3. A servant with this clause
   Makes drudgery divine.
4. No longer relieving the miserable, he sought only to enrich himself by their misery.
5. From yonder ivy-mantled tower
   The moping owl does to the moon complain.

	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargement.	Extension.
1	Vice	lost	its evil	half (obj.) itself (subj.)	by losing all its greatness (manner).
2	The trappings	would set up	commonwealth	of a monarchy (subj.) an ordinary (obj.)	
3	A servant	makes divine	drudgery	with this clause (obj.)	
4	He	sought	to enrich himself	no longer relieving the miserable (subj.)	only (manner) by their misery (manner).
5	The owl	does complain		moping (subj.)	from yonder ivy-mantled tower (place) to the moon (place)

Compound and Complex Sentences.

1. Were half the wealth bestowed on camps and forts
   Given to redeem the human mind from error,
   There were no need of arsenals and forts.
2. All averred I had killed the bird,
   That made the breeze to blow.
3. They that marry ancient people, merely in expectation to bury them, hang themselves, in hope that one will come and cut the halter.
4. The accusing spirit, which flew up to heaven's chancery with the oath, blushed as he gave it in.

Sentence.	Kind.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargement.	Extension.
Were half the wealth bestowed on camps and forts given to redeem the human mind from error	Adverbial Sentence of condition	the wealth	were given		bestowed on camps and forts (subj.) half (subj.)	to redeem the human mind from error (purpose).
There were no need of arsenals and forts	Principal Sentence	no need	were there		of arsenals and forts (subj.)	
All averred	Prin. Sent.	All	averred			
I had killed the bird	Noun Sent. Obj. of *averred*	I	had killed	the bird		
That made the breeze to blow	Adjective Sent. qualif. *bird*	That	made	the breeze to blow		
They hang themselves in hope . . . . halter	Prin. Sent.	They	hang	themselves		in hope . . . . halter (manner)
that marry ancient people merely in expectation to bury them	Adject. Sent. qualif. *they*	that	marry	people	ancient (obj.)	merely in expectation to bury them (cause)
that one will come	Noun Sent. in appos. to *hope*	(that—connective) one	will come			
and cut the halter	Noun Sent. in appos. to *hope*, and co-ord. with preceding	(and—connective) one	(will) cut	the halter		
The accusing spirit blushed	Prin. Sent.	the spirit	blushed		accusing(subj.)	
which flew up to heaven's chancery with the oath	Adject. Sent. qualif. *spirit*	which	flew			up (direction) to heaven's chancery (place) with the oath (manner)
as he gave it in	Adverbial Sent. of Time	he	gave	it		in (place) as (manner)

454. The following grammatical terms are frequently employed in explaining the structure of sentences—*Apposition*, *Pleonasm*, *Ellipsis*.

455. *Apposition.* When one noun is used to explain another, it is attracted into the same case as the noun it explains, and is said to be in *apposition* to it—

So work the honey *bees*,
Creatures that by a rule in nature teach
The art of order to a peopled kingdom.—*Shakspere.*

The noun *creatures* is in the same case as *bees.*

It is not necessary that the explanatory word or words should be of the same *number* as the noun they explain—

That best *portion* of a good man's life—
His little, nameless, unremembered *acts*
Of kindness and of love.—*Wordsworth.*

456. An infinitive phrase, or a sentence, may be in apposition to a noun—

O let us still *the secret joy* partake,
To follow virtue e'en for virtue's sake!—*Pope.*

In the serene expression of her face he read *the divine beatitude*, "*Blessed are the pure in heart.*"—*Longfellow.*

457. A noun with or without qualifying words may be in apposition to a sentence—

[By folly ye be not content with your estate], a *fancie* to be plucked out of you.—*Sir J. Cheeke.*

458. When a sentence is in apposition to a noun, the demonstrative *that* is placed before the sentence—

He had not learned *the superficial doctrine* of a later age—*that* [poetry flourishes most in an uncultivated soil], and *that* [imagination shapes its brightest visions from the mists of a superstitious age].—*Channing.*

It seems hardly possible to avoid the *conclusion that* [the Phœnicians must have been the people from whom Homer drew his information respecting the outer circle of the geography of the Odyssey].—*Gladstone.*

459. When the predicate consists of an intransitive verb and a noun, these words simply describe the subject, and the noun is therefore in apposition to it—

The long-remembered *beggar* was *his guest.*—*Goldsmith.*

And the *earth* was all *rest*, and the *air* was all *love.*—*Shelley.*

460. *Pleonasm.* Superfluous words are sometimes found. This redundancy of expression is called *Pleonasm*—

The net was never spread for the hawke or buzzard that hurt us but the harmlesse birds *they* are good meat.—*Ben Jonson.*

I know *thee*, stranger, who thou art.—*Milton.*

The world *it* is empty, the heart will die.—*Coleridge.*

461. This frequently occurs when a writer converts an assertion into a question—

Yon silver beams,
Sleep *they* less sweetly on the cottage-thatch
Than on the dome of kings?—*Shelley.*

in many cases an effective device for emphasis

The care of our children, is *it* below the state?—*Goldsmith.*

My lord constable, the armour that I saw in your tent to-night, are those suns or stars upon *it*?—*Shakspere.*

This change of construction sometimes occurs when the sentence is not interrogative—

The man that is once hated, both his good and his evil deeds oppress *him.*—*Ben Jonson.*

The former agents, if *they* did complain,
What could the belly answer?—*Shakspere.*

The soul that sinneth, *it* shall die.—*English Bible.*

462. *Ellipsis.* Words necessary to complete the grammatical structure of the sentence are often omitted. This omission is termed *Ellipsis*—

I was yesterday to dine at the Duchess of Piccadilly's [house].
Goldsmith.

Whose is this image and superscription? They say unto Him, Cæsar's [image and superscription].—*English Bible.*

Hadst thou the same free will and power to stand?
Thou hadst [the same free will and power to stand].—*Milton.*

The Nominative.

463. The young student should not overlook the distinction between the *Subject* and the *Nominative.* In the logical analysis of a sentence, that of which we speak is termed the *subject*, and this may consist of one or more nouns, clauses, or sentences. In grammatical analysis, if a simple noun or pronoun is the subject of a proposition, it is said to be in the *nominative* case. Hence the nominative always marks the subject of the verb; but the subject often includes other explanatory words and phrases.

464. The *subject* of the sentence is in the Nominative Case, as—

The *vulgar* boil, the *learned* roast an egg.—*Pope.*

465. A noun in apposition to the subject is in the Nominative Case—

When Music, *heavenly maid,* was young.—*Collins.*

466. The noun or pronoun used as part of the predicate after verbs of being, becoming, seeming, and after passive verbs of naming, making, appointing, is called a *Complementary* Nominative—

My name is *Norval* (Home).
William was made *king*.

467. When a noun is used to denote the person addressed its case is called the *Nominative of Address*—

O, *Iago*, the pity of it, *Iago.*—*Shakspere.*

468. Adjectives and qualifying phrases often accompany the person or thing addressed—

Rise, *crowned with light, imperial Salem*, rise!—*Pope.*

469. The subject is sometimes repeated in the form of a pronoun—

The count *he* was left to the vulture and hound.—*Scott.*
His breath *it* was lightning, his voice *it* was storm.—*Id.*
The green boughs *they* wither, the thunderbolt falls.—*Id.*
His chance to-night, *it* may be thine to-morrow.—*Dunbar.*

470. When explanatory words or additional facts have been added to the Nominative, this repetition is of frequent occurrence—

And the wave at the foot of the rifted rock
It murmured pleasantly.—*Kirke White.*

Deborah, a prophetess, the wife of Lapidoth, *she* judged Israel at that time.—*Eng. Bible.*

To assert that such a passage argues equal impudence and ignorance in its author at the time of writing and publishing it, *this* is not arrogance.—*Coleridge.*

Hunger, and thirst, and fatigue, the cold of mountain snows, and the scorching sun of the tropics, *these* were the lot of every cavalier who came to seek his fortune in the New World.—*Prescott.*

471. The subject is sometimes repeated for the sake of emphasis or explanation—

Hell at last
Yawning received them whole and on them closed—
Hell their fit habitation, fraught with fire
Unquenchable, the house of woe and pain.—*Milton.*

The *spirit* of Francis Bacon was abroad—a *spirit* admirably compounded of audacity and sobriety.—*Macaulay.*

Thoughts delightful still—*thoughts* of the faces and voices of the dead perish not, lying sometimes in slumber, sometimes in sleep.—*Wilson.*

472. The only instances in which the subject is omitted in English are—

(*a*) In the Present Imperative—

Awake, arise, or be for ever fallen!—*Milton.*

Bring thy children up in learning and obedience, yet without austerity.—*Sir P. Sidney.*

(*b*) In the expression of a wish with *would*—

[I] would he were fatter!—*Shakspere.*

(*c*) In the elliptical expressions, 'Thank you,' 'Pray, be careful.' Compare *prithee* = 'I pray thee.'

(*d*) In O. E. and in poetry, when the verb is in the second person singular, and the sentence is interrogative. The suffix determines the person—

Wolt weep? wolt fight? wolt fast? wolt tear thyself?
Wolt drink up esil? eat a crocodile?—*Shakspere.*

Art in prison? Make right use of it, and mortify thyself.—*Burton.*

473. In the so-called impersonal verbs *methinks*, *meseems*, the subject is the sentence which follows the verb—

Methinks [some of our modern Argonautes should prosecute the rest].—*Burton.*

Methinketh [I fele yet in my nose
The sweté savour of the rose].—*Chaucer.*

But soft! methinks [I scent the morning air].—*Shakspere.*

The true construction is, "*I scent the morning air* appears to me" (*mihi videtur*).

474. When a simple subject, or a subjective sentence, is placed after the verb, the neuter pronoun *it*, in apposition to the subject, stands before the verb—

It was an English ladye bright.—*Scott.*

It is the hardest thing in the world [to shake off superstitious prejudices].—*Gilbert White.*

475. When a subjective sentence begins with a conjunction, *it* often represents the fact stated in the sentence—

[When a vertuous man is raised], *it* brings gladnesse to his friends, griefe to his enemies, and glory to his posterity.—*Ben Jonson.*

In O. E. *it* is sometimes omitted—

And so befell [I rested me
Beside a well under a tree].—*Chaucer.*

Seemed [in her heart some hidden care she had].—*Spens.*

476. A more emphatic mode of expression is to employ the pronoun *this* or *that* instead of *it*—

This is servitude,
[To serve th' unwise, or him who hath rebelled
Against his worthier].—*Milton.*

This is the danger, [when vice becomes a precedent].—*Ben Jonson.*

That's a man's country [where he is well at ease].—*Burton.*

477. When the verb *be* is used simply to imply existence, and not as a copula, the pronominal adverb *there* is substituted for it—

There is a world elsewhere.—*Shakspere.*

There was a wycche [witch] and made a bagge.—*Rob. of Brunne.*

This rule applies to many, perhaps all, intransitive verbs—

And *there* came forth two she-bears out of the wood.—*Eng. Bib.*

From yonder wall
There flashed no fire, and *there* hissed no ball.—*Byron.*

In O. E. *it* is sometimes found in such constructions, instead of *there*—

Hit was onys a riche man.—*Rob. of Brunne.*

i. e. There was once a rich man.

Hit was onys a munke and had a celle
In a wyldernesse for to dwelle.—*Id.*

478. When a sentence stands as the subject of a verb, it is usual to direct emphatic attention to it by prefixing the conjunction *that*—

That [a historian should not record trifles], *that* [he should confine himself to what is important], is perfectly true.—*Macaulay.*

Better far *that* [he should be studied among the poets], than *that* [he should not be studied at all].—*Gladstone.*

That [we cannot] is pretended; *that* [we will not] is the true reason. —*Ben Jonson.*

479. When a sentence in the predicate is in apposition to

the subject, *that* frequently directs emphatic attention to the sentence—

My advice is *that* [you endeavour to be honestly rich, or contentedly poor].—*I. Walton.*

480. When a subjective sentence is placed after the verb, the demonstrative *that* is usually retained, although *it* stands in apposition to the sentence—

It occasionally happened *that* [his wit obtained the mastery over his other faculties, and led him into absurdities into which no dull man could possibly have fallen].—*Macaulay.*

Both *it* and *that* are occasionally employed when the subjective sentence stands before the verb—"*That* [we are the breath and similitude of God], *it* is indisputable."—*Sir T. Browne.*

481. The subject usually stands before the predicate—

The sports of children satisfy the child.—*Goldsmith.*

It follows the verb in certain constructions.

(*a*) When an adverb or an adverbial phrase begins the sentence—

Up rose *the victor angels*, and to arms
The matin-trumpet sung.—*Milton.*

In such misery and shame ended [that long career of worldly wisdom and worldly prosperity].—*Macaulay.*

(*b*) When the object of the verb is emphatically placed first—

Teeth hadst *thou* in thy head when thou wast born.—*Shakspere.*

(*c*) When the predicate is placed emphatically first—

Sad is *your tale* of the beautiful earth.—*Hemans.*

(*d*) In quoting the words of another—

Is this the region? this the soil, the clime?
(Said then *the lost Archangel*) this the seat
That we must change for heaven?—*Milton.*

(*e*) In interrogative sentences—

Can *I* not mountain-maiden spy
But she must wear the Douglas eye?—*Scott.*

(*f*) After *neither* or *nor* it often stands between the auxiliary and the infinitive—

Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall *ye* touch it.—*Eng. Bib.*

(*g*) In conditional clauses, without *if*—

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
Had *he* thy reason, would he skip and play ?—*Pope.*

Could *a man* live by it, it were not an unpleasant employment to be a poet.—*Goldsmith.*

(*h*) In commands, when the subject is expressed—

Go, and do *thou* likewise.—*Eng. Bib.*

482. In poetry the subject occasionally follows the verb without these qualifications, for the purpose of rendering the verb emphatic—

Vanished the Saxon's struggling spear ;
Vanished the mountain-sword.—*Scott.*

The drawbridge falls—they hurry out—
Clatters each plank and swinging chain.—*Id.*

483. A noun or pronoun and a participle are frequently found in the nominative case to mark the time when an action is performed—

This said, they both betook them several ways.—*Milton.*

With that she fell distract,
And, *her attendants absent,* swallowed fire.—*Shakspere.*

Thy spirit
Is all afraid to govern thee near him ;
But, *he* away, 'tis nobler.—*Id.*

And, *thou* away, the very birds are mute.—*Id.*

These words have no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence ; *i. e.* are not governed by any word or words in the sentence to which they are attached, and are therefore called *Nominative Absolutes,* or *Detached Nominatives.*

In Latin the ablative is employed in these *detached* or *absolute* phrases ; in Greek, the genitive ; and in Anglo-Saxon, the dative.

This A.-S. dative was the origin of the *absolute* construction in English. Most grammarians, since the case-endings are lost, prefer to

call these words *nominatives*, and modern usage is in favour of this construction. Compare, however, the use of the dative absolute by Milton—

> And, *him* destroyed
> For whom all this was made, all this will soon
> Follow.

484. Sometimes an entire participial sentence is thus placed absolutely—

> For Nature then,
> [The coarser pleasures of my boyish days,
> And their glad animal movements, all gone by,]
> To me was all in all.—*Wordsworth.*
>
> And on he moves to meet his latter end,
> [Angels around befriending Virtue's friend].—*Goldsmith.*
>
> Others [their blue eyes with tears o'erflowing]
> Stand, like Ruth, amid the golden corn.—*Longfellow.*

In E. E. the word *being* or *considered* often introduces these absolute sentences—

Being these two notions of the word were different, it came to pass that, for distinction's sake, at first, they called the Church the Catholic Church.—*Pearson.*

> Nathelesse, *considered* his distresse,
> And that Love is in cause of such folie,
> Thus to him spake she of his jelousie.—*Chaucer.*
>
> *Considered this*, that ye these moneths twain
> Have tarried.—*Id.*

In Modern English the true construction of *considered* has been overlooked, and the active Participle supplies its place—

Considering my former circumstances, when the Portuguese captain took me up, I immediately ordered five guns to be fired.—*Defoe.*

The Object.

485. The student should distinguish between the *object* and the *accusative* or *objective case.* The *object* of a verb may be one or more simple nouns, clauses, or sentences. When a simple noun is the object of a verb, it is said to be in the Accusative or Objective case. In Modern English the case-ending is generally lost, but it is convenient to assume that the denuded noun is still an accusative.

486. The objective of a transitive verb is in the accusative case—

It beggared description.—*Shakspere.*

487. When a sentence stands as the object of a verb, the demonstrative pronoun *that*, in apposition to the sentence, usually precedes it—

The good woman saw at once *that* [her son was a genius and a poet].—*Washington Irving.*

For my part I have ever believed, and do now know, *that* [there are witches].—*Sir T. Browne.*

I have heard a grave divine say *that* [God has two dwellings, one in heaven, the other in a meek and thankful heart].—*I. Walton.*

Teach him *that* [states of native strength possest,
Though very poor, may still be very blest].—*Goldsmith.*

488. Sometimes the pronoun *it* is found in apposition to the objective sentence—

Thou dost; and think'st *it* much [to tread the ooze
Of the salt deep:
To run upon the sharp wind of the north;
To do me business in the veins o' the earth
When it is baked with frost].—*Shakspere.*

489. Occasionally the objective sentence precedes the verb, and *it* remains in its usual position—

[To call ourselves a microcosm or little world] I thought *it* only a pleasant trope of rhetorick.—*Sir T. Browne.*

[Whatsoever of our age is past,] Death holds *it;* [what is to come,] deceitful Hope hath *it.*—*Sir W. Raleigh.*

490. When an infinitive clause is the object of a verb, and the subject of that clause is expressed, it is in the accusative case—

His lordship soon perceived [*me* to be very unfit for his service].—*Goldsmith.*

In this construction *to* is often omitted—

For I in spirit saw [*thee* move
Thro' circles of the bounding sky].—*Tennyson.*

491. When an accusative case is followed by a noun preceded by the verb *to be,* this noun is called a Complementary Object—

I knew him to be a *man* of honour.

492. An intransitive verb is sometimes found with an accusative of the same nature as the verb—

Let me *die* the *death* of the righteous.—*English Bible.*

I have *fought* a good *fight.*—*Id.*

Dreaming *dreams* no mortals ever dared *to dream* before.—*Poe.*

This is usually called the *Cognate Accusative.*

493. Certain transitive verbs, signifying making, appointing, creating, &c., occasionally take two accusatives; one representing the *person,* the other the *office.* The latter is often called a *factitive* accusative—

Nature had made *Mr. Churchill a poet;* but destiny had made *him a schoolmaster.*—*Longfellow.*

Credulity in respect of certain authors, and *making them dictators* instead of consuls, is a principal cause that the sciences are no farther advanced.—*Bacon.*

The verbs *teach* and *ask* (sometimes) have also two objects: one, of the *thing;* the other, of the *person*—

They asked *him a question.*

Teach *me,* O Lord, *the way of thy statutes.*—*English Bible.*

Teach *me* [to watch over all my ways].—*Jeremy Taylor.*

He was gathered under the wings of one of those good old motherly dames, found in every village, who cluck together the whole callow brood of the neighbourhood, to *teach them their letters* and keep them out of harm's way.—*W. Irving.*

494. The verbs *promise, teach, give,* and some others, take a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing.

'I promised him every indulgence.' In the passive construction the dative becomes the subject of the verb, and the accusative remains unaltered—'He was promised *every indulgence.*'

We were perfectly instructed in the art of giving away thousands, before *we were taught* the necessary *qualification* of getting a farthing. —*Goldsmith.*

We were taught [to consider all the wants of mankind as our own].—*Id.*

Sometimes the accusative or direct object becomes the subject of the passive verb, and the dative or indirect object remains unchanged—'Every indulgence was promised *him.*'

495. Duration of time, direction, and extent of space are expressed by the accusative—

All night the dreadless angel unpursued
Through heaven's wide champaign held his way.—*Milton.*

Near this place was a stone pyramid *one hundred feet* in breadth and *two hundred feet* high.—*Grote.*

496. The accusative is (rarely) employed with an adjective, and without a preposition, to indicate the particular part affected by the adjective—

He layde him, bare *the visage,* on the bier.—*Chaucer.*

The usual construction requires a preposition.

497. Prepositions in Anglo-Saxon are found with the accusative, genitive, and dative cases; but in Modern English all prepositions *are said* to govern the accusative or objective only.

This is simply a convenient means of disguising our ignorance. The case-endings being lost, it is difficult for modern grammarians to state precisely the case each preposition governed.

498. The object is usually placed after the verb—

Learning, by its own force alone, will never remove *a prejudice* or establish *a truth.*—*Landor.*

And each separate dying ember
Wrought *its ghost* upon the floor.—*Edgar Poe.*

499. The object precedes the verb—

(*a*) When emphasis is required—

Honey from out the gnarlèd hive I'll bring,
And *apples* wan with sweetness gather thee.—*Keats.*

A midnight vigil holds the swarthy bat.—*Poe.*

[That part of the blame which rests upon myself] I am exerting my best faculties to remove.—*Coleridge.*

[The ties which bind man to man] he broke asunder; [the proper happiness of a man, which consists in the victory of moral energy and social affection over the selfish passions], he cast away for the lonely joy of the despot.—*Channing.*

(*b*) When the object is a Relative or Interrogative pronoun—

Ashtoreth, *whom* the Phœnicians called
Astarté, queen of heaven, with crescent horns.—*Milton.*

Whom hast thou, then, or *what*, to accuse
But Heaven's free love dealt equally to all?—*Id.*

500. In poetry, and occasionally in prose, part of the object sometimes stands emphatically first, while the qualifying phrases remain after the verb—

Our harps we left by Babel's stream,
The tyrant's jest, the Gentile's scorn.—*Scott.*

[To be obliged to wear a long wig, when I liked a short one, or a black coat when I dressed in brown], I thought such a restraint upon my liberty that I absolutely rejected the proposal.—*Goldsmith.*

Genitive or Possessive.

501. The genitive case denotes the source from which some object proceeds—'The hum *of the bee*,' *i. e.* 'the hum which *proceeds from* the bee.' These genitives are said to be *dependent* upon the nouns with which they are thus connected, and are usually called *Dependent Genitives.*

502. We are apt to consider the person *from* whom

anything is obtained to be the *owner* of that thing. Hence the genitive often marks possession—

> Now Jove suspends his golden scales in air,
> Weighs the *men's wits* against the *lady's hair*.—*Pope.*

503. The genitive case is expressed sometimes by the suffix *-es* or *'s*, and sometimes by substituting the preposition *of* for the case-ending—

> The hero's harp, the lover's lute.—*Byron.*
> It is the harp of Allan-bane.—*Scott.*
> The boast of heraldy, the pomp of power.—*Gray.*

The former mode of expression is usually limited to animate and personified objects; the latter may be employed with either animate or inanimate objects; but frequent violations of this rule occur in the figurative language of poetry.

504. Adjectives employed as nouns, though representing persons (*few*, *many*,[1] *several*, &c.), never take the inflectional ending in Modern English; but in O. E. we occasionally find them with the genitive suffix—

> In *many's* books the false heart's history
> Is writ.—*Shakspere.*

> Was made another statute, that non erle no baroun
> Tille holy kirke salle give tenement, rent, no lond
> Fro tho that now lyve into *the dedis hond*.—*Rob. of Brunne.*

i. e. in manum mortuorum.

505. If the possessive is the antecedent to a relative sentence, the form in *of* is always employed. Thus we say, 'the man's hat;' but, 'the hat *of the man* who was drowned.'

This was the face *of a man whose* life was spent rather in a career of thought and literary effort than in a career of active and laborious strife.—*Masson.*

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[1] *Many*, though now treated as an adjective, was originally an old French noun *mesnie*, 'a household.' See Dean Trench, *Eng. Past and Present*, pp. 156—8.

506. When two or more genitives are in apposition, or connected by the conjunction *and*, the case-ending is suffixed only to the last, the whole being viewed as a compound phrase.

My royal mistress, Artemesia's, fate
And all her son, young Artaban's, high hopes
Hang on this lucky crisis.—*Rowe.*

Henry the Sixth, the king of England's, wife.—*Drayton.*

King Henry the Eight married with the Lady Katherine, his brother Prince Arthur's wife.—*Foxe.*

507. The entire number or quantity from which a part is taken is in the genitive case. It is commonly called a *Partitive Genitive.* In modern prose it requires the form with *of.*

One *of its provisions* deserves special notice.—*Creasy.*

In the greenest *of our valleys.*—*Poe.*

508. In Old English *of* is sometimes omitted before partitive genitives—

A botel hay.—*Chaucer.* A galoun wyn.—*Id.*

Compare the German, *ein Glas Wein*, 'a glass of wine.'

In genitives denoting possession, the suffix is often omitted—

A mason ax; a smyth wife; a hors mane; a hart horn.—*Nom.* XV. *cent.*

To worschyp Hevene King.—*Rob. Brunne.*

509. The genitive, expressed by *of*, is frequently employed like an adjective to indicate some *quality* in the noun upon which it is dependent, and is then called a *genitive of quality: e. g.* 'a man *of courage*' = a *courageous* man.

Both were men *of splendid wit* and *polished taste.*—*Macaulay.*

A frame *of adamant*, a soul *of fire.*—*Johnson.*

It is also employed to express the material of which anything is made—a garland *of flowers*, a ring *of gold.*

510. The genitive is frequently found with an ellipsis of the noun upon which it is dependent—

The first day he repaired to *Paul's* (*i. e.* St. Paul's *church*), and had the hymn of 'Te Deum' sung.—*Bacon.*

I was the other day at *Will's.*—*Prior.*

511. This form of the genitive is often employed with adjectives to indicate the part defined by the adjective—

This awful beast full *terrible* was *of cheer,*
Piercing of look, and *stout of countenance,*
Richt *strong of corps, of fashion fair,* but feir,[1]
Lusty of shape, licht of deliverance,
Red of his colour as is the ruby glance.—*Dunbar.*

512. *A bust of Cicero—a bust of Cicero's.* The former means 'a representation of Cicero;' the latter, 'a bust belonging to Cicero.' This is sometimes explained as an elliptical expression, 'a bust of Cicero's busts,' *i. e.* one of the busts belonging to Cicero. It usually implies *possession,* when the unexpressed noun upon which it is dependent is a *partitive genitive* (§ 508). Hence we can say 'your father,' but not 'a father of yours.' On the other hand we can say 'your son' and 'a son of yours,' if there are more sons than one. But in such phrases as 'that son of yours,' 'that book of mine,' when there is but one son or one book, it seems to be simply a pleonastic expression.

513. A genitive singular is occasionally used in colloquial English to describe the class to which an individual belongs—'a brute *of a dog,*' 'a monster *of a man.*'

Compare 'monstrum mulieris' (*Plaut.*), and δεσπότον στύγος (*Æsch.*).

514. The substitution of the pronoun *his* for the suffix *-s* is of frequent occurrence in writers from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century.

[1] But feir, without equal.

Have we not *God hys wrath* for *Goddes wrath*, and a thousand of the same stamp, wherein the corrupte orthography in the moste, hath been the sole or principal cause of corrupt prosody in over-many ?—*Gab. Harvey*, 1580. See § 143.

This *s* sum haldes to be a segment of *his*, and therefoer now almost al wryte *his* for it, as if it wer a corruption. But it is not a segment of *his*.—*Hume, Orthog.*

They overlooked not Pyrrhus *his* toe which could not be burnt.—*Sir T. Browne.*

They might perhaps have been persuaded to laugh in Phalaris *his* bull.—*Id.*

Copernicus, Atlas *his* successor, is of opinion the earth is a planet.—*Burton.*

There being not a sword drawn in King Henry *his* quarrel.—*Bacon.*

By young Telemachus *his* blooming years.—*Pope.*

Dative.

515. The dative is usually found in connection with verbs denoting 'giving,' 'pleasing,' 'thanking,' 'owing,' 'showing,' 'telling,' and 'resembling.' The person *to* or *for* whom it is done is sometimes called the Indirect Object—

And I will tell *thee* stories of the sky,
And breathe *thee* whispers of its minstrelsy.—*Keats.*

Thou wouldst give *me*
Water with berries in't. . . . . .
. . . . . And then I loved thee,
And showed *thee* all the qualities o' the isle.—*Shakspere.*

Him thanken alle.—*Chaucer.*

516. The pronouns found with the verbs *list*, *seem*, *think* (appear), and sometimes *ought* and *like*, are datives—

When in Salamanca's cave
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
The bells would ring in Nôtre Dame.—*Scott.*

Servants in old Rome had liberty to say and do what *them* list.—*Burton.*

*Me*thinks you are sadder.—*Shakspere.*

Him thought he sat in gold all cled.—*Rom. Merlin.*

Me seemeth, then, it is no policy
That he should come about your royal person.—*Shakspere.*

And, as his nece, obeyed as *her* ought.—*Chaucer.*

We did not as *us* ought.—*Id.*

Much better would it like *him*, doubtless, to be the messenger of gladness and contentment.—*Bacon.*

His countenance likes *me* not.—*Shakspere.*

517. In such phrases as 'woe is *me*,' the pronoun is the dative—

Me is woe now for your sake.—*R. of Merlin.*

An thou might live, well were *me*.—*Id.*

Woe ys *him*.—*Chaucer.*

And well was *him* [1] that thereto chosen was.—*Id.*

Sometimes the verb is omitted—

Woe *him* that is alone.—*Chaucer.*

O woe *the day!*—*Shakspere.*

And sometimes both verb and subject are omitted—

Me, poor man! my library
Was dukedom large enough.—*Shakspere.*

Me miserable! which way shall I fly
Infinite wrath and infinite despair?—*Milton.*

518. The adjective *like* governs a noun in the dative—

Sunbeam of summer, O what is like *thee?*—*Hemans.*

This adjective is sometimes used improperly for *as*—

Victory must end in possession, *like* toil in sleep.—*Gladstone.*

519. The dative of the personal pronouns is sometimes used to show that an action is performed for the person represented by the pronoun—

Convey *me* Salisbury into his tent.—*Shakspere.*

He plucked *me* ope his doublet.—*Id.*

Villain, I say, knock *me* at this gate, and rap *me* well.—*Id.*

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[1] In later times this construction was misunderstood—

For well is *he* that may the money get.—*S. Hawes.*

And by the bark a canker creeps *me* up.—*Marlow.*

This use of the dative grammarians call the *Dativus Ethicus.*

520. The so-called prepositions *save* and *except*, borrowed from the Norman-French, are remnants of the Latin ablative absolute—"*Ea excepta*, nihil amicitia praestabilius"; "*except this* nothing surpasses friendship" (*Cicero*). The Old English writers appear to have regarded it as an imperative. In imitating the French idiom, they render it *out take*—

For all was golde men might see,
Out take the feathers and the tree.—*Chaucer.*

Save (E. E. *saue*, *sauf*) was also an ablative absolute—

None *save thee and thine*, I've sworn
Shall be left upon that morn.—*Byron.*

Save thee is 'salvo te' = sauvé toi = sauf thee—

All armed, *sauf* here heddes.—*Chaucer.*

As the case-endings are lost, these absolute words are often regarded as nominatives—

There was no stranger with us in the house *save we* two.—*Eng. Bib.*

When all slept sound *save she* who bore them both.—*Rogers.*

Vocative.

521. In addressing a person we frequently name the person addressed. The noun is then said to be in the Vocative Case—

Uriel, no wonder if thy perfect sight,
Amid the sun's bright circlet where thou sitt'st,
See far and wide.—*Milton.*

ADJECTIVES.

522. Adjectives are attracted into the same gender, number, and case as the nouns they qualify. But since in Modern English these words have lost all suffixes but those of comparison, they appear unchanged in form—'a *good*

boy,' 'a *good* girl,' 'a *good* book,' '*good* boys,' '*good* girls,' '*good* books.'

523. An adjective forming part of the predicate qualifies the subject or object predicatively—

The trees were *large.*
The sky became *clear.*
Good laws make nations *prosperous.*

524. An adjective is sometimes used as an abstract noun—

This age still retains enough of *beautiful,* and *splendid,* and *bold,* to captivate an ardent, but untutored, imagination.—*Coleridge.*

So much of death her thoughts
Had entertained as dyed her cheeks with *pale.*—*Milton.*

Dark with excessive *bright* thy skirts appear.—*Id.*

Those antique Cæsars sleeping long in *dark.*—*Spenser.*

Fair becomes *foul;* the Graces are turned into Harpyes.—*Burton.*

Call you me fair? That fair again unsay,
Demetrius loves your *fair.*—*Shakspere.*

525. In Old English, and occasionally in Modern English poetry, an adjective is employed as a concrete noun—

Thou rewest on every *sinful* in distress.—*Chaucer.*

Such place eternal Justice had prepared
For those *rebellious.*—*Milton.*

A band
Of *stern* in heart and *strong* in hand.—*Longfellow.*

526. An adjective is sometimes used, especially in poetry, instead of an adverb—

Trip it *deft* and merrily.—*Scott.*

The green trees whispered *low* and *mild.*—*Longfellow.*

Soft, no haste.—*Shakspere.*

From out the trees the sabbath-bell
Rings *cheerful* far and wide.—*Dana.*

Lucian hath *excellent* well deciphered such men's proceedings in his picture of *Opulentia.*—*Burton.*