Essentials of English Grammar

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Contents

CHAPTER 1

WORD-CLASSES

Word-classes

1. It is necessary to have names for the various classes into which words fall and which are generally called ‘parts of speech’.
2. It is practically impossible to give exact and exhaustive definitions of theses classes.
3. It will be sufficiently clear to students if a fair number of examples are given.

Nouns

1. living beings and plants
    - God, devil, man, John, American, army, animal, cat, plant, rose
2. things
    - star, stone, mountain, house, room, book, picture
3. substances
    - iron, air, water, tea, food
4. happenings, acts, states
    - lightning, gale, war, fight, walk, death, play, change, sleep
5. measures, indications of quantity
    - year, month, hour, inch, mile, shilling
6. qualities
    - beauty, health, kindness, poverty

Some words may belong to two of these classes; thus *rain* sometimes means a substance, sometimes a happening.

Adjectives

1. qualifiers
    - beautiful, healthy, kind, admirable, fast, American
2. quantifiers
    - numerous, many, few, much

Little is sometimes a qualifier (*a little girl*), sometimes a quantifier (*a little bread)*.

Verbs

1. activity

    go, take, fight, surprise, eat, breathe, speak, walk, clean
2. state
    - sleep, remain, wait, live, suffer
3. process
    - become, grow, lose, die, dry

Here again these sub-classes are not always easily distinguishable: is *love* an activity or a state?

Pronouns

1. Definite pronoun

    a) Personal pronouns
        - I, you, he, she, it, we, they

    b) Possessive pronouns
        - my, your, his, her, its

    c) Demonstrative pronouns
        - this, that, the, same, such

        (The is generally called ‘the definite article’.)

    d) Interrogative pronouns
        - who, what, which

    e) Relative pronouns

- who, what, which

2. Indefinite pronouns
   - one, a/an, some, any, either, all, both, every, each, none, no, neither
     (*A/An* is generally called 'the indefinite article'.)
3. Pronominal adverbs
   - Demonstrative: here, there; now, then; thus, so; therefore
   - Interrogative and relative: where; when; how; why
   - Indefinite: somewhere, anywhere, everywhere, nowhere; ever, never, always; somehow, anyhow
4. Numerals
   - Cardinals: one, two, three
   - Ordinals: first, second, third

Particles

1. Adverbs: generally serving to modify or specify some word or the sentence as a whole
   - well, fast, long, gently, recently, rather, perhaps
2. Prepositions
   - at, in, through, for, of
3. Conjunctions
   - coordinating conjunctions: and, or, nor
   - subordinating conjunctions: that, if, unless, because, although

Some particles can be used in one capacity only, others may be used now as adverbs, now as prepositions, and now as conjunctions.

1. after
   - Jill came tumbling after. (adv.)
   - Jill came tumbling after Jack. (prep.)
   - after we had left.(conj.)
2. in
   - Is John in? (adv.)
   - in the house (prep.)

Derivation of Word-classes

Unchanged Derivation

1. In order to find out what class a word belongs to it is not enough to consider its form in itself.
2. What is decisive is the way in which the word 'behaves' towards other words.
3. *Walk* is a noun in *he took two walks every day*, but a verb in *he walked twice every day*.
    - His former *love* for her. (noun)
    - He *loved* her once. (verb)
4. Words like *clean* and *dry* are adjectives in *clean shirt, a dry coat*, but verbs in *they clean their shoes, clothes dry in the sun*.
5. With regard to those forms that may be either nouns or adjectives, the chief point to note is the plural.
    - two *American* guests; two *Americans* arrive.
    - She eats a *sweet*; a *sweet* girl
6. Nouns formed from adjectives
    - blacks, savages, Liberals, vegetables, halves
7. A few pronouns can be turned into nouns.
    - Some five hundred *nobodies* were assembled.
    - He fancies himself a *somebody*.
    - You must take a little *something* before you go to bed.
8. A great many nouns are formed without any change from verbs. This has facilitated the development of a great many familiar phrases of the following type.
    - have a look at, have a chat/wash/try, have a drink/smoke
    - take a drive/ride/walk,/rest
    - give a glance/look/kick

Formation with endings

1. Nouns from verbs

   - bind : binding, draw : drawing
   - act : action, describe : description, admit : admission
   - treat : treatment, punish : punishment
   - refuse : refusal, deny : denial, bury : burial

   a) Sometimes we have two nouns with slightly different senses.

      - build : building, move : movement

   b) nouns denoting agent

      - bake : baker, act : actor, study : student

2. Verbs from nouns

   - strength : strengthen
   - blood : bleed, food : feed
   - symbol : symbolize, organ : organize

   a) The noun has voiceless and the verb has voiced consonant.

      - life: live, belief : believe, proof : prove
      - breath : breathe, cloth : clothe
      - use : use, advice : advise, grass : graze

   b) The stress is different.

      - record : record, protest : protest

3. Nouns from adjectives

   - kind : kindness, idle : idleness
   - false : falsehood, likely : likelihood
   - safe : safety, certain : certainty, real : reality
   - true : truth, strong : strength
   - just : justice, ignorant : ignorance, innocent : innocence
   - constant : constancy, secret : secrecy
   - jealous : jealousy, fool : folly

4. Adjectives from nouns

- ice : icy, sleep : sleepy
- child : childish, devil : devilish
- friend : friendly, day : daily
- care : careful, careless : art : artful, artless
- trouble : troublesome, quarrel : quarrelsome
- danger : dangerous, ruin : ruinous
- nature : natural, music : musical

5. Adjectives from verbs

   - interest : interesting
   - please : pleasant
   - act : active, talk : talkative
   - eat : eatable, admire : admirable

6. Verbs from adjectives

   - short : shorten, soft : soften
   - real : realize : civil : civilize
   - full : fill, whole(originally *hal*) : heal

7. Adverbs from adjectives

   - soft : softly, dry : drily

   Sometimes a distinction is made more or less clearly between the two forms.

   - You must go *direct* to London.
     You must go to London directly.
     He left *directly* after breakfast.
   - He works *hard*.
     He was *hardly* used.
   - *high* up in the air; a *highly* cultivated man
   - *pretty* early, *prettily* dressed
   - He said that *right* at the beginning.
     He said that *rightly* at the beginning.
   - *Just* imagine what that will mean.
     He *justly* remarked ...

CHAPTER 2

THE THREE RANKS

The Three Ranks

Word-classes and the Three Ranks

1. The assignment of a word to one of the classes concerns the word in itself.
2. The new classification concerns the mutual relations of words in combinations only, and is applicable not only to words, but also to groups of words as such.
    - In groups of words *terribly cold weather*, *weather* is defined by *cold,* and *cold* is defined by *terribly*.
    - We thus have three ranks: 'weather' is **Primary**, 'cold' **Secondary**, and 'terribly' **Tertiary**.
3. There is a certain correspondence between the three ranks and the three word-classes. But word-classes and ranks really move in two different spheres.

Rank Shift

1. As adjectives are generally secondaries, and adverbs tertiaries, we see shiftings like the following.

adj. + noun	adv. + adj.
absolute novelty	absolutely novel
utter darkness	utterly dark
perfect stranger	perfectly strange
II + I	III + II

adj. + noun	verb + adv.
accurate description	describes accurately
frequent visits	visits frequently
careful reader	reads carefully
II + I	II + III

2. In some cases the rank is indicated in the form of the word concerned, but that is not always the case.

- Threads that seemed no thicker than *a spider's*

Primaries

Adjectives

1. Only exceptionally can an adjective be used in the singular as a primary if it denotes a living being.
    - the Almighty; the accused, the deceased
2. It may be freely used in this way to denote an abstract notion.
    - To separate *the known* from *the unknown*
    - One must bow to *the inevitable*.
    - He is always talking of *the supernatural*.
3. In a plural sense adjectives may be used as primaries to denote a whole class of living beings.
    - *The absent* are always at fault.
    - Let *the dead* bury their dead.
    - They had to take care of *their sick* and *wounded*.
4. This is particulary frequent with those adjectives denoting nationalities which end in a hissing sound.
    - the English, the British, the French, the Japanese
5. When individual members of the nation are meant, the plural in *-men* or the addition of *people* is generally used.
    - These two Englishmen
    - He hated all the French people he met there.
6. Quantifiers are frequently used as primaries.
    - *Much* in that book was obscure.
    - *Most* of what he says is nonsense.
    - He had *enough* to live on.

Adverbs

An adverb may be a primary as the object of a verb.

- We shall leave here tomorrow.
- from now, by then, for long

Pronouns

1. The personal pronouns *I, we, you*, etc., and *who* are used as primaries only.
2. Possessive pronouns, with the exception of *his* and *its*, have separate forms as primaries.
   - Here is your hat, but where is *mine*?
   - Here is my hat, but where is *yours*?
   - He is an old friend of *mine*.
3. *Some* and *any* are used as primaries, chiefly before *of* or referring to a noun just mentioned.
   - Did *any* of the crew survive?
   - *Some* are wise and *some* are otherwise.
4. Other pronouns, which are usually secondaries, can be used as primaries.
   - each, such, which; either, neither, both
5. *That, this* and *all* as a primary is never used of a person.
   - That'll do.
   - All is well that ends well.

   In the plural these pronouns may be used of persons.
   - Those who believe this are fools.
   - These are my sisters.

The Prop-Word One

1. *One* is termed a pro-word when it has the important function of serving as primary.
2. When *one* is used as a prop-word its meaning is often more or less dissociated from that of the numeral.
   - This grey horse is stronger than the black *one*.
   - German teachers had rather manage a dozen German boys than one English one.

- Don't let us make imaginary evils, when we have so many real ones to encounter.

3. The secondary combined with *one* is very often an adjective, generally placed before *one* but sometimes after it.

   - Stupid men are the only ones worth knowing.

4. The secondary combined with *one* may be a (relative) clause.

   - He is of all men in the world the one I like best to talk to.
   - A house like the one where his uncle lived so many years

5. It may be a prepositional group.

   - Open the drawer on the left—the one with the key in it.

6. The prop-word can replace the names of such things only as can be counted.

   - I like red wine better than white.
   - He had known good luck and bad.

7. Sometimes the lighter construction without *one* is preferred to the heavier with *one*; thus often with comparatives and superlatives, and when two adjectives stand close together.

   - Two sisters; the elder took the younger by the waist.
   - You haven't heard his latest.
   - The old world and the new
   - It goes in at one ear and out at the other.

Secondaries

Substantives

1. Substantives are used as secondaries in the innumerable loose collocations.

   - *gold* coin, *stone* wall, *cannon* ball, *lady* friend, *London* papers

2. Collocations of a secondary and a primary substantive closely resemble combinations of an adjective secondary and a substantive.

   a) We have these substantival secondaries coordinated with adjective and even separated from their primaries.

      - Her Christian and family name.
      - He had given to local and *county* charities.

- He got into *money* and other difficulties.
- A *school* Latin dictionary.

b) The pro-word *one* may be used with substantival secondaries.

- Two *gold* watches and a *silver* one
- Give me a paper, one of the *Sunday* ones.

c) The secondary may have an adverb before it, exactly as an adjective has.

- In purely Government work
- On merely business ground
- From a two exclusively London standpoint

3. The result of the isolation of a substantive used as a secondary in collocations is not an adjective, but a substantive.

   - a copper = a copper coin, a canary = a canary bird, a return = a return ticket

Pronouns

1. Pronouns that have a special form for the primary use

   - My(our, your, her, their, no, some, any, every) book

2. Pronouns that have the same form for primary and secondary use

   - His (that, this, what, which, each, either, neither) book; all, both books

3. The two so-called articles are pronouns which are never used as primaries:

   - *the* book, *a* book

Adverbs

1. The use of adverbs as secondaries is comparatively rare.

   - The above remark
   - In after years
   - The off side

2. Examples of the pronominal adverbs

   - The then government

Tertiaries

Substantives

1. An isolated substantive is seldom used as a tertiary.
    - The sea went *mountains* high
    - Lady Cecily, *part* pleased, *part* amused, *part* sympathetic.
2. Some substantives, used in this way, are now reckoned rather as adverbs.
    - Come *home*
    - I bought it *cheap*
3. Composite expressions consisting of substantives and other words are often used as tertiaries.
    - He lived there *several years*.
    - I slept *all Sunday afternoon*.
    - She lives *next door*.
    - I am not *a bit* tired.
    - A wall, *five feet* high.
    - Talking *face to face*.

Adjectives

1. As tertiaries we must recognize the following.
    - They are grown up *amazing* fine girls (Jane Austen).
    - *Uncommon* pretty company (Thackeray).
2. Compare
    - Fixed combinations: new-laid eggs, new-mown hay
    - Free combination: the newly appointed minister
    - new-married, newly married

Pronouns

1. *The* is tertiary before a comparative.
    - The sooner, the better
2. *All* as a tertiary

- You will be *all* the better for a drop of whisky.
- The all-important question is whether he can prove his alibi.

3. Stressed *that* is used as a tertiary.
   - I was *that* sleepy.

Rank of word-groups

1. Word-groups may be employed in the same ways as single words in different ranks.
   - primary: Sunday afternoon was fine.
   - a Sunday afternoon concert
   - He slept all Sunday afternoon.
2. A preposition with its object may be used as a primary.
   - from *behind the tree*
   - from *over the way*
   - since *before the war*
   - young ladies of *from sixteen to twenty-six years of age*

CHAPTER 3

JUNCTION AND NEXUS

Junction

1. A secondary can be joined to a primary in two different ways, for which we use the terms **Junction** and **Nexus**.

2. As separate names for the secondary in these two functions we shall use the terms **Adjunct** and **Adnex** respectively.

3. Adjuncts may be either restrictive or non-restrictive.

   a) Restrictive adjuncts gives a necessary determination to its primary.
   a red rose vs. a white rose

   b) The addition of a non-restrictive adjunct does not serve that purpose; it is more emotional, whereas a restrictive is purely intellectual.
   No, my poor little girl! Beautiful Evelyn Hope is dead!

   c) When we say *young Burns*, we may either think of the contrast between two persons of the same name, one young and one old, of one person only.

4. The logical relation between adjunct and primary is not always the same.

   - An early dinner; An early riser, The early Victorians
   - A perfect copy; He spoke with perfect ease; They are perfect strangers.
   - A married woman; Their married life was very happy.

5. The adjuncts sometimes belongs to the nearest substantive only.

   - A public schoolboy
   - Smith & Co., old and new bookseller
     Compare:
   - A new tooth-brush
   - A green garden table

6. With regard to genitives we notice corresponding phenomena.

- her mother's heart
  (the adjunct *her* belongs to the whole expression *mother's heart*.
- a loud visitor's knock on the front door

Nexus

1. We shall now look at the second way in which a secondary can be joined to a primary.
2. We shall call this **Nexus**, and for the secondary in these combinations we shall use the term **Adnex**.
3. A junction is more rigid and a nexus is more pliable. The former is like a picture; the latter is like a drama or a process.
4. In a nexus something new is added to the conception contained in the primary.
   - The blue dress is the oldest.
   - The oldest dress is blue.
   - A dancing woman charms.
   - A charming woman dances.
5. A nexus may be dependent or independent.
   - The door is red.
   - I see that the door is red.
   - I painted the door red.
   - I hear the dog bark.
   - I make the dog bark.
6. Very often a substantive contains the idea of a nexus.
   - The dog's barking was heard all over the place.
   - I saw the King's arrival (I saw that the the King arrived).
   - On account of her pride (Because she was proud).

CHAPTER 4

SENTENCE-STRUCTURE

Subject and Predicate

Subject

1. In the following sentences we call *the dog* **Subject** and *barks* **Predicate** and say that *barks* is predicated of *the dog*.

    - The dog barks.
    - that the dog barks
    - when the dog barks

2. The same terms are used also in more complicated utterances.

    - *The big dog that my brother bought yesterday in London* barked furiously at the butcher.
    - *The cat and the dog* do not agree very well.

3. Any primary may be the subject of a sentence.

Object

1. Very often a sentence contains more than one primary connected with the same verb, but only one is the subject. The others are **Objects**.

    - Charles took a ticket.
    - Charles gave his daughter a ticket.
    - Charles gave his daughter and her husband their tickets and a few pounds.

2. Some pronouns have different case forms according as they stand as subject or object.

    - I saw her. I gave her the ticket.
    - She saw me. She gave me the ticket.

3. If English has been able to do away with such formal means, it is because it has developed a tolerably fixed **word-order** which in the great majority of cases shows what is the subject of the sentence.

Word-order

1. The normal word-order in English is Subject—Verb—Object.
   S—V—O

2. In some cases the subject may be separated from the verb by an adverb.

   - You never can tell.
   - Charles always took a walk before breakfast.
   - Charles wisely refrained from further remarks.

Inversion

In certain cases the subject is placed after its verb (V—S). This word-order is called **Inversion**.

1. Question: v—S—V—O

   - Could John see Henry?
   - Did John see Henry?
   - Had John seen Henry?

2. Exclamation and question

   - How old is he?
   - How old he is!
   - What a piece of worke is a man! (Sh.)

3. V—S or v—S—V in some clauses without any conjunction.

   - Mr Darnley has offered us assistance, should any be needed.
   - Even had she been alive, we should not have seen her.

4. In short sentences inserted in quotation

   - No, said he, I will never do it.
   - No, he whispered, I will never do it.

5. v—S—V order in sentences introduced negatively

   - Never did I see the like.
   - Scarcely had he entered the room, when he broke out in insults.
   - Little did we think that we were never to see him again.

6. Word-order is often regulated by considerations of balance in the sentence.

    - Among the guests were the Prime Minister and his children.
    - Among the quests the Prime Minister and his children were particularly noticed.

7. After a negative we have O—v—S—V

    - Not a word did he say in her favour.

8. When *here* and *there* are put first, we generally have normal word-order if the sentence contains a full verb. Inversion, however, takes place with short verbs.

    - There Scott wrote all his best novels.
    - Here comes the old lady.

9. Preparatory *there*

    - There was no one there.
    - There came a time when he did repent.

CHAPTER 5

RELATIONS OF VERB TO SUBJECT AND OBJECT

Subject

1. The **subject** cannot be defined by means of such words as active or agent.

    - He suffered torture.
    - He lost his father in the war.

2. Some verbs denote an action, in others a suffering on the part of the subject.

    - He broke a twig.(action)
    - He broke his leg.(suffering)

    - He burned the papers.(action)
    - He burned his finger.(suffering)

3. Some verbs are **double-faced**.

    - The garden swarms with bees
      = Bees swarm in the garden.
    - This stream abounds in fish
      = Fish abound in this stream.

Split subject

1. *He* is the grammatical subject; but notionally the matter is not so simple.

    - He happened to fall.
    - He is sure to turn up.
    - He is believed to be rich.

2. We cannot ask *Who happened?*. We must ask either *Who happened to fall?* or *What happened?* The notional subject is a complete nexus, in which *he* is primary, and *fall* is the secondary (adnex). We call *he-to-fall* a **split subject**.

3. *The path* is the subject of the sentence, but at the same time it is the object of *to find*.

   - The path was easy to find.
   - His face was so ghastly to see that I grew alarmed.
   - Little remains to add.

Object

1. No simple definition can be given of the relation of the **object** to the verb.

   - the receiver of the action
   - the person or thing directly affected by the action

   - They murdered *the chief*.
   - The boy saw *the moon*.
   - We missed *the train*.

2. **Instrumental object**: the object expresses that by means of which something is done.

   - They threw *stones*.
   - Mary nodded *her head*.
   - He pointed *his forefinger* at Arthur.

3. **Object of result**

   - The architect built *a house*.
   - John wrote *a letter*.

   Compare:

I dig the ground.	I dig a grave.
She lights the lamp.	She lights a fire.
He paints the door.	He paints portraits.

4. **Cognate object**

   - I dreamt a curious dream.
   - Mowgli laughed a little short ugly laugh (Kipling).

5. Not a few verbs are used sometimes with an object, sometimes with a prepositional phrase.

   a) The meaning is completely changed.

      - He has not tasted food today.
      - The food tastes of ginger.

   b) In some cases the act is more complete when there is no preposition.

      - We know (of) him.

Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns

1. When the subject and object are identical, we use for the latter a reflexive pronoun.

   - I defend *myself*.

2. A few verbs are always used reflexively.

   - She prides herself on her good looks.
   - He absented himself from all committee meetings.

3. There is a tendency to get rid of these pronouns whenever no ambiguity is to be feared.

   - I washed, dressed and shaved, and then felt infinitely better.
   - He is training for the race.
   - You must prepare for death.

4. Sometimes a difference is made between the fuller and the shorter expression.

   - He settled himself comfortably in an easy-chair.
   - They settled in Australia.

5. Sometimes there is an element of exertion in the reflexive use.

   - We kept ourselves warm by walking to and fro.
     We kept warm.
   - He proved himself a fine fellow.
     He proved a fine fellow.

6. The reflexive pronouns are also used after prepositions.

   - He looked at himself in the glass.
   - He lives by himself in an old cottage.

7. If the preposition has a purely local meaning, the simple forms without *self* are used.
    - Shut the door behind you!
    - I have no change about me.
8. To express mutual action or relation we have reciprocal pronouns.
    - We do not love each other.
9. Here we find the tendency to do without the object in some familiar instances.
    - We meet occasionally.
    - They kissed and parted.
    - They married in haste and repented at leisure.

Direct and Indirect Object

1. Some verbs are combined with two objects. In “They offered the butler a reward” *the butler* is an **indirect object** and *a reward* a **direct object**.
2. Some languages have the accusative for the direct object and the dative for the indirect object.
3. The direct object is more essential to the verb and more closely connected with it.
    - They offered a reward.(O)
    - They offered the butler.(X)
4. The chief classes of verbs that can take a direct and an indirect object are the following.
    - Giving
        - Give papa my best love!
        - He left his sister a hundred pounds.
        - We must buy her some clothes.
    - Verbs of motion
        - Kindly pass me the mustard.
        - He would bring his little boy home a box of bricks.
    - Wish, intend, and cause
        - I wish the government all possible success.
        - They meant us no harm.
        - The delay caused us a good deal of trouble.

- Verbs of communication
  - He told us the most fantastic stories.
  - He always wanted to read me his latest poems.

5. Generally the indirect object is a person. Instances like the following are much rarer.
   - He allowed his imagination full play.
   - This was possible, though we had never given it a thought.
6. Sometimes the *to*-phrase is preferable or even necessary instead of an indirect object without the preposition.
   - To him they showed everything, to me nothing.
   - You should give the tools to those who can handle them.
   - The man to whom my father gave me, and to whom I gave myself.

Transitive and Intransitive Use of Verbs

1. We speak of a verb as **transitive** if it has an object, and **intransitive** if it has none.

Transitive	Intransitive
He plays the violin.	He plays extremely well.
He lends money.	I neither lend nor borrow.

2. Verbs of motion and change are particularly frequent in this double employment as transitive and intransitive.

Move a stone.	The stone moves
Roll a ball.	The ball rolls.
End the discussion.	The meeting ended at ten.

3. When such verbs are used thus intransitively, we often think of a thing as moved of itself.
   - The stone rolled down the hill.
   - The stone was rolled down the hill.
4. Some verbs are evidently at first intransitive, so that the transitive verb must be considered a causative.

The dinner bell rang.	He rang the bell.
He worked hard.	He worked his servants hard.

5. Some transitive verbs are used intransitively. The meaning is nearly the same as in the passive for the same verbs.
   - The meat cuts tender.

- His scientific papers read like novels.
- His books sell very well.

6. There are a few adjectives which can take objects.

   - He is not *worth* his salt.
   - He looks *like* an actor.
   - The sisters live in a house *near* the river.

CHAPTER 6

PASSIVE

Use of the passive

One and the same idea can often be expressed in two different ways. The English passive is formed with an auxiliary, generally *be*, but often also *get* or *become*, and the second participle.

1. The active subject is unknown or cannot easily be stated.
    - Her father was killed in the Boer war.
    - The city is well supplied with water.
    - She came to the Derby not only to see, but just as much to be seen.
2. The active subject is self-evident from the context.
    - He was elected Member of Parliament for Leeds.
    - She told me that her master had dismissed her. No reason had been assigned; no objection had been made to her conduct.
3. The mention of the first person is often avoided in writing.
    - Enough has been said here of a subject which will be treated more fully in a subsequent chapter.
4. The greater interest is taken in the passive than in the active subject.
    - The house was struck by lightning.
    - His son was run over by a motor car.
5. The passive turn may facilitate the connection of one sentence with another.
    - He rose to speak, and was listened to with enthusiasm by the great crowd present.

The subject of a passive verb

1. The subject of a passive verb is what in the active would be an object. But if there are two objects in the active, only one of them can be made the subject; the other object is **retained**.

2. *Originally* only the direct object could be made the subject of a passive sentence.

   - The property that was left her by her husband.
   - Justice shall be done everybody.

3. The greater interest felt for persons than for things naturally leads to the placing of the indirect before the direct object.

   - The butler was offered a reward.
   - I think the house may be made comfortable and given the air of a gentleman's residence (Jane Austen).

4. Intransitive verbs followed by a preposition may be turned into the passive.

   - Jim was laughed at by everybody.
   - This must be looked into.
   - The bed had not been slept in.

5. Even phrases containing a transitive verbs with its object followed by a preposition may be turned into the passive.

   - The original purpose was gradually lost sight of.
   - I hate being found fault with.

CHAPTER 7

PREDICATIVES

Predicatives

1. The predicative gives a description of the subject, while the verb in itself expresses no adequate thought without being complemented by this addition.

    - He was quiet.
    - He seemed quiet.
    - He became quiet.

2. The verb has its ordinary full force; very often we may transcribe by means of *be* with a predicative. Here we may speak of **quasi-predicative**.

    - We parted the best of friends.
      = We were the best of friends when we parted.
    - When sorrowes come, they come not single spies, But in battalions (Sh.).
    - The snow was falling pretty thick.
    - Still waters run deep.
    - They were born poor, lived poor, and poor they died.

3. The verb loses something of its original meaning and is approximately an empty word.

    - The natives go naked all the year.
    - He stood about six feet high.
    - John will act best man for me.

4. We have **real predicatives** as necessary complements to the verb.

    - Her black dress that had seemed so smart in the village now appeared almost shabby.
    - This proved a big mistake.
    - That which we call a rose, By any other name would smell as sweete (Sh.).

Link-verb

1. All these verbs have a meaning of their own, even when they are used with a predicative.
2. Colorless verb *be* serves to connect a predicative with the subject as what is technically termed a **copular** or **link-verb**.
    - I am glad to see you.
3. In some cases we have predicatives without a verb.
    - Who so smooth and silky as Mr Murdstone at first! (Dickens)
    - She a beauty! I should as soon call her mother a wit (Jane Austen).
4. We have isolated predicatives as in emotionally colored exclamations.
    - Splendid! How delightful!
    - What a nasty smell!
5. *No matter* is often used in this way.
    - No matter how wild or extravagant the assertion, there are always people ready to believe it.
    - He had to do what he thought right, no matter what the consequences.
6. *And* is often used before such an isolated predicative.
    - They went away in despair, and no wonder.
    - Of course they died; and a good thing too.
7. A peculiar type of contemptuous exclamatory sentences consists of a predicative followed by what may be considered a relative clause.
    - A pretty mess we shall be in by then!
    - A confounded nuisance women are!
    - The hypocrite that he felt himself as he said this!
8. A frequent construction consists in placing the predicative first and then the subject without any verb.
    - Pretty encouragement this for a lover!
    - How splendid of you to think of that! (*to*-infinitive)
    - Funny you should have thought of that. (clause)
    - The fewer men, the greater share of honour (Sh.).

Predicatives of becoming

1. In all the cases hitherto mentioned we have **predicatives of being**.
2. There is another class, **predicatives of becoming**.
3. The number of quasi-predicatives is not very great in this class.
    - She has turned out quite a pretty girl.
    - She blushed crimson with anger.
    - Their friendship was already wearing thinner.
4. Ordinary predicatives are found with *become* and its synonyms.
    - He is growing old now.
    - She got sleepy.
5. Verbs of motion with weakened meaning.
    - I shall go mad if you don't stop that noise.
    - Her cheek went red as a rose.
    - She ran wild with joy at the idea.

What can be a Predicative?

1. As predicatives we find adjectives, pronouns, substantives, adverbs and prepositional groups.
2. Pronouns as predicatives
    - That's it.
    - Who is he?
    - This seat is mine.
    - She is twenty, but looks seventeen.
3. Substantives as predicatives generally have either the indefinite or the definite article.
    - He is a rascal.
    - There is no doubt that Brown was the thief.
4. There are certain well-defined cases in which a substantive predicative has no article,
    - if it is a mass-word

  - It would be great fun to baffle them.
  - This is cotton, not wool.
- if a degree is indicated by means of *enough*.
  - He is not philosopher enough to judge of this.
  - We were asses enough to give Heligoland to Germany.
- if the substantive is followed by a prepositional group (with *to* or *of*).
  - He became Bishop of Durham.
  - He was heir to a fortune of two million dollars.

5. Abstractive substantives may be used as descriptive predicatives; *is* here seems to approach *has* in meaning.

   - When I was your age I knew better.
   - What color are her eyes?
   - You are just the height I like.

6. Adverbs or prepositional groups may be predicatives; very often they mean practically the same thing as adjectives.

   - He is at liberty—he is free.
   - He is in love with her—he is very fond of her.
   - He is young and in perfect health.
   - When she met him, everything else became of no account.

CHAPTER 8

CASE

Cases in Pronouns

1. In some pronouns, we find a distinction between **nominative** and **objective**.

Nominative	I	we	he	she	they	who
Objective	me	us	him	her	them	whom

2. The nominative is used as the subject and the objective as the object.

   - I loved him.
   - He gave us a shilling.
   - He spoke to me.

3. *Than* is a conjunction.

   - I like him better than he me.
   - You seem to have suffered more than I.
   - I like her no better than him.(stress on *her* and *him*)
   - I like her no better than he does.

4. There is a strong inducement to use the objective after *than*, and thus to treat *than* as a preposition.

   - He is bigger than me.
   - He was a good bit older than me (Lamb)

5. *As* is a conjunction, but we find a strong tendency to treat *as* as a preposition.

   - You seem to have suffered as much as I.
   - Is shee as tall as me? (Sh.)

6. The three synonyms *but, except* and *save* are originally prepositions and thus require the objective. The nominative has been in frequent use as the word after these prepositions is felt as parallel with the subject of the sentence.

- Nobody else went but (except, save) me.
- There were no other passengers that night, but we four. (Dickens)
- Not a man depart, Save I alone. (Sh.)

7. Relative attraction is responsible for the distinction which many people will make in the case after *it is*.
   - It is I am in fault, is it? (Thackeray)
   - It was I who was fond of her, not she of me.
   - It was her I was fond of, not him.
8. It is and has long been natural to use the objective in the predicative.
   - What would you do if you were me?
   - It is him.
9. The nominative of pronouns is used only where it is clearly the subject.
   - Me! Marry a poor girl? No, not me!
   - Another fellow, probably him who had remained below, came to the door. (Stevenson)
10. *Whom* is used before the subject of the following verb. But such sentences are often blamed as incorrect.
    - Ferdinand *whom* they supposed is droun'd. (Sh.)
    - I met a man *whom* I thought was a lunatic. (E. F. Benson)

Cases in Substantives

1. In substantives we have two cases, a **common case** and a **genitive**.
2. The regular way of forming genitive is by adding the *s*-ending.
   - [iz] after sibilants: James's, prince's, judge's, witch's
   - [z] after voiced non-sibilants: boy's, man's
   - [s] after voiceless non-sibilants: Smith's, count's, bishop's
3. If in juridical language genitive are formed like *the deceased's will* or *the accused's innocence*, *deceased* and *accused* must be considered substantives.

Genitive

The Group-Genitive

1. The *s* is appended to a group of words if it forms a sense unit.
    - All the other people's opinions.
    - A man about town's chambers.
    - The King of Denmark's court
    - Adam and Eve's children
      cf. Tom's and his brother's children
2. Very rarely an ambiguity may arise from construction of this kind.
    - The son of Pharaoh's daughter was the daughter of Pharaoh's son.

The Meaning of Genitive

1. Genitives indicate not only possession, but any kind of intimate relation.
    - John's house, John's book, John's portrait
2. the subjective genitive
    - Tom's presence, Tom's actions, Tom's life and death
3. the objective genitive
    - A man's defeat, arrest, education
4. A genitive makes the meaning of the whole combination definite.
    - my friend's brother (=his only brother, or the one brother just mentioned)
    - my friend's brothers (=all his brothers, or all those indicated by the context)
    - Dr. Arnold's pupils were always diligent.(definite)
    - We were pupils of Dr. Arnold's pupils. (indefinite)

Restriction in the Use of the Genitive

1. The use of the genitive is comparatively restricted, and a prepositional group with *of* is very extensively used.
    - This clergyman's young wife = the young wife of this clergyman
    - Your neighbor's house = the house of your neighbor

2. *Of* is often employed to avoid taking on the *s* to too long a string of words.
    - He is the son of the well-known politician whose death was announced the other day.
    - The wife of a clergyman of the Church of England (Thackeray)
3. The genitive is chiefly used with the names of human beings. With names of animals the *of*-phrase is generally preferred.
    - the head of our white horse, the feathers of this bird
4. The genitive is, however, frequent in combinations like:
    - a fox's tail, an owl's nest, a cat's paw
5. With names of lifeless things the *of*-phrase is the rule:
    - In the middle of the town
    - At the bottom of the page
6. The genitive is used with a number of traditional fixed combinations.
    - Know something at one's fingers' end
    - At his wit's end
7. When a country is thought of politically as a living being, the genitive is frequently used.
    - England's interest in India
    - We should be at Russia's mercy.
8. The genitive is idiomatic in indications of measure.
    - At a boat's length from the ship.
    - A stone's throw from the house.
    - A two hour's walk

Genitives as Primaries

1. The proper sphere of a genitive is that of a secondary. But a genitive may also stand as a primary.
    - Render unto Cesar the things which are Cesars; and unto God the things that are Gods. (AV.)
    - His own fortune was lost; his dead wife's remained.
    - Threads that seemed no thicker than a spider's.

2. No substantive is previously mentioned in cases like the following idiomatic uses of the genitive.

    - I bought this at the *grocer's*.
    - *St Paul's* is one of the principal sights of London.

3. The genitive is also a primary in combinations like *an old friend of Tom's* and *that old friend of yours*.

    - Any friend of my son's is welcome here.
    - This is no fault of Frank's.
    - That tender heart of hers.

4. We may make a distinction between "a portrait of the king" and "a portrait of the king's".

CHAPTER 9

PRONOUNS

Division of Pronouns

Pronouns are divided into the following classes.

1. Pronouns of definite indication
    - Pronouns of contextual indication: personal pronouns
    - Pronouns of pointing: this, that, thus, so
    - The definite article: the
    - The pronoun of identity: same
    - The pronoun of similarity: such
    - Pronouns of connection: relative pronouns
2. Pronoun of indefinite indication
    - The pronoun of indefinite unity: one
    - The indefinite article: an, a
    - The pronoun of difference: other
    - The pronoun of discretion: certain
    - The pronoun of unspecified quantity: some
    - The pronoun of indifference: any, either
    - Indefinite pronouns requesting a solution: interrogative pronouns
3. Pronouns of totality
    - Positive: all, both, every, each
    - Negative: no, none, neither

Definite pronouns

Pronouns of Contextual Indication

1. The indication contained in *I, we, you* is always quite definite, determined by the situation.
2. The same is true of *he, she, they* in the great majority of cases.
3. This is true even in such seemingly ambiguous cases.
   - Jack was very respectful to Tom, and took off his hat when he met him.
   - Jack was very rude to Tom, and knocked off his hat when he met him.
4. There is really little danger of misunderstanding *it* in:
   - If the baby does not thrive on raw milk, boil it.
5. Instead of referring back to some one previously mentioned *he* is defined by a following relative clause.
   - He who can't keep a penny will never have many.
6. *They* is used without any reference to previously mentioned person.
   - They say that he drank himself to death.
7. *It* generally refers back to something previously mentioned.
   - I took the book from the table and placed it on the shelf.
   - He took the bottle from out the cupboard: I saw it myself.
8. **Preparatory it** represents a whole group of words which it would not be convenient to put in the place required by the ordinary word-order.
   - It is wrong to lie.
   - It was splendid that you could come today.
   - We have it in our power to do great harm or great good.
   - I think it rather dangerous your venturing out there.
   - You must see to it that the children get up in time.
9. **Unspecified it** occurs in sentences descriptive of natural phenomena.
   - Time
     It was a long time before he came to.

- Space
  How far is it to Charing Cross?
- In a great many idiomatic phrases as the object of verbs.
  We must have it out someday.
- With the verbs derived from substantives without the addition of any ending.
  We would sleep out on fine nights; and hotel it, and inn it, and pub it when it was wet.
- In prepositional phrases
  Make a clean breast of it.

Pronouns of Pointing

1. three demonstrative pronouns for two different distances
   this that
   here there
   now then
2. The first use of *this* or *that* is to point what is nearer or farther way in space.
   - First on this side, then on that.
   - I like this cake better than that one.
3. *This* often refers to what is following, and *that* to what precedes.
   - This is what he said: “How could he be such a fool!”
   - “How could he be such a fool!” That was what he said.
   - To be, or not to be, that is the question. (Sh.)
4. The supplementary description
   - I had to bolt, and that at once.
   - I had only seen her once, and that six years ago, when we were children.
5. The idea of pointing is totally obliterated when *that* is purely representative of something previously mentioned.
   - Her face was now sadly different from that which we used to admire at home.
   - The dialects of America are not so widely apart as those spoken in the mother country.
6. *That* serves to represent a previously mentioned action, or to stand for a predicative.
   - Did he work in the fields? Yes, he did that occasionally.

- All men my brothers? Nay, thank Heaven, that they are not.

7. Nor has *that(those)* any demonstrative force when it stands before a relative clause or other similar adjunct.

   - Never tell a woman that which is not interesting enough to magnify into a secret. (Instead of this neutral *that which* we most often say *what*.)
   - Those that think must govern those that toil. (Goldsmith)

8. *That* and *those* may even be indefinite and mean nearly "something, some people" before a relative clause.

   - There was that in her manner which prepared us for what was coming.
   - There are those who believe it, though others are more skeptical.

9. Corresponding to *this* and *that* we have the two "pronominal adverbs" *thus* and *so*. *Thus* has a stronger demonstrative force than *so*, and generally indicates manner.

   - It so happened that John was absent that day.
   - I don't care for the so-called classics.

10. In the beginning of a sentence *so* often comes to mean "therefore, accordingly".

    - He was ill, so he could not come.

11. *So* often denotes degree or extension with back-reference, or with reference to something following.

    - So far, everything was all right.
    - Only a mile or so

    - The weather was not so bad as we expected.
    - He was so excited that he forgot his manners.

12. *So* is often used to mean pretty much the same thing as "very".

    - I'm so glad you've come at last.
    - We saw ever so many mummies at the Museum.

13. *So* is very often representative of something previously mentioned.

    - He was not angry at first, but became so after a little while.
    - There is nothing either good or bad, but thinking makes it so. (Sh.)

14. *So* represents a whole idea (nexus) after such verbs as *think, suppose, expect, say*, etc.

    - Is he ill? I am afraid so.
    - I din't know he would come. Why, I told you so.

15. Representative *so* placed first served to confirm a previous statement.

    - He seems a clever fellow. So he is.
    - The rain has stopped. So it has.

16. If in this case the verbs follows immediately after *so* the implication is 'also'.

    - He is very poor, and so are all his brothers.

17. *Do so* represents a previously mentioned verb.

    - He had promised to pay, but he failed to do so.

The Definite Article

1. *The* may be considered a weakened *that*. As *the* is phonetically a weaker *that*, its meaning also is weakened: instead of pointing out it serves to designate or single out.

2. It has two distinct functions, that of determining in itself (**the article of complete determination**, and that of determining in connection with a following word or words (**the article of incomplete determination**).

The Article of Complete Determination

1. The chief use of the article is to indicate the person or thing that is uppermost in the mind of the speaker and hearer.

    - Once upon a time there lived an old tailor in a small village. *The* tailor was known all over the village as "Old Harry".

2. The whole situation is sufficient to show what is meant.

    - Shut the door, please.
    - Our children are not allowed to play in the street.

3. The article is used more sparingly in English than in many other languages. There is therefore a strong tendency to do without it in many cases where the individualization is self-evident.

    - father, mother, baby, uncle, nurse, cook
    - Breakfast is at eight.

But the article is necessary in speaking of the quality of a specified meal.

- The dinner last Sunday was a very frugal one.

4. Names of public institution are used without the article if their purpose is thought of rather than the actual building.

   - School is over.
   - He was sent to prison for his offense.

5. As a rule, proper names need no article, as they are definite enough in themselves. But it is impossible to draw a hard-and-fast line of demarcation between proper names and common names. Londoners hesitate between *Green Park* and *the Green Park*.

6. When a plural is formed of a proper name, the article is required because it ceased to be a proper name in the fullest sense.

   - the Stuarts, the West Indies, the Netherlands, the Alps

7. In some cases the article may be due to the ellipsis of a common name which was formerly added.

   - the Sahara (desert), the Crimea (peninsula)

8. The names of oceans have the article because they are still felt as adjectives to which the word *Sea* or *Ocean* may be added.

   - the Baltic, the Atlantic, the Pacific

9. River-names have the article.

   - the Thames, the Seven, the Rhine

10. The ellipsis of a common name accounts for the use of the article.

    - the Bedford (hotel), the George (inn), the Holborn (restaurant), the Cornhill (magazine)

11. Names of periods or time and dates are often used without the definite article.

    - March was a cold month.
    - If winter comes, can spring be far behind. (Shelley)
    - He will be here before Christmas.

12. A generic sense with and without the article

    - He plays the violin/the piano.

- He plays football/chess.

13. The distributive use of *the (=each)* may be considered a kind of generic singular.

    - We buy them by the hundred.
    - He punished me; not two or three times in the week, nor once or twice in the day, but continually.

14. The names of languages are generally used without the article.

    - He talks/understands French.

15. Omission of *the*

    a) set phrases

        - at bottom, at last, in fact, on shore

    b) phrases consisting of a verb and its object

        - lose sight of, lose heart/patience/courage

    c) phrases consisting of two (or three) parallel members

        - from beginning to end, from north to south, hand in hand, arm in arm, face to face
        - Let me tell you, as man to man
        - Husband and wife ought to stand on an equal footing.

    d) As a rule, it is enough to place the article one with two or more parallel words.

        - The French and English languages
        - The bride and bridegroom were coming out of the church.
        - He became the teacher and protector of the young man.

The Article of Incomplete Determination

We shall deal with those cases in which the definite article is not in itself sufficient to determine what we are speaking about.

1. The clearest instances are found when the supplementary determination follows after the substantives, thus with a prepositional group and with a relative clause.

    - The man in the moon
    - The view from the upper storey
    - The boy who showed us the way
    - He is not the fool we thought him.

2. The addition of some qualifying restriction makes it necessary to have the article with words which otherwise are used without it, thus mass-words, proper names.

    - The gold that is kept in the cellars of the great banks.
    - The God you worship is not the god of our fathers.
    - The England he now saw was not the same as the England he had left twenty years before.

3. When an adjective is put before a proper name in order to distinguish two or more bearers of the same name, the article is required.

    - the younger Pitt, the new Turkey
    - Paris now is very different from the dirty Paris of the Middle Ages.

4. The general tendency is to do without the article before a proper name preceded by an adjective, especially if this is of an emotional or ornamental character.

    - Immortal Shakespeare, Rare Ben Johnson
    - Dear little Mary was ill yesterday.

The Pronouns of Identity

1. *The same* is the ordinary pronoun of identity.

    - Shakespeare died in 1616. In the same year Cervantes, too, died.
    - I want the same wine as usual.
    - I want the same wine as I had yesterday.

2. Incomplete identity is denoted by *much the same*.

3. Mutual identity may also be implied as in:

    - Shakespeare and Cervantes died in the same year.
    - Rich or poor, that was all the same to him.

The pronoun of Similarity

1. *Such* may refer to something just mentioned.

    - He was president of the board and as such had a decisive vote.
    - People kill one another by the thousand. Such is life!

2. *Such* may be preceded by an indefinite pronoun.

   - He took taxis, whenever any such were available.
   - Honest money-lenders? There are no such persons!

3. *Such* refers to something following, pretty much in the same way as *the same*.

   - This offers no difficulty for such as you.
   - I am not such a fool that I believe every word he says.

4. There is often no real comparison, and *such* comes to mean ‘very great’.

   - He is such an admirer of your works!
   - Don’t be in such a hurry!

The Indefinite Article

1. *An* and *a* is what is traditionally termed ‘the indefinite article’; a better name would be ‘the article of indetermination’. It is historically a weakened form of *one*.

   an aim a name
   an heir a hair
   an M.P. a unit

2. *A* has the value of the numeral *one* in a few combinations.

   - Rome wasn’t built in a day.
   - For a day or two

3. In some set phrases the indefinite article means “one and the same”.

   - Birds of a feather flock together.
   - We are of a mind once more. (Sheridan)

4. The indefinite article is used when no identification is possible or important.

   - Let us go to a restaurant and have a good dinner.
   - He spent a week in a small village.

5. In idiomatic expressions which in other languages often have article.

   - She takes an interest in his work.
   - We were in a great hurry.
   - I am not in a position to help you.

6. Most substantives as predicatives are provided with the indefinite article.

   - She was an only child.
   - He proved a trusty friend.
   - We look upon him as a fool.

7. No article is used in a predicative placed as in this sentence.

   - She has more sense than Mary, child though she is.

8. In the generic use we may say that *a* means ‘any’.

   - A cat is not so vigilant as a dog.
   - A cat may look at a king.

9. In some combinations *a(n)* is used distributively, approaching in meaning to ‘each’.

   - He lives on sixpence a day.
   - He goes to London once or twice a year.

10. While *little* and *few* are negative terms, *a little* and *a few* are positive.

    - From him we expect little more than a pun.
    - From him we expect a little more than a pun.
    - There are few mistakes in his papers.
    - There are a few mistakes in his papers.

11. *How* and *however*, like other interrogative and relative words, come first and attract the adjective; similarly with *so, as, too* and *no less*.

    - How great a crime had been committed, was not discovered till next day.
    - We could not do it in so short a time.
    - He is as diligent a man as ever lived.

12. One article suffices if the two items belong naturally together.

    - Give me a knife and fork, please.
    - At this moment a gentleman and lady entered together.

    But if a contrast is intended, the article is repeated.

    - A gentleman and a lady cannot be expected to agree on such questions.

The Pronoun of Difference

1. *Other* may be called the pronoun of difference and is thus the direct opposite of *same*.
2. Used with the definite article it generally has reference to two.
    - the other hand, every other day

    But this reference is absent in *the other day*.
3. *Other* is used with the indefinite article or without any article.
    - If you take one glass, you will take *another*.
    - Some of this pupils admired him, others detested him.
4. *Each other* and *one another*
    - They know each other's weak points.
    - We looked at one another.

The Pronoun of Unspecified Quantity

1. *Some* as used with a mass-word indicates an unknown or unspecified quantity, with a plural word an unknown or unspecified number.
    - He ate some bread and some grapes.
    - Some children are able to sing before they can talk.
2. Before a numeral it means 'approximately'.
    - This happened some forty years ago.

The Pronoun of Indifference

Any

1. *Any* indicates one or more, no matter which; therefore, *any* is very frequent in sentences implying negation or doubt (question, condition).
    - He never had any money.
    - We had ceased to pay any particular notice to the son.
    - Few, if any, will ever praise him.

2. If there is a negative in a sentence containing *any* the meaning of the whole is generally negative.
    - I can't do anything.
3. The difference between *some* and *any* is clearly brought out in the following examples.
    - You may come any day, but you must come some day to see me.
    - You must find some excuse—oh, any excuse will do.

1. *Every* may be used with a possessive pronoun.
    - I have seen it in your every glance, and heard it in your every word. (Dickens)
2. *Every* is used to indicate repetition.
    - Every third word a lye. (Sh.)
    - He was stopped every dozen yards by friends who greeted him.

Each

While *every*, like *all* refers to a complete totality, *each* refers to a limited number.

- Each of this children
- I paid sixpence each for these cigars.

Negative

No(*None*) and *neither* are negative pronouns of totality.

- No one spoke for sometime.
- Neither spoke for some time.
- They could none of them move.

CHAPTER 10

NUMBER

Singular and Plural

1. We have grammatical expressions of number in most substantives, in some pronouns and in some verbal forms, but neither in adjectives nor in particles.

2. While some languages distinguish a singular, a dual and plural, English has only a singular and a plural.

3. The only remainder of a dual is *both*.

Substantives

1. The regular way of forming the plural is by adding the *s*-ending with its threefold pronunciation.

   - [iz] after sibilants [z, s, ʒ, ʃ]: noses, horses, foxes, bridges, dishes, churches
   - [z] after voiced non-sibilants: bees, boys, ladies, flowers, cabs, kings, lambs, doves
   - [s] after voiceless non-sibilants: caps, links, lamps, hats, cliffs

2. Spelling

   - A mute *e* is inserted between *o* and *s* in all familiar words: *heroes, potatoes*; but neither in words felts as foreign:*ghettos, solos*, nor in curtailed words like *photos, pianos*, nor when there is a vowel before *o*: *folios, cameos*.
   - After a consonant *-y* is changed into *-ies*: *flies, ladies, babies*.
   - After a vowel *y* is retained: *boys, days*.
   - In proper names, *y* is retained: *Henrys, Pollys*.
   - After a sibilant *-es* is added in the spelling, except in such words as *horses, bridges*, where an *-e* is written in the singular.

3. Some words have a voiceless consonant in the singular and the corresponding voiced sound in the plural.

- A dozen words in [f], written *f* or *fe*, plural [vz], written *ves*: *thief-thieves, wife-wives*
- Words with a long vowel or diphthong before [θ] change this into [ð] before [z]: *baths, paths, mouths, oaths, sheaths*

s is changed into [z] in one word only: *houses*

4. There are a few survivals of earlier formations.
   - oxen, children, brethren
   - men, women, feet, geese, teeth, mice, lice
5. Learned words from foreign languages

Singular	Plural
nebula	nebulae
stimulus	stimuli
radius	radii
phenomenon	phenomena
crisis	crises
series	series
species	species

The Unchanged Plural

Many substantives are unchanged in the plural, either always or in certain employments.

1. Some names of animals: *sheep, deer, swine*.
2. Many names of animals that are hunted: *snipe, wild duck, fish, salmon, trout*.
3. Foreign names of animals: *buffalo, giraffe*.
4. Fish(es)
   - There are as good fish in the sea as ever came out of it.
   - Fishes are cast away that are cast into dry ponds.
5. We have unchanged plural in some words indicating number.
   - four *dozen*, three *score* years and ten, two *hundred* times, five *thousand* a year, three *million* people
   - *dozens* of times, *hundreds* of people

Plural of Compounds

1. In most compounds only the final element takes the plural inflection.

   - postmen, gentlemen, silver spoons, fountain pens, boy messengers, afternoons

2. When *man* and *woman* is the first element and serves to denote the sex of the whole, both elements take the plural form.

   - men-servants, women writers

   cf. maid-servants, lady guests, girl friends

3. Compounds containing a preposition or adverb inflect the first element.

   - sons-in-law, lookers-on, goings-on

   But if the first part is the base of a verb, the word is generally inflected as a whole.

   - go-betweens, lock-outs

The Meaning of Plural

1. The use of the plural is perfectly logical in combinations like *the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the English and French nations, in the third and fourth chapters*.

2. Sometimes the singular is preferable in analogous combinations, because the use of the plural might lead to misunderstanding.

   - In this, and the next *chapter*, I have seldom thought it necessary to cite authorities.
   - The elder and younger *son* of the house of Crawley were never at home together.

3. In speaking of a married couple we say:

   - Their married *life* was a singularly happy one.

4. In some set phrases, the singular is used even with reference to a plural subject.

   - Women have a better ear for music than most men.
   - They lost heart–but in a different sense: they lost their hearts to two sisters.

5. Some plurals have acquired meanings which are not found in the corresponding singulars.

   - air, airs
   - custom, customs
   - manner, manners

- pain, pains

6. Some words are hardly used except in the plural.

   - trousers, spectacles, whiskers
   - billiards, theatricals

   There is a tendency to use the plural form as a new singular.

   - a scissors, a barracks, a golf links, a chemical works

Mass-Words

1. The categories of singular and plural naturally apply to everything that can be counted. Such **countables** are:

   - material beings and things: girls, horses, houses, flowers
   - immaterial things of various orders: days, hours, miles, words, sonatas, evens, mistakes

2. Many words call up the idea of something possessing a certain shape or precise limits. These words are called *mass-words*. Such *uncountables* are:

   - material and denote some substance: silver, quicksilver, water, butter, tea, air
   - immaterial: leisure, music, traffic, success, knowledge
   - nexus-words: admiration, satisfaction, refinement, safety, idleness

3. While countables may be quantified by means of such words as *one, two, many, few*, mass-words cannot take such adjuncts, but may be quantified by means of *much* and *little*.

4. A great many words may in one connection stand for something countable and in another for something uncountable.

a cake, many cakes	much cake
a tall oak	a table made of oak
today's paper	a parcel in brown paper
various noises	a good deal of noise
confidential talks	much talk

5. time

   - We had a delightful time.
   - I have been there four or five times.
   - I have no time for such nonsense.

6. many fruits, much fruit

7. more examples

   - His *hair* is sprinkled with grey = he has some grey *hairs*.
   - Shee hath more *hair* then wit, and more faults then *haires*. (Sh.)
   - Is your house built of *stone* or *brick*?
   - Many *stones (bricks)* have gone to the building of that house.

8. From a purely logical point of view, the ideas of singular and plural are not applicable to mass-words. Mass-words may be divided into the two classes of singular mass-words and plural mass-words.

   - weeds, sweets, good, ashes
   - measles, hysterics, rickets

9. The words in *-ics* are plurals, but are treated as singulars: *mathematics, statistics, politics*.

Individualization

1. Some mass-words may also be used as thing-words, but this is not always possible.

2. As it is often desirable to single out things consisting of some mass, this must be done by means of such expressions as *a lump of sugar, a piece of wood*.

   - not a single piece of furniture; two clumsy articles of furniture
   - We must prevent this piece of folly.
   - Two pieces of bad news
   - The most interesting bits of information
   - A last word of advice

Collectives

1. If we look at the meaning of such a word as *nation* we see that it denotes a collection of individuals which are viewed as a unit. The same is true of *family, clergy, party*, etc.

2. As they denote at the same time a plurality and a unity, they may be said to be doubly countables; they are at the same time singular and plural.

3. Collectives treated as singulars.

- Mine is an old family
- Is it better to have a clergy that marries than one that does not marry?
- Each nation must be able to judge for itself.

4. Collectives treated as plurals.

   - All my family are early risers.
   - The clergy were all of them opposed to his proposal.
   - Your sex are not thinkers. (George Eliot)

5. A whole group of words containing a numeral may be treated as a singular.

   - *Forty yards is* a good distance.
   - *Is twenty hundred kisses* such a trouble? (Sh.)
   - I stayed there for *one short seven days*.
   - Every five minutes

The Generic Number

1. An assertion about a whole species or class can be made by means of *every*, *any*, or *all*.
2. Sometimes, the generic character is implied.

   - the singular without any article: *man* is mortal.
   - the singular with the indefinite article: *a cat* has nine lives.
   - the singular with the definite article: *the dog* is vigilant.
   - the plural without any article: *dogs* are vigilant.
   - the plural with the definite article: *the English* are fond of out-door sports.

3. The singular without any article is used with mass-words.

   - Lead is heavier than iron.
   - Blood is thicker than water.
   - Art is long, life is short.

4. *Man* used generically may refer to all mankind without any regard to sex.

   - God made the country, and man made the town. (Cowper)
   - His arms were long, like prehistoric man's.

5. *Man* may be used in contrast to *woman* generically.

- Man delights not me; no, nor woman neither. (Sh.)
- Man is the head, but woman turns it.
- Woman is best when she is at rest.

6. When the indefinite article is used generically with a substantive in the singular, it may be considered a weaker *any*.
   - *An owl* cannot see well in the daytime.
   - *An oak* is hardier than *a beech*.
7. When the definite article is used with a singular in this generic signification, it may be said to denote the typical representative of the class.
   - *The owl* cannot see well in the daytime.
   - *The early bird* catches *the worm*.
   - *The Child* is father of *the Man*. (Wordsworth)
8. Generic plural without an article is very frequent.
   - *Owls* cannot see well in the daytime.
   - Be yee therefore wise as serpents and harmless as doves. (AV.)
9. *Men* nearly always refers to males.
   - *Men* were deceivers ever. (Sh.)
   - I am studying *men*, she said. In our day this is the proper study of womankind.
10. The plural with the definite article in the generic sense is used chiefly with adjectives.
    - *The old* are apt to catch cold.

Number in Secondary Words

1. The notions of singularity and plurality properly belong to primaries only.
2. In the great majority of cases adjuncts have the same form, except *this* and *that*.
   - these boys; those girls
   - My black coat; My black trousers
3. It is possible to apply one and the same adjunct to two words of different number.
   - My wife and children (Fr. ma femme et mes enfants)

- He wore the same coat and trousers as last year.

4. In the first part of compounds the general rule is to use the singular form.

   - six shilling books; a five pound note; a seventy-mile drive

   And similarly in words not used in the singular form when standing by themselves.

   - oatmeal; a billiard table

   There are exceptions if there is no singular in use or if the plural form is scarcely felt as such.

   - pains-taking; a clothes brush; a customs officer; a two-thirds majority; a savings-bank

   In some cases, the plural form is used to avoid misunderstanding.

   - a goods-train; the seconds-hand of a watch

Verbs

1. No distinction is made in verbs between the two numbers except in the present tense, and there it is found in the third person singular only.
2. In the preterit we have the only example *was*, plural *were*.
3. Singular and plural in verbs has nothing to do with verbal idea. It is only a meaningless grammatical contrivance showing the dependence of the verb on its subject.
4. No difficulty is felt in most of the cases in which the subject is itself in the plural or consists of two or more words joined by means of *and*.

   - There *are* more things in heauen and earth Horatio,
     They *are* dream'd of in your philosophy. (Sh.)
   - Time and tide *wait* for no man.

5. When the two joined words form one conception, the verb is put in the singular.

   - Accuracy and precision *is* a more important quality of language than abundance.
   - Father and mother *is* man and wife; man and wife *is* one flesh. (Sh.)

6. There is a natural hesitation when *is* or *are* is to be placed between two words of different number.

   - Fools are my theme. (Byron; =My theme is fools)

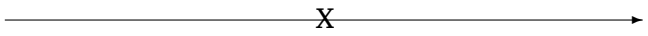
- Manners is a fine thing. (Swift)
- The stars were our only guide.
- Our only guide was the stars.

CHAPTER 11

TENSE

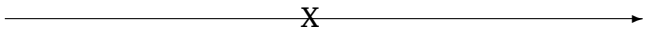
Subdivisions of Time

1. It is important to keep the two concepts **time** and **tense** strictly apart.
   - The former is common to all mankind and is independent of language.
   - The latter varies from language to language and is the linguistic expression of time relations.
2. Time is universally conceived as something having one dimension only, thus capable of being represented by one straight line.



. A: past B: present C: future

3. Time is divided into two parts, the past and the future, the point of division being the present moment.
4. Under each of the two divisions of infinite time we may refer to some point as lying either before or after the main point.



Aa Ab Ac B Ca Cb Cc

before-past past after-past present before-future future after-future

5. The English verb has only two tenses proper, the **Present** and the **Preterit**(=the past tense).

Formation of the Present Tense and Preterit

The Present Tense

1. The Present tense is identical with the base of the verb.

2. The *s*-ending with its three phonetic forms in the third person singular.

    - [iz] after hissing sounds: kisses, praises, wishes, judges
    - [z] after voiced sounds: goes, sends, begs, lives
    - [s] after voiceless sounds: beats, takes, coughs

The Preterit

1. The Preterit is formed in various ways.
2. In all regular verbs the Preterit and the (second) participles are formed by the addition of the 'weak' ending, which has three phonetic forms.

    - [id] after [d] and [t]: ended, rested
    - [d] after voiced sounds other than [d]: gathered, called, screwed, managed
    - [t] after voiceless sounds other than [t]: locked, hopped, kissed, coughed, wished

3. *d* is added, but the vowel of the base is changed.

    • say[sei]—said[sed]
    • flee—fled
    • hear—heard
    • sell—sold

4. *d* is added, and the consonant of the base is omitted.

    • have—had
    • make—made

5. *t* is added in some verbs.

    • after *n*: burn—burnt, learn—learnt
    • after *l*: dwell–dwelt, spell—spelt, spill—spilt

6. *t* is added, but *d* disappears before it.

    • bend—bent, send—sent, spend—spent, build—built

7. *t* is added, the vowel of the base is changed.

    • deal—dealt, feel—felt, mean—meant
    • creep—crept, keep—kept, sleep—slept

8. *t* is added after further change of the base.

- bring—brought, think—thought
- seek—sought, teach—taught
- catch—caught, buy—bought

9. Some bases ending in *d* or *t* are unchanged in the Preterit and Participle.

   - rid, shed, spread
   - burst, cast, cost, cut, hit, hurt, put, set, shut

10. In other verbs ending in *d* and *t* the vowel is changed.

    - breed—bred, feed—fed, lead—led, read—read
    - meet—met
    - sit—sat, spit—spat
    - stand—stood

11. In the following verbs, we have vowel change without any addition.

    - win—won
    - cling—clung, fling—flung, sting—stung, swing—swung
    - dig—dug, stick—stuck

12. Different vowels in Preterit and Participle

    - swim—swam—swum
    - begin—began—begun
    - ring—rang—rung
    - run—ran—run

13. The Participle ends in *n*.

    - blow—blew—blown
    - draw—drew—drawn
    - see—saw—seen

14. Two verbs form their Preterits from a different root altogether.

    - be, am is, are—was, were—been
    - go—went—gone

Tense-Phrases

1. Besides the two uncompounded tenses, Present and Preterit, we must recognize two tense-phrases, the **Perfect** and the **Pluperfect**.
    - The Perfect is formed by means of the present tense of the auxiliary *have* + the second participle.
    - The Pluperfect is formed by the preterit of *have* + the second participle.
2. Originally *have* had its full meaning:
   I have caught the fish = I hold the fish as caught.
3. With intransitive verbs *have* is not the usual auxiliary, but formerly *I am come, I am become* was used.
4. By the side of these tense and tense-phrases we have **expanded** forms.
    - the Expanded Present: am writing
    - the Expanded Preterit: was writing
    - the Expanded Perfect: have been writing
    - the Expanded Pluperfect: had been writing

Use of the Present Tense

1. The Present tense is used about momentary state and **eternal truth**.
    - He is hungry.
    - Our children eat very little meat.
    - Some people prefer music-halls to the opera.
    - Gold is heavier than silver.
    - The evil that men do, lives after them; The good is oft enterred with their bones. (Sh.)
    - All men are lyers. (AV)
    - None but the brave deserves the fair. (Dryden)
2. The Present tense is used in speaking of the past. This is so-called 'historic(dramatic) Present'.
    - I stepped up to the copper. "If you please, sir," says I, "can you direct me to Carrick-mines Square?" "I never heard of any such Square in these parts," he says. (Shaw)

3. The Present tense may be used in speaking of some future time, chiefly when something is settled as part of a program or agreement.

   - I start for Italy on Monday next.
   - We dine tomorrow with the Cannings.

   In clauses after conjunctions of time this use of the Present tense is the rule, because futurity is sufficiently indicated in the main verb.

   - When at last the end comes, it will come quietly and fitly.
   - We do not know when he will come, but when he comes he will not find us ungrateful.

   We have the same use of the Present tense in conditional clauses.

   - Will you come for a walk in the afternoon if it does not rain? I don't know if it will rain, but if it does, I shall stay at home.

Auxiliaries of the Perfect and Pluperfect

1. The Perfect and Pluperfect are formed by means of the Present and Preterit of *have* with the second participle.
2. Formerly the auxiliary *be* was extensively used with verbs of movement.

   - A foolish thing is just come into my head. (Swift)
   - Mr Harley was gone out. (Swift)
   - Ladies are not here, they are walked down the garden. (Defoe)
   - Silence is become his mother-tongue. (Goldsmith)

3. Nowadays, a distinction is made. The combination with *has* is a real perfect, but that with *is* is a pure present.

   - I shall be gone before you wake in the morning.
   - He was gone but a little time.
   - I am determined = I have determined
   - Let us be gone.

Inclusive Time

1. The Perfect is used with an indication of some length of time to denote what has lasted so long and is still.

   - He hath beene dead foure dayes. (AV.)
   - How long have you lived here?

   This may be called the inclusive present.

2. inclusive past

   - I had been married ten years.

3. inclusive future

   - I will have been married thirty years.

Use of the Preterit and Perfect

1. The Preterit refers to some time in the past without telling anything about the connection with the present moment.

2. The Perfect is a retrospective present, which connects a past occurrence with the present time.

3. The Preterit is the proper tense whenever the sentence contains such time indications as *yesterday, the other day, 1n 1901*. or is a question about the time.

   - When did you see him?

4. When the time indication is not yet completed (*today, this year, not yet*), the Perfect is naturally used.

   - I have worked hard today.
   - He has been a conscientious worker so far.

5. *Always, ever* and *never* may be combined with both tenses.

   - Real question: Have you ever heard of such a thing?
   - Emotional exclamation: Did you ever hear of such a thing?

6. Very often a sentence contains no express indication of time, and yet the Preterit may be required, because that special point of time is implied by the context.

   - Did you sleep well?

7. *Used to* denotes not only habitual or repeated action, but also a permanent state in the past.
   - I used to call on him every Sunday.
   - I used to live at Chelsea.
8. Proverbial sentences make the hearer draw the conclusion that what has hitherto been true is so still and will remain so to the end of time.
   - Men were deceivers ever. (Sh.)
   - Faint heart never won fair lady.
9. The simple Preterit is often used for the before-past time in clauses beginning with the conjunction *after*.
   - For years after it occurred I dreamed of it often.
   - He stood motionless after she disappeared(=had disappeared).
10. In temporal and conditional clauses the Perfect may be used for the before-future time.
    - When you have signed the cheque, I will hand you the letter.
    - We will start at five if it has stopped raining by that time.

The Pluperfect

1. If we have two successive happenings in the past, the pluperfect serves to connect them grammatically.

   ~~————————X————————Y————————~~(now)

   - I had seen him before he saw me.
   - He saw me after I had seen him.
   - He did not see me till I had seen him.
2. In clauses beginning with *after* the simple preterit often means the same thing as the pluperfect.
   - After we (had) had tea, the discussion began.
   - As soon as he (had) discovered the police, he ran away.
3. With *when* it is sometimes, but not always possible to use the preterit for a before-past.
   - When he came back from India, he was made a member of Parliament.

- When he had finished his book he took a long rest.

4. The pluperfect *had hoped* is often equivalent to *hoped*, only it implies that the (past) hope was not fulfilled.

   - We had hoped he would recover.
   - I had hoped to have seen you.

Tenses of the Infinitive

1. In the infinitive we have only two tenses, the present infinitive and the perfect infinitive.
2. The present infinitive refers not only to the present time, but generally to the same time as is indicated by the main verb.

   - It does him good to take long walks.
   - It did him good to take long walks.
   - It has done him good to take long walks.
   - It will do him good to take long walks.

3. With the verbs and other expressions which have reference to futurity the present infinitive may be said to take the place of the missing future infinitive.

   - He hopes to go there.
   - In order to get there in time we must start now.

4. The same element of futurity may be referred to something in the past.

   - He expected to get away after a short time.
   - In 1903 he went to America never to return.

5. The perfect infinitive besides its ordinary temporal function, as in

   - 'Tis better to have loved and lost Than never to have loved at all.
   - I hope to have finished my work by the end of November.

   has an important function as 'imaginative infinitive'.

   - I had intended to have sent it a month ago, but did not.

Participle

1. The time relations of the two English participles are not so simple as might be inferred from their usual names, present participle and past participle.
2. They will be called the **first participle** and the **second participle**.

The First Participle

1. When the first participle is used as an adjective, as in *a charming lady* or *she is very charming*, it has no more reference to any particular time than adjectives like *beautiful*.
2. When its use is of a purely verbal character, the same is generally true. We have a vague simultaneity with something else.
   - He came, carrying a heavy burden on his back.
   - He will come, carrying a heavy burden on his back.

The Second Participle

1. Conclusive verbs
   a) The action is either confined to one single moment.
      - catch, surprise, awake, leave, end, kill

   b) A final aim is implied.
      - make, bring about, adorn, construct, beat

   If the second participle of such a verb is used as an adjunct, it denotes the result of an action in the past.
   - a caught fish, a killed bird, a lost battle, married people, a reserved seat
2. Non-conclusive verbs
   a) Verbs denoting feelings, states of mind.
      - love, hate, praise, blame, see, hear

   b) If the participle is used as an adjunct, it says nothing about time.
      - an admired friend, a reserved expression on his face, a well-known writer

Perfect Participle

A perfect participle consists of *having* + the second participle.

- Having arranged everything to his own satisfaction, he went home by the 10:30 train.

Tenses of the Gerund

1. Substantives do not ordinarily admit of any indication of time.
2. The Gerund in *-ing* has no reference to time.
    - future: I intend seeing the king.
    - past: I remember seeing the king.
3. Perfect Gerund
    - He hated himself for having ever married her.
4. With *after* both the simple form and the perfect may be used.
    - After having rung the bell he retired into the shade.
    - After ringing the bell he retired into the shade.
5. After *on* in the same sense the simple form is preferred.
    - On ringing the bell he retired into the shade.

Tenses in the Passive

1. The pure meaning of a present tense is chiefly found when habitual actions are spoken.
    - He is easily taken in.
    - Foreign names are easily forgotten.
2. The combination of the present *is* + the participle is still freely used to indicate a resulting state where the participle really implies some action in the past.
    - The key is lost.
    - The door is shut.
3. In the preterit, *was* is also used in two senses, (i) the state, (ii) the transition to the state.
    - He was dressed in the latest fashion.
    - The children were dressed every morning by their mother.

Imaginative Use of Tenses

Preterit of Imagination

1. In preterit of imagination, we deny the reality or possibility of certain supposition.
    - I wish I had money enough.
    - If I had money enough, I should pay you.
2. Originally this use was restricted to a separate mood-form of the preterit, the preterit subjective, and the unreality was denoted by the mood rather than by the tense. But in the course of time the distinction between the forms of the subjunctive and those of the indicative came to be blotted out.
3. Wishes may be introduced in various ways.
    - I would to heaven I had your potencie (Sh.).
    - Would I could doubt it!
4. Conditions are introduced not only by *if* and *unless*, but also in other ways.
    - Suppose you tried you luck!
    - Fancy your wife attached to a mother who dropped her h's!
    - A nation which stopped working would be dead in a fortnight.
5. A distinction is often made between *if he was to* and *if he were to*. The former retains the meaning of obligation or arrangement, while the latter indicates merely a vague possibility in the future.
6. After *it is (high) time* we have an interesting use of the imaginative preterit in speaking really of the future.
    - It's time we sent the children to bed.
    - It time this was put an end to.

Pluperfect of Imagination

1. The pluperfect of imagination refers to some time in the past.
    - I wish he had not seen us.
    - He flung himself into the chair as if nothing uncommon had occurred.
2. The pluperfect of imagination refers the present time to emphasize the impossibility or improbability.

- I wish I had been rich enough to give you the money (but I am not).
- If I had had the money (at the present moment) I should have paid you.

Perfect Infinitive of Imagination

1. The perfect infinitive is often used with an imaginative value.
   - It would have been wiser to have left it unsaid–or, to leave it unsaid.
   - In other circumstances the two ladies might have found it impossible to have lived together so long.
2. The perfect infinitive is often used after a verb meaning intention, hope or expectation in the past to denote that the intention was not carried into effect.
   - I hoped to have asked you some day to rejoin us here.
   - I had intended to have sent it a month ago, but did not.
3. A plan that was not carried out is also expressed in the frequent phrase *was to have(done)*.
   - George was to have been of the party; but he did not appear.

Expanded Tenses

1. The chief use of the expanded tenses is to serve as a frame round something else, which may or may not be expressly indicated. This is easily understood if we start from the old phrase *he was on hunting*. Here *on* became phonetically *a*, and *a* eventually dropped: *burst out on laughing, a-laughing, laughing.*
2. In a connected narrative, the expanded tenses often occur in a description of the general situation.
   - Mrs Gregg looked at Mary very carefully and then smiled. Mary was also smiling.
3. Often a contrast between habitual and actual doing at the one moment spoken of may be brought out by means of the two kinds of tenses.
   - He is a night watchman and sleeps of mornings. He is sleeping now.
   - The girls and teachers, gathered round the other table, were talking pretty freely; they always talked at meals.
4. The expressions often have an emotional coloring.
   - You are always finding fault with me.

5. immediate future

    - I am afraid I must be going.
    - He was impatient to be doing something.

CHAPTER 12

DEPENDENT NEXUS

A dependent nexus forms only a part of a sentence, and thus may be either a primary (subject or object), a secondary (an adjunct), or a tertiary.

A dependent nexus may take the form of either:

1. a simple collocation of a primary and a secondary
2. a nexus-substantive, which shares the ordinary qualities of a substantive
3. a gerund
4. an infinitive
5. a clause

Simple Nexus as Object

1. The object of a verb is often a nexus expressed by a simple collocation of a primary and its adnex.
    - I found the cage empty.
      cf. I found the empty cage.
    - I saw my face reflected in the mirror.
    - We think this a great shame.
2. The adnex may be any word or combination of words which can stand as a predicative.
    - Could she have believed herself in the way?
    - Her friends held her of little account.
3. an object of result
    - Her stubbornness made him angry.
    - This will drive him mad.
4. *Have* is used not only of what is unintentional on the part of the subject, but also serves to express causality on the part of the subject.

- King Charles had his head cut off.
- I had my hair cut.

5. Intransitive verbs also admit this construction.

   - He slept himself sober.
   - Eating his father out of house and home

6. The opposite word-order is permissible if the adnex is very short, especially in fixed combinations.

   - This amounts to *letting loose* a tiger on a crowd.
   - He has seen fit to escape.

7. A simple nexus may be the object not only of a verb, but also of a preposition.

   - Will Fortune never come with both hands full?(Sh.)
   - I can't write with you standing there.
   - Morning? It seems to me a night with the sun added (Browning).
   - What a lonely world it will be with her away?

Simple Nexus as Tertiary

A simple collocation of a primary and an adnex may serve as a tertiary in a sentence.

1. These grammatical constructions occur most often in set phrases.

   - Weather permitting, we shall start on Monday.
   - Other things being equal, the simplest explanation is the best.
   - There being no taxis, we had to walk.

2. A time-relation may be indicated.

   - This done, he bade us good-night.
   - Once the door closed, they all began to talk together.

3. The nexus contains descriptive details and indications of attendant circumstances, generally added after the main part of the sentence.

   - She stood silent, her head slightly on one side.
   - Helen ran back to the dining-room, her brother following.

4. We often have condensed expressions, in which qualifications that are necessary in other combinations are omitted.

    - He stood there, hat in hand and pipe in mouth (with his hat in his hand and a pipe in his mouth).
    - We turned the tortoise upside down.
    - We met face to face at last.

5. A few participles are generally placed before the primary in this construction.

    - Given these persons in this situation, such and such events will follow.
    - Granted health, he may still live to pay off his debts.

6. The adnex is an infinitive with *to*, expression what is destined or enjoined.

    - He proposed a picnic, he himself to pay the railway tickets, and John to provide the food.

CHAPTER 13

NEXUS-SUBSTANTIVES

Types of Nexus-substantives

1. A dependent nexus is very often expressed by means of a substantive. We have two kinds of nexus-substantives.
    - a nexus-substantive from a predicative: cleverness(=being clever), wisdom, pride, ease, constancy
    - a nexus-substantive from a verb: arrival(=the act of arriving), belief, sleep, fight, examination, judgment
2. Nexus-substantives serve to express complicated ideas in a short and handy way.
    - The doctor's extremely quick arrival brought about her very speedy recovery.
    - The doctor arrived extremely quickly ; the result was that she recovered very speedily.
3. The use of nexus-words is accompanied by a change of the rank of many words.
    - He spoke with absolute freedom(absolutely freely).
    - with perfect ease, with approximate accuracy
4. It is not difficult to indicate the primary in the case of a predicative nexus-word, and one formed from a intransitive verb; either the genitive or the preposition *of* is used.
    - The doctor's cleverness (his cleverness), the cleverness of the doctor
    - The doctor's arrival (his arrival), the arrival of the doctor
5. The same is true of substantives formed from such transitive verbs as cannot take a person as object.
    - The doctor's (his) suggestion, decision; the suggestion/decision of the doctor

Active or passive import

1. The word in question can be either the subject or the object.
    - the love of God
    - What is the use of teachers?
2. The nexus substantive has sometimes an active, and sometimes a passive import.
    a) Such verbs as *need* or *want* always have passive import.
        - He needs support, he asks for approbation
    b) In the following cases the substantive will naturally be taken in the active sense.
        - John's discovery, admiration, love
    c) In cases in which more interest is taken in the person who is the object of an action than in the person who is the agent, the substantive will be taken in the passive sense.
        - A man's defeat, arrest, education
        - The Prime Minister's reception in London was unique.
        - The criminal escaped recognition.

Concrete meaning of nexus-substantives

1. It is possible to have one and the same substantive accompanied by two words, one to express the subject and another the object; the former expressed by a genitive and the latter by an *of*-combination.
    - His instinctive avoidance of my brother.
    - He won praise by his release of his prisoners.
    - He had overcome her dislike of him.
2. Both the genitive and the *of*-combination have really a double function with nexus-substantive. We use the preposition *by* for the subject to avoid awkwardness.
    - The accidental discovery by Miss Knag of some correspondence
    - Mrs Wright's account of her courtship by Joseph Wright (= Joseph Wright's courtship of her).
3. A possessive may also be used.
    - His expulsion from power by the Tories.

4. We use prepositions for the object other than the ambiguous *of*.

    - Your love for my daughter
    - The love of Browning for Italy
    - The control of mind over matter(= of matter by mind)

CHAPTER 14

THE GERUND

Hybrid between Substantive and Verb

1. The gerund can be formed from any verb (with the exception of *may*, *shall* and a few other auxiliaries).

2. It has taken over certain syntactic characteristics of the verb which are not found in other nexus-substantives.

Treated as Substantives

1. A gerund resembles and is treated like a substantive.

   a) It can be used as a subject, predicative or object.

   b) It can form a plural: *his comings and goings, sayings and doings, buildings, savings*.

   c) It can form a genitive: *reading for reading's sake*.

   d) It can take various adjuncts in the same way as other substantives: *a good beginning, public speaking*.

   e) It can enter into compounds in various ways: *a wedding-ring, house-keeping, cock-fighting*.

2. A gerund differs from other nexus-substantives.

   a) It has a perfect and a passive, also a perfect passive.

   b) It can be freely combined with adverbs and other tertiaries.

   c) It can take an object and a predicative.

      - I have some suspicion of the police having never properly searched the room.
      - I have some suspicion of the room having never been properly searched by the police.

Similarities with Verbs

1. Tertiaries are freely combined with gerunds.
    - He is tired of looking out for jobs.
    - The possibility of their ever knowing the truth.
    - He was nervous from having never before spoken in public.
2. A gerund may be combined with a predicative.
    - She was proud of being a woman as well as of the prospect of becoming a mother.
3. A gerund has a passive perfect.
    - He expressed a doubt of their having ever been married.
    - He prided himself on having never been beaten at chess.

Active and Passive Meaning

1. A gerund may be taken either in an active meaning or a passive meaning. A passive meaning is found:
    - The garden wants weeding.
    - People who are dissatisfied with their own bringing up
2. Both the passive and the active meaning are found together:
    - She deserved punishing for punishing me.
3. The ambiguity of this form has led to the development of a new passive with *being*.
    - Shall we excuse his being thrown into the water?
    - He was three times very near being murdered.
    - The soldier's trade is not slaying, but being slain (Ruskin).

Object

1. *Of* is chiefly found when the substantival character of the gerund is shown by the use of the definite article or some other adjunct.
    - This will certainly be the making of you.
    - On account of his deliberate buying up of stocks

2. The most usual construction is for the gerund to take an object without *of*.

   - He entered the room without greeting anybody.
   - I always take great pleasure in hearing him play.
   - I thanke thee, Jew, for teaching me that word (Sh.).

Subject

1. No indication is needed in the numerous cases in which the subject is either the generic person or identical with something mentioned in the main sentence.

   - Complimenting is lying.
   - On returning from the war he took to writing for the papers.
     The pain in my throat made speaking difficult.

2. The genitive and a possessive pronoun are used there just as with other nexus-substantives.

   - We were naturally surprised by John's asking us to dinner.
   - She strongly resented Mr Watson's drawing so close to her.

3. Some words have no genitive at all; if they have to be used as subjects before a gerund it is therefore necessary to take the common-case form; the same holds good of some word-groups, which cannot easily be put in the genitive.

   - He would not hear of that being possible.
   - I am not surprised at young or old falling in love with her.
   - He would not hear of Mrs Mackenzie and her daughter quitting the house.

4. The difficulty is even greater if one of the words joined is a personal pronoun.

   - There was no need of both of them making a journey.
   - A dream of my father and myself driving out together in a beautiful car.

5. Even in the case of words denoting living beings, the common case is frequent.

   - I have no objection to the author being known.
   - There is nothing ridiculous in an English gentleman entertaining feelings of loyalty.

6. *Its* is probably used more frequently than *it* in this position.

   - Only think of its being three months since I went away.
   - He had no doubt of it being highly agreeable to Fanny.

7. As with other nexus-substantives the subject may be represented by an *of*-combination.

    - On the breaking out of the war
    - They were surprised by the sudden coming in of a stranger.

The Gerundial Nexus itself Subject

1. When the gerundial nexus is a subject, the genitive or a possessive may be used.

    - Sohpia's having seen them did not greatly surprise us.
    - Her thus turning her back on me was fortunately not a snub.

2. A substantive is put in the common case.

    - Parliament breaking up immediately after gave the officials a good excuse for doing nothing more.
    - Is the lady bothering you any reason for you to come bothering me?

It and There

1. The gerundial construction may be represented by preparatory *it*.

    - It has been just splendid meeting you here.
    - It is no use your trying to deceive me.
    - You must find it rather dull living here all by yourself.

2. A gerund may be preceded by preparatory *there*.

    - No one would have dreamed of there being such a place.
    - He denied there being anything uncongenial in their character.

CHAPTER 15

THE INFINITIVE

Substantive or verb?

1. The infinitive in prehistoric time was a fully inflected verbal substantive.
2. In course of time its distinctive endings have worn off, so that now it has become identical in form with the base of the verb. In *I can sing*, *sing* was the object of the verb *can*, thus it meant *I know singing*.
3. The infinitive is now a purely verbal form.
    a) It cannot be preceded by an article, an adjective or a genitive.
    b) It can take an object and an adverb.
    c) It possesses a perfect and a passive.
    d) It can stand as a subject or object.
    e) It has the mixed active-passive character in some cases.

Bare infinitive and to-infinitive

1. The bare infinitive is used chiefly after the auxiliary verbs and a few other cases.
2. In all other cases the infinitive is preceded by *to*, which was at first the ordinary preposition indicating direction or purpose.
    - He goes to fetch his hat.
    - He was led to believe it.
    - I wish to go.
3. Before an infinitive, *to* may now be considered a grammatical implement with no meaning of its own.

Infinitives as Primaries

Subject

1. The infinitive may stand as the subject.
    - To see you is always a great pleasure.
    - To err is human, to forgive, divine (Pope).
2. The subject is often placed in extraposition.
    - It is a great pleasure to see you.
    - It always pays to tell the truth.

Predicative

1. An infinitive may be a predicative.
    - My chief purpose has been to point out the difficulties of the matter.
2. We have infinitives both as subject and predicative.
    - To see her is to love her.
    - Where but to think is to be full of sorrow (Keats).

    The sentences do not really denote complete identity; It means that seeing immediately leads to loving. These combinations are different from corresponding ones with the gerund.
    - Complimenting is lying.

    which means that complimenting is one form of lying.

Object

1. The infinitive may be the object of a verb. The verbs which can take an infinitive with *to* as object are very numerous: *wish, want,refuse, like, prefer, hope, begin, continue, cease, forget, try, attempt, intend, mean,promise, purpose, pretend.*
2. In few cases we may have an indirect object alongside of the infinitive which is the direct object.
    - They promised us to refrain from hostilities.
    - Our parents taught us to speak the truth and to fear nothing.

3. We we say 'he has a difficult task to perform,' *task* is the object, and *to perform* is an adjunct to *task*.

4. The verb *have* can take the *to*-infinitive as the object.

    - The writer, when he sits down to commence his novel, should do so, not because he has to tell a story, but because he has a story to tell.

5. *Have to* has been very extensively used as a substitute for *must*, chiefly because it allows of tense and other distinctions not found in *must*.

6. Some verbs which cannot take an ordinary object, but require a prepositional group, are combined with a *to*-infinitive.

    - I long to see her again (I long for the sight of her).
    - We agreed to set out the following day (We agreed on a plan).

7. Similarly some substantives and adjectives which cannot otherwise take an object can have an infinitive as object.

    - A desire/wish/hope to see her again
    - Anxious/eager/desirous/afraid to see her again

Infinitives as Secondaries

1. An infinitive may be used as an adjunct place before a substantive, but only if it is preceded by an adverb.

    - This never-to-be-forgotten day.
    - His not to be alienated inheritance (Dickens).

2. Infinitive with *to* are very often used as adjuncts placed after a substantive.

    - She is not the kind of girl to encourage lovers.
    - This is not a good place to rest in.
    - He was always the first to come and the last to leave the office.

3. In some cases, infinitives have passive import; this is a survival of the original substantival character of infinitives.

    - A house to let
    - We could think of nothing to say.
    - A young lady easts nothing to speak of.

- She wants somebody to love and somebody to love her.

4. Not only meaning, but also the form may be passive in adjuncts place dafter the primaries.
   - The next thing to be considered was food.
   - This leaves nothing to be desired.
5. The reference to futurity is clear in:
   - A difficulty felt by others in times past, and to be felt again in times to come.
   - A higher legal authority presently to be defined.
6. The distinction between active and passive infinitive has sometimes hardly any importance.
   - There is nothing to fear/to be feared.
   - There is only one thing to do/to be done.
7. The following examples shoe a clear distinction.
   - There were always four little boys to pick up the boos and at least three dozen balls to be picked up.
   - Pictures are not the only things to see an Florence.
   - In the street, umbrellas were the only things to be seen.
8. An infinitive can be used as a predicative after the verb *be*. In some stock phrases, the infinitive has a passive sense.
   - The house is to let.
     This house is not to be let.
   - He is to blame.
     He is to be blamed for this.

   Apart from such stock phrases, the passive infinitive is always used.
   - Beer like that is not to be had outside of Germany.
   - The great and wealthy are not always to be envied.
   - His failure is not to be ascribed to want of diligence.
9. *To*-infinitive after *be* generally serves to express what is determined, necessary, or a mere future result.
   - I am to meet them at five.
     When an old bachelor marries a young wife, what is he to expect? (Sheridan)

- You must speak out, if we are to remain friends.
- The weary ages that have been and are yet to come.

Infinitives as Tertiaries

1. An infinitive with *to* is very often used as a tertiary. The original meaning of the preposition is still easily discernible after a verb of motion.
   - How can I get to know her?
   - He was led to believe everything she said.
2. In the infinitive of purpose the original meaning of the preposition *to* is also evident.
   - He opened his lips to make some remarks.
   - He nodded his head as much as to say, “I consent.”
   - Women are made to be loved, not to be understood (Wilde).
3. the infinitive of result
   - She woke suddenly to find someone standing in the door way with a candle.
   - He will live to be ninety, he is so strong.
4. The main verb expresses a necessary condition to obtain a result.
   - To be effective, a poem must be beautiful.
   - I could not write a sonnet to save my life.

Primaries in an Infinitive-Nexus

1. The subject of an infinitive needs not to be indicated, because the subject would be either the generic person or identical with the subject of the main verb.
   - It always pays to tell the truth.
   - He is old enough to know better.
2. Very often the subject has to be expressly indicated. This construction is generally termed ‘the accusative with infinitive.’
   - They firmly believed him to be innocent.
   - I found my attention wander.
   - He felt his hands tremble.

3. Cases like those just mentioned form the transition to others in which the infinitives-nexus is n object of result.
    - Nothing will make him work, the mere idea of work makes him shudder.
    - Their brilliant conversation made the hours fly.
4. The accusative with infinitive may be the object of a preposition of a phrase consisting of a verb and a preposition.
    - I hoped I could count on you not to interfere.
    - I rely upon you to be discreet.
    - Listening to the rain patter on the shrubs
    - He did not wait for her to speak.
5. The same construction with *for* is found after adjectives and substantives.
    - I should be sorry for you to think that.
    - He gave immediate orders for all his family to be summoned round him.
6. An infinitive preceded by *for* may express a purpose, desire or determination.
    - He stood aside for her to enter.
    - This isn't a world for an innocent girl to wander about in.
7. Split subject
    - He seems to be all right.
    - They would be certain to miss him.
    - He is supposed to be honest.
8. The preposition *for* is used with the subject-part of an infinitival nexus.
    - It is good for a man not to touch a woman (AV.).
    - What I like best, is for a nobleman to marry a miller's daughter. And what I like next best, is, for a poor fellow to run away with a rich girl (Thackeray).
    - What can be more ridiculous than for gentlemen to quarrel about hats? (Shaw)

CHAPTER 16

CLAUSES AS PRIMARIES

Content-clauses

1. A content clause is a clause containing a statement which is not a sentence by itself, but is made part of a sentence. Content-clauses are very often introduced by means of the conjunction *that*. They can be used as primaries.

    - That he is dead seems tolerably certain.
    - The worst thing is that he never answers our letters.
    - I believe that he is dead.
    - I tremble lest they should see us.

2. The content-clause can be placed in extraposition at the end.

    - It seems tolerably certain that he is dead.
    - Is it certain that he is dead?

3. Some verbs require the same representative *it* immediately before the clause.

    - The men to whom we owe it that we have a House of Commons.
    - I take it that he gives his consent.

4. A content-clause may be the object of a preposition.

    - I know nothing *except* that he was found dead.
    - Men differ from brutes *in* that they can think and speak.

5. In most cases, it is necessary to prop up the clause with some introductory word.

    - You may rely *on it* that I shall give you a full account.
    - See *to it* that no harm comes to her.
    - Everything points *to the fact* that he had been very seriously ill.

Content-clauses without that

1. We may say either “I think he is dead” or “I think that he is dead”; but it would be wrong to imagine that in the former expression the conjunction *that* is omitted.

2. In both expression we had originally two independent sentences: “I think: he is dead” and “I think that: he is dead.”

3. *That* was accentually weakened and it was felt to belong to the clause following.

4. The conjunction is felt to be indispensable

   a) when the clause is placed first:

      • That time is money has never been realized in the East.

   b) after a substantive like *belief, conviction*, etc.:

      • My suggestion that he was mad was not accepted by everybody.

   c) when the preparatory *it* is placed first:

      • It is to be regretted that he should have come just now.
      cf. It is true he did not say that./It was good he came.

   d) in the second of two coordinate clauses, especially the first is long:

      • He only wished he dared look at Maggie, and that she would look at him.

Interrogative Clauses as Primaries

1. An interrogative clause may be the subject of a sentence.

   • How he got hold of the veronal was the problem.

   • Whether Shakespeare wrote *Titus Andronicus* or not will always remain a secret.

   • It does not interest me in the least who will be Prime Minister in fifty years.

2. An interrogative clause may be the object of a preposition.

   • I shall not fuss *about* how the trick has been done (Shaw).

   • There is some doubt as to whether the document is genuine.

   • I never had the least idea *of* what you charge me *with* (Sheridan).

3. Infinitive constructions are often made into clauses.

   • How to begin is more difficult than where to stop.

   • He never knows when to go.

4. The general feeling is that clauses governed by prepositions are clumsy constructions.

    - I future I am going to be careful what I do.
    - I don't care what people say.
    - It all depends how you handle it.

Relative Clauses as Primaries

Though relative clauses are most often used as adjuncts they may also be primaries.

1. The relative clause is the subject.

    - Who steales my purse, steales trash (Sh.).
    - Whoever says so is a liar.
    - What you say is quite true.
    - What money I have is at your disposal.

2. The relative clause is the object of a verb.

    - You may marry whom you like.
    - He wants to shoot whoever comes near him.
    - He will take what you offer him.

3. The relative clause is the object of a preposition.

    - You may dance with whom you like.
    - He will shoot at whoever comes near him.
    - He will be thankful for what help you can offer him.

CHAPTER 17

CLAUSES AS SECONDARIES

Restrictive and Non-restrictive Relative Clauses

1. The restrictive relative clause gives a necessary determination to the word it modifies. The non-restrictive relative clause may be left out without injury to the precise meaning of the world it is joined to.

    - He had four sons that became lawyers.
      He had four sons, who became lawyers.
    - Scott, who when a boy did little that would attract notice

2. Double restriction is found when there are two relative clauses of which the second restricts the primary as already defined by the first.

    - Is there anything you want that you have not?
    - They murdered all they met whom they supposed to be gentlemen.

Clauses with wh-Pronouns

1. In Middle English, *which, whom*, and *who* came into use as relative pronouns and have since than been gaining ground at the expense of *that*.One fo the reasons for this preference was probably that these pronouns reminded classical scholars of the corresponding Latin pronouns.

2. If we have two co-ordinated relative clauses, the second nearly always has a *wh*-pronouns.

    - She possessed gifts that were not only higher than a ready tongue, but which paid better in the long run.

Contact-Clauses

1. Relative clauses without any connecting word are called *contact clauses*.

2. Contact-clauses are most frequent in those cases in which the pronoun, if present, would have been the object.
    - The seed ye sow, another reaps; The wealth ye find, another keeps (Shelley).
    -
3. The relative pronoun, if expressed, would have been the object of a preposition.
    - You are not the first I have said no to.
    - The family he lived with simply adored him.
4. The relative pronoun would have been the predicative.
    - I am not the man I was when you knew me first.
5. The relative pronoun would have been a tertiary.
    - The moment he entered the room, I felt myself prejudiced against him.
    - By the time I had told my mother they had all left.

Clauses with that, as, or but

that

1. The relative *that* was formerly used in all kinds of clauses, but is now found in restrictive ones only.
2. After superlatives and similar words
    - You're the best friend that he has, and the only one that has access to him at all times.
    - Of all the women she is the last that would triumph in this way.
3. When a relative clause restricts an interrogative pronoun, *that* is generally preferred.
    - Who that has such a home to return to, would travel about the country like a vagabond?
    - Which of us that is thirty years old has not had his Pompeii?
4. After *anybody, everybody*, etc., *that* and *who* are perhaps equally frequent.
    - Was there anybody there that/who applauded him?
5. *Who* cannot be used in the predicative.

- Remembering the sweet little girl that she used to be.
- The carrier was in high spirits, good fellow that he was.

6. After *much, little, few*, *that* is generally used.

   - His writings contain little that is new or startling, but much that is old and even trite.
   - All the trains–the few that there were–stopped at all the stations.

7. *That* is often used (as a tertiary) in a way that would be impossible with the *wh*-pronouns.

   - This is the time that the unjust man doth thrive (Sh.).
   - By the time that you are dressed, breakfast will be ready.
   - We parted in the same cordial fashion that we met.

as

As is used as a connective (relative) particle after *the same, such, so* and *as*.

- We rode the same way as we had come out the evening before.
- He was such a listener as most musicians would be glad to welcome.
- There are as good fish in the sea as ever came out of it.

but

But is used after a negative expression as a relative connective.

- No gentleman but wishes to avoid a scene.
- Few of these men but at some time of their lives had worn the clog.

CLAUSES AS TERTIARIES

Place

- Dick lay *where* the grass was thickest.

Time

- *When* he comes, tell him to wait.
- *After* he had lost his wife, he settled in France.
- *Every time* he appears her face brightens up.

Contrast

- *Whereas* Mr Brown had been delighted at the news, his wife saw that it might mean trouble.
- *While* everything was scrupulously clean in the sitting-room, the kitchen was abominably dirty.

Manner

- He has a right to spend his money *how* he pleases.
- You may come just *as* you are; don't dress.

Comparison

- The water was much deeper *than* we had expected.
- Everything is left just *as* it was when the murder was discovered.

Cause

- He was angry, *because* no one spoke to him.
- *Since* you have nothing else to do, why not remain with me?

Purpose

- Place yourself there, *that* I may see your face clearly.
- She turned her head away *lest* he should see her tears.

Result

- He spoke so well *that* he convinced everybody of his innocence.
- The burglar wore gloves, *so that* there were no finger-prints visible.

Condition

- *If* he comes back, what are we to do?
- I don't care, *so long as* the weather keeps settled.

Restriction

- *As far as* I can see, he cannot be more than thirty.
- He has never been here, *that* I know.

Concession

- *Though* the hall was crowded, they managed to find seats.
- *Even* had she been alive, we should not have seen her.

Indifference

- *Whether* he answers or no, I shall go on distrusting him
- *Go where he will*, he is sure to find people who speak English.