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A HANDBOOK OF PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

BY

E. KRUISINGA

PART II

ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

3

FIFTH EDITION

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NOTE TO THE FIFTH EDITION. — In this volume the separate treatment of syntactic groups has entailed a complete rearrangement of the sections on sentence-structure, concord, and word-order. The chapters on word-formation have been carefully revised, and some sections have been added which deal with this part of grammar from a general point of view.

To the compiler of the subject-index both my readers and myself owe an obligation that I have pleasure in acknowledging.

K.

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CORRIGENDA

Volume 2.

- P. 8, l. 7 fr. bottom, ¹⁾ change 828 into 829.
 P. 10, l. 6 " " , " 827 into 905.
 P. 10, l. 4 " " , " *gentlemen* into *gentleman*.
 P. 12, l. 14 fr. top , " 755 into 761.
 P. 12, l. 18 " " , " 827 into 829.
 P. 45, l. 9 fr. bottom, " 1212 into 1202.
 P. 67, last line of note, " 828 into 829.
 P. 77, l. 13 fr. bottom, " 841 into 842.
 P. 78, l. 2 " " , " 841 into 842.
 P. 128, cancel note ¹⁾.
 P. 138, l. 13 fr. top , " 831 into 832.
 P. 148, l. 16 fr. bottom, " *Is* into *It*.
 P. 173, l. 2 " " , " 1079 into 1077.
 P. 201, In § 1101b change *noun-clauses* into *adverb clauses*.
 P. 236, l. 16 fr. bottom, change (1146b) into (1146c).
 P. 237, l. 13 " " , " 306 into 1306.
 P. 307, l. 2 fr. top , " 1254 into 1294.
 P. 312, l. 7 fr. bottom, " 1275 into 1245.
 P. 373, l. 11 fr. top , " 1409 into 1408.
 P. 435, l. 16 " " , " *the regular* into *the other irregular*.
 P. 458, l. 9 " " , " *vain* into *vein*.

Volume 3.

- P. 11, l. 10 fr. bottom, change 769 into 766.
 P. 49, last line , " 1636 into 1637.
 P. 58, l. 9 fr. top , " *p. 178* into § 178.
 P. 60, l. 6 fr. bottom, " 1636 into 1637.
 P. 60, l. 5 " " , " 1638 into 1635.
 P. 132, l. 9 fr. top , " 1805 into 1803.
 P. 150, l. 9 " " , " 1889 into 1899.
 P. 173, l. 10 fr. bottom, " 1601 into 1648.
 P. 173, l. 8 " " , " 80 into 278.
 P. 181, l. 9 fr. top , " 1378 into 1387.
 P. 252, l. 16 fr. bottom, " 190 into 1890.
 P. 301, l. 17 " " , " 706 into 786.
 P. 314, last line of note, " 2011 into 2136.
 P. 350, l. 2 fr. bottom, " 1194 into 1132b.
 P. 380, l. 5 " " , " 2267 into 2268.

1) The notes are included in the line-numbering; the running titles are not.

WORD-FORMATION

COMPOSITION

1581. The analysis of a sentence into words is partly arbitrary. Thus in *I want to go there* it would be just as reasonable, perhaps even more reasonable, to consider *to* as a prefix to the stem, not as an independent word. Again, the spelling *don't* indicates that *don't* is looked upon as one rather than as two words. In analysing such a sentence as *There is a public house at the corner*, it is necessary to look upon *public house* as one word: the traditional spelling in two words may indicate its origin, but it is impossible to analyse the group according to its meaning, for there is nothing in the word *public* to indicate the fact that a *public house* means a house for the sale of drink. Such a combination of words is called a compound.

A compound may, therefore, be defined as a combination of two words forming a unit which is not identical with the combined forms or meanings of its elements.

1582. Composition is one of the simplest methods of making new words. It is the natural result of the grouping of words in a sentence, which will be treated in some detail in the chapter on *Syntactic Groups*. A compound is thus to be looked upon as a syntactic group of a peculiarly close kind. Any rigid separation between syntactic groups and compounds is consequently impossible.

But it must be added that compounds are not invariably of the type of syntactic word-groups such as are used in

living English. Words like *bookseller*, *dressmaker*, *book-selling*, *dressmaking* instance a type of formation that is unknown in an English word-group. For in present-day English a noun that serves as an object to an independent verbal form never precedes the verb, but follows: we can say *he sells books*, *selling books*, *a seller of books*; but *books* as an element of a group cannot precede these verbal forms. We may explain such types as *bookseller*, etc. by informing the reader that they represent syntactic groups which occurred in earlier stages of English, but such an 'explanation' does not really account for the words as samples of a living type that can produce new words at any moment, such as may be illustrated by this sentence: *Most children remember their first Channel crossing* (Mackenzie, *Seven Ages of Woman* ch. 2); see 150. Forms like these are the result of the existence of a body of old words of the same type: the new words are created on the analogy of existing ones, and are called *analogical* compounds accordingly. The other type that is or may be the result of the structure of the sentence in present-day English may be distinguished as *syntactic* compounds.

It should be remembered that to a speaker of modern English the two groups of compounds are really one: he is not conscious of any difference between a syntactic compound like *wasp's nest*, or a traditional analogical compound like *bookseller*, and a new-formation like *woman-baiter* (768), or *Pond's Skin-freshener and tonic* (Advt.).

1583. As stated in 1581, a combination of words is called a compound when it forms a unit, either from a formal or a semantic point of view, or from both. It will be necessary, therefore, to examine the ways in which this unity is created; we shall see that there are various degrees of closeness, so that any attempt strictly to divide

compounds and syntactic groups would be contrary to the character of the phenomenon.

1584. The most important means of forming compounds is formal isolation from the corresponding group by stress. In living English the great extent to which even stress is used in syntactic groups makes uneven stress an important means of composition. Such words as *blackbird*, *air-ship*, *lifeboat*, are undoubted compounds, although syntactic groups of an attributive adjective or noun before a noun are common in living English: the reason is that such syntactic groups are even-stressed, whereas the words mentioned have uneven (initial) stress. A combination like *to whitewash* might be considered as a converted noun; and the noun *whitewash* being a combination of an adjective and a noun, might be a syntactical group. But such a syntactical group has even stress in living English, and *whitewash* has uneven stress: hence it must be considered a compound. For the same reason *to blackball* is a compound.

In *Joan and Peter* (ch. 11 § 16) Mr. Wells writes:

She ceased to be a leggy person with a skirt like a kilt and a dark shock of hair not under proper control; instead she became visibly a young lady, albeit a very young young lady and suddenly all adult conversation was open to her.

The stress would, no doubt, be 'young young, 'lady. And *young lady* has clearly become so much a compound that an attributive (even-stressed) *young* must precede in order distinctly to suggest age.

1585. Some groups show their compositional character by final stress. Thus in *young man*, *fine lady* (often written *fine-lady*).

Similarly, Mr. Galsworthy (*Freelands* ch. 4 p. 32) speaks of *the half tame wild duck*.

A noun with a prepositional adjunct is often shown to be a compound by its stress on the last element.

A matter-of-course. Matter-of-fact.

A man of the world. A bill of fare. A man-of-war.

The German has ever been the pedlar and not the pioneer of civilization, *the follower of the camp*¹⁾ and not the leader of the van. Times Lit. 18/11, '15.

1586. Words may also show their character of compounds by their meaning, whether the elements are unequally stressed or not. Such words as *to whitewash*, *to blackball* must be looked upon as compounds, because there is nothing in the two elements of the words that necessarily or even naturally leads us to attach to them the meaning which they express in living English. It has already been shown (1584) that the stress also differentiates the noun *whitewash* with uneven stress from the corresponding *white wash*, which would be even-stressed if it were used. A similar explanation will account for *to blackball*. We also have isolation of meaning in *townhall*, but not in *townhouse*²⁾.

The close unity of a group is sometimes shown by the use of an adjunct that must be taken to qualify the whole group, not the word it precedes.

For the next four days he lived a simple and blameless life on thin captain's biscuits (I mean that the biscuits were thin, not the captain).

Jerome, *Three Men in a Boat*.

Mr. Wertheimer was probably the oldest fine art dealer in London. Times W. 16/8, '18.

... nor could he define his own condition of mind.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 3 p. 176.

(Compare *the state of his mind*).

The Law of Warlike Capture derives its rules from

1) Compare *camp-follower*.

2) We might state the facts antithetically, thus: *townhouse* is a compound because it has uneven stress; *townhall* is a compound because of its meaning, although it has even stress.

the assumption that communities are remitted to a state of nature by the outbreak of hostilities, and that, in *the artificial natural condition* thus produced, the institution of private property falls into abeyance so far as concerns the belligerents.

Maine, *Ancient Law*, 10th ed. p. 246.

It must be remembered, however, that undoubted word-groups can take the genitive-suffix and the suffix *-ing*: here, as elsewhere, we find that meaning is still less suitable a basis of grammatical classification than form. The fact that from *old maid* we can derive the adjective *old-maidish* and a noun *old-maidenhood*¹⁾, may be hardly sufficient to prove the compound character of the group.

1587. In literary English there is a formal way of distinguishing compounds from groups: the use of the Greek and Latin suffix *-o* to the first element:

Anglo-Indian, Anglo-Catholic, the Franco-German war, the Russo-Japanese war.

Of course, this use, though quite common, is of a learned character, clearly contrary to the natural structure of English words.

1588. As to their function in modern English, compounds may be any part of speech, but compound nouns are far commoner than any other class of compounds. Compound nouns are specially formed from two nouns (*a*) or from adjectives and nouns (*b*).

a. Class struggle, class-consciousness, character portrayal, character development, life forces, heart-palpitations, breadcoupon, breadcard, ration book, school inspector, income tax, taxi-driver, motor car, flying machine, flying grounds, *airpost, air-route, air-ship*.

These two books on Russia illustrate a marked contrast of author-type. Times Lit. 5/8 '15.

1) A person on the way to old-maidenhood. Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

It sounds like a car. I expect it's your chauffeur taking one of the maids for a joy-ride.

W. Somerset Maugham, *The Circle*, Brit. Pl. p. 642.

b. Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, and Wordsworth might have defied even a mad doctor¹⁾ to prove his worst.

Birrell, *Obiter Dicta* p. 29.

Isabel, very superior, was perched beside the new handy-man on the driver's seat. Mansfield, *Bliss* p. 1.

The cause of the frequency, one of the causes at least, is that syntactic groups of an attributive noun or adjective with a noun are freely used in living English, as will be shown in the sections on the *Conversion of Nouns*. The inevitable result is that in numberless cases any decision on the question whether we have a group or a compound would be necessarily arbitrary.

1589. Another type of nominal compounds are those with a verb stem for their first element: *dreadnought*, *makeweight*, *hold-all*, *spitfire* (*You're a regular little spitfire*: Brit. Pl. p. 574). The uneven stress makes the compound character of these words quite undoubted.

Another type are the words consisting of a noun with an adverb: *way out*, which is clearly a compound in its figurative sense; the similar *way up* is a syntactic group because the meaning of each element remains unchanged in the group. Also *drawback*, *lockout*, etc. with a verb stem for their first elements.

The types *looker-on*, *passer-by*, and *son-in-law*, etc. are not fully compounds, as is shown by their way of forming the plural; see 769.

1590. Compound verbs are generally formed with adverbs. If the adverb precedes, the combination is very close, and the stress is sometimes uneven. Groups with

1) i. e. a doctor for lunatics. *Mad* is an adjective converted into a noun here.

a final adverb are not full compounds (see the sections on the *Order of Words*); they have even stress, and are separable.

[sɪ'daʊn] *sit down* is to be considered a compound on account of its form; see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Assimilation*).

Compounds with *out-* and *over-* for their first element are very common: *outgrow, outlast; overlook, overrule*, etc. On the stressing of these verbs, and also the similar nouns, see *English Sounds* ch. 4 (*Stress*).

to overcome, to outbid; to pass by, to draw back, etc.

If only I had the skill, I would produce novels out-trashing the trashiest that ever sold fifty thousand copies.
Gissing, *New Grub Street* ch. 1.

When groups with a final adverb are used in the function of a participle they may be compounds even when the stem is not; see 64 p. 49 in the first volume. They must be distinguished from the groups of a verb with a preposition; see below.

In many cases there is a compound and a group of the same verb: *to set up* and *to upset*, *to look over* and *to overlook*. Some of these verbal groups have a corresponding noun, always with the adverb as the first element: *to start up* and *an upstart*, *to come in*, *an income*. Note the uneven stress of the nouns.

1591. The other parts of speech are not so frequently compounded. Compound adjectives are unusual: *colour-blind, bullet-proof*, etc. A special class are the frequent formations with an *ing* for their second element; see 150.

Lads were early formed in that rough, warfaring epoch.
Stevenson, *Sel. Short Stories II* p. 334.

Another group are the compounds like *deaf-mute*, which are really appositional.

Prepositions are sometimes compound: *into, until* (although

there is no word *un*, so that it is rather a prefix, if *until* is a compound at all). Also *out of* as in *out of the way*, *out of print*, etc., which are often compound groups used attributively: *out-of-pocket expenses*, *out-of-the world place*.

Note that *out of* is not only used as a local preposition but also in a derived sense: *out of pure mischief*. Sweet, *Primer of Spoken English* transcribes the former [aʊt əv]; the latter: [əʊt əv pjuə mistʃɪf] (p. 50).

Semi-Compounds 1592. Some groups are not completely isolated, so that we cannot call them compounds; yet the elements are so closely connected in meaning that they differ from similar syntactical groups. We may call these combinations semi-compounds. Such are *anything but*, *all but* (but see 1217 f.), *may I e, in case* (conjunction), *to think fit* (1010), *to keep house* (hence *housekeeper*), *to take care*, *to pay attention*¹⁾, etc. The combinations of *little* with a noun may often be called semi-compounds, unless they are treated as real compounds on account of their uneven stress. We may also include the groups of the type *to cut short*.

Yet, *for all* its want of passion, the Annual Register does not make dull reading. Times Lit. 29/5, 24.

The steps fell lightly and oddly, with a certain swing, *for all* they went so slowly.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 79.

By the time they reached the street Derek had already started. Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 35.

I shall be perfectly all right²⁾.

Bennett, Clayhanger II ch. 16.

Almost all the characters, *ever so* casually introduced,

1) In these cases of semi-composition there may be formal isolation; see 466.

2) Note that *perfectly* qualifies the group *all right*.

reappear in Saxo's Danish History and the Icelandic Sagas. Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

He was *more than usually* polite.

1593. We may also consider as semi-compounds the verbs that take what is called a prepositional object: *to laugh at a man*. The preposition really forms part of the verb and has the function of an adverb rather than of a preposition. This is especially clear in the passive construction: *I won't be laughed at*. These groups differ, however, from the separable verbal compounds like *to put on, to take off* (1590) in that the object can never separate the two elements of the group (*put it on*, but *he laughed at it*).

The groups with *let* (*let slip*, etc.) treated in 640 ff.; similarly *let loose: the boat touched Harwich and let loose a swarm of folk*. Chesterton, *Inn. of Father Brown* p. 1.

We may also consider the preposition-equivalents treated in 1363 as semi-compounds: *in virtue of, in presence of, in front of, by dint of*.

1594. Another group of semi-compounds are the *appositional compounds: the characters of the stone-breaker witness and the tramp witness* (Galsworthy, *Freelands*, ch. 33). See 769 ff. on the plurals of such groups.

The appositional compounds with *man, woman*, and similar words for their first element are treated in the chapter on *Conversion*. They must be distinguished from the copulative compounds, as illustrated in the following words: *the ancient hunter-artists* (Fleure, *Races of Man* p. 16; compare *the early hunters and artists*. *ib.* p. 65), *poet-artist, deaf-and-dumb*.

Distance-Compounds **1595.** We have defined composition as depending upon the form or upon the meaning of word-groups. The result is that we must

speak of a compound in *for my brother's sake*. This is unobjectionable, and indeed necessary, for it is impossible to analyse the group *for . . . sake*. But it is evident, too, that there is an important difference between a compound like *for . . . sake*, and *schoolmaster*. In the former case the two elements are separated by other words, in *schoolmaster* the two elements are inseparable. Accordingly, we may distinguish *distance-compounds*, and *contact-compounds*.

There are two elements of meaning that have been traced in this construction *from* the earliest records *on*.
Small, Comparison of Inequality p. 15.

Composition with Prefixes

1596. It is usual to define compounds as consisting of two words; but it has already been observed that it is by no means a simple matter to decide what is a *word*. There are a number of words that are not simple in so far that each element expresses an independent meaning, although the first element is never used as an independent word. Such an element, though called a prefix, not a word, really has the same function as a word used as the first element of a compound. For this reason the words formed with prefixes of this kind may be considered as a special kind of compounds. A good many of the compounds with prefixes are not used as independent words, but only as members of groups: *inter-school matches*, *post-Reformation times*, etc. Nearly all the prefixes to be enumerated here are of Romance origin (the exceptions are *mis-* and *un-*) and all of them, with the same exceptions, are restricted to the language of 'educated' speakers or writers.

The compounds with prefixes are even-stressed, except those with *mis-* and *un-*, which have a medium stress on the prefix.

ante- **1597.** *ante-*¹⁾ 'before' is especially used to form adjectives and attributive nouns (with the chief stress on the second element or with level stress); it refers to time and to order:

ante-baptismal, ante-historical; The Stone Age and the ante-metallic period; with Austria or ante-revolutionary France; ante-war lightness of national taxation.

In this sense *ante-* varies with *pre-* (see 1611), which is more generally used.

anti- **1598.** *anti-* 'against' is used:

- (1) to form nouns expressing 'opposed, rival':

anti-king, anti-pope.

These words have the main stress on the prefix, owing to the contrast.

- (2) to form adjectives and attributive phrases, in which *anti-* prepositionally governs a noun expressed, as in *anti-slavery*, or implied in an adjective, as in *anti-national*.

The stress falls on the second element, or there is level stress.

an anti-Protestant book; anti-Semitic literature; anti-patriotic prejudices; the anti-poetic spirit of the age; the Anti-Corn-Law League; the Anti-Slavery Society; the Anti-Vaccination League; the Anti-Vivisection Society; the Anti-Budget League.

- (3) to form names of things or persons of the same form as the adjectives and attributive phrases mentioned under 2: *anti-popery, anti-slavery, anti-vivisection.*

co- **1599.** *co-* 'together, in company, equal(ly), reciprocally, mutually', forms verbs and nouns:

co-exist, co-operate, co-educate; co-author, co-tenant, co-heir, co-executor, co-trustee.

1) *Ante-* and *anti-* differ in spelling only; the sounds intended are [æntɪ]

counter- **1600.** *counter-* 'against' may be prefixed to almost any noun expressing action, or any word to which action or incidence is imputed. In new-formations the stress is even; or the prefix has the stronger stress, especially when it has a contrasting stress, in *to plan and counter-plan, counter-cheers* (the contrasting *cheers* is implied).

counter-attraction, counter-demonstration, counter-intrigue, counter-threat, counter-reformation, counter-revolution, counter-argument, counter-movement, counter-tide.

1601. In older formations verbs are usually stressed on the second element; nouns on the prefix:

verbs: *to counterbalance, to countermand, to countermine, to countervail, to counterweigh.*

nouns: *countermine.*

'*counterfeit, countersign* both as verbs and as nouns.

dis- **1602.** *dis-* is prefixed to English as well as to foreign words:

to disable, disagree, disconnect, disestablish, disown, disinherit, dislike, disbelieve, distrust; dishonour, disadvantage, discontent, disrespect, disrepute, distaste; dishonest, disagreeable, disconnected, disheartened, disinterested, disobedient, dissimilar.

ex- **1603.** *ex-* 'former, some time', is prefixed to nouns designating persons with respect to their calling, station, character:

ex-professor, ex-secretary, ex-proprietor.

extra- **1604.** *extra* 'outside':

extra-canonical (books), his extra-cathedral life, extra-

metrical 'exceeding the number of feet or syllables proper to a metre', *extra-tropical regions*.

Note that *extra* 'more than usual, additional' is not a prefix but an independent word used attributively in such groups as *extra work*, *extra pay*¹).

hyper- 1605. *hyper-* 'over-much, excessively':
hyper-accurate, *hyper-active*, *hyper-conscientious*.

inter- 1606. *inter-* 'between, mutually':
intermarry, *interweave*, *interact*; *interdependence*; *international*.

Also in attributive words:

inter-school (matches), *inter-university (boat-race, cricket-match)*, *Interstate (Commerce Act)*.

mal- 1607. *mal-* 'ill, wrong, improper(ly)', is chiefly prefixed to nouns of action, but occasionally to adjectives and verbs:

maladministration, *malobservation*, *malpractice*, *malversation*; *malodorous*; *to maltreat*.

mis- 1608. *mis-* 'bad(ly), wrong(ly)', is used to form:

(1) verbs: *misaddress*, *misadvise*, *misconstrue*, *misgovern*,
mismanage, *mispronounce*, *misrule*, *misunderstand*,
miswrite.

(2) nouns: *misconduct*, *misdeemeanour*, *misdeed*.

non- 1609. *non-* is freely used in new-formations:
non-admission, *non-appearance*, *non-compliance*, *non-performance*; *non-communicant*; *non-essential*.

... within the reach of the non-strenuous person.

Comradeship 17 (April 1926) p. 2.

1) Hence these words have no hyphen.

... but it happens occasionally that we meet a nature's non-gentleman who is obviously one of the pariahs of our ideal society. Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 4.

In the older words the meaning of the prefix *non-* is not so clearly felt, or not at all. In accordance with this some are written without a hyphen:

nonconformist, nonsense, nondescript; nonage.

It also explains the division into syllables of *nonentity*: [no-'nen-ti-ti]. See also 1619.

post- 1610. *post-* 'after, subsequent to' forms adjectives or attributive nouns:

post-Darwinian, post-Elizabethan, post-Kantian, post-canonical (literature), post-Christian (times), post-Reformation (times) the post-glacial age.

Among terms of grammar there are a few nouns with *post*: *post-position (of adjectives, etc.)*, *post-genitive* (841).

pre- 1611. *pre-* 'previous to, earlier than' occurs in adjectives or attributive nouns:

pre-Alfredian, pre-Shakespearian, pre-Roman, pre-Reformation (ritual), pre-Christian, pre-historic, pre-Raphaelite, a pre-war Baedeker, etc.

In verbs *pre-* means 'beforehand, in advance':

pre-acquaint, pre-arrange, pre-determine, pre-engage, etc.

Note that in all these words the prefix is pronounced [pri], according to the rule in *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

The noun *pre-history* is probably a back-formation from *pre-historical*.

A manual of pre-history for older children.

Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

Pre-history may be studied in the antiquities of every land, excluding only certain islands never inhabited before modern times and the uninhabitable Arctic and Antarctic regions.

ib. 2/2, 22.

She married in pre-jumper days.

B. Ruck, *The Clouded Pearl* I ch. 1 p. 11.

In the chapter on the genitive (833) the term *pre-genitive* has been introduced.

pro- 1612. *pro-* 'favouring, siding with what is indicated by the second element' is a very common prefix to form adjectives and nouns:

pro-Boer, pro-British, the pro-negro (party), pro-papist, pro-Turk.

pro- 'instead of' is rare in Modern English: *pro-rector*.

re- 1613. *re-* 'again' is prefixed to verbs, and to nouns and adjectives derived from them:

rearrange, reconsider, reintroduce, re-cover 'cover again', readmit, reconvert, recount 'count again', re-edit, re-enter, reproduce, re-stock, etc.

... encouraging the mind to rethink problems, to weigh and judge. Baker, *Uses of Libr.* p. 47.

Note that *re-* in all these words is pronounced [ri]; see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

semi- 1614. *semi-* 'half':

semicircle, semitone, semi-barbarous.

The condition of semi-invalidism.

Sidgwick, *The Severins*.

sub- 1615. *sub-* 'under' forms nouns:

*submarine, subway*¹⁾, *sub-king* (in Anglo-Saxon history).

It also expresses subordination, as in *sub-committee, sub-editor*.

It is less usual in forming verbs: *sublet*²⁾.

1) 'an underground way'.

2) 'to let as a tenant', e.g. if a tenant lets parts of his house to another.

super- 1616. *super* 'above (of place)':

superscribe, superimpose.

It expresses 'beyond' in *supernatural*; 'superiority' in *superintend*; 'excessively' in *superabundant, superfine*.

trans- 1617. *trans-* 'across, over':

transatlantic, transship.

ultra- 1618. *ultra-* 'excessively':

ultra-marine ¹⁾, *ultra-violet, ultra-liberal, ultra-sentimental.*

in- 1619. *in-* and *un-* are negative prefixes. Both serve to express the contrary quality to the word they are formed from, or simply to contradict. In the latter function they are equivalent to *non-* (1609), but they are chiefly used to form adjectives.

The first is only used with words that are obviously Latin; it is *im-* before lip-consonants (*imperfect*, etc.).

...; for she had yet to learn that among the P. B.'s²⁾ audible praying by women was impermissible.

Housman, *Sheepfold* ch. 2 p. 13.

It is *il-* before *l* (*illiberal*). But these changes had mostly taken place before the words were introduced into English. It is not really an English prefix:

inaccurate, inappreciable, inappropriate, inartistic, incorrect, incurable, indecent, independent, inimitable, insincere, insufficient, interminable, intolerable, invaluable, invincible, etc.

In- is occasionally used to emphasize the meaning of a word: *invaluable* means 'extremely valuable.' Perhaps this must be interpreted to stand for 'what cannot be valued (properly).'

1) 'dark-blue, approaching black'.

2) *P. B.'s* stands for *Primitive Brethren*.

1620. *un-* is always used in native English and often in naturalized words:

unaccustomed, uncertain, unfair, unfit, unimportant, unutterable, uneatable, unconquerable, unfortunate, unintelligible, unsafe, unseen, unsound, unspeakable, unwise, unworthy; undress, unrest, unbelief.

Cholsey Church, though not unique, is unordinary in various respects. Oxf and Camb. Rev.

A look of shame, of miserable unease, had come over Count Paul's face.

Mrs. Belloc Lowndes, *Chink in the Armour* p. 124.

1621. Sometimes *un-* is used before an adjective, *in-* before the corresponding noun. This is no exception to the rules of 1619 f.: the noun, being abstract, is less usual than the adjective.

Compare: *unable* — *inability*
unjust — *injustice*
unequal — *inequality*
unstable — *instability*

Sometimes both *in-* and *un-* are used:

incontrollable, uncontrollable; in-, untranslatable.

By the side of *unequal, unstable* the forms *inequal, instable* occur occasionally. *Inequal* is especially used now with reference to a surface in the sense of 'uneven'.

1622. *un-* is also used to form verbs, in which it expresses the reversal of an action ¹⁾:

to unbind, undo, undress, unhorse, unlearn, unfix.

He carted and uncarted the manure with a sort of flunkey grace. Eliot, *Scenes of Clerical Life.*

¹⁾ It is etymologically identical with Dutch *ont-* (e. g. *ontkleden*), German *ent-*.

It was a fine and quiet afternoon, about three o'clock; but the winter solstice having stealthily come on, the lowness of the sun caused the hour to seem later than it actually was, there being little here to remind an inhabitant that he must unlearn his summer experience of the sky as a dial.

Hardy, *Return of the Native* II ch. 1.

1623. In adjectives in *-able*, *-ed*, *-ing*, the prefix *un* may be the negative prefix, mentioned in 1619, or the one discussed in 1622.

Hence *unstrappable* may mean 'what cannot be strapped', and 'what can be unstrapped'. In the same way a double meaning is possible in *undoable*, *unbracing*, *unbending*, *uncoiled*.

Nouns and attributive adjectives with the prefix *un-* 'not' have a strong medium stress on the prefix; sometimes the stress is even. Verbs, on the other hand, have a less strong stress on the prefix. Hence *'un-'coiled* means *not-coiled*, whereas *un'coiled* is formed from the verb to *un'coil*: an un-coiled rope must be coiled before it can be uncoiled.

In Wordsworth's *Michael* 161 *Albeit of a stern unbending mind* we clearly have the negative prefix, although it is shown by the context only, not by the stress.

The negative prefix *un-* causes participles to have a distinctly adjectival function: *unchanging*, *uncomplaining*, *unpromising*; *uncalled-for*, *unforeseen*, *untouched*¹).

1) Lists in Palmer, *Grammar of Spoken English* p. 73, 75. A full treatment of the two suffixes will also be found in the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*.

DERIVATION

1624. New words are freely formed in living English by means of derivation, i. e. the addition of elements that have no independent meaning, frequently no meaning at all. In the great majority of cases the derivative element is a suffix, the only really derivative prefix being *be-*.

PREFIXES

be- **1625.** *be-* forms transitive verbs. It is prefixed:

- (1) to nouns: *to benight*¹⁾, *befriend*, *beguile*.

It is specially used in adjectives with the suffix *-ed* (1688) to express 'covered or furnished with', usually in an unfavourable sense:

The figure of the becassocked priest spoils all.

Officers much be-medalled and much be-crossed.

Never did a be-uniformed people more thoroughly believe in the dignity of dress.

The inflation and be-puffing and be-advertising of nonentity is obviously a noble line of business.

- (2) to verbs: *bedaub*, *beset*, *besmear*, *besprinkle*, etc.

See also 1645.

1) Usually in the form *benighted*, as a participle, 'overtaken by the darkness': *The tourists were benighted in a forest*; or as an adjective: *Some benighted fisherman, he thought*. Also 'involved in intellectual or moral darkness': *He was a benighted Moslem*.

SUFFIXES

1626. In the following sections *living* suffixes only will be mentioned, i. e. suffixes felt as such by the speakers of present-day English. An outward sign of a suffix being a living one is its productiveness; for this reason new-formations, even if nonce-words ¹⁾, will be specially mentioned. The treatment of *dead* or *unproductive* suffixes is the province of historical grammar. It is naturally difficult to draw the line between living and dead suffixes, but productiveness is the best criterion. Thus it is probable that educated speakers, even though unacquainted with the history of English, may feel something of the frequentative force of the ending *-le* in *prattle* (compare *prate*), *trample* (compare *tramp*), or *-er* as in *batter* (*beat*), *patter*, *stutter*, *stammer*. But we do not speak of modern frequentative suffixes *-le*, *-er*, because they are incapable of producing new words ²⁾. And if an adjective like *different* takes the adverb *much* (instead of *very*) because it suggests the meaning of the verb *to differ*, this is not sufficient to prove the suffix *-ent* as a means to form participles: *I think you were not much different from other women at first* (A. Weigall, *The Dweller in the Desert* ch. 19 p. 189).

Suffixes to form nouns and adjectives are far more numerous than such as form verbs. One reason is that nouns and adjectives can be freely used as verbs, whereas the conversion of verbs into nouns is only possible within very narrow limits. See the chapter on *Conversion*.

1) *Nonce-words* are words which are coined by a speaker, or writer, for the nonce i. e. to serve the purpose of the moment; but which are not part of the regular vocabulary of any speaker of the language.

2) The NED. explains dialectal and colloquial *twistle* and *twizzle* as recent formations suggested by *twist*.

Verbs

1627. Syllabic *n* is added to adjectives, to form transitive and intransitive verbs:

darken 'to become dark, to make dark', *deepen*, *fasten*, *gladden*, *harden*, *madden*, *moisten*, *redde*n, *sweeten*, *widen*, etc.

Nevertheless, the sight of Susan's face dampened his rejoicings. Vachell, *Quinneys*'.

This contact may be closed and completed.

Arnold Bennett, *Eng. Rev.* Oct. 1913.

The ending is exceptionally added to a comparative: *worsen*; and occasionally to nouns: *lengthen*, *strengthen*, *frighten*, *heighten*.

While the outlook is very menacing, it did not worsen on Saturday.

This was far from being the first time that Steve had worsened him in a trial of mere strength.

Patterson, *Stephen Compton*, p. 4.

1628. Syllabic *n* is frequent in formations from adjectives in a stop or open; but exceptionally the suffix is used in derivatives from adjectives in *-l*, when it becomes [ən]: *to dullen* by the side of *to dull*; both forms exist in *to blacken*, *to black*. Sometimes the converted form only is used: *to pale*, *to brown*, *to rough it*, *to slow*, etc. See *Conversion* (1828).

1629. *-fy* occurs in many verbs borrowed from Latin: *sanctify*, *pacify*, *edify*, etc.

It is freely added to adjectives and nouns, mostly with a somewhat jocular or trivial meaning, with the sense of 'to make a specified thing', as in *speechify*; or 'to invest with certain attributes' as in *Frenchify*.

What a quantity of French words have I used! I suppose that the subject Frenchifies my style.

It is not a pleasant subject and Mr. Hodgson does not attempt to prettify it. Times Lit. 9/12, '15.

(They) uglify the teeth. Those Smoking Women.
Punch 25/9, 29 p. 343/1.

Forms like *speechify*, *Frenchify* may seem to show that the suffix is felt to be *-ify*, but it is chiefly, perhaps exclusively, used by those aware of the function of the suffix. See 1635 on *-ana*.

1630. *-ize* (also often written *-ise*) occurs in many verbs adopted from Greek:

- (1) with the transitive sense of 'make or conform to, or treat in the way of, the thing expressed by the word from which it is formed':

*anathematize*¹), *cauterize*²), *characterize*, *diphthongize*, *symbolize*³), etc.

- (2) with an intransitive sense:

*apologize*⁴), *botanize*, *sympathize*, etc.

1631. In new-formations the transitive sense prevails: *to familiarize*, *colonize*, *legalize*, *secularize*⁵), *particularize*, *jeopardize*⁶), *soberize*; also in verbs formed from proper names: *Americanize*, *Romanize*, and in *macadamize*, *mesmerize*, etc.

Such reflections are soberizing to plain people.

Brontë, Shirley ch. 7.

1) 'to pronounce a curse against, to excommunicate'.

2) 'to treat a wound or a diseased part by cauterization, i.e. by burning the flesh with a hot iron, or by caustic medicine'.

3) 'to express by symbol' e.g. the letter *a* symbolizes the sounds [ei, æ, o, ɔ] etc., as in *take*, *hat*, *what*, *warm*, etc.

4) 'to make an apology i.e. an excuse, or a defence'.

5) 'to convert ecclesiastical property into secular'.

6) 'to expose to loss or injury, to endanger'.

The Universities should offer special facilities and should circularize the endowed schools on the subject.

Times Ed. 7/9, '15.

She would want a hat, too, and shoes, and gloves; and, suppose, when he had got them all, they commonised her, as Sunday clothes always commonised village folk!

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 369.

Porteous. Do you mean to say you were going to steal my car?

Teddie. Not exactly. I was only going to bolsheviz it, so to speak. W. Somerset Maugham, *The Circle*, Act 3, Brit. Pl. p. 641.

1632. In *pygmytize*, a new-formation from *pygmy*, a *t* has been inserted; compare *dramatist* (1673).

War! Seven nations simultaneously battling for existence....; the combined armies of Ghengis Khan, Timur, Xerxes, Hannibal, Caesar, Saladin, and Napoleon pygmytized by contrast with the hostile hosts....

Times 21/8, 1914.

1633. Verbs in *-ize* often have corresponding abstract nouns in *-ization*: *colonization*, *organization*. Some have nouns for the agent in *-ist*: *colonist*, *dramatist*, *monopolist*; others take *-er*: *organizer*, *colonizer*, etc.; compare 1673.

See Bladin, *Studies on Denominative Verbs*. Uppsala. 1911.

Abstract and Collective Nouns

1634. *-al* forms nouns of action from verbs, nearly exclusively of French origin: *revival*, *approval*, *acquittal*, *recital*, *refusal*, *perusal*, etc.

Also from a few verbs of English origin: *bestowal*, *betrotal*.

Compare 1687 on the adjectives in *-al*.

-ana **1635.** *-ana* ['ɛnə, 'ɔnə] is appended to proper names with the sense of 'notable sayings of, anecdotes of, notes about, or publications bearing upon a person': *Walpoliana, Shakespeariana, Burnsiana.*

Golfiana Miscellanea. Title of a book on 'the royal and ancient game of golf.' 1887.

The suffix has also come to be used as a noun in the form *ana*, in spite of the invariable addition of *i* in derivatives (see 1629 on *-fy*):

To sweep ana and gossip out of biographies.

-dom **1636.** *-dom* is added to nouns and adjectives. It expresses:

- (1) rank, and also more generally condition: *dukedom, earldom, martyrdom, freedom, wisdom*; and in nonce-words:

He had not as yet struck the path that leads unto millionaire-dom.

All are followers of the Prophet, and their social customs are consequently much the same as those of any other Mahomedan race, though with a good admixture of savagedom. Patterson, *Man-Eaters*.

Mr. Churchill's speech has reduced the German press to a condition of puzzledom, in which they ask what has happened to call forth such a speech just now.

Daily News, 1912.

After dinner he was driven by boredom into the streets. Galeworthy, *Caravan* p. 4.

- (2) domain, realm: *kingdom, Christendom, heathendom.*
- (3) a group of persons collectively, chiefly in a disparaging sense: *parsondom* (Trollope, *Framley* ch. 14), *schoolmasterdom, villadom, officialdom; Christendom, heathendom.*

It could scarcely be denied that the Schoolmasterdom

of England was a priestcraft as powerful and arrogant as any which had ever been. Sinister Street p 743.

Villadom for the most part eschews piety of the early rising kind, and looks with an indulgent contempt on the few whose inconvenient form of devotion takes them from home at 7.45 on a Sunday morning.

Pilot 28/9, 1901.

The Sins and Splendours of Antdom.

Title of an article reviewing books on ants,
Spectator 14/1, 1928.

And, like English drama in the hands of Marlowe, Shakespeare and Ben Jonson, English newspaperdom sprang up fully armed. Robbins, The Press p. 25.

In the following sentence *Germandom* and *Slavdom* are probably adaptations of German words (*Germanentum*, *Slaventum*).

Early this month the German Chancellor himself alluded ominously to the imminence of a decisive conflict between Germandom and Slavdom. Times 7/8, 1914.

-ful **1637.** *ful* is added to nouns to express 'a quantity that fills, or would fill':
handful, mouthful, bottleful, canful, spoonful, bookful, houseful, etc. Compare 1694.

-hood **1638.** *-hood* is added to adjectives and nouns to form nouns expressing:

(1) condition or state:

falsehood, hardihood, likelihood, neighbourhood, childhood, maidenhood, widowhood, manhood.

The British Empire to-day is a galaxy of young nations, active, enterprising, ardent. They must realize that nationhood carries with it more of duty than the colonial state.
Times W. 9/5, 1913.

The secret of the Navy is to be found in the manhood — the seamanhood — of the race. Times Lit. 2/8, '18.

Stories which their mothers thought suitable for their years of flapperhood. ib. 16/6, '21.

But even she, with all her excellent simplicity, did not divine his victimhood.

Bennett, *Clayhanger* II ch. 18 § 1.

(2) persons or things (often collective): *priesthood*, *manhood*.

1639. The suffix [in] is used in the trade-names of many new varieties of fabrics, cosmetics, patent medicines, etc., as in *nectarine* (also -in), *grenadine*.

1640. The suffix *-ing* is in some respects an inflectional ending; as such it has been treated in the first volume. It has already been pointed out, however, that its inflectional character is not unmixed, such formations as *letter-writing*, *dressmaking* being plainly derivative. Words like *outstanding* (*the outstanding facts*) and *painstaking* are to be looked upon as derivative rather than inflectional forms. The same may be said of the *ing* from verbs when used with a plural suffix.

It was never materially diminished by *upbraidings* which often echoed her husband's groans over her son's want of application.

Sidney Lee, in *Engl. 19th Cent.* II p. 3.

He could only remember two other *beatings* in the attics, and they had both been very bad ones.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 2 § 2.

... because on Christmas Eve there would be parties and *merrymakings*. ib. I ch. 2 p. 15.

It has already been mentioned that the verbal *ing* can be formed from nouns as well as verbs; the same applies to the more clearly nominal formations that follow.

1641. The following have a collective meaning: *rigging*, *bedding*, *shipping*.

In some nouns the plural form is used to denote the collective meaning:

earnings, leavings, filings, shavings, sweepings, hangings, trappings, etc.

1642. Many nouns in *-ing* can have a concrete meaning, e.g. *writing* in 'the paper was covered with writing'; *binding* in 'the binding of this book is very artistic'; also *blacking, dripping*, etc.

Several of these nouns denote the substance or material employed in an action or process, as *gilding, lining, shirting, trimming*, etc.

Some can also be used in the plural form with a plural meaning: *wedding, meeting, sitting, outing, being, covering* etc.

1643. *-ism* is added to adjectives and nouns, mostly of foreign origin, to form nouns expressing:

- (1) action, conduct, or condition:

heroism, patriotism, despotism, barbarism, orphanism, parallelism, pauperism.

- (2) the name of a system of theory or practice, religious, philosophical, political, etc.:

Arianism, Catholicism, Calvinism, Protestantism, Puritanism, Ritualism; Platonism; liberalism, Toryism, Whiggism, conservatism, atheism, agnosticism, deism; imperialism, jingoism; feudalism; Face to Face with Kaiserism, by Ambassador Gerard, 1918.

- (3) a peculiarity or characteristic, especially of language:

Americanism, Anglicism, Gallicism, Hebraism, Scotticism; archaism, modernism, provincialism, purism, sophism.

There, economy was always "elegant", and money-spending always "vulgar and ostentatious"; a sort of

sour-grapeism which made us very peaceful and satisfied.
Mrs. Gaskell, Cranford.

Who can wonder that amid all these incessant labours . . .
he found even his indefatigable spirit reduced to a state
of "nogoism" and "used-up-ed-ness"?

Athenaeum 10/2, 1912.

Love of country is something inexpressive never to
be directly intended, much less to be anatomized in
terms of 'ics and 'isms. Times Lit. 4/5, 1917.

1644. *-itis* is added to nouns to denote diseases,
as *appendicitis*, *bronchitis*, *tonsillitis*, etc.; also in hu-
morous nonce-words, such as *allotmentitis* (English Studies
IV, 1), *Kiplingitis* (Engl. 19th Cent. II ch. 8b).

A neighbourhood suffering from chronic Puritanitis.

A. Kenealy, Thus Saith Mrs. Grundy.

. . . for like most consuls of the Levant service, Eneas
Grant . . ., had retired with that disease of the mental
outlook which is known as consulitis.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 5 p. 126.

Outside politics, 1907 was a gay year enough. There
was a severe outbreak of pageantitis, which many people
enjoyed very much . . .

Rose Macaulay, Told by an Idiot II ch. 20 T. p. 251.

1645. *-ment* is found in many nouns adopted from
French, and in new words formed in English itself.
The nouns in *-ment* and *-ing* are the only ones that form
nouns from verbs. *-ment* expresses:

(1) action:

abridgement (also written *abridgment*), *accomplish-
ment*, *acknowledgement*, *argument*, *commencement*,
employment, *treatment*, etc.

(2) the result of the action:

pavement.

Many of these words are formed with the prefixes *en-*,
and *be-* (1625):

embankment, embodiment, enlightenment, entanglement, bereavement.

1646. *-ness* may be added to any adjective or participle to form nouns expressing state or condition: *bitterness, goodness, kindness, darkness, hardness, sweetness, cleanness, companiableness, wickedness; fixedness, etc.*

The suffix also occurs in the traditional *much of a muchness* (a) and in nonce-words (b).

a. When we're young we think we're different from everyone else, but when we grow older we discover we're all very much of a muchness.

W. Somerset Maugham, *The Circle*,
Act 3, Brit. Pl. p. 633.

b. I have used them especially to provide more accurate definitions of words, which one uses in certain contexts without a very precise awareness of their definable meaning.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 7.

1647. They are also formed from compound adjectives, and occasionally from word groups: *self-conceitedness kind-heartedness, watertightness; up-to-dateness*, and in nonce-words.

An irreproachable state of clean-shirtedness, navy blue broad-clothedness and chimney-pot-hattedness.

The desert is a new and strange place by night. One is always the centre of a circle of sandy nothingness, which one never crosses, because it always advances with one

Times Lit. 16/11, 1917.

1648. Nouns in *-ness* are naturally only formed when they are wanted. Hence adjectives that have a corresponding noun usually do not form them: *possible — possibility, probable — probability, mediocre — mediocrity.*

But we find both *incorrigibleness* and *incorrigibility, courteousness — courtesy, divinity — divinity, etc.*; the

form with *-ness* is preferred in this case because the original noun does not clearly enough denote the action or condition in the abstract.

It showed her deep knowledge of her poorness in laying bare the fact. Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 6 (p. 69).

1649. Note that the participles in these derivations with *-ness* end in [-ɪd], or [d, t], according to 1712: [ɪd] in *involvedness*, *fixedness*, *preparedness*; [t] in *embarrassedness*; nouns formed from adjectives in *-n* have a double [n], see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Syllable-Division*).

1650. *-ry, -ery* is added to nouns, less often to adjectives, to form nouns denoting:

(1) action or condition:

*bigotry*¹⁾, *pedantry*²⁾, *rivalry*.

(2) occupation, trade, etc.:

casuistry, *dentistry*, *chemistry*, *heraldry*.

It was at this time, or rather in the civil wars which led to it, that the full wedding was made between balladry and journalism. Times Lit. 21/2, '24.

(3) collectivity:

jewelry, *infantry*, *peasantry*, *tenantry*, *yeomanry*, *Englishry*³⁾, *Irishry*, *Jewry*, *parsonry*, *valetry*⁴⁾.

The column of cavalry and camelry has soon followed up its Christmas victory at Magdhaba by making a rapid night march to Rafa. Times W. 19/1, 1917.

Sir Charles Firth in numerous papers, which we should be glad to see collected, has sketched the history of Tudor and Stuart balladry. Times Lit. 21/2, '24.

1) 'blind zeal in favour of a particular religious belief'.

2) 'a vain and offensive display of knowledge'.

3) In historical use for 'the part of the population that is of English descent', especially in Ireland.

4) 'Servants'. It occurs in Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 2 p. 17.

Not Constance's specially provided napkins could hide that wealth and profusion of white lace and stitchery.

Bennett, *Old W. T.* II ch. 3 § 2.

1651. In derivatives with *y* from agent nouns in *-er*, like *bakery*, *brewery*, the suffix has been taken to be [-əɹɪ]. This fuller suffix is used in words of one syllable:

knavery, *slavery*, *popery*, *archery*, *dupery*, *vinery*, *foolery*, *scenery*, *gullery* ¹⁾.

The suffix [-əɹɪ] also occurs in nonce-words. In the slang of undergraduates (*Sinister Street* p. 740), men are *Good Eggs* or *Bad Men*; hence the collectives *Good Eggery* and *Bad Mannery*:

St. Mary's, that most securely woven and most intimate nest of Good Eggery.

Compare also:

I drove him to the "Dukeries", so called because at one time there was a conjunction of four ducal homes ²⁾.

Dean Hole, *Memories* p. 27.

Moreover, these books are thoroughly English, with an Englishry of which there is nothing to be ashamed before the cultivated world. *Times Lit.* 17/3, '21.

"And still you haven't answered my question about your monkery ³⁾," Guy persisted.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 393.

A good many people, of course, wanted and want revolution and the International. I don't, and I never did. I hate red-flaggery, and all other flaggery.

Rose Macaulay, *Potterism* II ch. 1 § 1 p. 54.

1652. Note *heronry* [herənɹɪ] 'a place where herons breed'. The word varies with [hənəɹɪ] from the noun [hən],

1) place where gulls breed.

2) On the analogy of *rookery*.

3) i. e. about your plan of becoming a monk.

often written *hern* accordingly, by means of the suffix [əɪ]. Similarly place is denoted by *deanery*, *swannery*, *shrubbery*, *nursery*.

1653. *-ship* is added to nouns, and occasionally to adjectives and verbs, to form abstract nouns: *ownership*, *relationship*, *friendship*, *horsemanship*; *hardship*; *courtship*, etc.

In some words it denotes rank or dignity:

lordship, *governorship*, *mastership*, *secretaryship*, etc.

Both meanings are represented by *scholarship*:

(1) abstract: The book shows the author's scholarship.

(2) dignity, etc.: He has gained a scholarship, worth £ 80.

1654. From adjectives abstract nouns can be formed with the suffix *-ty*: *certainly*.

In loanwords we have *-ity*: *publicity*, *reality*.

Personal Names

1655. The suffix *-ee* is used to denote a person who is the personal object of the verb from which the word is formed: *lessee* 'person to whom a property is let'; *vendee* 'person to whom a sale is made'; *indorsee* 'person in whose favour a draft, etc. is indorsed'; *payee* 'person who is entitled to be paid (no matter whether he be actually paid or not). In a few cases the suffix has been added not to a verb-stem, as in the examples above, but to a Latin participial stem related to an English noun: *legatee* 'person to whom a *legacy* has been bequeathed'.

1656. The suffix is principally used to form law-terms. Occasionally, however, it is found in familiar words, as

in *addressee, employee, examinee* (agent: *addresser*¹), *employer, examiner*); and chiefly in humorous nonce-words, as *educatee, laughee, sendee* 'person who is educated, laughed at, to whom something is sent'. Compare also:

The peculiar relation of biographer and biographee.
Austin Dobson, *Cyclop. of Eng. Lit.* II p. 10.

Passing on he detailed how the publisher and publishee
had taken passages in the same vessel.

R. Haggard, *Mr. Meeson's Will* ch. 20.

I would also premise
That the term of Pass-ee
Most fitly applies,
As you probably see,
To one whose vocation is passing
The 'ordinary B. A. degree'.

The *Heathen Passee*²), being the *Story of a Pass-examination*. By Bred Hard.

1657. As an ending in law-terms it is felt as a contrast to the suffix *-or* (1675), which forms the corresponding agent-nouns. But some of the nouns in *-ee* have no active word corresponding to them, such as *patentee, referee, trustee*. The passive meaning is less prominent in this case, and in some words the meaning is entirely intransitive, as in *absentee, devotee*.

1658. *-eer* is an anglicized form of the French suffix *-ier*. Where the noun from which the French word was formed never became familiar in English use, the original spelling *-ier* is retained, as in *bombardier*,

1) Also *addressor*: The addressor and the addressee are "poles asunder."
Athenaeum 18/8, 1914.

2) An allusion to *Parsee* [pa'si] 'a descendant of those Persians who fled to India in the seventh and eighth centuries to escape Mohammedan persecution, and who still retain their religion'. The poem is a parody on a poem by Bret Harte.

cavalier, grenadier; also *cuirassier, gondolier* (although *cuirass, gondola* are pretty well known). In imitation of these words the suffix *-eer* has been added to English nouns, as *auctioneer, charioteer, mountaineer, pamphleteer, profiteer*.

1659. *-er, -or, -ar* (-or, -ar), all denoting [ə(r)], is added to verbal stems to form names of personal agents: *binder, caterer, hunter, liar, beggar, inspector, originator, sailor, bystander, passer-by*¹⁾; both *conjuror* and *conjuror*. It is also found in nonce-words, both from verbs (*a*) and from other words (*b*) or from word-groups (*c*).

a. Rome was now head of the Italian land; unifier and protector of its peoples.

Goodspeed, Hist. of the Ancient World.

Those seemingly artless methods captivated the "think-it-overs" and the "rather nicers", who frequent curiosity shops in ever increasing numbers.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 149.

Now the defender is only victorious when he wins at all points ...; whereas the attacker wins if he gains the upper hand in a single spot.

A. Harrison, Eng. Rev. Jan. '15.

She stood half-way up the ladder, looking at a spot into which she was not climber enough to venture.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 2.

The fact is the girl had been born (like many of us) a mislayer of things, a leaver, a dropper, a forgetter.

B. Ruck, The Clouded Pearl I ch. I § 5 p. 18.

Tidings of the comer²⁾. Hardy, Native II ch. I.

To a walker practised in such places.

Hardy, ib. I ch. 6 p. 65.

"You slacker," Urquhart observed.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 2 p. 31.

1) *Bystander* is a traditional formation, as is shown by the order of the elements: the living formation is shown in *passer-by*.

2) i. e. a person who is coming.

b. "I'm a goner 1)," he thought.

Vachell, *Spragge* p. 8.

"She's a oner," said Crayford.

Hichens, *Way of Ambition* ch. 28.

c. A Quarterly Reviewer; a Tariff-Reformer.

The swaying floor of the telephone-box was the deck of an outward-bounder 2).

Mackenzie, *Old Men of the Sea* ch. 2 p. 25.

Michael, Grainger and Lonsdale decided to drown woe by a triple Twenty-frster 3). *Sinister Street* p. 744.

I'm jolly glad I'm a twen-center (i. e. one born in the twentieth century). Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 151.

See also Karpf, *Neuere Sprachen* 35 p. 552.

1660. The agent-nouns in *-er* normally denote personal agents, both male and female, as *singer*, *teacher*: sometimes male only, as *sailor* 4), *beggar* 5); or female only, as *house-keeper*, *dressmaker* (but cf. *man dressmaker* in the sections on *Appositional Groups*, and 1665 ff. on *-ess*). But many of them denote material agents, hence also instruments, as *blotter*, *poker*, *roller*, a *two-seater* 6), a *single-seater* 6), etc.

A thunderstorm went by to the north and flicked its wing over the island, and in the night there came a drencher and a howling wind slap over us.

Wells, *Country of the Blind* p. 79.

In the following case the suffix seems to be used to give weight to the pronominal *ones*; see 1279.

"Oh! you *said* you were going our way! What *one-ers* you do tell!" Galsworthy, *Five Tales* (*A Stoic* p. 94).

1) i. e. I am lost.

2) i. e. he was so exited on hearing the ship was going to sail.

3) A dinner in honour of their coming of age.

4) But: Are you a good sailor, Miss James?

5) For the female: *beggarwoman*. But compare Tennyson (*Enoch Arden*):
And her, he loved, a beggar.

6) Of aeroplanes and motor cars.

1661. The ending *-er* is so strongly felt as a living suffix that it is even supposed to exist where the suffix is different. Thus *poetaster* has been taken for a derivation with *-er*, so that *poetasting* could be formed. We even find the verb *muth* as a back-formation from *mother*.

To every fellow-poetasting swanker.

G. Frankau, *One of Us*, first line.

"I am the mother and I muth 1)," said Dolly.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 2 § 3.

"But when I spoke, you know, just now about a real widow, I meant a real widow — that *wids* 2) — you know what I mean. Don't laugh!"

"All right, Miss Sally. I'm serious."

The doctor composes a professional face.

"I know perfectly what you mean." He waits for the next symptom.

"Now, mother never did wid, and never will wid, I hope. She hasn't got it in her bones."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 171.

All the names of agents in *-er* denote a permanent occupation or regular action. This explains the comical effect of a girl being called 'refuser of castor-oil' because she had refused to take it when her mother recommended it (Bennett, *Old W. T.*).

Of course, the suffix is not used when there is a traditional noun to denote the agent. Thus, although *to propose* leads to *proposer* (*the proposer and the seconder of a motion*), *oppose* does not form a similar derivative, because there is the traditional *opponent*.

1662. The meaning of the suffix is not felt in *retainer*, used in its historical sense of 'a dependent or follower of a person of rank'. In this sense the suffix has rather a

1) The context shows that it means 'to act as a mother'.

2) In vulgar English, *widow* is [widə(r)].

passive meaning: *retainer* is 'a person retained or kept by a lord'. But from the verb *to retain* is also derived a noun denoting the agent, as appears from the following quotations:

Limestone soils are bad retainers of water.

The arbitrator is to impose what conditions he thinks fit on the retainer of the enclosures.

1663. In legal terms, and in traditional formations generally, the suffix is often written *-or*, as in *vendor*, a kind of 'active noun' to *vendee*, contrasted with a *street-vender*.

Note the various meanings of *confessor*:

- (1) one who makes confession, or public acknowledgment of anything, especially one who avows his religion in times of persecution.
- (2) a priest who hears confessions, prescribes penance and grants absolution ¹).

1664. *-er* is really a different suffix when it is added to geographical names to denote the inhabitants or natives, e. g. *Londoner*, *New Yorker*, *Icelander*; also *Little Englander*. Similarly it is added to adjectives, as in *foreigner*, *northerner*, *southerner*.

We have a double suffix, *-erer*, in *fruiterer*.

1665. *-ess* is used to denote female persons. It is added to the names of male persons:

priestess, *countess*, *heiress*, *princess*, *peeress*, *hostess*, *Jewess*, *shepherdess*, *stewardess*, etc. Also in nonce-words:

A millionairess.

Will no one rid me of this troublesome prelatess?

1) Among Roman Catholics (not among members of the English Church) the word is stressed on the first syllable in this meaning.

A most respected fellow-citizensess.

Engl. Rev. Oct. 1913 p. 406.

Saints and Saintesses.

Vachell, Quinneys'.

Note *mayoress* 'wife of a mayor', or, in the case of an unmarried or widowed mayor, 'the lady who fulfils the ceremonial duties normally belonging to the mayor's wife'.

1666. In the following words we have no English derivations but loanwords from French.

duke — duchess abbot — abbess

marquis } marchioness negro — negress
marquess }

master — mistress; cf. Mr. [mɪstə(r)]; Mrs. [mɪsɪz].

1667. The ending of the name for the male is sometimes lost:

murderer — murderess adventurer — adventuress
emperor — empress governor — governess¹⁾.

1668. The suffix is also added to names of persons denoting either sex:

authoress, poetess.

In this case the longer word is generally used only when it is necessary to denote the sex.

Shoals of young Jewish tailors and tailoresses stream in from the East and fill the Italian *cafés*.

Everyman 28/2, 1913.

1669. *-ess* occurs in three names of female animals: *lioness, tigress, leopardess.*

In spite of the small number of names of animals so formed the existence of the suffix is undoubted. This is

1) Thus in Margaret, governess of the Netherlands. In this meaning it is naturally obsolete. The noun denoting the male corresponding to *governess* 'teacher in a private household' is *tutor*.

also proved by an anecdote concerning Mr. Barnum, the famous showman. One day, "when finding his show uncomfortably crowded, (he) caused a notice to be put up: 'This Way to the 'Egress'. According to his own tale many hundreds of visitors left the building thinking they were going to see a new and rare bird."

1670. Nouns in [tə(r), də(r)] drop the vowel of this suffix, so that the feminine words end in [trɪs, -drɪs]. Compare *noble, nobler*:

actor [æktə(r)] — *actress* [æktɪs], *proprietor* — *proprietress*; *waiter* — *waitress*; *protector* — *protectress*; *warder* — *wardress*.

1671. Some feminine personal names have the suffix *-ine* [ɪn, aɪn]: *Caroline*. Always [ɪn] in *Catherine*.

It is [ɪn] in *Ernestine, Josephine*.

1672. *-ist* forms agent-nouns, mostly denoting persons practising some art, method or trade, or studying some science, etc.; also the adherents of a creed, or doctrine: *archaeologist, zoologist, monopolist, novelist; opportunist, altruist, atheist, deist, ritualist, royalist, imperialist, socialist, collectivist*, etc.

But as things were he must rest content as the greatest genre painter, one of the greatest landscapists, and the noblest designer of the Flemish School.

Times Lit. 12/1, '22.

1673. In some cases the form in *-ist* approaches closely to the agent-noun in *-er*, being distinguished from it only by the more professional or systematic sense which it implies: compare *conformer* — *conformist*; *copier* — *copyist*; *cycler* — *cyclist*. See 1633.

Note the addition of an *n* in *tobacconist*; the traditional *t* in *dramatist, scientist* has been imitated in *egotist*.

-ite **1674.** *-ite* forms nouns denoting:

- (1) persons. These nouns are mostly somewhat contemptuous (the contempt is often of a good-natured kind): *Claphamite*, *Luddite*, *Parnellite*, *Pre-Raphaelite*. Formations from other than proper names occur occasionally.

A few aging ninetyites¹⁾ survive.

Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 12.

- (2) scientific ideas: *graphite*, *melampyriete*, *cordite*, *nitrite*.

1675. *-or* [ɔə(r)] occurs exclusively in law-terms to denote the person who takes an active share in an action or agreement (the passive party being denoted by the ending *-ee*, see 1655 ff.). In many cases the nouns in *-or* and *-ee* are contrasted.

The lessee is bound to a multitude of things, and the lessor to little more than acceptance of the rent.

A mortgagor²⁾, after default in payment of the mortgage debt, cannot make a valid lease of the lands without the concurrence of the mortgagee.

Another example is *grantor* 'person who makes a grant or conveyance in legal form'.

Note the stress of *committor* [kə'mɪtɔə(r)] 'a judge (usually the Lord Chancellor) who commits a lunatic or idiot to the charge of another'; the latter is called the *committee* [kə'mɪ'ti].

1676. *-ster* is added to the stem of verbs (or nouns), to express 'given to the practice of', generally with a disparaging connotation, as in *gamester*, *rhymester*, *punster*, *trickster*.

1) i. e. people of 1890.

2) Note the pronunciation [mɔ:gɪ'dʒɔə(r)] 'debtor who conveys his property to his creditor (the *mortgagee*) as security for the debt'.

You seem rather a dabster at figures.

Pett Ridge, Mord Em'ly ch. 19.

In imitation of *youngster* we find the nonce-word *oldster*.

He (i. e. the man of thirty) perceives risks where the youth perceives only ecstasy, and the oldster only a blissful release from solitude.

Bennett, *Anna of the Five Towns* ch. 10.

Diminutives

1677. English makes little use of diminutive endings. The only ones that are at all frequently used are *-ette*, *-ie* (*y*), *-let*. None of them, however, are so freely used as diminutive endings are in some languages, such as Dutch and German.

1678. The ending *-ette* is often used jocularly; the spelling *-et* indicates that the stress is sometimes on the stem.

Bishop Walsham Howe, in his excellent sermonettes entitled *Plain Words*, . . . explains . . .

Oxf. and Camb. Rev.

The Kaiser stopped to deliver a sermonette on the importance of the festival.

A miscellany of essays, appreciations, review, *j'n'sais quois*, reminiscential occasional articles and articlettes.

Punch.

(Clubland)

Hearkened what time one vicious widowette

Gave tongue . . . G. Frankau, *One of Us* XII 9.

The Warden of the college is nicknamed Pumpkin-head. Hence his daughter is *the Pumpkinette*.

Sinister Street p. 689.

The most perfect of rock-gardens, a natural conjunction of mountainettes and streamlets. Hole, *Mem.* p. 238.

Her grandfather had returned, and was busily engaged

in pouring some gallons of newly arrived rum into the square bottles of his square cellaret.

Hardy, *Return of the Native* I ch. 11.

It is also used to denote imitation-materials, as in *flannelette*, *cashmerette*, *leatherette*.

1679. The ending *-ie*, *-y* is chiefly added to personal and animal names: *Johnny*, *Anny*, *Cooky*; *piggy*; *lassie*, *doggie*, *leggie*, etc.

The ending is especially used in Scotch; hence also the Scotch spelling *-ie* for English *-y*. In Southern English the common nouns with the ending are all but confined to the nursery, as in *hanky* 'handkerchief'; thus also the adjectives, such as *comfy* 'comfortable'; see the sections on *Shortening* (1904 ff.). The proper names are more generally used.

1680. *-let* is added to all kinds of nouns: *booklet*, *brooklet*, *courtlet*, *crownlet*, *dukelet*, *hoodlet*, *yokelet*, *keylet*, *ringlet*¹⁾, *rootlet*, *streamlet*. In many of these words the suffix expresses contempt.

Come, you are neither of you going to heaven yet.
I have the best hopes of you both, with your proud distinctions — a pair of half-fledged eaglets²⁾.

Brontë, *Shirley* ch. 28.

Essex possesses a few small spires and spirelets which are lead-coloured.

Athenaeum.

The Balkan Kinglets.

F. Harrison, *Engl. Rev.* Jan. 1913.

1) Note the differentiation in the meaning of *ringlet*.

2) I consider *eaglet* as an example of a word with the suffix *-let*, because the unstressed diminutive suffix *-et* is very rare (1678). The same applies to *islet*, *owlet*.

1681. *-ling* occurs in some words denoting the young of animals:

duckling, gosling, nestling.

It also forms designations of persons with a contemptuous or unfavourable sense:

lordling, kingling, princeling, squireling, hireling, underling ¹).

Then Mr. Daubeny (viz. a Prime Minister) for twelve months had sat upon the throne distributing the good things of the Crown amidst Conservative birdlings, with beaks wide open and craving maws, who certainly for some years previous had not received their share of State honours or State emoluments. Trollope.

To be "put up", even temporarily, at the abode of such a tribe of heavenlings ²) did not seem to add to Calcutta's enticement. Daily News.

It should be noted that *-ling* never expresses mere smallness of size, and is less of a genuine diminutive suffix than the others. It is restricted to animate nouns.

Adjectives

1682. *-able* (sometimes written *ible*) is added to verbs to form adjectives expressing 'able or fit to be affected by an action':

adorable, unforgettable, readable, eatable, noticeable; discernible, etc.

... in so far at the parents' own expense, that they were compellable to pay school fees.

Dacey, Law and Opinion p. 276.

Mr. Dosson, it may further be mentioned, was a man of the simplest composition, a character as cipherable as a sum of two figures. Henry James, Reverberator.

1) Note that the last two are not formed from nouns.

2) i.e. a hotel of the Y. M. C. A.

There was this difference, however, between Roger Bacon and his fellow-giants of the time, Albertus Magnus and St. Thomas Aquinas, whom he estimated with such understandable, if wrongheaded injustice.

Times Lit. 11/6, '14.

And you can't snub that sort of people; they're unsnubbable.

Elizabeth p. 132.

This is an attempt to teach an almost unteachable subject.

Pilot 26/10, 1901.

1683. The verbal adjectives with this suffix are in some respects participles. This is shown by the fact that we can form them even when there is an adjective of the same stem. 'Thus a mistake may be called *uncorrectable*, because *incurrible* has become ethical in sense ¹⁾); *solvable* may be preferred because *soluble* has entered into alliance with *dissolve*; and *destroyable by dynamite* may seem less pedantic than *destructible* because *destructible* tends to be purely adjectival, (Fowler, *Dict. of M.E. Usage*). The verbal character is prominent in derivatives from prepositional verbs.

Lady Bignor's drawing-room was a charming room, and also what some charming rooms are not, extremely liveable in.

Mrs. Belloc Lowndes,

Cressida: No Mystery T. p. 30.

This verbal character explains its post-position in attributive use (see the sections on *Word-Groups*) and also its opposition to the verbal ing, as in this quotation.

Gray. Women are incomprehensible!

Margaret. It's men who are uncomprehending.

Cl. Dane, Bill of Div., Brit. Pl. p. 669.

1684. Some words in *-able* are not real English derivatives but have been borrowed from French. This is

1) i. e. is dissociated from the verb stem *correct*.

sometimes shown by their having a different stress from the corresponding English verb:

'*admirable* but to *ad'mire*.

'*comparable* but to *com'pare*.

'*preferable* but to *pre'fer*.

'*revocable* but to *re'voke*, etc.

See further *English Sounds* ch. 4 (*Stress*).

1685. In derivatives from nouns the suffix suggests 'having', or 'giving': *personable, comfortable, dutiable* (goods), *an actionable offence, impressionable, marriageable*.

He could be trusted to drive cattle slowly; he was knowledgeable about colts. Vachell, Spragge p. 11.

1686. In not a few cases it is not evident whether the derivative is connected with the noun or with the verb. Such are *reasonable, favourable, forcible, questionable*.

-al 1687. *-al* forms adjectives from nouns: *central, formal*.

In many cases the formations are borrowed from Latin, or formed on a Latin pattern: *corporeal; continual, senatorial, individual*.

Many of the adjectives have come to be used as substantives: *cardinal, cathedral, individual*. See 1634.

-ed 1688. *-ed* is added to nouns to express the sense 'possessing, provided with, characterized by':

booted, spurred, moneyed, worded, cultured, talented, diseased; also in many compound adjectives: *dark-eyed, big-headed, broad-chested, soberly-conducted* (people), *a well-foliaged tree* (Ill. London News, 5/8, 1916). See 1625, 1649.

The brambled nook which he had adopted as his quarters. Hardy, *Native I* ch. 10 p. 104.

Derivatives with this suffix from verbs are generally looked upon as participles; see vol. 1, 66 ff.) It has already

been pointed out that the character of the formations is often shown by the nature of the adjunct: *much (or very), too much (or too)*.

1689. *-erly* and *-ern* are added to names of the points of the compass to form adjectives expressing direction or position:

A northerly wind (from the North).

The Thames has an easterly course (towards the East).

The northern part of Holland.

Of these Devonshire capes, Start Point is the most easterly.

1690. *-ese* is used to form adjectives from names of countries or places:

Chinese, Portuguese, Japanese, Maltese; Milanese, Viennese, Pekinese.

It is never added to names of English towns (see 1664 on *-er*).

The adjectives in *-ese* are also used as nouns, both to denote the language and the inhabitants. When denoting the latter they have no plural ending, according to the rule for converted adjectives.

1691. The suffix *-ese* is also used in nonce-words to denote the language or style of an author (or newspaper): *Johnsonese* 'a pompous and long-winded style resembling Samuel Johnson's', *Carlylese, journalese, Daily Telegraphese*, as in the following quotation:

Macaulay is only interesting as the inventor of Daily Telegraphese. Academy 9/11, 1907.

In this case the sense is always depreciatory (see 1695 on *-ian*):

It would be easy to select from Johnson's writings numerous passages written in that essentially vicious

style to which the name Johnsonese has been cruelly given; but the searcher could not fail to find many passages guiltless of this charge.

He is probably justified in making greater use than in the Theocritus version, of the language of poetical 'translationese'. Classical Rev. vol. 28 p. 98/1.

-esque 1692. The suffix is used to form adjectives from names of artists, as *Turneresque*, *Claudesque*.

The brilliant lights and sooty shades which struggled upon the skin and clothes of the persons standing round caused their lineaments and general contours to be drawn with Dureresque vigour and dash.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 3 p. 19.

Pleasant in its way, therefore, and mainly because it is so different from the normal Brontesque, Mr. Sugden's monograph (on the sisters Brontë) is too external to be thoroughly satisfactory. Times Lit. 12/9, 29 p. 699/2.

In imitation of this the ending is also used in jocular nonce-words as in *cigaresque*.

There is something quite Carsonesque about that.

Daily News, 1912.

He had a curious, precise way of speaking, that matched his pipchinesque little old face.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 222.

-fold 1693. *-fold* forms adjectives from cardinal numerals: *twofold*, *manifold*, etc. Note the noun *a hundredfold*.

-ful 1694. *-ful* is added to nouns to form adjectives expressing 'full of, characterized by': *artful*, *careful*, *fruitful*, *sinful*, *sorrowful*, *beautiful*, *graceful*, etc.

A few words are derived from verbs: *mournful*, *distractful*. Compare 1636.

1695. *-ian* forms adjectives from proper names of persons: *Addisonian*, *Arminian*, *Bodleian*, *Gladstonian*, *Johnsonian* (cf. *Johnsonese*, 1691), *Taylorian*, *Tennysonian*; or of places: *Bostonian*, *Oxonian*, *Parisian*, *Venetian*.

Surgery has two periods — the pre-Listerian, and the post-Listerian. Death of Lord Lister, *Daily News*.

She has been reading Maeterlinck's charmingly Maeterlinckian pages on Emily Brontë. *Athenaeum*.

1696. Most English adjectives ending in *-ic* and *-ical* are not English formations but borrowings from Latin or formed on Latin models. The form *-ic* is especially used in scientific, *-ical* in more popular words; this is illustrated by *economic* and *economical*.

Hence also the suffix *-ic* occurs in would-be scientific terms for their comic effect.

Their feet got entangled in their aldermanic gowns.
Daily News.

There were names historic and names mushroomic; names that the Conqueror might have called in his muster-roll; names that had been, clearly, tossed into the upper stratum of civilized life by a mill-wheel or a merchant-stool.
Meredith, *Ordeal Richard Feverel* Ch. XVI.

1697. *-ine* [am] forms adjectives in many terms of Natural History (*feline*, *bovine*) and in others: *Caroline* (e.g. *the Caroline Poets*, i.e. the poets in the time of Charles I.), *the Hildebrandine theory of the Church*, etc.

In chemical terms *-ine* [am] and *-in* [in] are distinguished; see *Concise Oxf. Dict.* s.v.v. *-in* and *-ine*⁵.

1698. Verbal derivatives with the suffix *-ing* when used attributively approach the character of adjectives. They have been treated as inflectional forms in the first volume, and the relation of the purely verbal forms and

those that are dissociated from the verbal system has been dealt with; see also 1640.

The purely adjectival character of the derivatives in *-ing* sometimes decides the form of the adjunct of degree, in the same way as in the case of the forms in *-ed* (1688); it also affects the order of words. See 95 f.

It doesn't look very promising at present.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 30.

She is a very taking young lady, there is no doubt of it. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 21.

When you are gardening on a summer afternoon, you may look very fetching, if you are nineteen, and the right sex for the adjective. ib. ch. 5 p. 47.

They were too young, too uninterested, too unenterprising. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 4 p. 38.

When he came down to breakfast his head was aching and heavy. ib. II ch. 4 p. 183.

The winter must be awfully trying¹⁾ for some of your patients. Cassell's Mag. of Fiction Dec. 1912 p. 1.

The purely verbal derivatives in *-ing* and *-able* are sometimes contrasted.

All students of sixteenth-century history owe him a real debt of gratitude for an understanding and understandable book.

J. D. Mackie, Engl. Hist. Rev. 43 (Jan. 1928) p. 114.

-ish 1699. *-ish* forms adjectives:

(1) from names of nations:

British, Finnish, Swedish, Turkish, etc.

(2) from common nouns with the sense 'of a person or thing, belonging to, of the nature or character of':
boyish, girlish.

1) A verbal form would take *awfully* after it.

In most cases the words are used in a derogatory sense 'having the (bad or objectionable) qualities of':

amateurish, babyish, boorish, brutish, clownish, foolish, mannish, womanish (compare *manly, womanly*: 1702), etc.; also in *bookish, feverish, freakish, etc.*

Childish may consequently mean: 'proper to a child', and 'improper for a grown person'.

1700. It is also added to adjectives, especially those denoting colour, with the sense 'of the nature of, approaching the quality of', e.g. *bluish, blackish, reddish, whitish, etc.*; also in *brightish, coldish, goodish, oldish, youngish*.

1701. *-less*, is added to nouns and verbs in the sense of 'without, not to be -ed':

careless, hopeless, fearless, sleepless, useless; dauntless 'not to be daunted', *resistless* 'not to be resisted'.

It is very frequent in the formation of nonce-words, as in the following quotations:

The grammarless teaching of a language is a slow and nebulous business. Times Ed. 8/8, 1918.

Butcherless, bakerless, tailorless, cobblerless, doctorless, bookless, milkless, postless . . . jungle.

Athenaeum 12/12, 1885.

1702. *-ly* is added to nouns with the sense 'having the qualities appropriate to, characteristic of, befitting'. If the meaning of the noun allows it, the adjectives are usually eulogistic (compare *-ish*, 1699) e.g. *kingly, knightly, manly, womanly, masterly, princely, queenly, gentlemanly, scholarly, leisurely*; but compare also *beastly, beggarly, cowardly, dastardly*. Compare *-like* (1721).

For a new spirit was coming over the more churchly elements in our communion.

Watson, Church of England p. 158.

(He) persisted in seeking the company of musicianly people. Kennedy, *Constant Nymph* p. 22.

The suffix also forms adjectives denoting periodic recurrence:

daily, hourly, monthly, nightly, weekly, yearly, quarterly, fortnightly.

1703. *-some* forms adjectives from nouns, adjectives, and verbs:

burdensome, troublesome, wholesome, wearisome, etc.

The grey twilight of a dungeon, or other darksome apartment of the prison.

Hawthorne, *Scarlet Letter* p. 66.

With the humoursome gesticulation of a little imp.
ib. p. 120.

1704. *-ward* forms adjectives expressing direction: *homeward, backward.*

These words are also used as adverbs, either with or without the addition of [z]:

forwards, backwards, etc.

1705. *-y* is added to nouns to form adjectives with the sense 'of the nature of, characterized by': *gassy, glassy, earthy, pithy, noisy, fiery, clayey, gluey.*

They had never seen anyone look so thunder and lightning as that little June.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* II ch. 2.

We resent the panicky darkening of London¹⁾.

Eng. Rev. Jan. '15.

There is a fringe of suburbs from Croydon by Wallingford . . ., which begins to look very towny.

Observer 15/5, 21.

In imitation of the phrase *of the earth, earthy* we find expressions like the following.

1) For fear of German air-raids.

In May I am of the earth, earthy.

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 5.

With her long eyes half shut, she looked typically of the world worldly, languid, almost prettily disdainful.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 2.

In this respect Mr. Dickens, as an actor, was amateurish, but it is only another way of saying that he was of the stage, stagey.

Life of Ainger, p. 116.

Ordinal Numbers

1706. *-eth* [-ɪp] is used to form ordinals from the *-eth* cardinals ending in *ty*:
twentieth [twenti-ɪp], *thirtieth*, *fortieth*, *ninetieth*, etc.

1707. *-th* [p] is used for the other definite numerals as in *fourth*, *sixth*, *seventh*, *tenth*, *hundredth*, *thousandth*. Irregular (apart from *first*, *second*, and *third*) are *fifth* and *twelfth*.

1708. Ordinals are formed from the definite cardinal numbers only, and almost exclusively from those belonging to the decimal system (not from *gross*, *score*).

A sallow prisoner has come up, in custody, for the half-dozenth time, to make a personal application.

Dickens, Bleak House.

Note also the 'indefinite' *nth*: *for the nth time*; *the nth power of a is written aⁿ*.

Adverbs

1709. The only suffix to form adverbs is *-ly*. It serves to form adverbs from adjectives: *hardly*, *sweetly*, *roughly*, *kindly*, etc.; also from verbals in *-ing* and *-ed*: *lovingly*, *decidedly*, *hurriedly*, etc.

It (the letter) smelt faintly of sandalwood.

Bar. von Hutten, Eddy and Edouard T. p. 252.

"Of course", said Peter valiantly, "one of the very best. It's in Devonshire, and I leave by the eight o'clock train," (this very importantly).

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 4 § 2 p. 39.

... a piece of loose iron on the roof banged forlornly.

Mansfield, Bliss p. 7.

It was an arrestingly pretty face.

B. Ruck, The Clouded Pearl I ch. 2 p. 33.

"Stand out of my way!" he cried excitedly.

Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 2.

New York had been, recordedly, her birthplace and Europe punctually her discipline.

H. James, Golden Bowl p. 23.

... lower than the lowest, bottomlessly vulgar.

Huxley, Vulgarly p. 10.

See also 1702.

1710. Derivation from nouns is rare: *partly, purposely, chiefly, instantly*.

... an averagely good specimen of a farm-labourer.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 6 p. 66.

Alice (*matter-of-factly, as she hands her her tea*). You know, you oughtn't to talk such a lot, you still look queer. Chapin, New Morality in Brit. Pl. p. 539.

The ending is also added to ordinal numerals to denote serial position, as in *firstly, secondly*, etc.

Changes of form **1711.** Adjectives in *-ic* never have an adverb in *-ically*, except *politically*¹⁾, *publicly*; the adverb usually ends in *-ically*: *athletic* — *athletically*; *hypnotic* — *hypnotically*.

1) Differing in meaning from *politically*.

Such were the epithets which rose to Lady Arabella's mind; but she politically suppressed them. Trollope, Dr. Thorne ch. 42.

The adverb corresponding to *historic*, *historical* is therefore *historically*; *poetic(al)* — *poetically*.

1712. If *-ly* is added to adjectives and participles in *-ed*, they take [ɪd] or [d, t], according to the stressing of the word from which it is formed. It is:

- (1) [ɪd] when the word ends in a stressed syllable:
designedly [dɪ'zainɪdli], *fixedly* [fiksɪdli], *involvedly* [ɪn'vɒlvɪdli], *avowedly* [ə'vəʊɪdli], etc.

She sat down in the dusk and unashamedly wept.

D. C. Jones, *The Everlasting Search* II ch. 16 p. 280.

... supposedly looking for civil employment.

Hutchinson, *One Increasing Purpose* I ch. 2 p. 16.

- (2) [d,t] when the word ends in an unstressed syllable:
hurriedly [hʌrɪdli], *goodnaturedly* [gʊd'neɪtʃədli], *determinedly* [dɪ'tɛmɪndli]; *distinguishedly* [dɪ'stɪŋgwɪʃtli], *astonishedly* [ə'stɒnɪʃtli], *embarrassedly* [em'bærəstli], etc.

The rule for [ɪd] in these words can be more intelligently stated thus: [ɪd] is used ¹⁾ except where it would cause the stress to be further back than the third syllable. See 1649.

1713. Adjectives ending in syllabic *l* lose their final sound: [dʌbl, dʌbli]. The spelling is accordingly *double*, *doubly*; *incredible*, *incredibly*.

Note that this rule applies to syllabic *l* only; hence to words that have a consonant before *l*. Compare *vile*, *vilely*; *pale*, *palely*; *agile*, *agilely* (*Sophia followed*, *agilely*: Bennett, *Old W. T.* I ch. 7 § 1 p. 132).

1) Or, speaking historically: has been retained.

Inhabiting a world which might arguably develop from ours in a comparatively short space of time.

J. C. Squire, Observer 11/3, 23.

They are also made unbelievably stupid. ib.

1714. Some adjectives have no corresponding adverb in *-ly*. This is generally so with adjectives ending in *-ly*: *earthly, godly, kindly, lively; stately, timely*, etc. In such cases a word-group can serve as an adverb adjunct of manner: *in a kindly manner* etc.; or another word e.g. *earthly* and *terrestrially; stately* and *solemnly*, etc.

As a rule, with practical good sense, she kept her doubting eyes fixed *friendlily* on every little phase in turn.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 7.

"I'll fetch Harrop," she said *melancholily* to his cousin.
Old Wives' Tale II ch. 5 § 1.

But *early, leisurely, untimely*, the adjectives in *-ly* that denote periodical recurrence, as *hourly* (1702) and many other words (*hard, fast, close*, etc.), are used both as adverbs and as adjectives.

The distinction between adjective and adverb functions is often impossible when there are no formal indications; see 943 ff., and 1830.

... looking so *sadly* and *lonely*.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 p. 97.

In this sentence *sadly* might be interpreted as an adverb of manner, *lonely* as a predicative adjective; but it is no doubt the identity of suffix that led the writer to use the different 'parts of speech'.

1715. *Possibly*, and *not impossibly* are used as adverbs of modality; *impossibly* is also used, without *not*, as an adverb of degree.

It cannot *possibly* be true.

To employ him for the prosecution meant that one

was in strong evidence, perhaps injured, not impossibly respectable. J. O. Hobbes, *Some Emotions Part II* p. 69.

Kirsteen, what an impossibly Celtic name!

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 6.

Likely when used as an adverb is almost invariably preceded by a qualifying word: *He will most (very) likely come in time.* But: *Armistice Day has likely killed the Lord Mayor's show* (*Times Lit.* 18/8, '21); *You will likely break the back* (see vol. 1 p. 178).

1716. Adverb adjuncts of attending circumstances may take an adverb (*fearfully*), but in other cases there is no adverb, as in the case of *difficult*, *afraid*, *unafraid*. For *still* we have an adverb *quietly*.

An adverb *still-ly* is an experiment rather than an established word.

Her name went from him still-ly, on a strange note, almost hushed . . .

Hutchinson, *One Increasing Purpose I* ch. 22 p. 135.

Composition and Derivation

1717. The distinction between composition and derivation is not an essential one. Indeed, it is frequently impossible to say whether a word is a compound or a derivative.

The words with prefixes have been called compounds. As to form, they are often even-stressed, like many other compounds. And as to meaning, the prefix, though not used as an independent word, frequently has as much independent meaning as a real word. It may, indeed, be doubtful to which of the two classes of compounds a word belongs. Thus, *by-incident* may be said to be formed with a prefix rather than with an independent word *by*; also *by-product*.

(The chapter) is only a passing reference to one or two *by-incidents* that came about in the half-year that followed. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 25 p. 264.

And *grandfather*, *grandson* may also be considered as formations with a prefix. Similarly *stark* in *stark blind*, *stark dead*, *stark mad*, etc. is no more than a prefix, even though the independent word *stark* is used in poetical English.

1718. Nor is a rigid separation possible between compounds and words with suffixes. This may be illustrated by the words in *-monger*. As an independent word *monger* does not exist; yet, it has as much independent meaning as the prefixes, and, indeed, as many independent words. We consider the words in *-monger* as compounds because English suffixes generally express no independent meaning at all, but 'serve a grammatical function only.

Words in *-monger* are frequent in new-formations, usually denoting a contemptible or discreditable 'trade' or 'traffic', e.g. *ceremony-monger*, *fashion-monger*, *news-monger*, *pardon-monger*, *scandal-monger*.

Ah, Mr. Haggard, what an incorrigible hero-monger you are!
Academy 28/7, 1900.

The monastic visitors appointed by Thomas Cromwell were men of the vilest stamp, odious slander-mongers, whose charges are unworthy of credence.

Athenaeum 25/1, 1908.

A poet, or even a passable verse-monger.

Academy 23/4, 1910.

It may be asserted of all parties to the controversy that whatever else they may be they are mystery-mongers.

New Statesman 11/1, '19.

The tendency of my speculations was towards excuse-mongering.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 49 p. 492.

1719. Words in [mən] *man* are little more than derivatives: *fisherman*, *Frenchman*. Hence a woman presiding at a

meeting may be addressed as 'Mrs. Chairman' ¹). When the second element is [mæn] we naturally have compounds: *the butter-man, chair-man* ²).

1720. The second part of the following words has so little meaning that it might be called a suffix.

Yes, I know you think that I'm a fuss-box ³).

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 26 p. 325.

These editor-fellows, in their anxiety to fill up their papers, don't stop to realise what they're doing half the time.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 10 p. 112.

The yacht was all ready for sea. The captain fellow was on the bridge and steam was up.

Bennett, *Grand Babylon Hotel* ch. 15.

He bent round and looked under the blue veil-thing that wrapped Nedda's head.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 17.

Similarly *our soldier-men, some painter-fellows, those feeder-things*.

On the indefinite pronouns with *-thing* or *-body* for their second element, see 1338 ff.

1721. Although it is true that English suffixes usually have no substantial meaning, some formations have been included in the sections on derivation that show suffixes with a more or less clear meaning; these might, in fact, have been included among the compounds. Such are the formations in *-ful*, especially the adjectives (1636, 1694), *-fold* (1693), *-ana* (1638). Formations in *-like*, such as

¹) e.g. Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 11 § 19. But *chairwoman* occurs, too; at least as an ordinary class-noun: see Poutsma II, p. 347.

²) i. e. man collecting the pennies for the use of a chair in a public park.

³) On the model of *chatterbox*.

childlike, *springlike*, might be called derivatives as well as compounds.

1722. A suffix, even if it does not express a substantial meaning, may come to be used, at least occasionally, as an independent word.

We must have books of this sort written and read if our literature is to have its basis in reality and not in mere realism. Mr. Freeman is not an '-ist'.

Mr. Mottram, in Preface to Freeman, Joseph p. VII.

On *ana*, see 1635.

COMPARISON

1723. The endings [-ə(r), -ist] are added to a number of adjectives to form what are called the *comparative* and *superlative*. The suffixes are used with most adjectives of one syllable (1) or such as have a final strong stress (2).

(1) *great, greater, greatest.*

Note medial [-ŋg-], not [-ŋ-], in *longer, longest; stronger, strongest; younger, youngest*. This suggests that the comparative and superlative are more independent of the simple forms than the agent-nouns in *-er* are of the verbs from which they are formed (see 1736).

(2) the profoundest silence. Wells, *Country* p. 174.

No trade, as Mr. Birrell says, in one of his essays, has an obscurer history. *Times* W. 30/4, 1914.

Butler gives his readers the sense of being in contact with a profounder and sincerer mind than Bossuet's.

Times Lit. 10/8, '16.

His lecture is the concisest and best account of it we have in English. *ib.* 13/4, '17.

All that I propose is to ask whether a more exact analysis or a completer presentation of familiar materials is likely to confirm or to overthrow the reconstruction of Early English history which we have inherited from earlier scholars. Stenton, *Transactions of the Royal*

Hist. Soc. 1926 p. 159.

in the dullest and ineptest fashion. *Athen.* 21/9, 1912.

Also *impolite, impoliter, impolitest; incomplete, incompleter, incompletest.*

1724. The endings are also used in the case of:

- (1) adjectives ending in weak-stressed *-er*, *-ow*, *-y*, *-le*, preceded by a non-syllabic sound, or in *-some*:
tender, tenderer, tenderest; also for *narrow, shallow; happy, unhappy, easy; noble, ignoble, able; handsome, wholesome*, etc.

The Englishman is certainly cleverer, individually, than the German. Eng. Rev. March 1914.

Just when his mother was beginning to tolerate one scheme he had introduced another still bitterer than the first. Hardy, *Native* III ch. 4 p. 248.

The deadliest terror sits by me at all hours of the day and night. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*.

... preached by the vulgarest impostor.

Academy 17/8, '12.

The language of the semi-official document is soberer. Times Lit. 22/1, '20.

The praiseworthyest deeds.

- (2) the adjectives *civil, common, pleasant, unpleasant, quiet, stupid*.

I seemed to have passed out of modern life into a quieter and older world. Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 24.

A quieter day on the British front is reported.

Times W. 26/1 '17.

One schoolmaster, an excellent man, told me that in his experience the English language studies were entrusted to the stupidest, and generally the least competent master in the school. Professor Wyld.

Occasionally also with other adjectives in [-id].

Beside the vivider green of the water-meadows at their base. Sinister Street p. 762.

I have been often richly contented in the squalidest garret. Gissing, *Ryecroft* X.

Now and then I have bought a volume of the raggedest and wretchedest aspect. ib. XII.

My satire is against those who see figures and averages, and nothing else — the representatives of the wickedest and most enormous vice of this time.

It is the same more or less with most people; one sees instincts at their nakedest among boys.

Benson, Upton Letters p. 8.

1725. The suffixes are regularly used with monosyllabic adverbs, also with *often*, *early*. It is of special importance to note that in many cases monosyllabic words take the suffixes *-er* and *-est* in an adverb function when the simple adverb requires *-ly*; thus *quicker* is parallel to *quickly* as much as to the adjective *quick*.

We can examine the psychology of a writer easier than we can that of any other man.

James Stephen, Eng. Rev. April 1914.

Her heart beat more feebly and slower.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 278.

The dog ran after him, and barked louder. . . . So when he came to the house, he scratched at the door, and said: bow wow!; for he could not speak any plainer.

Sweet, Pr. of Sp. Engl. p. 48.

The adverbial forms of this kind in *-er* seem to be more frequent than those in *-est*.

1726. It is sometimes thought that the use of the suffixes of comparison depends on the number of syllables of the words. It is clear, however, from the examples given, that the number of syllables is immaterial. What matters is the position of the strongest stress. If the stress is on the last syllable the word takes the suffixes. If the stress is on the penultimate, or further forward, the word generally does not take the suffixes. The words of 1724, however, end in a syllable that becomes, or may become, non-syllabic when the suffixes [-ə(r), -ist] are added, or at least they end in a syllable that is so short as to be practically

negligible when it becomes medial. Hence the comparatives and superlatives of these adjectives are stressed on the penultimate (like those of monosyllabic words), or on the antepenultimate with a penultimate syllable so short that it may be neglected.

- (1) The final syllable of the simple word becomes non-syllabic in the comparative and superlative of adjectives in syllabic *l*:

[noubɫ, noublə(r), noublɪst].

- (2) It may be syllabic or non-syllabic in the case of adjectives in *-y* (i.e. [ɪ]), *-er*:

happy: [hæpɪ, hæpɪə(r), hæpjə(r)].

tender: [tendə(r), tendərə(r), tendrə(r)].

Also in *commoner, oftener*, etc.

- (3) The final syllable is very short in the case of adjectives in *-ow*, and in some others, such as *pleasant*¹), *stupid, rugged, wicked*.

It is also evident why the suffixes are used only when a non-syllabic sound precedes the ending: this makes it possible for the *l, i, w* to become non-syllabic when medial. Thus *clayey* [kleɪ-ɪ] could not take -ə(r) and keep its stress on the penultimate; the stress would unavoidably be shifted back to the antepenultimate. The same applies to *servile* [səvaɪl], etc.

1727. The number of syllables of a word cannot be decided with mathematical certainty. Thus words with a murmur-diphthong may be doubtful: *real* [rɪəl], *cruel* [krʊəl], *sure* [ʃʊə(r)]; *sincere* [sɪn'sɪə(r)], *obscure* [ɒbs'kjʊə(r)]. Compare such transcriptions as [*loil, roil*] for *loyal, royal*

1) The phonetic character of [pleznə] with its medial syllabic *n* may be compared with that of [sevnɒns] *sevenpence* whose second element is identical with that of *eightpence*, not of *eighteenpence* ['eɪtn'pens].

The adverb *often* is phonetically of the same type as *pleasant*.

by Dunstan (*Engl. Phonetik* p. 76, 86), although these words are rather disyllabic. Nearly all these adjectives with a murmur-diphthong take the suffixes of comparison; and if *real* rarely does this, it is the result of its meaning rather than of its form; see below. Similarly *tired* [taɪəd] does not generally take the suffixes on account of its participial character, although the suffixed forms are not rare in familiar English.

A dream — but a very vivid dream. The reallest of dreams. If it *was* a dream.

Wells, *The Dream* ch. 1 p. 18.

“Positive. There could be no mistake. He’s just the same, a trifle tireder, a trifle lower down — but the same, oh yes.” Walpole, *Duchess of Wrexhe* ch. 1 § 4.

You poor little boy. You’re tireder than Hilary even.
Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 7 p. 104.

1728. Although words with a final strong stress frequently take the suffixes of comparison, this is not the case with adjectives ending in two stopped consonants, such as *exact*. See 1778.

And the disyllabic adjectives in *-er* such as *tender* are very different in this respect from the apparently similar *eager*, *proper*. The cause is that *d* and *r* are homorganic, *g* and *r*, or *p* and *r*, are not. Hence *eager*, *proper* do not take the suffixes other than exceptionally.

I have just put by a photograph of my father for you as he lay in that last stillness of his, that you will see at a properer time.

Wells, *Passionate Friends* ch. 1 § 2.

1729. The use of the suffixes of comparison not only depends upon the phonetic structure of the words, but also on their meaning. The suffixes are not used with adjectives that are exclusively used, either attributively or predicatively; see 950 ff.

Nor are the suffixes used with verbal adjectives in *-ed*, even if their phonetic character would cause no difficulty, as in *blessed, fatigued*. Even when a verbal adjective is dissociated from its verb (see 66 ff.) as in the case of *pleased, surprised*, the suffixes are not used. On *tired*, see 1727.

Compound Adjectives **1730.** Compound adjectives compare their first element according to the principles mentioned as long as there is a feeling for the separate meaning and function of the two elements¹⁾: *the change is even deeper-rooted than that; all our oldest-established institutions.*

A prouder-hearted man I never met.

Trollope, Framley ch. 36.

This is what I wished to say to you about the deepest-lying and most real facts of life.

Haldane, Addresses p. 108 f.

I never saw a finer-looking man.

The largest longest-headed of schemes²⁾ ask occasionally for something substantial and immediate.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 24 p. 247.

He was perhaps the biggest-chested and longest-armed man I ever saw.

Rider Haggard, King Solomon's Mines.

The bowl I shall always consider my most highly prized and hardest won trophy. Patterson, Tsavo p. 104.

1731. Some comparatives and superlatives, though they have the usual suffixes, are not regularly derived from a

1) In reality the words are semi-compounds. All of them are of a similar type, consisting of an adjective (or adverb) with a verbal *-ing* or *-ed* or a traditional participle (*hard-won*).

2) Misprint for *schemers*?

simple related form but show a different suffix (-ther, -thest), or formal deviations. The deviations are not sufficient, however, to break the connection with the simple adjective or adverb.

These irregular formations are the following.

far	{ farther	{ farthest	near	nearer	{ nearest
	{ further	{ furthest			{ next
late	{ later	{ latest	old	{ older	{ oldest
	{ latter	{ last		{ elder	{ eldest

1732. A number of forms, nearly all with the suffixes of comparison, have no related simple form at all; they are completely isolated. They are:

better, best; less, lesser, least; more, most; worse, worst.

We may also include *former* and *rather*; *other*, *whether*, and *either* are not to be looked upon as comparatives in living English, nor is *first* a living superlative (but see 1754).

Note that *less* and *worse* do not show any suffix; this explains why the usual suffix has been added in the case of attributive *lesser*, exceptionally in *worser*.

.... much as the worser type of Englishman treated Bengal after Plassey. Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 19.

1733. *-most* [-moust, -mɔst] is also used as Superlatives a suffix to form superlatives of adjectives and in *-most* adverbs. These derivatives generally express position in place. They are formed from:

- (1) comparatives in *-er*: *hindermost*, *innermost*, *outermost*, *uttermost*, *uppermost*, *lowermost*, *furthermost*, *bettermost*; and in *nethermost*, *hithermost*.
- (2) nouns: *bottommost*, *topmost*, *eastmost*, *southmost*, *centremost*, *headmost*, *rearmost*, *sternmost*.

- (3) adverbs: *backmost, foremost, inmost, outmost, utmost*¹⁾, *hindmost, upmost, downmost*.

Use of the Comparative

Comparative of Contrast **1734.** The fundamental meaning expressed by the comparative is *contrast*. The word that is contrasted is often mentioned: *How slow you are! try and be a little quicker; I can't bear it any longer; a younger son*.

He went on short, unsuccessful campaigns to Brittany and Guienne, and made a rather longer visit to Guienne in 1254. Powicke, *Medieval England* p. 35.

When an adjective expresses or implies a contrast in itself, no derivative form in *-er* is required. An adjective like *unique* evidently does not need the suffix, nor do *real*²⁾, *right*, and its contrast: *wrong*. If they do take a suffix the words are necessarily taken in a different sense.

Very few care two straws about truth, or have any confidence that it is right or better to believe what is true. Butler, *Way of All Flesh*.

Comparative of Superiority **1735.** When an adjective (or adverb) in *-er* expresses contrast, it may at the same time express a higher degree than is shown in another person or thing (*a*) or by the same in different circumstances (*b*).

a. Monica was more like Margaret, but much fairer than the first fair sister³⁾.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 24.

He works harder than most men.

1) Transcribed [atmǽst] by Sweet, *Pr. of Spoken English* p. 53.

2) Contrast: *apparent*.

3) Note that *fair* is repeated in order to prevent the form in *-er* being taken for a comparative of contrast.

b. And our limbs grow younger, and our eyes brighter
as we watch them. Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

Gradually she grew calmer.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 2 § 2.

A month passed and the November gloom deepened:
the skies were greyer than ever, the bare elm-trees on
distant landscapes grew blacker and colder and the grass
became colourless and sodden.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 13 p. 112.

1736. The comparative of contrast is specially common
in the case of the isolated forms of 1731, because they
are not formally related to an adjective or adverb ex-
pressing the quality without any comparison.

The two meanings of the same form are sometimes
compared.

He was tired enough when he reached it, and for a
moment he was disappointed; he was better ¹⁾, of course,
but better ²⁾, after all, than what? He should never
again, as at one or two great moments of the past, be
better ²⁾ than himself. H. James, The Middle Years,
in Sel. Short St. III p. 322.

As the comparative of superiority is a development or
special case of the comparative of contrast, there is not
necessarily a feeling of the difference when the two uses
occur in the same sentence.

The leaves were greener than they would ever be
again, and already so thick that it was no longer possible
to see between them. Freeman, Joseph ch. 8 p. 60.

In this sentence *greener* is a comparative of superiority,
longer is one of contrast (to: *up till now*, or *formerly*).

The reality of the distinction between the comparative
of contrast and of superiority is shown by the facts as to

1) Contrasted with *ill*.

2) Cp. of superiority: quality compared in different persons or at different
times.

the use of *no* and *not* (1249 f.) and of the prop-word *one* (1294). And the phonetic difference between *long*, *strong*, and *young* compared with the comparatives and superlatives (1723, 1) may be partly due to the fact that these forms of comparison are chiefly used to express contrast, less often superiority.

Comparative of Proportion 1737. The comparative of contrast is also used in two parallel clauses. It serves to contrast two qualities that increase or decrease at an equal rate. This use is formally distinguished by the prefixing of adverbial *the* (*a*) or by the use of the conjunction *as* (*b*). In the second case the equality of the rate is not so clearly expressed as in the first.

a. The more she thought of him, the sorrier she became for him. Vachell, Quinneys'.

The more he contemplated the thing the greater became his astonishment. Wells, Harman ch. 9 § 3.

The judges and officials of the Indian Courts are not to blame. It is the rules which govern the right to appeal that are wrong, and the sooner they are amended the better. Times W. 5/1, '17.

b. "You're a queer chap," said his brother, "and you grow queerer as you grow older."

Vachell, Brothers ch. 15.

1738. One of the two comparatives of proportion may show its subordination by the conjunction *that*.

The more that one has, the more one wants. NED.

One wants the more, the more that one has. NED.

The more that her organization is perfected, the more that definite theories of the nature and limits of her authority are enunciated, the more does she (*viz.* the Church) tend to become an *imperium in imperio*, intent upon the maintenance of her own class interest.

Constitut. Essays p. 311.

1739. We have a similar use of the comparative when the increase or decrease is represented as being dependent upon something, which is generally mentioned in a clause or adjunct, expressing reason or cause (*a*), occasionally in a different way (*b*).

a. Life seemed the better worth living because she had glimpsed death. Vachell, Spragge p. 191.

His extortions were the more resented since he kept no order. Davis, Med. Europe p. 230.

The words sketch for us a scholar's life, the more touching in its simplicity that it is the life of the first great English scholar. Green, Short Hist. p. 39.

b. The enveloping gloom seemed to make my chimney-corner only the more cosy. Gissing, Ryecroft p. 22.

Comparative of Graduation **1740.** The comparative of superiority is repeated to express that a quality increases or decreases at an even rate. The comparatives are connected by *and*.

From that time greater and greater leniency was shown them. Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 2.

To those who are worth most there comes home early in life the conviction that, in the absence of a firm hold on what is abiding, life becomes a poorer and poorer affair the longer it lasts. Haldane, Addresses p. 108.

The world of books gets ever larger and larger, and the world of men gets ever busier and busier; there is continually more and more to read and less and less time for reading. Bailey, A Question of Taste p. 11.

I had a perfectly terrified instant, for Barbara looked at the fire and burned redder and redder and redder. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 14.

The comparative of superiority can express the same meaning if accompanied by an adverb like *gradually*; see the second example of '1735 *b*.

1741. A less common use of this comparative is to

contrast the degree of two different qualities of the same person or thing.

The wall was in some parts thicker than it was high.
Poutsma II p. 491.

Use of the Superlative

1742. The superlative, when used attributively or adverbially, expresses the same meanings as the comparative: contrast (*a*) and superiority (*b*). It differs from the comparative in comparing more than two. The predicative superlative, chiefly of adjectives, expresses superiority at different times or places (*c*); the other meanings are expressed by the converted or the independent superlative (*d*), on which see 1814 ff.

a. The youngest son was an engineer.

b. The name of Thomas Chatterton, the youngest and most short-lived of English poets.

A. Lang, *Hist. of Engl. Lit.* p. 434.

c. He is happiest when left alone.

First impressions are deepest, freshest and most permanent.
Rev. of Rev. (Poutsma II 494).

d. Of all his disappointments this was the bitterest and the most difficult to bear.

1743. When the attributive superlative with **Absolute Superlative** its noun is preceded by an indefinite pronoun, or by no qualifier at all, the contrast is indefinite; this use is distinguished as the *absolute* superlative. The use is literary rather than colloquial English.

Let any plainest man who reads this think of his usual mode of getting himself into his matutinal garments . . .
Trollope, *Framley* ch. 44 p. 140.

No smallest estimate of his character is fair which does not make due allowance for the terrible experiences of his youth and middle age. Conan Doyle, *Magic Door* p. 58.

There is no smallest doubt that the air needs clearing, so far as Ireland is concerned. Times W. 26/10, '17.

It was perhaps on some darkest, muddiest afternoon of a London February. Times Lit. 6/9, '18.

Michael could scarcely bear to speak, so completely did it fulfil every faintest hope. Sinister Street p. 87.

She did listen, and watch, when evening closed; but it was in stillest sort: walking the drawing-room with quite noiseless step. Brontë, Vilette ch. 25.

Michael and Guy left Oxford in the mellow time of an afternoon in earliest August. Sinister Street p. 760.

1744. The superlative sometimes expresses this meaning when the group is preceded by the definite article.

When I was eighteen years of age and had just left Westminster School, I valued a man according to his proficiency and taste in classical literature, and had the meanest opinion of all other accomplishments unaccompanied by that. Westminster School.

He went slowly (viz. on his bicycle) with many road-side halts, nor was there the gentlest rise up which he did not walk. Sinister Street p. 827.

Before saying anything more as to the existing authorities, it will be well to give the reader the briefest sketch of the history of our great city.

Odgers, Local Government p. 215.

1745. Sometimes the predicative superlative in *-est* seems to be used, instead of the group with *most*, to prevent it being understood as an absolute superlative.

We cannot, of course, either describe or criticize these essays in detail. But we may indicate those which are most important and freshest. Athenaeum.

Converted Comparative and Superlative

1746. The adjectives of comparison are frequently used as nouns; this will be dealt with in the chapter on *Conversion*.

Irregular Comparison

1747. When the comparative or superlative differ from the simple adjective or adverb in more than the suffix, there is generally a second form which is regularly formed. Such pairs are enumerated in 1731. The irregular form, being less closely associated with the simple adjective (*further, latter, last, next, elder, eldest*), is used as a comparative or superlative of contrast only, superiority being indicated by the regular form (*later, latest; nearer, nearest; older, oldest*).

Some further remarks may be made on the use of these forms.

Far 1748. *Further* may refer to space and time (*a*) but also to what is additional (*b*).

a. It was not thought safe for the ships to proceed further in the darkness.

There is nothing further from his thoughts than scepticism.

b. I wish to hear no further details.

The reader must submit to be told one or two further and still smaller details respecting the man, and then the man shall be allowed to make his own way.

Furthest is rarely used to express space; note the expression *at the furthest* 'at the latest', when a future time is referred to.

Note *furtherest: to the furthest corner of England*. Patterson, Stephen Compton p. 221. It is perhaps a nonce-word; it is at any rate exceptional, and hardly Standard English.

1749. *Farther, farthest* usually refer to space (*a*) and time (*b*); occasionally *farther* means *additional* (*c*).

a. If you can bear your load no farther, say so.

It was the farthest piece of travel accomplished.

b. Then we need argue no farther.

c. I took no farther heed of her.

Weyman, *Under the Red Robe* ch. 7.

Late 1750. The form *latter* is only used to refer to the second of two persons or things mentioned before (opposite: *former*). See 1771.

As Lord Grey's son and successor says, the book is a sketch, not a picture; "the latter," he hopes, "may follow later."
Times Lit. 21/12, '17.

Maud had walked to Wattleborough, where she would meet Dora on the latter's return from her teaching.

Gissing, *New Grub Street* ch. 2.

Very little difference separated the Inspector of the Board of Education from him of the local authority; the former had a little more prestige, the latter a little more power.
Times Ed. S. 22/1, '20.

Latter is also used in some standing phrases for 'second', especially with *half* and *part* in names of parts of the year, etc.: *the latter half of August (this week), of the story, the Rhine*, etc.

It was composed in the latter half of his long life.

1751. Note also *latter-days* 'modern times':

Now Barabbas was a robber in the old time, but in these latter days he is the hero of Marie Corelli's last romance.

In attributive use the form is *latter-day* (ch. on *Conversion*).

The whole circumstances were thoroughly mediaeval from a latter-day English point of view ¹).

Another derivative is the adverb *latterly*, expressing the contrast between past and present time.

The low though extensive hall, supported by beams and pillars, and latterly dignified by the name of Corn Exchange, was thronged. Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 1 p. 101.

1) Note also 'the Latter-day Saints', the name by which the Mormons call themselves.

1752. The comparative *later* refers to time; it expresses both contrast and superiority (a higher degree).

Until the eleventh century distant trade was rare, the merchant community was small, but there was of course much local buying and selling, especially in cattle; and the later English kings of the pre-Conquest period decreed that all transactions should be formally witnessed by approved witnesses. Powicke, *Medieval England* p. 103 f.

He came later than I expected.

1753. The usual superlative of *late* is *last*, which may refer to time or to order (opposite: *first*).

It happened on one of the last days of his life.

Among the many finely illustrated books of last season were several containing excellent interpretations of pictures.

The last news we heard was more favourable.

At the last meeting of the French Académie des Inscriptions M. Léon Dorez announced an interesting discovery. *Athenaeum* 28/1, 1908.

I have had opportunities during the last summer, in the course of a motor tour, of observing the actual condition of affairs in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 5.

In the last article was considered our subject under the headings of situation, aspect, outlook, and planning. In this article it will be the writer's endeavour to treat the matter more as regards details in construction and equipment.

Bibliophile II (1909).

1754. *Last* may also mean 'greatest' or 'very great'. In this meaning we also find *first*.

Keep both the letters about you and give them up to no one. They are of the last importance to your mistress's interest. Collins, *Woman in White*.

He rested the case for Home Rule on three grounds — the Imperial the Parliamentary, the Irish. They are all of the first, though not of equal importance.

Daily News, 9/2 '12.

His handwriting was cramped to the last degree.
Wells, *Country of the Blind* p. 467.

1755. *Latest* is used to express 'most recent'.

The corset illustrated here is the latest fashion for this season.

Messrs. Macmillan are to be congratulated on having secured as the writer of the latest of this charming series, one who is obviously steeped both in knowledge and love of the country he describes. *Athen.* 28/12, '12.

The act would suffice to condemn them, if it stood alone, but, as all the world knows, it is only the latest in a long chain of similar acts. *Times W.* 7/6, '18.

There is nothing but encouragement in the latest news that comes from the battle front. *Times W.* 13/4, '17.

1756. When order and time are contrasted we use *latest* to express time.

Mr. Patterson seems to intimate in the introduction to his latest book that it is intended to be his last.

Athenaeum 30/11, 1907.

Mr. George Edwardes is having some trouble in finding a suitable title for the new Gaiety production. "*The Latest Girl*" has been proposed. Might we suggest, following up this line of thought, that "*The Last Girl*" would please a great many playgoers?¹) *Punch.*

A pathetic interest attaches to this volume as the work upon which its brilliant author was engaged at the time of his death; and containing his latest utterances on the subject to which he had devoted his strenuous life, it will be doubly valued alike by his friends and the many admirers of his scholarship. *Athen.* 8/8, 1908.

(Here *last* would be wrong: the reviewer wishes to say that the book will be valued, first for being the last book of the author ('pathetic interest'), secondly for containing

1) This illustrates the statement that *last* refers backward, *latest* turns one's thoughts towards the future.

the writer's most recent contribution to the subject; *last* would repeat the first statement).

1757. In the following passages *latest* and *last* are used to refer to the same book in the same meaning on one page.

This little work in no way competes with the very excellent books of my friend Dr. Sweet. The *Primer of Spoken English* contains texts, but they are of an entirely different character from those I have chosen; his latest work, *The Sounds of English*, while dealing with many of the questions dealt with here, deals with them in a different manner and from a less special point of view. I ought to say, perhaps, that the main features of the present book were mapped out before the appearance of Dr. Sweet's last work. Wyld, Teaching of Reading.

Near **1758.** *Nearest* refers to neighbourhood in space or time, *next* to order in space or time. Hence, if we go from A via B to C, we can say shortly after leaving A, that B is the *next* town we shall pass through, although A is still the *nearest* town. And at ten minutes past twelve, twelve is the *nearest* full hour, but one is *the next*; but at ten minutes to twelve we may call twelve both the *nearest* and the *next* full hour.

The question whether it is so or not might be interesting, but there is next to no evidence either way.

Stubbs, Early Engl. Hist. p. 4.

Old **1759.** *Elder*, *eldest* are used attributively only. They are especially found before nouns expressing relationship to contrast or distinguish members of a group (usually the same family).

He had three sons. The two elder brothers failed in their attempt to win the hand of a princess. The youngest profited by their experiences.

A rich old Russian had three daughters.... The two eldest wished for trinkets, but the youngest said she had a request to make....

I was not an elder son¹). My brother inherited a pretty penny but I... was obliged to look around me for a livelihood.

Elder women are always consulted before younger ones are presented to them.

A young girl would (in such circumstances) wait for an elder woman to open the conversation²).

The elder girls of a school.

1760. In literary (or archaic) English *elder*, *eldest* are used attributively for the colloquial *older*, *oldest*; but in this case there is still some trace of the contrast: difference of rank is usually implied.

Herein I am justified by the elder texts.

Othello ed. Hart, Preface.

The elder man felt that the boy was trembling.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 6 § 2 p. 302.

The oldest of the Royal Knights is the Emperor of Austria; the next eldest is the King of Greece.

Note *elder* 'senior': *the elder Pitt; he is my elder by two years.*

1761. *Older* and *oldest* express superiority.

Charles thirty-eight years of age, was middle of the three brothers but he somehow looked the oldest... Andrew, the eldest, forty, Lord Staverton's right-hand man, was dark...

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 1 p. 9.

The Isolated Forms of Comparison

1762. The adjectives and adverbs enumerated in 1732 (*better*, *best*, etc.) have no related simple forms. The cause

1) Note the indefinite article before *elder son*. It shows that *elder son* expresses one idea, viz. *heir*.

2) In the same book:

A young girl, when presented to an older woman, waits for the latter to hold out her hand.

of this is that they are primarily used to express contrast, not superiority. When they are used as comparatives or superlatives of superiority, however, they can be looked upon as expressing a higher degree of a quality expressed by an adjective or adverb that is related in meaning and forms with them what may be called a *suppletive group*, such as is formed by verbal forms (*go* and *went*, *be* and *am*, *was*, etc.). Thus *better*, *best* form a suppletive group with *good* and *well*; *less(er)*, *least* with *little*; *worse*, *worst* with *bad(ly)*, *evil*, *ill*; *more*, *most* with *much*, *many*.

Former and *rather* are used to express contrast only, so that they do not form a suppletive group with any words of related meaning.

Some remarks may be added on these isolated forms.

Better, best 1763. In some cases *best* is used adverbially, to express the group-superlative of superiority of a participle.

Life seemed the better worth living because she had glimpsed death. Vachell, Spragge p. 191.

We, so lately promoted to the title of best-hated nation, have hardly had time to adjust ourselves to our privileges. Times Lit. 23/3, '16.

During the past twelve months I have been one of the best-abused men in the British Isles.

Morrell, Truth and the War.

Similarly *better proof* as a group in *It seems to be better proof against disease*.

1764. Special mention may be made of the use of *best* in the following type of sentence.

The former tramp up the road as best they can. Times W. 16/1, 1914.

When the regular investment of Khartoum had begun, . . . Gordon set his teeth, and sat down to wait and hope, as best he might.

Lytton Strachey, Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 87 f.

And, shutting his door on the strumming of the harpsichord, Soames closed his eyes again as best he could. Galsworthy, *Silver Spoon* I ch. 6 p. 46.

Less, least 1765. *Little*, when referring to quantity or number, compares *less, least*.

He received less money than he expected.

I think if we had had another week or two, and a few less helpers¹⁾, we might have got Mr. Densham in. Oppenheim, *As a Man Lives*.

I suppose you agree that 19 is less than 20.

In its foundation, and to a less degree, in its history, Westminster differs almost as much from Winchester and Eton as from Harrow and Rugby.

Westminster School.

It is possible to go even further, and to trace among primitive and disorderly peoples, no less than among more advanced nations, the controlling guidance of a few great ideas.

Powicke, *Medieval England* p. 13. See 1249 f. on *no*.

Note the use of *less* in the following sentence:

That was only a year ago, less one month.

1766. *Little*, when referring to size (opposite: *great, big*), is generally said to compare *smaller, smallest*. As *little* usually implies some personal feeling on the part of the speaker, which *small* does not, *smaller, smallest* are not really the degrees of comparison of *little*. Hence we find *littler, littlest* to express superiority, although rarely.

And that tenderness for little children... now made him forsake June and follow these littler things²⁾.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 7 p. 96.

The littlest things of daily life suggest songs to her. Academy 16/6, 1904.

1) Note that *less* is an adjunct to *few* here.

2) i. e. his grand-children.

The weather had suddenly hardened, a clear dry cold made the paths and road like metal, and not the littlest star was missing from the quivering assembly in the sky.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 11 § 23.

The superlative *least* is also found in this sense, but it is hardly natural English, so that few would approve of its use:

On the least finger of one hand was a seal ring.

Williamson.

1767. The use of *less*, *least* in the meaning of 'less important, least important' is obsolete except in the phrase *no less a person than*. We have an archaic use of *less*, *least* in the following.

The School was smaller than Winchester and Eton, and had a less place in the College of which it formed a part.

Westminster School.

It was not the least of Atterbury's services to the School that he brought back Nicoll to its labours. *ib.*

She loved everything, to the least hollow and secret spring and hidden place of flowers.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 6.

1768. It may be noted that it is occasionally impossible to tell 'size' from 'quantity'. Hence we find *a smaller*, but also *a less, amount; in a less*, but also *a smaller, degree*. Compare also:

The upper rafters have a less (= smaller) inclination than the lower ones.

They had been too long accustomed to tyranny and corruption to have the smallest (= least) faith in the new panacea.

Lesser is only used attributively, chiefly in the meaning of 'minor, less important' when we divide persons or things into two classes: *lesser* and *greater*.

Other similar memories of childhood dropped from him occasionally in his lesser writings. Forster-Gissing.

The lesser rivers of Asia Minor. To choose the lesser evil.

It was part of his programme to study the lesser (i.e. people) as well as the great. Castle, Rose of the World.

Note the phrases *the Lesser Bear, the Lesser Prophets, Lesser Asia*, also called *the Little Bear, the Minor Prophets, Asia Minor*.

Worse, worst 1769. *Worse* and *worst* are generally grouped suppletively with *bad* and *ill*. But we exceptionally find *more ill* to make the meaning of the comparative of superiority unmistakable.

Every Sunday they had a splendid congregation; and if the worse came to the worst they could restore the pew-rents. Cannan, Corner ch. 4 p. 33.

The road got worse and worse, until there was none at all. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 3.

... the feeling came to him that her father was even more ill than they had guessed.

Sedgwick, The Little French Girl II ch. 14 p. 207.

Rather 1770. *Rather* does not form a suppletive group with any word.

I would rather go now.

Could you tell me the way to Woodchurch, please?
I rather think I have lost my way.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 88.

It would seem that rather before the middle of the fifth century a great combination of Teutonic war-bands fell upon the province. Williamson, Evolution of England p. 32.

See 404.

Former 1771. Attributive *former*, as in *former times, a former president*, needs no comment. But the independent use of the comparative as an anaphoric word, resembling the personal and demonstrative pronouns, is of grammatical importance. In this function *the former* is

often contrasted with *the latter* (see 1750), sometimes *the (this) last*. The reference is to two persons or things.

Vives was consulted by the very founders of the study of British archaeology, the scholars John Twyne and Nicholas Wotton, the former one of Vives's students at Oxford, the latter a student under him at Louvain.

Times Lit. 25/11, '20.

Mr. Enfield and the lawyer were on the other side of the by-street; but when they came abreast of the entry, the former lifted up his cane and pointed.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 6.

Then Miss Henriette Prince goes on alone, and as Laetitia and Sally turn off the main road towards the home of the former, the latter says: "Now tell me all about the row."

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 18 p. 176.

1772. The comparatives formed from (or connected with) adverbs, such as *inner*, *upper*, *outer*, *utter* are exclusively used to express contrast, not superiority: *the upper lip*, *an inner wall*, *utter confusion*. See 1910.

The same can be said of the superlatives in *-most* enumerated in 1733, which denote position in place, with the exception of *utmost*.

More and Most

1773. *More* and *most* expressing quantity or number form a suppletive group with *much* and *many*. The comparative is also used to contrast two qualities, which makes *more* a synonym of *rather*.

In Béarn, where the oxen are more grey than dun-coloured, . . .

Times W. 4/1, '18.

He spoke rather as if he was more amused than annoyed.

Gaskell, Wives III p. 161.

The new thoroughfare leading from Sloane Street to Walton Street is rendered imposing by Queen Anne Mansions not more spacious than picturesque.

Escott, England I p. 132.

More is also used as a comparative of contrast in negative sentences.

Although royal justice was the chief method of progress under the early Plantagenets, it no more deserves unqualified praise than other human institutions.

Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 161.

1774. *More* and *most*, like *less* and *least*, can be used as adverbs to express the degree of a following adjective or adverb. In such groups each element may retain its independent character as in these sentences.

His extortions were the more resented since he kept no order (= resented the more).

Davis, *Med. Europe* p. 230.

The words sketch for us a scholar's life, the more touching in its simplicity that it is the life of the first great English scholar.

Green, *Short Hist.* p. 39.

The opposition to this Bill was none the less skilful and determined because it was working underground or behind the scenes.

Times W. 16/8, '18.

An amusement none the less genuine that it was mingled with an unconfessed admiration.

Herford, *Shakespeare* p. 19.

Sometimes, however, *more* and *most* are used as subordinate elements of a very close syntactic group which must be looked upon as a whole. Such groups are equivalent in meaning and in syntactic function to the simple comparative and superlative. This *group-comparative* and *group-superlative* is used with all adjectives and adverbs (including the verbal adjectives) that do not take the suffixes. The groups are also used when the derivatives in *-er* and *-est* exist; this makes it necessary to compare the two grammatical means of expressing contrast and superiority, which it seems convenient to do here rather than in the chapter on syntactic groups generally.

1775. The group-forms of comparison are used:

- (1) with adjectives and adverbs not belonging to the classes enumerated in 1723—5 f.

I never knew a man more entirely just in his dealings than Uncle James, or who regarded every species of meanness with a more thorough contempt.

Hugh Miller, *Schools* p. 36.

A good teacher is more valuable than a good examination.

History IV no. 14 p. 79.

No schools were more famous than those of Jarrow and York.

Green, *Short Hist.* p. 38.

The more tools we employ the more complex our world becomes, and the more agile must be the mind that is to make such a world its home. *Times Lit.* 24/7, '19.

Georgiana, then, is a rather elusive character. The more I see of her the less I understand her.

Allen, *Kentucky* ch. 6.

(The book) is too closely studded with Sanskrit terms to appeal to an indolent reader, but to qualified students it will be the more useful on this account. *Times Lit.* 5/1, '17.

The more closely related they became the sharper the distinction seemed to be between the clergy and the laity.

Powicke, *Medieval England* p. 134.

- (2) with verbal adjectives.

The most enduring side of their art was its wonderful craftsmanship.

Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

Molly came up to him with the softest steps, the most hushed breath that ever she could.

Gaskell, *Wives* III p. 164.

- (3) with compound adjectives. See 1730.

The more well-to-do tradesmen. *Essays* V 53.

His most well-to-do parishioners.

Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 50.

Macaulay was the most self-confident of men.

Bailey, *Johnson* p. 39.

May they not in reality have a wider and more far-reaching significance? *Nineteenth Century* Febr. 1908.

A better and more kind-hearted fellow does not exist.
Whatever was bravest and most true-hearted in Leicester.

All that was most intelligent, most courageous, most high-spirited among the Englishry.

1776. The use of the group-forms is sometimes due to the meaning or syntactic character of the 'adjective'. Thus adjectives that are exclusively used attributively or exclusively predicatively, and attributive nouns, invariably take the group-construction. See 1895.

Riga, the fallen Queen of the Baltic, was the most German town outside Germany. Times W. 31/8, '17.

Of course there is nothing to equal that wholesome smell of brown Windsor soap which pervades even the most cash of all cash chemists.

Temple Thurston, City I ch. 3.

1777. The absolute superlative (1743) generally takes the form with *most*, independently of the form or meaning of the adjective. The following examples are arranged according to the function of the group in the sentence: attributive (*a*), predicative (*b*), adverbial (*c*). Observe that *most* is a comparatively independent member of the syntactic group.

a. The deliverance of Jerusalem, though its influence on the war may be relatively remote, must remain for all time a most memorable event in the history of Christendom. Times W. 14/12, '17.

Everything about the place tells of the most dainty order, the most exquisite cleanliness.

Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 1.

Only by doing so can they obtain this most excellent remedy. Advt.

He is the vicar, and he is a most good man, whom I have always found most kind.

Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 5.

Thanks for your most kind note. Ainger p. 175.

The grammatical construction of Hungarian corresponds in many most important particulars with that of Finnish.
Athen. 29/2, 1908.

b. Our stay with Lord and Lady Aberdeen was also most pleasant.
Du Maurier in Ainger p. 144.

'Yes,' she thought, 'everybody has been most kind.'
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. I.

The enemy resistance was most stubborn.
Times W. 31/8, '17.

c. "Hullo, doctor," he called, "come in. You're most altogether welcome. I thought you were never coming again."
R. Keable, Recompence ch. 10 § 1 p. 237.

Important alterations have most certainly taken place.
Dicey, Constit.⁸ p. XLVIII.

He behaved most rudely.

In other cases both the simple forms and the group-forms of comparison are used. The difference between the two, if any, must now be discussed.

1778. End-stressed adjectives do not always take the suffixes; see 1728. This applies to most adjectives in two oral stops. But it may also apply to adjectives ending in an open with a stop. Thus, such a form as *robustest* would probably be avoided on account of the accumulation of sibilants, and perhaps still more because the two last syllables would end in the same consonant-group; but compare the literary *justest*.

There is evidence of his having acted with the most exact fairness throughout the investigation.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. I.

Some of the more eager ran alongside the rails.

Garvice, Lorrie p. 71.

He fled my mother's virtues before my distincter¹⁾ memories began.
Wells, Tono-Bungay.

1) The spelling suggests a combination of two stops here, but *distinct* ends practically in [-mʃ].

It is also for phonetic reasons that some adjectives in -er rarely take -er and -est, as *eager*, *proper*.

What more proper course could any one have adopted.
Times.

1779. It has been observed (1734) that adjectives expressing a contrast do not need, and generally do not take, the suffixes, for comparison is not really wanted.

In such cases the groups with *more* and *most* are used when the 'absolute' meaning of the adjective is not quite clear in the speaker's mind (*a*). The derivatives in -er and -est are rather literary than spoken English (*b*).

a. The figures of Spartacus, Montrose, Hofer, Garibaldi, Hampden, and John Nicholson were more real to him than the people among whom he lived.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 10 p. 113.

b. As for the parson, he is officially bound to believe that the conclusions of the Church as expounded by himself, are the very rightest that the human mind is capable of reaching. Pedder, *Where Men Decay* p. 56.

But we were not quite like our two selves when all things were at their rightest.

Morgan, *Vance* ch. 19 p. 183.

To have been more effective, it should have been juster.

Gaskell, *Life of C. Brontë* ch. 19.

Men who dwarf human nature do this. The gods are juster.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 24 p. 247.

At Westminster there is a juster reciprocity of position.

Trollope, *Three Clerks* p. 394.

Is it too much to hope that it may teach the Russian government that the justest policy is also the only policy which ultimately pays?

Everyman 7/7, '16,

No juster or more open-minded censor. A Dobson in Preface to *Scott's Lives of Novelists*.

Indomitable, remorseless, unhumorous, proud, the pose of the body was absolutely, one felt, the justest possible.

Walpole, *Duchess of Wrexhe* ch. 1 § 2.

1780. Adjectives (and adverbs) that can take the suffixes of comparison often take *more* and *most*. The reasons are chiefly stylistic. Thus, *more* or *most* may be preferred in order to preserve the balance of phrase when other adjectives occur that *must* take *more* or *most*, or are qualified by *less*, *least* (*a*); also when the adjective follows its noun (*b*). On the other hand, forms with the suffixes may be exceptionally used for the same reason as under *a* (*c*).

a. The more carefully the events of the last fortnight are studied, the more clear does it become that the force which has brought about the present astonishing situation is the Army. Spectator 8/8, '18.

(John Wilkes) asserted, incarnated, and championed the proud proverb that an Englishman's house is his castle. Cobbett was not more robust or less servile, and in this sense Wilkes had character.

Times Lit. 19/10, '17.

Lady Hester Stanhope's spirit was still more uncommon; and she met with a most uncommon¹⁾ fate.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 281 f.

He had grown more grave; he was certainly more of a man. Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 18.

London, again, is the most wealthy and one of the least commodious capitals in the world.

Escott, England I p. 128.

b. No Government measure had ever a background more grim or a justification more imperative.

Times W. 12/4, '18.

c. The children would have been juster, as they were kinder.

Times Lit. 12/4, '18.

The extremist must be right both morally and intellectually, merely because he is an extremist, and the farther he goes the righter he is. ib. 20/1, '16.

One comfort was that Anne was the patientest, gentlest invalid that could be. Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 17.

1) *Most* is the regular form in an absolute superlative.

From the cradle to the grave, fighting, rightly understood, is the business, the real, highest, honestest business of every son of man.

Hughes, *Tom Brown's Schooldays*.

Of all the insolent, all the foolish persuasions that by any chance could enter and hold your empty little heart, this is the proudest and foolishhest.

Ruskin, *Sesame*, Introd. p. XIII.

The schools were not progressive. Little was taught, he complains, except Latin and Greek, and that in the dullest and ineptest fashion. Athen. 21/9, '12.

She was always hearing a good many words besides from even the boldest and baddest characters.

Galsworthy, *Beyond*.

The kindest-hearted and gentlest of men.

Punch (*Poutsma II* p. 488).

1781. When two forms of comparison connected by *and* qualify the same noun, the same method of comparison is often used; see the quotations in the preceding section. If this is not done the form with the suffix generally precedes (*a*). This use occurs sometimes, for reasons of style, even when the form with the suffix would be normal for both (*b*).

a. Out of doors Nature wore her mildest, most beneficent aspect. Elizabeth, Priscilla.

Matter is incomparably subtler and more intricate than mind. Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 19.

She told him that he had a "degree" of talent, that he was the youngest and most ignorant person for his age that she had ever met. . .

Walpole, *Fortitude III* ch. 1 § 2 p. 235.

The wild cat is the shyest animal of our eastern forests, and yet the fiercest and most formidable.

Harper's *Monthly*, Jan. 1918.

Information about one of the grandest and most inaccessible parts. Times Lit. 2/11, '17.

b. Their usual quiet and holy life seemed quieter and more holy.
Shorthouse, Inglesant.

The combination *more quiet and shorter of words than usual* (see vol. 1, § 117 p. 95, last but one quotation) is to be explained from the fact that the two comparatives are quite independent of each other in the mind of the writer.

1782. If in a succession of comparatives or superlatives the two methods are mixed, this may be done for the sake of emphasis. For by using the different methods the adjectives are separated, and each makes its own effect.

English schoolboys were the happiest, healthiest, the laziest, most natural, most truthful, pluckiest, the most self-reliant, and the most original schoolboys in Europe.
Report in Times W. 9/1, '14.

In this quotation the emphasis is further increased by the repetition of the article. If the two adjectives are not intimately connected it may even be unavoidable to use the two methods. Thus, in the following quotation it would be hardly possible to use *most marked and early*.

In the strong vowels the most marked and earliest change is the smoothing of the O. E. diphthongs.
Sweet, Grammar I § 796.

1783. Sometimes the unusual form, both of adjectives and attributive nouns, is chosen because it is for that very reason the more emphatic one (*a*), or because it is very familiar English, or has a comic effect (*b*).

a. The most bitter criticism¹⁾ of the uncertainty of the methods of English common law has been offered by Bentham. Vinogradoff, Common Sense in Law p. 205.

1) The group-superlative may be used because the meaning is that of an absolute superlative.

Three members of almost the selectest company of great writers that the world can furnish.

Saintsbury, *Bookman* Sept. 1919.

He wanted to make his pictures alive-er and liker every time.

Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 7 § 3.

b. The young lady came out of the library, on the whole, comfortabler than she had entered it.

De Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 21 p. 214.

Well, it's the damnedest trade out. Anything's better. But you want to write?

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 6 § 3 p. 210.

You are the confoundedest jay that ever lived.

Punch.

I've got the rippingest hat.

ib.

Even the ugliest, reddest-faced, turnedest-up-nosed girl looked pretty.

Besant, *Ready Money Mortiboy*.

The wife is apt to remember that she is the bosomest of her husband's friends.

Trollope, *Prime Minister* ch. 3.

The Character of the Suffixes of Comparison

1784. Comparison has been treated in this book by way of appendix to the chapter on *Derivation*. Its derivative character, however, is not undoubted, and it is not to be wondered at that comparison is sometimes treated as a matter of inflection. In favour of this it may be argued that the suffixes of comparison leave the words the same 'part of speech', i. e. the words remain adjectives or adverbs, or either, as the case may be. And the derivative suffixes generally serve to shift a word into another class as well as to change its meaning.

As to the latter, it may be said that the suffixes of comparison, as far as they express a greater amount of a quality, do not seriously modify the meaning of the word. They do little more in this respect than the plural suffix to nouns in many cases. And they certainly do not more

seriously affect the function and the meaning of the simple word than the verbals in *-ing*, which are formed from nouns as well as from verbs.

But it must be remembered that the verbal *ing* itself is by no means characteristically inflectional, and might with equal justice, if not with more, be considered derivative. And it may be said, in favour of the derivative character of the forms of comparison, that their occasional character is unlike the regular inflectional, and in keeping with most derivative, forms. It must also be considered that the fundamental meaning is contrast, and that superiority is a development of it. And the existence of such words as *better*, *worse*, etc., which have no corresponding simple form, clearly shows that they are really independent words.

The result of these considerations may be summed up by calling comparison a transitional case between inflection and derivation.

CONVERSION

Introductory

1785. The absence of almost all formal distinctions in present-day English between the parts of speech makes it easy for a word to be used in different functions. Thus, although *dig* is generally a verb, we can say *to give a person a dig in the ribs*. In the latter expression *dig* is used as a noun, so that the verb *dig* has been converted into a noun. The speaker of Modern English, however, still feels that the word is 'properly' a verb. This is the reason why it is unusual for *dig* to be used in the plural, though the indefinite article might suggest that it is a class-noun.

Sometimes the conversion is even less complete. We may say: *She looks after the poor of her parish*; here the adjective *poor* has been converted into a noun but it cannot be used in a singular meaning, and *the poor* has no plural ending, though nouns in that meaning take such an ending.

Shiftings in the functions of words like these are examples of conversion in living English.

1786. When a converted word develops a meaning of its own, it often diverges so far from its original function that it is felt to be an independent word. Thus *vegetable* as a noun is not felt to be an adjective used as a noun, because the noun *vegetable* has a much narrower meaning than the adjective. Such cases of

complete conversion can only be known as such (at least with certainty) to the student of the history of language. From the standpoint of the speaker of the living language the words are homonyms.

Other instances of conversion having led to the development of independent words are the following: the nouns *goods; essentials; Latin Unseens* (i. e. passages to be translated which have not been announced before the lesson or examination takes place); *intimate; orderly; neutral; detective*; many nouns in *-ics*, as *mathematics, phonetics; editorial; elder*. They have completely diverged in meaning from the corresponding adjectives and may take all the formal characteristics of nouns (articles, genitive and plural ending). When we say *to take a walk* the noun may still be felt as converted from the verb, but in *a gravel walk* the meaning differs so widely from the verb that we must consider it as a word independent of the verb.

1787. Again, a word may remain the same part of speech and yet develop a meaning that is felt as belonging to a different word. A class-noun, e.g., may thus be used without an article, as in the following sentence:

We might dispense with Hague Conferences. War is going to cease because people adequately civilized will not endure hardness.

(In this sentence *war* is equivalent to the abstract word *fighting*.)

Consider also the collective meaning of words that are usually class-nouns in the following sentences:

(This method) allows the omission of wearisome and unnecessary detail, and a choice of characteristic incidents; it encourages the interpolation of anecdote and philosophic comment.

(The buffalo) is about the size of a large ox, of immense bone and strength.

A proper name may be used as a class-noun:

Knowing this a young *Westminster* (i.e. a boy at Westminster school) is sometimes puzzled.

In the following sections only those cases of conversion will be treated that are felt as such by a modern English speaker.

1788. Some cases of conversion are part of the language of every day, and of usual occurrence; the chief is the use of adjectives as nouns. Other instances of conversion are less common, as the use of verbs as nouns. It will be most instructive first to treat the cases that are the more important for the structure of living English, and to treat the less frequent or rare ones last.

The use of nouns as attributive adjuncts differs from all other cases. For the noun generally does not in any way become a real adjective, and, what is more important, the attributive use of nouns leads to the formation of syntactic groups that cannot be distinguished from compounds.

Adjectives as Nouns

1789. Attributive adjectives denoting a quality are often used as nouns to denote the persons possessing the quality, when they are thought of as a whole class. According to 1188 the classifying definite article precedes, but see 1793.

The poor never lost a right without being congratulated by the rich on gaining something better.

Hammond, *Village Labourer* p. 85.

A nurse looks after the sick, and not after those that are well ¹⁾).

We know nothing as yet of the prejudices of His Majesty King George V., excepting that up to now he has displayed a prejudice for leading the kind of life for which the shallow and the brainless and the vulgar have no particular admiration. Academy.

"Ah," thought Kate, to herself, "she has begun to feel sorry for me and has begun to stay away as people avoid the unhappy." Allen, *Mettle of the Pasture*.

The fortunate are satisfied with the possession of this world (compare the first quotation of 1802).

In the Country of the Blind the One-eyed Man is King. Wells, *Country of the Blind*.

It may be noted that the attributive *present* (*the present king of England*) does not denote a quality but refers to time. Hence it cannot be used as a noun to denote persons. But it can be used as a neuter noun; see 1791.

1790. Verbal adjectives and participles can also be freely converted into a noun denoting the persons as a class.

Teaching should be determined by the needs of the taught and not by the propensity of the professor.

Stanley Leathes, *Teaching of English*.

As the articulate voice of the numberless democratic army of the small, the miserable, the lamenting, and the crushed, Tolstoy is characterized as the greatest Christian author since the time of Christ. *Times Lit.* 5/8, '15.

If there is a joke he would be in it, one of the laughers, not one of the laughed at. *Times Lit.* 9/12, '15.

(He was) Mrs. Yeobright's occasional assistant in the garden, and therefore one of the invited.

Hardy, *Return of the Native* II ch. 6.

1) *Well* and *ill* when referring to health, cannot be used as nouns because they are used predicatively only, i.e. because they are not really adjectives but adverbs.

1791. Adjectives are also used as neuter nouns with the definite article. When there is no article, as in the last instance, the function seems to be rather adverbial.

In this war men have dared, and achieved, the incredible. Times W. 1/2, '18.

The Opposition to the Reform Bill is the last stand of conservatism against the inevitable. ib. 18/5, '17.

He (viz. Thomas Hardy in *The Dynasts*) has given us history more real and more true than that of the historians because he has alternated the great with the little. Times Lit. 19/2, '20.

The old ideas are in a state of flux and mingle strangely with the new in the tossing and whirling of the stream. And the new is often apprehended with the help of the old.

Norcombe Hill was one of the spots which suggest to a passer-by that he is in the presence of a shape approaching the indestructible as nearly as any to be found on earth. Hardy, *Madding Crowd*.

Mr. Algernon Blackwood has a perfectly ghoulish taste for the gruesome and the uncanny.

Athenaeum 11/1, 1908.

The incidents of the tale, though romantic, do not overleap the bounds of the possible. Academy 26/3, 1904.

His acute sense of the declamatory . . .

Meredith, *Beauchamp's Career*.

We want to distinguish between the false and the true. Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 1.

Even the "reviews" in this volume are in the nature of original essays, for Acton's conception of a review was well above the ordinary. Athenaeum 22/2, 1908.

Mr. S. has made a gallant and honest attempt to do the impossible. ib. 8/11, '13.

The afterglow of sunset was well over now and the dim of night creeping up. Wells, *Country* p. 76.

It is no doubt a step in the course of nature that the present age prefers its history in the raw.

Times Lit. 16/3, 22.

We do not know sufficient of the causes of climatic change at present to forecast the possible fluctuations of climatic conditions that lie before us.

Wells, *Short History* ch. 8.

1792. The use of a converted adjective in this sense with a possessive pronoun is restricted to literary English.

The office was not at its normal.

Bennett, *Roll-Call I* ch. 6 p. 53.

He first encouraged them to be at their most human and then convinced them that that was their natural character. Walpole, *Fortitude III* ch. 2 § 2 p. 248.

1793. In enumerations adjectives can be used to denote persons without any qualifier. See 1391 f. on the absence of the article. This applies equally to the two meanings that have been mentioned.

a. The theatre was full; — crammed to its roof; royal and noble were there. Brontë, *Villette* ch. 23 p. 261.

Bertie Stanhope, as he was generally called, was, however, popular with both sexes; and with Italians as well as English. Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 9 p. 70.

Everybody went to the Carshal races. It was one holiday outing in the year which gentle and simple felt bound to honour.

Garvice, *Lorrie* p. 57.

"With regard to opposition," Dr. Morrison replied, "nothing could be more incorrect. In no other part of the world do German and English work more cordially together than in China."

Daily Mail.

Irishmen and Scots, as well as English who had journeyed across the water . . . Wakeman, *Intro.* p. 30.

b. The whole educational situation in England is passing slowly from bad to worse. Times Ed. S. 6/6, '16.

For well or ill we have a Parliamentary system.

Observer 5/2, '22.

Traditionally we find no article in the following case.

His influence was not entirely for good.

Vachell, *Quinneys* p. 154.

1794. A converted adjective may be qualified by an adjective or an attributive noun.

a. He sought permission to leave Rome and devote himself to missionary work among the heathen English.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 10.

The "gems," as he called them, were taken to the Dream Cottage, and only shown to the worthy few.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 103.

Let it be admitted that the literary life is delightful for those who can afford to regard it as its own reward, and profitable enough to the comparative few who share its prizes.

Athenaeum 30/5, 1914.

She did not take her seat among the village poor.

W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

b. They (viz. *The Adventures of Mr. Polly* and *The Pickwick Papers*) belong to the handful of masterpieces of the pure comic.

Adelphi I 2.

1795. When the converted adjectives are preceded by an adverb we have conversion of a group of adverb and adjective into a noun: such a group as *comparatively poor* can be converted into *the comparatively poor*.

A proper supply of cow's milk to the comparatively poor.

Times Lit. 22/6, '16.

We feel that comment is impossible — impossible in presence of the monumentally absurd.

Times Lit. 28/1, '15.

1796. In literary English adjectives are also used as neuter nouns in adjuncts with *of*, generally qualifying a pronoun. See also 1464 on *of*-adjuncts.

The French Revolution broke out. An electric shock ran through the nations; whatever there was of corrupt and retrograde, and, at the same time, whatever there was of best and noblest, in European society shuddered at the outburst of long-pent-up social fires. Huxley.

All we have willed or hoped or dreamed of good shall exist.

Browning, Abt Vogler X.

We have lost not only what there was of absurd in such a method but also what made it expressive and telling. Eng. Rev. Dec. 1913.

And in that fact was the keynote of what there was of unusual — of unconventional, one might almost phrase it — in her way of receiving and requiting his declaration. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14. p. 138.

In Siberia's wastes

Are sands and rocks.

Nothing blooms of green or soft,

But the snowpeaks rise aloft

And the gaunt ice-blocks. Mangan.

1797. The conversion of attributive adjectives into personal and neuter nouns is a general means of forming new words, although a good many adjectives are not so converted. Here, as in other cases of word-formation, tradition plays an important part.

In a number of words the conversion of adjectives is not restricted to the two meanings (class of persons and neuter noun) illustrated. These uses are partly traditional, but in other words the conversion is essentially different from the two kinds discussed until now. The change of function is often due to the absence of a noun that is understood because it concerns a matter, often of a technical kind, that is continually present to the minds of the speakers and hearers. See 1848 ff.

1798. A number of adjectives are traditionally used as nouns to denote persons looked upon as a complete group, but not necessarily the whole class. Hence they can be preceded by other adjuncts than the definite article, e. g. demonstrative or possessive pronouns and numerals (*a*). They are rarely found without any 'qualifier (*b*), apart from the case mentioned in 1793.

This use of adjectives to denote groups of individuals

is specially found in technical language (e. g. in lists of casualties: *200 killed, 700 wounded*).

a. His (i. e. Micawber's) mind to him a kingdom was; he was one of those splendid and triumphant poor who have the faculty of capturing, without a coin of money or a stroke of work, that ultimate sense of possessing wealth and luxury which is the only reward of the toils and crimes of the rich.

G. Chesterton, *Bookman* May 1914.

It (viz. the county) is purely agricultural; agricultural in its produce, agricultural in its poor, and agricultural in its pleasures. Trollope, *Dr. Thorne* p. 1.

He now racked his brain for an excuse to achieve the idle bliss of these charmed few.

Sinister Street, p. 274.

We are glad to see also that Lord Kitchener praises de Wet's conduct towards our wounded.

Pilot 4/1, 1902.

When it is a question of these English¹⁾, one can always be sure! Bennett, *Old W. Tale* III ch. 4 § 5.

I saw several injured lying on the Plateau after the charge.

The shelter is a huge establishment which nightly houses about 2,700 homeless poor.

Daily News 28/12, '11.

b. A new class of rich were stepping into the breaches made in the social structure.

Einstein, *Tudor Ideals* p. 133.

1799. Some adjectives or participles are used in the meaning of a singular as well as a plural noun denoting a person: *the deceased, accused*. The conversion is incomplete, however, as the nouns are used without a plural ending.

The medallion, with your mother's picture and yours, lies always on my heart. Every night before I lie down

1) The speaker is a Frenchman. See 1806.

to rest, I look at the pictures, and bless both the living and the dead. Buchanan, *That Winter Night* ch. 3.

Wild weather has put a stop for the time being to all preparations for raising the submarine A 3, with her burden of fourteen dead. Daily News 5/2, '12.

"What is a new star to me?" cried the weeping woman kneeling beside her dead.

Wells, *Country of the Blind*, p. 312.

There are four other accused, namely an engineer, called . . . Daily News.

Every day sees a new host of workless walking the streets. ib. 26/3, 12.

We have the same conversion in the case of names of nations in *-ese* and the adjective *Swiss*. See 785.

1800. The conversion of adjectives into singular personal nouns is also incomplete in that they are never used in the genitive in spoken English. The genitive occurs occasionally in written English.

The funeral of the late Sir Edward Cargill, Bart. was largely attended by the deceased's many relatives and friends. Hobbes, *Some Emotions* II ch. 2.

The excellence of the accused's character.

Times Lit. 23/2, '22.

1801. There are cases that adjectives are used as plural nouns, both for persons (*a*) and for things (*b*), with a plural ending, so that we might speak of these as examples of complete conversion. Still, the use as nouns is often so rare that the linguistic sense more or less distinctly considers them as adjectives. The use is frequent in familiar (often jocular) language. Many cases are due to their use in technical language; this is sometimes indicated by inverted commas.

a. O, don't bother, Maggie! you're such a silly.

George Eliot, *Mill on the Floss* I ch. 5.

Men were great sillies. Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 26.

Very well then, I'll take you, my dears.

In the old Park Lane days they had known so many fashionables who had ended in the bankruptcy or divorce courts. Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 2 p. 18.

Our Arab friendlies¹⁾ declare that

Pall Mall Gaz. (NED.).

The men in charge of these periodicals were literary stalwarts having the courage of their convictions.

Fortnightly Rev. Oct. 1908.

As the whirl of dust drew nearer to the solitary bluff upon which the two castaways were reposing.

Conan Doyle, *Study in Scarlet*.

For the "grown-ups" there is little that is new just now. Queen (newspaper).

It furnishes police courts with disorderly drunks.

Morrison, *Tales of Mean Streets* p. 9.

A pair of innocents.

Browning, *Red Cotton Night-cap*.

b. Heinemann's Latest Sevenpennies.

But a tea in the North countries depends for distinction, not on its solids or its savouries, but on its sweets.

H. Ward, *Robert Elsinere* I ch. 2.

Now for a few russets, Tamsin. He used to like them almost as well as ribstones²⁾.

Hardy, *Native* II ch. 2 p. 134.

Words which appear to be compounds have sometimes to be sought under their simples.

Plummer, *Two Saxon Chron.* I p. 298.

1) i. e. a friendly tribe of Arabs. The singular noun *friendly* is specially used as a technical term:

When an inter-club match is called a 'friendly', the inference as to what a league match means is fairly easy. Punch.

2) Both *russet* and *ribstone* are names of kinds of apples, the former from the adjective of colour, the latter from *Ribstone Park* (Yorkshire) and illustrating the conversion of an attributive noun in a special (technical) meaning.

1802. Many of these converted adjectives are chiefly or exclusively used in the plural.

a. His field of observation was far narrower than that of the fortunates whom duty calls. Pilot 21/5, 1904.

You can, however, by incorporating two or three captains of the great army of truisms bequeathed to us by ancient wisdom, fix in your service those veteran old standfasts to check you. Meredith, Egoist p. 224.

The rout of the Socialists has been intensified and the "Reds" who left the Reichstag 79 strong, and in the confident hope of coming back with increased numbers, will return with no more than 43 seats at their command. Times W. 7/2, 1907.

b. The empty houses are due to the builders going on building whilst the influx of population has not continued at the same rate as in some recent years. The chances are that the empties in Lewisham are no more than they are in any other borough.

Standard 22/5, 1906.

We shall be in the dolefuls all the year (i. e. in a doleful state).

The little disagreeables of life.

A few happy words and phrases, promoted, for some accidental fitness, to the wider world of letters, are all that reach posterity; the rest pass into oblivion with the other perishables of the age. Raleigh, Style p. 32.

1803. We also use the plural of adjectives when referring to things just mentioned; hence in a case where the propword *one* could be used. This practice, too, is frequent in technical English (*a*), whence it has passed into familiar speech (*b*).

a. The number of weekly papers, from the expensive illustrateds down to the cheap tit-bitty papers, is always increasing.

The advantage of light troops in opposition to heavies. Meredith, FEVEREL ch. 2.

b. Don't put your black shoes on; you can wear your browns to-day.

Playing at draughts: Which will you have, the whites or the blacks?

1804. In some cases, probably all traditional, the converted adjective is exclusively used as a singular personal noun. This competes with the use of the personal indefinite pronoun (not the prop-word) *one*.

Margaret could be pleasant to anybody, but this intruder would soon find that she herself was loyal to the absent ¹⁾. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 37.

The words of Sam and Humphrey on the harmony between the unknown ²⁾ and herself had on her mind the effect . . . Hardy, Native II ch. I p. 131.

Adjectives denoting languages **1805.** Adjectives can be used as nouns to denote languages.

French is taught as the first foreign language.

The French he speaks would hardly be recognized as such in France.

Honours graduate who has published both translations and original work will undertake translating from the French. Advt.

Adjectives denoting nationality **1806.** Some adjectives form compounds with *-man*, *-woman*, plural *-men*, *-women*; see 765, 1719. To denote the whole nation, however, the adjective is used, with the classifying article.

There was as yet very little consciousness of nationality. Men did not classify themselves as Frenchmen, Dutchmen, and Germans, but as peasants, churchmen, and knights. Williamson, Evolution of England p. 87.

1) i. e. the man to whom M. was engaged. We also find *the absent one*: 1271 c.

2) i. e. the unknown man. The pronoun *one* is never used.

Good Dutchmen when they die go to Scheveningen;
but my heaven is elsewhere.

E. V. Lucas, *A Wanderer in Holland* ch. 6. p. 82.

There can be little doubt of the Celtic origin of the
bulk of the modern French, yet their language is Latin.

Stubbs, *Lect. Early Engl. Hist.* p. 235.

1807. The converted adjectives are also often used when
individuals are referred to; we can also use them with
people.

The race went off without a hitch, the rival crews
became excellent friends, and young English and Americans
learned to understand and appreciate one another.

No Irish need apply (Advertisement).

The claim seems to us to be just. Certain Irish say
that the literature cannot be national because it is not
written in Irish. Certain English say that it cannot be
more than provincial because it is written in English.

Times Lit. 19/11, '17.

Dutch people are frequently found comparing their
educational system with that of other countries.

1808. The same applies to *British*, which has no cor-
responding noun in *-man*¹⁾.

Pursued by the advancing French and British.

Times W. 30/3, '17.

1809. Many names of nations have adjectives in *-ish*
formed from the noun: *Polish, Danish, Jewish*, etc. As in
the case of *wood* and *wool* (1868), the noun is used when
it is a part of a group.

He is of a Polish Jew family settled in the Baltic
provinces of Russia. *Sweet, Spoken English.*

1) There is a noun *Britisher*; as to its standing compare the following.

It was at this point (of the auction) that Mr. Ling (an American),
who had been meditating, began to take notice ... How slowly these
Britishers (for he always used that offensive term) were creeping up.

Squire, Grub Street p. 98.

Adjectives denoting colours 1810. Adjectives denoting colours are freely used as nouns to denote the shades of the colour ¹).

The hair so scant and grizzled in later days was then of a rich brown.

Little streaks and shreds of pink.

Wells, Country p. 41.

Only a few leaves had fallen as yet; so that browns, from a pale golden to a dark rich tint, were not too prominent among the greens.

We have different cases in *the white of an egg*; *The Signor saw in a fog as a cat sees in the dark* (Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 2 p. 162).

Comparatives and Superlatives 1811. The conversion of adjectives with the suffixes of comparison, and of the corresponding groups with *more* and *most* requires separate treatment.

1812. Both the derivative forms of comparison and the groups with *more* and *most* are used to denote persons as a class (*a*) and as neuter nouns (*b*).

a. The very best of us have a stain of selfishness. The most understanding of us are unable to a nicety to grasp the other person's point of view.

Temple Thurston, City III ch. 15 p. 343.

... in keeping with the more thinking among mankind.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 5.

The more devout of English Churchmen and English kings had made their pilgrimages to Rome.

Wakeman, Introduction p. 92.

She acted as the most exemplary might have acted, being so influenced. Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 143.

1) Of course they may also denote other meanings; what has been said in the preceding sections applies to these adjectives as well. Thus *blue* may be used technically for a blue-coat boy (a scholar of Christ's College), or for a bluestocking, etc. See also *reds* in 1802.

b. It was the young lady who came to see the Italian picture at the restorer's studio in Chelsea, a little over six months past. She had changed for the older since then. de Morgan, *Likely Story* ch. 3 p. 97.

To change for the better, etc.

1813. The use of the simple comparative to denote a single person is purely literary, spoken English using the pronoun *one* or a substantive.

A wiser than she would have selected the post-prandial hour. Vachell, *Quinneys'*.

Like a greater than himself, to the critical question at the critical time he did not answer; and they were again silent. Hardy, *Tess*.

1814. The derivative superlative is used as a neuter noun in a number of constructions that must be treated in some detail. We can distinguish four constructions:

- (1) the converted superlative with a definite article;
- (2) the converted superlative with *at*, and a definite article or not;
- (3) the converted superlative with a reflexive possessive;
- (4) the converted superlative with both *at* and a reflexive possessive.

The superlatives are in all four cases used to express superiority. The first two of the constructions enumerated, as used in adverb adjuncts, have been fully illustrated in 1189 f.; see also 1742.

1815. The converted superlative with a reflexive pronoun is used as an adverb adjunct to express superiority of the subject at a given time or in given circumstances. The subject is a person; compare 1824. On the possessive, compare 1196 ff.

Harry began to whistle: a sign in him that he was thinking his hardest. Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 32 p. 349.

Carver smiled his pleasantest.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 28 p. 182.

It is not the English way to deal hardly with an honourable foe who has fought his hardest and been fairly beaten.

Pilot 25/1, 1902.

She smiled her sweetest on Mr. Towers.

Trollope, Framley ch. 29.

How beautiful the park looked, filled with the thronging people dressed in their gayest and best.

Burnett, Fauntleroy last ch.

The boy always reckoned that, walking one's quickest, it took half an hour from the door of The Bending Mule to Scaw House, where his father lived.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 2.

1816. The superlative with *at* and a reflexive possessive is used predicatively (*a*), and also attributively to a preceding noun (*b*). Its meaning is the same as in 1815.

a. But Miss E. is not at her best when the scope of the picture is on a larger scale.

Athenaeum 28/12, '12

But our Platonist is at his happiest when he endeavours to persuade a little girl of the separate existence of the soul.

Edinb. Rev. April 1908.

She knew that she looked at her best in this attire.

Garvice, Staunch as a Woman p. 83.

He was the most convinced of Londoners because it was in London that life, which to him meant the exercise of the intellectual and social faculties, was to be found at its eagerest and fullest.

Bailey, Johnson p. 133.

Mr. Max Beerbohm is at his most amusing in his papers on the Englishman's speaking of French and on the way in which an eminent man should receive an ardent young admirer.

Times Lit. 7/10, '20.

She first saw the hill at its gayest, when that brief, brilliant hour before autumn bedecked Cosdon.

Phillipotts, Beacon I ch. 6 p. 43.

The steps are at their steepest just here.

Peard, Madame p. 74.

He was at his most brilliant — really wonderful.

Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 7 § 3 p. 312.

b. He was the type of English young manhood at its healthiest and most vigorous. *Times Lit.* 9/8, '18.

There is no surer way of testing the greatness of a really great writer than by consideration of his work at its weakest, and comparison of that comparative weakness with the strength of lesser men at their strongest and their best.

Swinburne, *Dickens* p. 43.

Occasionally this superlative is used adverbially.

For the charm of February is that the weather no longer matters; it is a month at its best of all hope, and at its worst of no disappointment.

Times W. 22/2, '18.

1817. Instead of the possessive pronoun we find the definite article to express superiority over other specimens of the class. This construction occurs with the predicative superlative only, evidently owing to the close resemblance of function between predicative adjectives and adverbs.

They were at the lowest now, they could not be worse.

Gaskell, *North and South* ch. 8.

1818. The forms of the converted superlative have been summed up in 1814 under four heads, or five if the two forms in 1814, 2 are distinguished. It has been shown that they all express superiority rather than contrast, and that the superlatives with an article are used to compare different persons or things, those with *at* or a possessive pronoun the same person or thing at different times or places.

The use of the converted superlative must be distinguished from the independent use, i. e. the use without a substantive because this is mentioned elsewhere, and the context makes its repetition unnecessary: *Of the four children Mary was the youngest.*

And if we still hold that the Pauline theology grew in the main out of his experience, we are, as M. Loisy will admit, in the best of company.

Times Lit. 25/12, '19.

1821. ¶ When the noun in the *of*-adjunct is plural it is often a matter of indifference whether the superlative is understood as a relative or as an absolute superlative.

Thus he was perfectly rational, though when others beheld him he appeared the insanest of mortals.

Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 6 p. 61.

This most extraordinary man (viz. Bishop Berkeley) succeeded for a time in communicating something of his own spirit to some of the most selfish of politicians.

Lecky, *Hist. Engl. 18th Cent.* 1 p. 499.

He has attempted an interpretation of the work and personality of that most baffling and original of modern authors, Mr. H. G. Wells.

Fisher Unwin's *M. A. B.* June, 1915.

Frequent lapses at critical moments into that most tiresome of devices, the narrative present tense.

Times Lit. 8/7, '15.

1822. Sometimes the meaning is distinctly that of a relative superlative.

Upon one of the greatest of questions upon which men must always ponder, there is still much to be profitably said.

Times Lit. 30/11, '15.

1823. The meaning is always that of a relative superlative when the plural noun in the *of*-adjunct is preceded by the article or by *all*.

The Lord's birth is the most joyous and universal of the festivals of Christianity, the most beautiful of Christian stories ¹⁾, the most gracious and human of the subjects of Christian art.

Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

1) Note the absence of the article here.

They are a compendium of close, reasoned, and instructed thought upon the most pressing of the questions which will be upon us when the tyrant pressure of the war is relaxed. Times W. 5/1, '17.

Oh, yes, certainly; I am the most vulgar of all wretches in that respect. Trollope, Framley ch. 29 p. 282.

1824. The superlative of adjectives used as nouns in an *of*-adjunct containing the stem of a noun often expresses a very high degree.

Their map was of the vaguest. Times Lit. 11/3, '20.

I consider your expression of the least ceremonious. Brontë, Villette ch. 2.

At all times her dress was of the poorest.

Peard, Madame p. 28.

An hour later the doctor arrived from Framlingham in his trap with Ben at his side. His examination was of the briefest. Freeman, Joseph ch. 1 p. 5.

Mr. Edward Hutton, the historian of Ravenna, finds in these same matters an allegory of the plainest.

Times Lit. 9/9, '15.

Compare the attributive superlative with the same meaning in the following quotation with a plural noun.

Humphrey's ideas of time were always of the vaguest order. Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 3.

1825. Before *of*-adjuncts the superlative seems to take the form in *-est* even when the balance of the phrase might suggest the other form.

He found the bishop in the most placid and gentlest of humours. Trollope, Barchester.

Style, the Latin name for an iron pen... By a figure, obvious enough, which yet might serve for an epitome of literary method, the most rigid and simplest of instruments, has lent its name to the subtlest and most flexible of arts. Raleigh, Style.

Comparative and Superlative 1826. When *more* and *most* are followed by *of*-adjuncts they may be considered as nouns, but as far as meaning goes *more of*, *most of*, are generally rather adjuncts to the following noun.

As I gazed upon her, steadfastly, yearningly, yet with some reproach, and more of pride than humility, she made me one of the courtly bows which I do so much detest. Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 66.

Most of the men wore red waistcoats.

1827. In expressing the higher degree of a quality in one out of two persons or things the converted superlative is usual in spoken English (*a*); in writing the comparative is often preferred (*b*).

a. There are two roads. I wonder which is the shortest. Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 35.

b. Both of the common English owls deserve strict protection, but the white or barn owl is the more useful of the two. Times W. 20/4, '17.

These five or six have also blue eyes, whereas among the Rassendylls dark eyes are the commoner.

Hope, *Zenda*.

Adjectives as Verbs

1828. Some adjectives are used as verbs, as *to idle*, *to round*, *to square*, *to thin*, *to pale*, *to dry*, *to cool*.

In studying these conversions it should be remembered that a form in *-ing* or *-ed* is not a proof of the existence of a complete verbal system: they may be isolated substantival or adjectival forms. Thus *greying* is frequent enough (*a short greying beard*: Bennett, *Buried Alive*, ch. 1; *greying hair*: H. C. Newte, *Sidelights* p. 169), also *greyed* (*Hilda looked at Sarah Gailey's bowed head, but little greyed*: Bennett, *Hilda Lessways* p. 221)¹) but this

1) These quotations are borrowed from *English Studies* 11, 3 (Suppl. p. 4 f.).

does not prove the existence of a verbal system of the stem *grey*. See 145 ff., and also 1832.

Thus idling her precious time over the common occupations of life.

What rounded the earth and planets?

The daring adventurer rounded the Cape of Good Hope.

The little green apples grew and rounded and yellowed.

Chemically whited bread. Daily Mail.

There wasn't one of us that was fit to speak to him, to look at him, to black his boots.

Eng. Rev. Sept. 1913.

The "Lokalanzeiger" specials announce that Zeppelin III. descended safely after flying very low and slowing at the landing place at Nuremberg at a quarter past four.

They gave him a cheer as they passed, with engines slowed down to make the wash from the steamer as slight as possible.

I remember that as the horses slowed to a steep slope, snorting and sweating, we'd turn to smile at each other like two children.

It is something between a fairy-tale and an 'Imaginary Portrait'. The style has quieted; the teller of the tale is hardly discernible. Athenaeum 16/5, 1908.

1829. The conversion of adjectives into verbs is not very common because in many cases there are verbs formed from adjectives with the suffix *-en*; see 1627 f. Sometimes both forms exist, as in *to dull*, *to dullen*, *to black*, *to blacken*, but both of these derivatives in *-en* are rare ¹⁾.

Without laughter in it, the heart is a stone, dulled by a flaw. Temple Thurston, City III ch. 6.

She struggled feebly to quieten her nerves.

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 17.

1) But there may be differentiation of meaning: always *blacken* in a derived sense, as in *to blacken a man's character*.

Adjectives as Adverbs

1830. A great many words are used both as adjectives and as adverbs. Usually, however, it is difficult if not impossible to decide whether the word is primarily an adjective or an adverb. Hence we must be content to state the fact that one form serves for the adjective and the adverb functions. See 943 ff.

The form of adjectives in *-ly* sometimes causes them to be mistaken for adverbs.

He thinks as a consequence of this, that it may be possible to live visually in one part of the world, while one lives bodily in another. Wells, *Country* p. 100.

The walls of the ravine showed ghostly grey, then faintly pink. Dell, *Way of an Eagle* ch. 5 p. 53.

What he understands, Mr. Bennett understands so thoroughly and can so lively express that the limits to his understanding seem all the more to be deplored.

Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

Starting forth alone she found soon Derek by her side. Brotherly he took her arm and proposed a look at the shops.

D. C. Jones, *Everlasting Search* II ch. 16 p. 279.

1831. Adjectives are very generally used as adverbs of degree. Sometimes, as in the last three quotations, it is very difficult to say whether a word qualifies the noun or the following adjective; this is the cause of the 'conversion', as is also shown by the inflectional ending in some languages (Fr. *toute belle*, etc.: see Meyer-Lübke, *Rom. Synt.* § 130, and Paul, *Wtb.* s.v. *ganz*).

The door was wide open.

Mr. Poel's performances stand clear outside the comparison. Pilot.

It is necessary, too, in the novel of conversation to leave much to the imagination of the reader. The average reader has mighty little. Academy.

I was deadly ¹⁾ tired. I was dead tired.

He was very shy, absurdly shy, tortured shy.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 15.

Hang it all, I couldn't carry Elizabeth all the way to London. She's so damned plump.

W. Somerset Maugham, The Circle, in Br. Pl. p. 641.

The road was dead solitary. Stevenson, Donkey p. 30.

It is pretty warm here.

He took precious good care to stay away.

The night was bitter cold. Compare: The weather was rainy and bitterly cold. Pilot 8/3, 1902.

The Right Reverend the Bishop of London.

It is beastly cold to-day.

In summer this is a nice place, but in winter it is jolly cold.

It was pouring with rain, and we drove in two cabs through the horrible dirty streets.

G. Cannan, Round the Corner p. 93.

A thorough good fellow. Hichens, Ambition ch. 7.

A thorough good Tory. Meredith, FEVEREL p. 9.

A blackbird has been known to be pure white.

Temple Thurston, The Open Window p. 43.

Some of these groups are rather compounds, as *bitter cold*, *right reverend*, *clear outside*, *wide open*; this character is in agreement with the restriction of these 'adverbs' to these groups. Words like *pretty* (*pretty good*), on the contrary, can be freely used with any adjective.

Nouns as Verbs

1832. Nouns are often used as verbs. Whereas the use of verbs as nouns is rather limited, we may practically say that any noun may be used as a verb ²⁾.

1) Compare *mortally wounded*.

2) Unless, of course, there is a corresponding verb with an identical meaning, as in *food: to feed*. But *to loan* occurs by the side of *to lend*: The veil was loaned by Mrs. . .

Thus we have *to cudgel, to powder, to oil, to wall in, to brick up, to bell (the cat), to metal, to provision, to water, to colour, to paper, to match, to fire, to fringe, to cover (a book), to letter (one's linen), to carpet, to gum, to varnish, to man, to chaperon, to people, to tar, to counterfeit, to mother, to breast (rough weather)*, etc.

The greengrocer rang the bell just as his mother was going to bath little Billy. Bo-Peep, Cassell 1913.

(The room) can conveniently seat about fifty boys.

The Ambassadors were gazing out of the window of the upper room adjoining, and one of them snapshotted me as I went by.

A band of patriots appeared one morning early, surrounding his father's ranche, spearing the watch-dogs and hamstringing a fat cow all in the twinkling of an eye, to the cries of "Viva la Libertad!" Conrad, Set of Six.

The footman valets and waits on the guests who do not bring their own valet.

I found myself invalidated out of the army.

The inspector motored back to Scotland-yard.

Everything went wrong, and to top up with I got the fever badly.

The influence of the prophet and the dreamer over Indian superstition has been fully evidenced in recent instances of Indian warfare.

Father Christmas tip-toed softly to the bedside of the little golden-haired maiden and laid a hand gently on her curls.

It is a piquant list for those who can X-ray it.

Observer 3/4, '21.

Then the summer vacation came. It began on a Friday; and . . . Steve was billed to speak at two political meetings.

Patterson, Compton p. 126.

My wife thought it would be an artful plan to lunch him well first, and talk business with him afterwards¹⁾.

Strand Mag. July 1925 p. 89/2.

1) But compare 1839.

The doctor made a thorough revolution in his household, and furnished his house from the ground to the roof completely. He painted — for the first time since the commencement of his tenancy — he papered, he carpeted, and curtained, and mirrored, and lined, and blanketed, as though a Mrs. Thorne with a good fortune were coming home to-morrow; and all for a girl of twelve years old. Trollope, *Dr. Thorne* p. 31.

But ought such a neologism as “to leaf [not to loaf] through a book” to be permitted in a Cambridge Literary History, even if produced in Columbia ¹⁾?

Times Lit. 17/7, '19.

Conversely certain nouns are corruptly used as verbs. Our author gives as an example *to feature*, to which might be added the equally odious *to stress*, *to sense*, and *to glimpse*. *To collide* and *to obsess* appear to have established themselves, and we fear it would be vain to resist *to aggress* and *to conscript* ²⁾. Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

She glimpsed an immense opportunity of impressing George. Vachell, *Spragge* p. 53.

It had begun when Millie had been very small and Katherine had mothered her.

Walpole, *Green Mirror* I ch. 3 p. 47.

People who knew him very slightly would refer to him kindly behind his back as “poor little Mackenzie”, though they addressed him as “Wile”; he was very seldom Mistered, whether in his presence or out of it.

Squire, *Grub Street* p. 87.

OR forms in *-ing* and *-ed*, see 1828, and the sections on back-formation: 1909 ff. Some cases are mentioned in 6 ff. (*to shine*, *to pen*).

1833. The following sentences illustrate some recent cases, some of them no doubt nonce-formations.

1) i. e. Columbia University.

2) Note that *to obsess*, *to aggress*, and *to conscript* are not the results of conversion, but back-formations from *conscript*, *aggression*, *obsession*.

Dust the spare room or *vacuum* it.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 20.

Send off a message to Scotland Yard. Tell them to *wireless* a description of any individual who may be wanted in connection with them.

Strand Mag. Aug. 1927 p. 179.

Twelve kilometres from breakfast. Thirty from tea. No, we don't *tea* before Florence. Go and wash.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 4. p. 60.

Hilary and Peter *gondoled* to Lord Evelyn Urquhart's residence.

ib. ch. 7 p. 90.

... or *cab* him off to the police-station or the work-house.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 32.

Stay as long as you like. I am going to *hare* about on Hampstead Heath. Goodbye, old man.

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 21 p. 134.

If another man and I were devilish hungry and there was only one mutton chop between us and he said: "You eat" — I wouldn't waste a lot of time arguing. I'd *wolf* it before he changed his mind.

W. Somerset Maugham, The Circle, in Brit. Pl. p. 639.

What could tender-hearted Violet Verity say. She was *emotined* by the whole incident.

B. Ruck, The Clouded Pearl I ch. 1 § 5 p. 23 f.

... while she *dog's eared* her music.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 20 p. 200.

1834. On nouns converted into intransitive verbs with the pronoun *it* (*to lord it, to queen it*), see 1017.

On formations like *out-trashing the trashiest*, see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

Sometimes a group of adjective and noun is used as a verb.

To cold-shoulder a person.

The State (in England) is more concerned with restricting than encouraging enterprise, and the banks *wet-blanket* it by stiffly adhering to antiquated principles.

Times Lit. 29/10, 14 p. 478/3.

1835. It would be possible to classify these converted nouns according to the meaning of the resulting verb. Some express:

1. *to be*, or *to act as*, or *like*, e.g. *clerking*, *governessing*, *to mother*, *to valet*, *to lord it*.

2. *to use* as an instrument or *to treat with*, e.g. *to cudgel*, *to powder*, *to oil*, *to tar*, *to gum*, *to varnish*.

3. *to affect* by producing change, e.g. *to colour*, *to letter*.

It is to be feared, however, that such a classification would be of no grammatical value.

Verbs as Nouns

1836. Verbs are often used as nouns denoting the action, especially if there is no corresponding noun to denote that meaning.

Most of these nouns are used in the singular only; some occur only in certain expressions, especially with an indefinite article. The conversion of verbs into nouns is also limited by the existence of suffixes to form nouns from verbs, such as *-ing*, *-ship*, *-er*, *-ee*, *-ster*. See the sections on *Derivation*.

To have a wash, a shave, a smoke; she had a good cry; to make a move; to go for a row, etc.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 10.

I begged the Boers to give my horse a feed.

Give me a lift.

He is always on the go.

Times are on the mend. Spectator 14/1, 1928.

On the boil, off the boil.

I cannot bear the feel of flannel near my skin.

In our next number it is proposed to publish some illustrations of the exhibit of the Oxford University Press at the Brussels International Exhibition.

Every upward send emptied the noble little craft, like pulling out a plug in a washbasin.

Another half-hour brought us to a divide of the road.

His horse was accommodated where it might have the necessary rest and feed of corn.

She had heard, within the minute, the stop of a cab at her door.
Henry James, *Golden Bowl*.

Is it as late as that? I was just going to settle down to another read.

The luxury of a good swear has hitherto seemed as distinctively masculine a prerogative as that of "a good cry" has been a feminine indulgence; but nowadays we have changed all this.
Athenaeum 30/11, '12.

The lie of the literary landscape in this wonderful time will become apparent to you as you read.

Mair, *Eng. Lit.*

Airy shows and seems had no effect on him.

How are the horses? Can I have a look at them and a ride to-morrow?

Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 3 p. 25.

I think it was a good buy, don't you?

W. Somerset Maugham, *Brit. Pl.* p. 594.

If you asked any of these things, she or he might want a repeat into a deaf ear . . .

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 30 p. 317.

It is a repeat of Fenwick's use of it.

ib. ch. 38 p. 405.

Bella finished her cry and attended to her cheeks with the powder rag. O. Henry, *Sel. Short St.* III p. 407.

Time's gradual glide away.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 7 p. 84.

1837. By the side of the noun *bath*, the verb *to bathe* has given rise to a new noun [beɪð] *bathe*, which is exclusively used in the sense of "the act of bathing in running water."

It (*viz.* the book) makes the reader feel pleasant, rather as one feels after a cosy hot bath than after a bathe in a windy sea.
Times Lit. 18/11, '15.

1838. The linguistic standing of most of the converted verbs is shown by the following quotation.

The illegitimate use of certain verbs as nouns is growing very common — as an *invite*, a *deal*, a *win* ¹⁾. Mr. Alexander thinks that a *combine* “has practically become recognised by now.”

Times Lit. 15/6, '16 in a review of Alexander,
Common Faults in Writing English.

The following cases are to be considered as slang.

And his getting the *chuck* like that set me thinking.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 7 § 2 p. 217.

Found my *wipe* ²⁾ in the cab.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 16 p. 162.

They'll appreciate that I had been sorely tried, and give me the *cut* regretful ³⁾.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 539.

1839. The transitive use of verbs that are usually intransitive and vice versa, may also be considered as conversion.

I stood the candle upon the floor of the alcove and left it in that position. Wells, Country of the Blind.

In the “falling” of big timber the axe has nowadays been practically abandoned for the saw.

Times, Empire Ed. May 24, 1911.

The bath slowly filled.

Occasional Conversion

1840. The cases of conversion treated until now, although of varying frequency, may be considered common. We must now deal with a few cases that are of a much less common type and may, indeed, be called exceptional means of word formation.

1) Also in the plural: His gambling wins would have been enough or that (NED. s.v. *win*, sb.).

2) i. e. handkerchief.

3) i. e. cut me (ignore me) though expressing regret at having to do so.

Adverbs as Nouns 1841. Adverbs are sometimes used as nouns (*a*). Some of them, especially when grouped in pairs, may take the ending *-s* to form a plural noun (*b*).

a. "Then it isn't only his relationship to Marie that you object to?" said Selma.

"It's the *altogether*," said Michael with an air of apology. Sidgwick, Severins p. 63.

I shall allow you to go this *once*.

Now if I tried to set down at length all the things that happened to me, upon this adventure, every *in and out*, and *up and down*, and *to and fro*, that occupied me...

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 64.

b. I never could quite understand all the *ins and outs* of it. ib. ch. 57.

The *ups and downs* of life.

The road wound with gentle *ups and downs* between fields whitening to harvest. Elizabeth in Rügen.

And then they lay down back to back, their little *behinds* just touching, and fell asleep. Mansfield, Bliss p. 16.

When an adverb is used as a subject of the sentence or as the leading element of a prepositional group it approaches, but hardly attains, the character of a noun¹).

Now seemed an admirable opportunity for a definite decision. Strand Mag. Febr. 1925 p. 161/2.

Nowhere is so pleasant, to while away a few idle weeks at, as one or other of the Universities.

C. Lamb, Essays of Elia.

It is not like anywhere else.

Mrs. Tweedie, Through Finland in Carts.

Such groups as *from here*, *from now*, *from there*, etc.; *from abroad* are not really cases of conversion of an adverb into a noun. This need not be demonstrated. The

1) Many quotations in this section are borrowed from F. Karpf's article in the *Beiblatt zur Anglia* for May 1927.

pronominal compounds in *-where* sometimes take an adjective after them (compare *somebody nice*: 1356).

I thought I deserved a night out. Dress quickly, Michael, and let's dine somewhere amusing, and do a theatre and a club afterwards... The "somewhere amusing" was a little restaurant full of theatrical folk.

Galsworthy, *Swan Song* II ch. 12 p. 198.

Adverbs as Adjectives **1842.** Some adverbs are often used attributively (*a*). In other cases the use is only occasional (*b*).

a. In the light of after events one cannot but sympathize with what Mrs. A. says. *Athenaeum* 1/8, 1902.

The above remark does not apply to all.

A forward movement, a backward boy; also many other adverbs in *-ward*: upward, downward, sideward, onward, inward, etc. 1).

Outdoor games, indoor games 2).

At Hyde Park Corner all the 'buses were being besieged by westward travellers.

W. B. Maxwell, *Gabrielle T.* p. 9.

An upstairs coffee-room.

E. Ph. Oppenheim, *Chronicles of N. Melhampton* ch. 5 p. 166.

An inside passenger; the off side.

I wonder whether she has taken a right down dislike to me.

Mrs. Manfield's father had been a highly intelligent, cultivated, charming and well-off man.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 2.

She is an out-and-out Republican.

Times Lit. 23/3, '17.

b. Travelling from heart to heart he drew from each the deep-down sweetness. *Sinister Street* p. 615.

1) Note that the adverbs are also found in the form *-wards*.

2) But in less close groups we also use the form in *-s*: *an upstairs room*; *an out-of-doors man*. Vachell, *Quinneys* p. 208.

A monotonous betweenwhiles kind of talk.

Meredith, R. Feverel.

The thrice recurrence of this event.

id. Beauchamp's Career.

For myself, when urging on folk the study of Browning,
I always admit his faults, his often failure in moulding
his verse . . .

Dr. Furnivall, Introd. to Browning
Primer by E. Phoebe Defries p. VI.

. . . he was not prepared for the almost contempt
with which Ernest now regarded the doctrines of baptismal
regeneration.

Butler, Way of All Flesh.

In the dry, aloof masculinity of his attitude towards
Hannah.

Bennett, Leonora.

. . . feigning an aloof quiescence.

ib.

1843. The predicative use of some adverbs is so common that it cannot be called conversion: *my father is out, he is well-off*, etc. Predicative use of an adverb of degree is exceptional.

"She's very American," he added.

"I think Americans like being very," I said, "and I don't think they can help it." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 8.

The group of attributive adverb and noun is sometimes equivalent to a compound, as in *up-train, down-train*.

Adverbs as Conjunctions **1844.** Adverbs are occasionally used as conjunctions. See note to 1846.

Oh! now I know my man, you may be sure I won't waste a word on him. Meredith, Beauchamp's Career.

Directly he noticed this he hurried down to the strange orchid. Wells, Country of the Blind p. 57.

Adverbs as Verbs **1845.** Adverbs are occasionally used as verbs.

As we neared Binz the road runs up close to the sea.
Eliz. in Rügen.

Tuesday will be too late, for by now on that day 50 per cent of the men of Derbyshire will have downed tools.

He had never been "outed," as he expressed it, before¹⁾.
Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 39.

Also in the case of loose groups with *up* for their first element.

He up and awayed to London.

L. Malet, *Sir R. Calmady III* ch. 2.

And with a reel-like step he up and danced across the floor.

Patterson, *Compton* p. 165.

(She) asked him why he didn't up and join the procession.

Vachell, *Spragge* p. 11.

Why, the very morning before it 'appened I remember sayin' to 'im, when 'e up and threw a knife at me for contradictin' 'is words, I remember sayin' . . .¹⁾.

Walpole, *Fortitude II* ch. 6 p. 203.

But compare also the following, where the adverb is separated from the verb.

"Did you see her face?"

"No; she up with her arm over it and scuttled away."

Baring-Gould, *Swaen I* p. 8.

Prepositions as Conjunctions **1846.** In dialectal English some prepositions are used as subordinating conjunctions.

I cannot manage to get them to the cottage without you go with us. *Marryat, Children of the New Forest* ch. 2.

The intellectual existence and discourses of a Socrates cannot be understood, except when viewed in connection with the sensual and common existence and carnal wisdom of Aristophanes, any more than the death of the one can be understood without we also understand the popular thought and feeling delineated to us by the other. *Shorthouse, John Inglesant* ch. 25 p. 289.

I never see wasps without I recall Devon — dear Devon. *Niven, Porcelain Lady* p. 201.

1) Originally a technical term in pugilistic slang.

2) The spelling sufficiently shows the linguistic standing of the speaker.

He had liked the isolation that had followed, but now he thought that isolation could be of little use to a man, except he could spring from it to greater freedom and a purer joy in his work.

G. Cannan, *Round the Corner* p. 317.

She strolled about the garden with him, gathering fresh flowers, meanwhile, to deck the drawing-room against Mrs. Hamley should come down.

Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 7.

Well, this tree was a branch hanging right over the pond; and I wanted to crawl along it, like he did.

Montgomery, *Misunderstood* ch. 3.

Of the above examples *except* and *like* are far more frequent among educated speakers than *without* or *against*. Such conjunctions as *after*, *before*, are not to be looked upon as cases of conversion, for to the speaker of present-day English they are conjunctions quite as much as prepositions or adverbs.

Sentences 1847. Sentences are sometimes used as nouns (*a*) or as verbs (*b*), but this conversion is mostly occasional only.

a. There's Mrs. N. and young what do you say his name is? Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 95.

His 'I don't know's' are a perfect nuisance.

b. No London gentleman asks questions. Lord!
If you went "What's your job?"-ing down our way,
You'd soon be smelling someone's fist, I reckon.

New Numbers I 9.

In a few cases the conversion has become *usual*: *reach-me-down*¹⁾ 'ready-made garment', *pick-me-up* 'a refreshing drink', *forget-me-not*. See 1918.

1) Originally used attributively only, as in *a reach-me-down-coat*, and a case of shortening rather than of conversion.

Alcohol is a pick-me-up that lets you down.
They are such stick-in-the-muds.

Conversion: Real and Apparent

1848. The cases that have been called conversion in the preceding sections are not all of the same character. Thus, when among people with the same occupation an adjective is technically used as a substantive (*the accused*, *Heineman's sevenpennies*, *a snorting two-year-old*, etc.), or in the cases of 1805, we have shortening rather than conversion (1797). But when a technical term passes into current use, e. g. *a private* (sc. soldier), *an ironclad* (sc. warship), non-experts will often be unaware of their origin, and all speakers will come to look upon these words as independent words, their origin not being thought of. In some cases a new word is or may be a shortening to the linguistic consciousness of the expert and at the same time conversion (if not a completely independent word) to the outsider.

One and the same word may be the result of conversion in one use, of shortening in another. Thus *the dead* denoting a single individual has nothing technical in it, and is a case of pure conversion, even though its use in the singular sense is traditional. But its use in reports of military actions, as in *200 dead*, *500 wounded*, is not to be identified with it, and is the result of shortening, not of conversion. It is evident that an attempt to distinguish conversion and shortening rigidly is bound to be unsuccessful, and, indeed, misleading.

1849. It must also be considered that shortening which causes a word to pass into another class is not restricted to technical English. A couple of instances that are still clearly felt to be shortenings have been mentioned in

1803. In other cases the use has become so common that few speakers are likely to be aware of the process that has led to the new use of the word: *to turn to the right (side)*, *the Atlantic (Ocean)*, *his intended (wife)*, etc. We may also include cases like *the fifth of November*, etc., where *day* may be supposed to be 'omitted'.

The origin of these shortenings is formally shown in languages which inflect the attributive adjective; thus in French two corresponding words are *la droite* and *le droit*, the former taking the suffix on account of some noun like *ligne, direction*.

The substantive *right* in *turn to the right* is evidently of a different origin from the word in *to be in the right*, which illustrates the conversion of an adjective to a neuter noun (1791).

A less common example is to be found in this sentence.

He indicated *the westward* with a fearful gesture and rubbed his stomach. Dixon, Strand Mag. Aug. 1925.

1850. The distinction between real conversion and the shifting into another part of speech as the result of shortening affects the grammatical character of the word. For it will be found, on studying the examples of adjectives used as nouns, that the results of shortening are exactly those that are so completely looked upon as nouns that they take a suffix to denote the plural (*sevenpennies, the expensive illustrateds*, etc.). The difference is easy to understand: the shortenings are really isolated from their original meaning, whereas the words that are really converted (adjectives to denote a group of persons, or used as neuter nouns; verbs as nouns, and vice versa) retain their meaning and only change their syntactic function.

1851. In other cases the use of a word as a different part of speech from its usual function is dependent upon

its syntactic function in the sentence. Thus, the use of adverbs as what might be called adjectives depends exclusively on their function of qualifiers to a following noun (1842). When such an attributive word is always grouped with the same noun only, or a restricted number of nouns, the result will often be a closer association of the two words, which may lead to undoubted composition. This is clearly shown by the attributive use of nouns, which cannot really be regarded as genuine conversion even though it occasionally leads to the change of a noun into a real adjective.

Attributive Use of Nouns

1852. Most nouns can be used attributively. Like other similar groups these combinations mostly have even stress. With regard to form, the first element of such a group may be inflected or uninflected: *the master's room, a master builder*.

The inflected form is a genitive; it is possible only when the noun denotes a person, apart from some traditional groups. The use of the genitive depends upon the relation of meaning of the elements of the group, as explained in vol. 2 (833 ff.). In all other cases the stem of the noun is used as a first element of the group, independently of the number that it may express; this has been shown with reference to personal nouns in dealing with the attributive use of the stem as compared with the genitive (899 ff.).

One of those broad, bright English country faces with deep-set rogue eyes and red, thick, soft lips.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 10 p. 119. (Also *ib.* p. 120).

1853. The stem of the noun is used with a plural meaning both when it denotes persons or animals (*a*) and when it expresses other meanings (*b*).

a. Four representatives of the German Adult School Movement are visiting Sheffield.

The personalities of undergraduate Oxford.

Sinister Street p. 587.

Stewart of Trinity represented an undergraduate type that perhaps had endured and would endure longer than any of the others. ib. ib.

He watched the pleasant Carthew cook shelling peas. ib. p. 86.

Finally owing to some alteration in the Buckley home, Buckley became a boarder. ib. p. 105.

... a negro insurrection had broken out in Jamaica. Justin McCarthy, Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 13.

... a very carnival of cruelty on the part of the soldiers and their volunteer auxiliaries. ib. p. 13 f.

But the real ground of his resentment was rather vexation that anything should arise to mar the unanimity of the humanist advance toward wider knowledge.

Allen, Erasmus p. 163.

Cook's Tourist Office.

The resistance to royal despotism in the Thirteenth Century was successful because the feudal class, unlike the squires of later times, was still to some extent a warrior class. Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 167.

The slave system; the planter class.

Engl. 19th Cent. II 19.

b. The trackway system.

Massingham, Pre-Roman Britain p. 16.

Custom-house, school inspector, the Public Record Office, the Midland Counties, the Modern Language Association, etc.

The lowland marshes. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 1 p. 5.

Since the early history of the islands is largely a history of invasions, it will be useful to survey the coasts from the invaders' point of view. The invasion period covers many centuries. Williamson, Evolution of Engl. p. 2.

The Netherland waters were shallow and dangerous. ib. p. 205.

1854. The stem form is also used as a first element in these groups when it is qualified by a numeral.

And where does your fifty-cow *dairy* lie, Mr. Venn?
Hardy, *Native VI* ch. 1 p. 477 f.

Valuable as are all these contributions to legal history, Brunner's greatest work is unquestionably his two-volume *Deutsche Rechtsgeschichte*. *Engl. Hist. Rev.* Jan. '29 p. 122.

I had scarcely been in the office a week, when I was offered a boat for London. Only one two pound man was required, all the others, with the exception of one, who was to receive fifteen shillings, were ten shilling men.
Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 11 p. 93.

1855. When the first element is a noun of definite number, such as *dozen, score, hundred, thousand*, the preceding numeral may be indefinite as well as definite. See 1439 ff.

Two dozen pocket-handkerchiefs.

The age of man is three score years and ten.

Two hundred feet below surged the Pacific.

Vachell, *Spragge* p. 5.

We certainly passed a couple of hundred patients being conveyed to the railway. *Times W.* 29/11, '12.

A few hundred years ago the whole of the New World and a large part of the Old World were unknown.

He farms several thousand acres of land in Essex.

Will none of our own rich men, with a taste for speculative investment, lay out a few score thousand pounds in prospecting for buried art and buried knowledge?

Times W. 16/5, '13.

Miss Nightingale believed that, if measures were promptly taken they (the dilapidated rooms) might be made capable of accommodating several beds.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 135.

The story of the Mingling of the Races in Britain, ending with the advent of the Normans, covers a thousand years of history very dimly desried, succeeding to many thousand more of archaeological twilight.

Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 2.

1856. These nouns of definite number when qualified by an indefinite numeral can also connect the leading

noun by means of the preposition *of*; the numeral has the plural form in this case (*a*), but the stem is also used (*b*). The stem form must be used when the leading noun is accompanied by pronominal qualifiers (*c*), or when it is a pronoun itself (*d*).

a. Several thousands of people attended the meeting.
Times W. 19/7, '18.

b. Varying from a few pounds to a few hundred of pounds.
Bennett, Anna ch. 8.

We may take leave to add that the poem contains a few dozen of good lines.

Millar, Mid-Eighteenth Cent. p. 188.

As it flew now, indeed it must pass a hundred million of miles wide of the earth.

Wells, Country of the Blind p. 315.

Some two score of obsolete verbs. Athenaeum.

c. For want of a few hundred of these fellows we haven't paid a dividend for years.

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 3.

It would be easy to draw up a list of many score of such instances.

Athen. 24/7, '15.

d. It was organized by the Left Social Revolutionists, who, the messages state, are now in flight from the city. Several hundred of them have been arrested.

Times W. 12/7, '18.

1857. It is not always perfectly plain what is the stem of a noun. Thus, *news* might be supposed to have a form without *-s* for its stem, but it is not so: the reason is that the connection with the adjective *new* is broken. This explains the form of the following groups.

a. News agencies. The railway goods porters; the wages question (but also: the wage¹) census), the goods traffic, sports garments.

1) It should be remembered, however, that the noun is both *wages* and *wage*.

The great explosion at a London munitions factory.
Times W. 26/1, '17.

The contents-table ¹⁾; a clothes-brush; a bellows-mender, a customs-house (also custom-house), the power station and waterworks men, an explosives factory.

An honours degree.

If in the following cases the stem has no *-s* it is probably because the group is traditional; this is also proved by their uneven stress.

a scissor-grinder, a trouser-button, a spectacle-case, a wage-earner, an ash-bin, billiard-table, ash-tray, draught-board, etc.

1858. The first element sometimes has a form that is undoubtedly inflectional, but the reason is the same as in the cases just mentioned: the plural is so greatly differentiated in meaning from the uninflected form that it is looked upon as an independent stem.

They have appealed to the Young Turks party to abolish the harem system.

The Claims Committee have dealt with 211 cases.

1859. In many cases the first element of a group can be indifferently interpreted as expressing a plural meaning or as a collective or representative singular.

We do not believe it (*viz.* an island) has been used for enemy purposes. Times W. 27/11, '14.

Here and there, in a peasant family, or a small country tradesman's just raised above a peasant, honest regenerating blood will be found.

Meredith, Ormont ch. 2 p. 38.

For nothing in the parsonage way could be more perfect than his parsonage.

Trollope, Framley ch. 2 p. 11.

1) Compare *a subject indec.*

In the first place, it is unwise to begin research on manuscript material without having exhausted the printed sources. Johnson, Public Record Office p. 47 (compare: The Historical Manuscripts Commission).

The stem form *manuscript* in the last quotation may be compared with the inflected form in *The Historical Manuscripts Commission*. The explanation of the plural in this last case is probably that the official name is *The Royal Commissioners for Historical Manuscripts*.

It has already been explained (761, 829) that such forms as *women-students*, *men-teachers*, etc. are due to the character of the first element: *men* and *women* are as much stem forms as *man* and *woman*. In the case of compounds of these words as first elements people are naturally uncertain about the spelling, for there can be no difference in sound (766).

Some will feel that a book of this kind should not be needed by a freshman class.

Mod. Lang. Notes, Febr. '14 p. 55 and 56.

Relations in **1860.** The relations between the attributive noun and its leading noun greatly
Attributive Groups depend upon the meaning of the former.

The relations between personal genitives and their leading nouns have been discussed in the chapter on the *Genitive*. In such groups of personal genitives with a noun the independence of the first element is often as complete as when the noun is used in other (non-attributive) functions. But we have seen that in the classifying genitives the noun loses its individual character and is more subordinate to the second element, forming with it a unit approaching if not reaching the character of a compound. This compositional character of the group is greatly promoted when an attributive noun is regularly used with the same noun or class of nouns; see the chapter on the *Genitive*.

The attributive use of the stem of personal nouns has also been treated in volume 2, and in the sections on *Word-order* in attributive groups (1977), so that a few examples will suffice here.

Barry Lyndon has never appealed to more than a minority even of Thackeray enthusiasts.

Rhodes scholars.

1861. Apart from the attributive personal nouns we may specially treat of the geographical proper names, the material nouns and the names of the points of the compass. In these cases the attributive word can be used with all kinds of nouns as leading members of the group, and the first element consequently tends to assume the character of an adjective.

Geographical Proper Names **1862.** The meaning of attributive geographical names is very various, but generally clear enough. On the whole we can say that the proper name expresses origin or habitat.

a Brussels carpet; a Turkey carpet; Brussels sprouts; Suffolk records and mss. (= manuscripts); Shakespeare's Warwickshire contemporaries; Devonshire Characters and Strange Events (title); Hindu life and ideas; by the kindness of a Scottish Hamburg merchant; a Cambridge professor.

The Transvaal Government severely and successfully repressed these proceedings.

1863. Proper names of persons and countries often have a corresponding adjective. When names of towns have such an adjective it is because they are, or were once, seats of empires.

the Homeric	{	poems	An Icelandic primer
		question	An English grammar

a Shakespearian scholar	African explorers
a Virgilian scholar	Athenian statesmen
Byronic poetry	Roman consuls
Horatian poetry	Viennese furniture
Victorian literature	Cairene society.

When they wrote blank verse, the classic poets wrote it in the Milton manner. Mair, *Eng. Lit.*, p. 127.

Thomson wrote two poems respectively in the Spenserian and the Miltonic manner. *ib.* p. 128.

Granting that Iceland women in the tenth century were fierce and proud, Gudrun's quick changes between the moods of love and revenge remain hardly comprehensible. *Academy* 10/11, 1906.

1864. When geographical proper names have a corresponding adjective the noun may be used attributively to express place, whereas the adjective expresses or implies a quality (see 1902).

The Rome outrage (i.e. the attempt, at Rome, on the life of the king of Italy).

A Paris banker: a banker who has a business at Paris.

A Parisian banker; a banker who is a native of Paris.

The Turkey trade — the Turkish trade.

The China seas — the Chinese trade.

On the 22nd of December he resumed his ordinary Genoa life. Forster-Gissing. — A Genoese merchant.

The First Lord of the Admiralty and Mrs. McKenna have been staying at Etretat, on the Normandy coast.

The Norman kings of England.

A pair of Norway rats.

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 6.

Sometimes they are used indifferently.

The settlement of the Alaska dispute; Canada and the Alaskan award (in the same article). Pilot.

And even in the cases mentioned the difference is by

no means strictly observed, unless there is reason to fear ambiguity. Hence the adjective is often used to express a relation in space only.

The consular reports show a falling off in our Chinese trade (i. e. trade of the English to China).

The Rev. Griffith John, one of the best known Chinese missionaries, died in London to-day.

1865. Although the geographical proper names when used attributively are closely related to adjectives they are rarely used predicatively (*a*), except in a transferred sense (*b*).

a. I had some runts¹⁾ too. You know there is the Spanish runt, and the runt of Friesland, and then there are Leghorn runts. Mine were Friesland.

Niven, Porcelain Lady.

Well, they²⁾'re Paris, anyhow.

Henry James, Reverberator.

b. Mr. J. S. Fletcher is more at home in Yorkshire, but *The Ivory God, and other Stories* (John Murray) are not predominantly Yorkshire. *Athenaeum* 11/11, 1908.

Nurse was staunchly Oxford. *Sinister Street* p. 54.

Names of Materials **1866.** Names of materials are freely used attributively to express things made of the material.

a silver ring; a gold chain; rubber goods; a straw hat; a stuff gown; list slippers; a steel pen; a brass candlestick; an ivory chest; a copper kettle; a tin box; etc.

1) Runt: a large breed of domestic pigeons.

2) The gloves. Compare:

She had been aware that they (i. e. her dresses) were not Parisian, nor even of London; but she had thought them pretty good.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* III ch. 2 § 1.

... a wide field of rocks across which ran a concrete path to the six-hundred-yards-distant lighthouse.

Strand Mag. March 1925.

1867. Some names of materials have corresponding adjectives in *-en* to express 'made of', but the nouns are also used attributively in the same meaning.

Such adjectives are *beechen*, *flaxen*, *hempen*, *leaden*, *leathern*, *oaken*, *oaten*, *wheaten*. Exceptionally: *earthern*.

A beech bedstead. Plain beechen vessels. Flax canvas. Flax sandals. Flaxen thread. Lead pipes. A leaden roof.

A leather armchair. Oat(en) bread.

The oak table. Times Lit. 8/2, '18.

... furniture of the plainest, earthern floors, a single bed-chamber for travellers. Stevenson, Donkey p. 25.

1868. We find both *wooden* and *wood*, *woollen* and *wool*.

The usual attributive forms are the adjectives *wooden* and *woollen*. But the nouns are used in compounds or groups denoting the kind of *wood* and *wool*; *wool* is also used attributively when it means *knitting-wool*. See 1875.

I saw a tiny rosewood chest.

C. Brontë, Vilette ch. 1.

A large stove, an oaken table, and one or two long birchwood benches completed the furniture.

Times Lit. 8/2 '18.

Maplewood chairs. A little sandalwood box.

Shetland wool shawls.

A small wool hat. W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

1869. In literary English we also find the material adjectives *golden* and *brazen*, whereas in spoken English *gold* and *brass* are used.

Who would not barter all the brass candlesticks and crosses and brazen eagles that are turned out by the

hundred for one of the sculptured oak leaves from
St. Frideswide's shrine? Barbara, p. 84.

Moses and the Brazen Serpent.

The Golden Calf.

The hen that laid the golden eggs.

... the stronger golden-red and russet tints of the
beech are vanished. Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1.

The nouns *birch* and *earth* are never used attributively.
In this case the adjectives *birchen*, *earthen* are the only
forms possible.

1870. Material nouns are also used attributively in
other meanings.

Steel filings. A steel engraving.

An ivory dealer. A copper beech.

A famous linen shop. The linen sales 1).

The lead districts ... the copper areas of Cornwall.
Massingham, Pre-Romain Britain p. 33.

The granite districts ... the gold deposits. ib. p. 34.

1871. In literary English the material adjectives are also
used in a wider meaning sometimes: *beechen*, *oaken*, *ashen*,
and *aspen* are often so used.

Under yonder beechen shade.

With breezes from the oaken glades.

Ashen leaves. An aspen leaf.

The attributive adjective *aspen* has been taken for a
noun, so that *aspen* is sometimes used for *asp*. This shows
that in such groups as *gold watch* we really have a con-
verted noun *gold*, not an adjective.

1) i.e. the sales of linen, or of linens. Similarly *woollen* as an attributive
noun.

Lavenham (one of the dead medieval woollen towns).

Freeman, Joseph Preface p. viii.

I stared at the man in horror. A ghastly thought had struck me. I quivered like an aspen.

P. G. Wodehouse, Strand Mag. July 1925.

1872. In spoken English the nouns are generally used in this case, even when there is a corresponding adjective (*a*). In many cases, however, such groups must be considered as compounds, especially when they have uneven stress (*b*).

a. The flax trade. Wool prices.

b. An earth-dam. A birchrod; a beech-nut; an oak-apple.

1873. *Wood* is the first element of a compound in *wood pulp* (uneven stress).

It is also used in *a wood fire*¹), *a wood pavement*; it really seems to be identical in function to *wooden* in these and some similar cases.

The wood threshing-floor.

Hardy, Far from the Madding Crowd ch. 22.

I am sorry that my chairs all have wood seats.

id. ib. ch. 56.

Instead of *wood fire* we also find *fire of wood*.

There is always a little fire of wood on the open hearth in the kitchen when I get home at night.

Fairless, Roadmender V.

The combination *the woollen industry* is not really an exception, for *woollen* stands here for *woollens*, i. e. *woollen goods*, see 1870.

1874. Both the nouns denoting materials (*a*) and the adjectives in *-en* (*b*) are often used in a figurative meaning.

a. A silver wedding. An iron will.

The Iron Age.

An india-rubber conscience.

1) Even stress in Sweet's Element. no. 14 (p. 66).

She turned her ivory shoulder on him.

There is a hill beside the silver Thames,
Shady with birch and beech and odorous pine.

R. Bridges, in *Poems of To-Day* I 70.

... and in the depth of its furrows there were mysterious
velvet shadows. Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 3 § 2 p. 30.

The present writer remembers her in the thirties,
a widow of vinegar aspect, inhabiting a villa at Iffley.

b. Remembering his promise to the golden-haired boys.
Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 10.

A golden opportunity; a golden saying.

The golden mean; the golden Age.

On that brazen July day. *Sinister Street* p. 573.

Her grand-daughter Philippa was in the girl's waxen age.
Meredith, *Ormont* ch. 3 p. 46.

The rest of her face was ashen pale.

Gaskell, *North and South* ch. 22 p. 195.

Her cheeks were ashen white.

Temple Thurston, *City of Beautiful Nonsense* III ch. 13.

Under its leaden rule little scope was left for the free
and healthy exercise of mind.

The green islands lay desolate in the midst of the
leaden sea.

Wooden manners. A wooden face.

Clad in her white night-dress, with her silken hair falling
around her face and setting it in a golden frame, she looked
strangely beautiful. Buchanan, *That Winter Night*.

Dr. Gairdner has won golden opinions for his absolute
fairness as well as his tireless industry.

When you are up against a serious anti-climax it is
a golden rule to begin a fresh chapter.

Snaith, *Principal Girl*.

Armaments are not determined by a brazen law, they
depend upon policy. *Daily News*.

His beard and moustache were golden yellow.

The sun still nettled their top boughs, as with golden
silk. Galsworthy, *Fraternity* ch. 20.

1875. When a noun has a corresponding adjective, the latter only is used in a figurative meaning, but compounds or groups like *dull gold*, etc., always have the noun-form.

The tall figure with the dull gold hair.

Sinister Street p. 646.

Old gold silk.

There was Monica with her pale gold hair.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 45.

Peter's child was born on a night of frost when the stars were hard and fierce and a full moon, dull gold, flung high shadows upon the town.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 6 p. 298.

He stared into the wall and saw her face, her red-gold hair upon the pillow . . .

ib. p. 299.

Both *flax* and *flaxen* are used with reference to *hair*.

His sympathies were powerfully excited by their white skins, blue eyes, and flaxen hair.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 10.

1876. The material adjectives are also used predicatively in a figurative meaning (*a*). The predicative use of the nouns is less usual (*b*).

a. I have never felt the atmosphere of the House¹⁾ so leaden.

The air was so golden and balmy . . .

Sinister Street p. 87.

Golden lie the meadows; golden run the streams; red gold is on the pine-stems. Meredith, Feverel ch. 19.

b. So eternally silver were the still ranks of the olives that one could imagine no transformation here.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore I ch. 4 p. 58.

1877. Nouns expressing points of the compass as well as the corresponding adjectives may be used attributively.

Names of points
of the compass

1) i. e. the House of Commons.

Rome lay on the south bank of the Tiber, the chief navigable river of the Western slope. Goodspeed.

The East Coast. A West wind.

The shades of Tailordom dispersed like fog before the south-west breeze. Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 162.

Zachary Tan's was the curiosity shop of Treliiss and famous even twenty years ago throughout the south country. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 3 § 2 p. 31.

Before names of countries we use the noun to denote a political division of the country:

North Holland, South America.

Otto II planned the conquest of South Italy and Sicily. Davis, Med. Europe p. 84.

But *Northern Holland* expresses 'the northern provinces of Holland'. Compare also *the Western hemisphere*.

Other Nouns **1878.** In other cases than those mentioned the attributive noun may express all kinds of relations to the leading noun, so that the meaning of the group cannot be discovered by its analysis; it is intelligible only to those who are acquainted with its meaning. One and the same group, too, may express very various meanings, according to the situation.

The preferential-tariff agitation. The foot police.

This is a task of such dimensions and difficulty as, in the language of joint-stock prospectuses, 'to transcend individual enterprise.' Birrell, *Obiter Dicta* p. 32.

... when one can generally keep up the honeymoon atmosphere.

Berta Ruck, *The Clouded Pearl* I ch. 1 p. 11.

The ticking of the grandfather clock in the hall drove him down the passage.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 8 § 3 p. 90.

He passed many bins: there was 1803 Port, 1792 Imperial Tokay, etc. Butler, *Way of All Flesh*.

The soviet leaders; soviet rule; the soviet system; the soviet constitution; the All-Russia Soviet Congress; the soviet idea; soviet government; soviet regulations; the soviet plan; the Soviet State, etc. Times.

The Empire First tea-party was really a function, with flowers and lackeys in profusion . . . It interested me very much to notice the different kinds of people with whom the Empire was first.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 28 p. 283.

This is a book in an American series, entitled "Government Handbooks"; which does not mean, as might be interpreted, handbooks bearing the imprimatur of Government, but handbooks describing and explaining the systems of government adopted by various peoples.

Times Lit. 27/9, '18.

Mr. Asquith has lately been away for a brief holiday. Nevertheless it is hardly fair for a daily paper to announce on its posters: — England's Premier Sporting Daily.

Punch 8/9, '15.

You go back and have a sleep and come back in the cool of the morning and tell us that all this solicitor nonsense¹⁾ was bluff and you'd had too much to drink.

Chapin, *New Morality*, in *Brit. Pl.* p. 566.

You're a pattern husband, aren't you?

Chapin, *New Morality*, in *Brit. Pl.* p. 545.

1879. Many of the above attributive groups, though even-stressed, approach to compounds. The appositional groups are generally considered as such. It is especially the vagueness of the relation between the attributive noun and its headword that causes the group to resemble a compound. Few would probably hesitate to call the following groups compounds: *cattle show*, *flower show*, *world show*.

Also *sea monsters*, *field gun*, *a penny-bank* (compare *a penny loaf*).

1) i. e. his threat of putting the matter in the hands of a solicitor.

The month of August is always a great time for local horse shows in Ireland.

The dead bells had been ringing for a general's funeral.
Thomas, Lascadio Hearn p. 17.

The close relation of the elements of the group is also shown by the fact that they can take suffixes:

a Tariff-Reformer, a Trade Unionist, a Quarterly Reviewer. Note also *girl-bachelordom* in 1887; also *country doctor* in 1889.

Three degrees, of successively closer unity, are illustrated by the following sentence:

My father is the curate of a *village church*, about five miles from Amwell. I was born in the *parsonage-house*, which joins the *church-yard*.

Mary Lamb in Selected Short Stories II p. 1.

1880. Occasionally the spelling denotes that the group is felt as a compound. Compare *mad-doctor*¹⁾ (Camb. Hist. of Engl. Lit. XIV p. 454).

Home truth, home question are often spelt *home-truth, home-question*.

What a nice word 'home' is, and everything connected with it All except home-truths.

People who pique themselves upon telling home truths.

Home-made can hardly be anything else than a compound; it seems to be the starting-point for such formations as *York made*, etc.²⁾.

York was also renowned for the work of its gold- and silver-smiths. Much of the church plate is York made, and is principally of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

York p. 27.

1) The first element is the adjective *mad* converted into a personal noun.

2) See Poutsma, Particles p. 225.

Appositional Groups **1881.** Some attributive nouns form the first element of a group that may be considered as an appositional compound. They regularly have even stress apart from the cases of contrasting stress, which are not infrequent.

1882. Among the commonest appositional compounds are those with *man* and *woman* to express sex. They are especially prefixed to nouns expressing a trade, profession, or occupation. *Lady* and *gentleman* are similarly used.

As the war proceeds the demand for skilled women-workers for many kinds of work increases steadily.

Times Ed. S. 7/9, '16.

Women medical students. Women doctors.

Women farm-workers. Women conductors.

The court was crowded with women sympathisers of the suffragist agitation.

Camilla went to lunch with Mrs. St. Erth next day, and on to the dressmaker, and it was a man dressmaker she found, who had lovely things ready to slip on.

Sidgwick, Severins p. 164.

These remarkable successes of women students are no doubt due in part to the reduction in the number of men students owing to military duties. Times 13/7 '16.

"I have more friends in New York than in S. — more gentlemen friends; and more young lady friends too," she resumed in a moment.

James, Daisy Miller ch. 1.

The need for lady practitioners in a land where women refuse to be attended by men doctors.

Times Ed. S. 4/4, '16.

1883. The sex of animals is similarly indicated by prefixing *bull* and *cow* (to *elephant*, *calf*, *giraffe*, *antelope*, *buffalo* etc.); or *cock* and *hen* (to *canary*, *partridge*, *pheasant*, *quail*, *sparrow*, etc.); *he* and *she* (to *ass*, *bear*, *goat*, *wolf*).

The reversed order in *turkey-cock*, *turkey-hen*; *peacock*,

peahen; guinea-cock, guinea-hen shows that the compounds are appositional in character.

Note also *tom-cat, she-cat; jack-ass, jenny-ass; billy-goat, nanny-goat*.

1884. The words used to denote the sex of persons are rarely used for animals.

A man-seal.

Lying in the porch was a little moonlight-coloured lady bulldog, of toy breed. Galsworthy, *Fraternity* ch. 1.

1885. *Gentleman* and *lady* are also used attributively to denote rank. Similarly *boy* and *girl* do not denote sex only but at the same time age.

A gentleman-farmer. Lady-gardeners.

Dorothea Beale is known to all as the accomplished and successful Lady Principal of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham.

Boy-friend, boy-child.

Boy-husband, girl-wife.

The Boy-Hunters of the Mississippi (title).

A boy-apprentice. Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* p. 64.

1886. Special mention may be made of the appositional groups consisting of a class-noun, including those denoting unfamiliar titles, with a personal name: *the labourer Tryst, the lad Robert*, etc. (see 1181), also *the emperor Charles V; the consul Regulus*. Groups with a familiar title for their first element, on the other hand, form a closer-knit whole, with uneven stress: *King Edward*¹).

Similarly, geographical class-nouns with a proper name form an appositional group in the case of *river (the river*

1) A group like *Mr. Jones* is hardly a case in point; for its first element cannot be called a noun: it is exclusively used attributively, and consequently is invariable. The traditional classification of words into 'parts of speech' does not provide a place for it. See 1920.

Rhine) but a closer group with uneven stress in the case of *lake*, *cape*, and *mount* (*Cape Lizard*, *Lake Ontario*, *Mount Vernon*).

The connection between the structure of these groups and the use of the definite article has been treated in 1387 ff.

1887. There are also other appositional compounds.

He is the last man known to have read Menander, he was one of the first of the long roll of statesman-bishops. Times Lit. 4/3, '15.

For the bachelor girl the Colonies have no use.

Our young woman must eschew the sterile allurements of girl-bachelordom and perfect herself in the primeval arts of the home.

Amidst all this revelry the stranger guest maintained a most singular and unseasonable gravity.

Still quick to blush as far as the skin of a grandmother matron might show it. Meredith, *Ormont* ch. 2 p. 40.

It would be such a pleasant surprise to his sister to see her little daughter bringing home her long lost sailor uncle. Mary Lamb in *Selected Short Stories II* p. 2.

But, before the Norman Conquest, there had been long ages when neither the island State nor the island navy was formidable. Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 1.

In his baby days he had trotted after his mother . . .
Memoirs Verney Fam. III p. 352.

When Stephen died in 1154 all except the robber barons were ready to welcome any rough master who knew his own mind. Williamson, *Evolution of England* p. 96.

1888. The order of the two parts of an appositional group is sometimes indifferent: *king-emperor*, *emperor-king*. Compare the two quotations with *bachelor* above, and also the wording of the following resolution reported in the Times (27/11, 14) under the heading *Enemy Aliens*:

that it is highly desirable, in the interest of London, that a large number of *alien enemies* . . .:

1889. Appositional groups sometimes serve to express comparison, not identity.

A giant tree.

The forbidding, difficult, waspish, and even hedgehog
Sophia. Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* p. 112.

1890. It has been shown that the attributive use of some groups of class-nouns, the material nouns especially, often leads to an adjectival character of these nouns. This occurs in other cases, too.

From the year 449, for a century and a quarter, the
tide of heathen invasion crept slowly over the land.

Wakeman, *Intro.* p. 7.

He was the son of one of the *Viking* companions of
Ingwar. Oman, *Conquest* p. 526.

The conversion is generally limited to the attributive use. It is only exceptionally that these nouns are used as predicative adjectives, or that they are compared like true adjectives. It is also unusual for attributive nouns to be separated from their leading noun or to be qualified by adverbs.

1891. The following quotations contain nouns that have come to be used predicatively because they are frequently used attributively. Their predicative use, however, is in some cases exceptional.

The work is still copyright.

The remark is commonplace.

Altogether they are what you call 'model.'

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 6.

All these roses are dwarf.

Elizabeth.

Several times I said things that ought to have resulted
in my being taken along them, but the parson heeded
not; his talk was and remained wholly church.

Elizabeth in Rügen.

For Mr. Green's method is by no means impressionist.

Punch.

Of the four Universities, Edinburgh alone is Post-Reformation.
Lord Guthrie, in *Everyman*.

His mother was Low Church and his father was a Presbyterian but never went to any place of worship.
Cannan, Corner.

Archers are nomad and gregarious.

Hole, *Memories* p. 18.

The High Church movement of the preceding thirty years was as intensely national as it was Tory.

Wakeman, *Intro.* p. 415.

The rivers had only themselves to support, for Staffordshire rivers have remained virgin of keels to this day.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 1 § 1.

"I'm afraid of hurting your feelings."

"I'm not nineteenth century".

Clemence Dane, *Bill of Div.*, *Brit. Pl.* p. 656.

The house was brick and of the eighteenth century.

Squire, *Grub Street* p. 59.

1892. The noun is used attributively to a *preceding* pronominal word in the following cases (*a*). In the last, post-position of *amateur* is due to its being an element of an appositional group. In both cases the position make the noun apparently adjectival.

a. 'I hope your mother won't give me anything fancy to do,' said Anna. 'I'm no good at anything except plain sewing.' Bennett, *Anna of the Five Towns* ch. 7.

There were no tube-roses, or anything hot-house or forced.

El. Glyn, *Three Weeks* ch. 8.

b. It has been my great privilege to know... the most accomplished gardeners, professional and amateur, master and servant, of our time.

Hole, *Memories* p. 235.

1893. The predicative use of these nouns is often avoided by means of the prop-word *one(s)*: *my visit is a business one*. But this is only possible when they qualify a class-

noun; see 1281. And the predicative use of *business* is possible.

But our relations are purely business.

Bennett, *Milestones II*, Brit. Pl. p. 40.

1894. The occasional predicative use of nouns that are frequently found attributively should be distinguished from the predicative use of nouns generally. It is true that all nouns when used predicatively are apt to lose something of their independent (nominal) character¹⁾, but ordinary predicative nouns cannot really be considered as adjectives, and never show the other characteristics of adjectives such as attributive use, comparison, etc.

Occasionally, however, a noun whose predicative use is not due to its currency as an attributive word, is hardly less adjectival than those mentioned in 1892

He was master of the situation.

Whether he is thorough master of a subject or quite unacquainted with it, he is equally confident.

Times Lit. 20/3, '24.

But Evelyn is charming. She's such fun²⁾.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 8.

Wood is excellent company — very alive, brilliantly intelligent, and most amusing... I have stated that he makes an excellent companion; I should have added that he is a splendid friend.

Strand Mag. July 1925 p. 65.

Truro was fun when I was a girl.

Walpole, *Fortitude I* ch. 8 § 3 p. 93.

His governor would be furious, of course, and they might have to run away, but she was game for anything.

Walpole, *Fortitude I* ch. 10 § 3 p. 119.

That's not grammar, Sophia (see 969).

1) Except in sentences expressing the identity of subject and predicate. On this subject generally, see the chapter on *Sentence-Structure*.

2) Note the adjectival *such*, not *so*. Also *great fun*.

1895. The comparison of these nouns is rare; as a rule they are compared by means of *more* and *most*. Of the following examples the first two only are usual. See 1776.

I'd rather be here than in the swellest London club.
Gissing, *The House of Cobwebs* 1).

Few English sportsmen are more proof against weather or more keen to face it than the king. *Daily Mail*.

The little king of Spain is also shown on stamps, but in a more baby state. *Ill. London News* 1).

Johnson clung to them as fondly as if they had been the most pattern hero and heroine of romantic fiction 1).
Stephen, *Life of Johnson*.

1896. The formation by means of the suffixes is often meant to have a burlesque effect (*a*), except in the case of intensifying adjuncts when it is necessary to preserve the parallelism (*b*). Compare 1783.

a. He has the darlingest expression.

Punch (*Poutsma* II p. 3).

b. They were all hero-worshippers, and their heroes for the most part were Toriest of the Tory.

Flora Masson, Brontës, p. 27.

1897. When an attributive noun is not distinctly adjectival, but forms a compositional group with its leading noun, it is seldom separated from its leading noun (*a*), nor is it generally qualified by an adverb (*b*).

a. Wan worn cheeks, and skeleton and white arms.

Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 7.

Yet there were moments when he keenly felt his orphan and deserted situation. *Bulwer, Eugene Aram*.

Java is a model typical dependency.

Edinb. Rev. April 1915.

The millinery and silken part of the shop.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. I § 2.

1) *Poutsma, Grammar* II, I a, p. 2 f.

Any information contained in abbey or monastic or cathedral or other collegiate registers.

Times Ed. S. 10/10, '18.

(It) has a purely biographical, party, or military interest. Lecky, Hist. of Engl. 18th Cent. I p. VI.

b. He had to content himself with purely missionary tours. Wakeman, Introd. p. 21.

To see the heathmen in their Sunday condition, that is, with their hands in their pockets, their boots newly oiled, and not laced up (a particularly Sunday sign), walking leisurely . . . Hardy, Native I ch. 7 p. 83.

London hotelkeepers declare that the American visitor is often either lavishly spendthrift or amazingly close.

Daily Mail.

Probably no other class led a life so purely animal.

Lecky, Hist. of Engl. 18th Cent. VI 200.

(This) was the more pity as they could not conveniently do without one another.

Hawthorne, Wonder Book p. 23.

They were very happy, very absorbed, in this strictly business matter. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 5 § 1.

With an absolutely master card in our hand we refused to play it. Conan Doyle, Boer War.

Landscapes of a partly real, partly dream-country.

Hardy, Madding Crowd p. VI.

A number of undeniably standard works. Athenaeum.

The novel must be what some would call pure and others would call prudish; but what is not, properly considered, either one or the other: it is rather a more or less business proposal (right or wrong) that every writer shall draw the line at literal physical description of things socially concealed. Chesterton, Victorian Age.

Do not let any too exclusively painting friend of yours persuade you that it is wrong to think of the subject of those two pictures. Ker, Eight. Cent.

They pulled them out. There were four enormous volumes, as large as ledgers. All except one were completely virgin of any writing. Squire, Grub Street p. 21.

In some of the above quotations it is doubtful if the

use of the adverb is really due to the adjectival nature of the noun. For such adverbs as *purely*, *partly*, *undeniably*, are rather sentence-qualifiers.

1898. The following quotations show that the choice of the adjunct to a converted noun depends upon the character of the group: in the first of the following quotations the group *thorough Whig* is used attributively, in the second *thoroughly* is an adverb of degree to the 'adjective' *business*. Naturally, the more usual the conversion is, the greater the tendency to use an adverb.

His wife . . . was a fashionable woman, with thorough Whig tastes and aspirations. Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 3.
Railways established on thoroughly business lines.

1899. A noun is sometimes qualified by two attributive nouns.

Those who don't approve of a middle-aged bachelor country doctor as a hero
Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 6.

We may also regard *country doctor* as a kind of compound here. The same explanation accounts for the place of the adjuncts to *medical practitioner* and *small squire* in the following quotations.

Before the reader is introduced to the modest country medical practitioner who is to be the chief personage of the following tale ib. p. 1.
The figure of a country small squire . . . Essays V 52.

Attributive Groups of Words **1900.** Sometimes a group of words is used attributively.

The twenty-first annual show of the Wensleydale Agricultural Society was held on Saturday in dull weather. It was fitting Lord Bolton should be president of the *coming-of-age* exhibition, as his father was present on the "christening" of the society.

Dick says they're a broken-winded, *Sunday-go-to-meeting* lot — and so they are. Kenealy, Mrs. Grundy.

It is impossible, alas! to maintain that you were a *Throne and Altar* Tory. Lang, Letters p. 135.

Right down the platform, on a side line, was a little train that reminded Peter of the *Treliss to Truro* one, so helpless and incapable did it look.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 4 § 3 p. 44.

During the first seven years of his reign (871—878) Alfred had a *life and death* struggle with them.

Somervell, Hist. of Engl. p. 19.

Sometimes the structure of these groups is clear from the situation only.

But now, with the *old school black clothing* upon him, he stood for a long time by his window...

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 § 2 p. 100.

It is the situation only that enables the reader to understand that *black clothing* is defined by *old school*. Compare the following observation.

I can see nothing ungrammatical in "the Rock Point Life Insurance Company building fire escape."

American Speech II p. 35 (Oct. 1926).

Attributive Stem and Related Constructions

1901. It has already been shown that the attributive stem of personal nouns has points of contact with the personal genitive; see 1852. It is also natural that there should be such points of contact with adjuncts with *of*.

When their pails would hold no more, they began to fill their jacket and waistcoat pockets.

But as they grew up, children, even his own, began to have a little of the village feeling ¹⁾ towards Tod Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 11 p. 127.

1) i. e. the feeling of the village people.

- His best predecessor in novel literature.
- Last summer's famous motor-car race from Pekin to Paris. Athen.
- I may wear grown-up dresses in future.

1902. Attributive nouns often denote place or time (*a*). Sometimes there is a corresponding adjective to denote a less restricted meaning (*b*). See also 1862 ff. on attributive proper names.

a. Gloves for country and seaside wear.

The top shelf. The half-past-two train.

The Queen Anne writers.

As far as I've observed, the top thing to be over here is a Bishop. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 7 p. 76.

Sunday shop hours.

b. A Bible word is a word found in the Bible. Compare: biblical criticism.

A morning walk is a walk taken in the morning. Compare: Our household was the most matutinal in the world.

The end house is the house at the end of the street. Compare: We made a series of final measurements.

The funeral service; a funereal look.

But sometimes there seems to be very little difference; in both of the following quotations *neighbour* denotes a relation of place; in the second it does not differ from *neighbouring*.

From stubble fields sounded the long caw of rooks;
a sleepy crowing ever and anon told of the neighbour
farm; my doves cooed above their cot.

Gissing, *Henry Ryecroft* Ch. XVIII.

At Southwell Lord Byron lived when he wrote his
"Hours of Idleness," and the book was published by
Ridge, in the neighbour-town of Newark.

Hole, *Memories* p. 16.

OCCASIONAL METHODS OF WORD-FORMATION

1903. Besides the three chief methods of forming new words (composition, derivation, conversion) English occasionally uses others:

- (1) shortening.
- (2) back-formation.
- (3) repetition.
- (4) portmanteau-words.
- (5) condensation of sentences.
- (6) onomatopœia.

Shortening

1904. Shortening is of two kinds: of word-groups, and of words.

When a word-group is shortened, as in *a season for a season-ticket*¹⁾, *a tonic for a tonic medicine*, it is usually the last element that is dropped. Examples have been given in the chapter on conversion, especially 1848 ff.

We shall here deal with the shortening of words²⁾ only. It is a natural process in the spoken language. But it may also be the result of shortening the written symbols;

1) I have to go up to London so often, I am thinking seriously of taking out a season. Do you happen to know how much it costs?

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 44.

2) On the shortening of sentences, see the chapters on Sentence-Structure.

in this case the first part of the word is generally retained, independently of the phonetic character of the syllables.

1905. When words are shortened it is generally the unstressed syllables that are lost: *photo* from *photograph*, *bike* from *bicycle*, *pub* from *public-house*, *lab* from *laboratory*, *the Lib-Labs* from *the Liberal and Labour (members)*, *pram* from *perambulator*, *chara* [ʃærə] for *charabanc* (Collinson, *Sp. Engl.* p. 14), *polly* for *apollinaris* (ib. p. 52), *head* for *headache* (I've got an awful head: ib. p. 60), *vet* for *veterinary (surgeon)*; *spats* for *spatterdashes*; *graph* for *graphic (formula)*; *in digs* for *in diggings*; *prelims* for *preliminary (examination)*, etc.

Sometimes, however, a stressed syllable gets lost: *bus* from *omnibus*, *cycle* from *bicycle*, *prep.* from *preparation*, *exam.* from *examination*, *Zoo* from *Zoological Gardens*, *prom* from *promenade concert*¹⁾, *flu* for *influenza*, *super* for *supernumerary*, *phone* for *telephone*²⁾.

1906. Shortening occurs frequently in special social groups; thus *lab.*, *prep.*, and *exam.*, are chiefly used in school slang; *the Lib-Labs* was a term in political slang. Similarly in Vachell's *Spragge's Canyon* describing life in California we find the local *comber* for *beach-comber*, *brush* for *brushwood*, *stage* for *stage-coach*. In Alec Waugh's *Loom of Youth*, describing life in a Public School, the following shortenings occur: *pros* (for *professionals*), *maths* (for *mathematics*), *pi* (for *pious*), *sec.* (for *second*), *pres* (for *prefects*), *gym.* (for *gymnasium*). Note that in all these cases of school-slang it is the first syllable, whether stressed or not, that is used.

1) I adore the Proms. Don't you? Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 2 § 3.

2) Don't tell me over the 'phone. Galsworthy, Silver Spoon I ch. 13 p. 98.

In the language of the printing-office *prelims* [prɪlɪmz] is used for the preliminary pages of a book (title-page, preface, table of contents, etc.). Among sportsmen occur *soccer* (Association football), *rugger* (Rugby football); see *English Studies* vol. 7 p. 40.

Less usual is probably *step* for *stepfather*, as in this sentence.

“I got the flat one, with the elbows, in a quiet corner,”
said Sally, “and told her Jeremiah was only step.”
de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 196 f.

1907. In nursery-language many shortened words have the diminutive ending [-i] added to them:

Hanky for *handkerchief*, *comfy* for *comfortable*, *pinny* for *pinasore*, *nighty* for *nightgown*, *tummy* for *stomach*, also *daddy*, *mammy*, etc.

See also 1679 and the sections on *Repetition*.

1908. In this connection mention may be made of the symbolic words, i.e. words that have arisen through abbreviated spellings, as *£. s. d.* [el es di]; *viz.* [viz], although these letters are usually read [neɪmlɪ] *namely*; *per cent*; *M. A.*; *B. A.*¹⁾; etc. See *English Sounds*, ch 7.

Back-Formation

1909. A word like *burglar* may seem to be formed from a verb, just as *meddler* is formed from *meddle*. Hence *burglar* has given rise to a verbal stem *burgle*. In the same way *darkling* formed with the adverb-suffix *-ling* has given rise to a new verb *to darkle*. A combination like *Mafeking-night* might suggest a verbal form [mæfəkɪŋ]; hence the verb *to maffick*; see 146.

1) Hence also *an M. A.* [ən em eɪ] as well as *a M. A.* [ə mɑstər əv ʌts].

This process of word-formation is called *back-formation*; it is frequent in English when words end in what may be taken for a living suffix, especially *-er*, *-ist*, *-ing*.

1910. Back-formation is also instanced by the following quotations. See also 1661 (*to muth*) and the footnote to 1832.

A Messenger from Bolshevy (i. e. the country governed by the Bolshevists). Heading of an article.

Times Lit. 11/3, '20.

Martha caretakes¹⁾ a decrepit City-warehouse.

Merriman, Moneyspinner T. p. 183.

Martha has house-cleaned²⁾ her room for Tilly's reception.

ib. p. 191.

Similarly *to spring-clean* from *spring-cleaning*, *to subedit* from *subeditor*.

Some of these verbal stems do not form a complete verbal system. The following example is an experiment rather than current English.

... of the difficulty with which the lady housekept.
de Morgan, Likely Story ch. 1.

Perhaps *utter* in the sense of *complete*, as in *utter subjection*, is a back-formation from *utterly*; and *Yank*³⁾ for *Yankee* seems to be a back-formation rather than a simple shortening.

1911. The analysis of a word into a stem and a suffix or a compositional element may give rise to a new 'suffix'. Thus, words like *thermometer*, *barometer* suggest a suffix *-ometer* [ɒmɪtə(r)], which gives rise to *speedometer*.

1) From *caretaker*.

2) From *house-cleaning*.

3) How had Jon liked the Yanks? (Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 3 p. 26). Similarly *the tote* via *totel* from *totalizator* (ib.).

The new words in the following quotations are similarly formed. Many of them are evidently nonce-words.

There are some good yarns among them, told with a certain literary grace, and with a fine sense of detachment from the realities of shore-going ¹⁾ life.

Athenaeum 8/7, 1905.

As spring drew on, the depression of spirits to which she was subject began to grasp her again, and to crush her with a day-and-night-mare.

Miss Martineau in Gaskell,
Life of C. Brontë ch. 23 p. 368.

Dearlove is too delightful and whimsical a character to drift lightly away into the reader's forgettury ²⁾.

Academy 28/4, 1906.

Most of his schoolmates or lifemates.

Hawthorne, Scarlet Letter.

Why has a clerical wit of the younger school coined the term "unctimony" to describe his heartiness of manner ³⁾.

Times Lit. 5/10, '22.

She was also useful as a touchstone, as what her mother did not call a foolometer.

Rose Macaulay, Potterism I ch. I § 4 p. 11.

... in its factual ⁴⁾ details...

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 3.

She was thrown off her guard by the finished execution, and for the moment quite forgot Cattley's and the classitudes ⁵⁾.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 11 p. 103.

The last few words showed the completeness of Fenwick's tame cattitude in the family.

ib. ch. 10 p. 92.

The lesson we had to learn from this parable was

1) From *sea-going*.

2) Compare *factory*, *laboratory*, *dormitory*, *repository*, etc.

3) On the analogy of *sanctimony*.

4) On the model of *actual* compared with *act*.

5) i. e. the distinctions between people of different social classes. Cattley's is a shop. Formed on the analogy of *attitude*.

obviously that nowadays widows, however good and solvent, were mundane, and married again, while in the city of Nain, nineteen hundred years ago, they (being in Holy Writ) were, as it were, Sundane, and didn't.

ib. ch. 17 p. 170.

Also *gaselier*, *electrolier* on the model of *chandelier*; *seascape* on the model of *landscape*; *snipocracy* on the model of *aristocracy*¹⁾, *squirearchy* on the model of *hierarchy*.

Repetition

1912. The sections on *Composition* have shown the close connection between *Sentence Structure* and *Word-formation*, and the arbitrary, though unavoidable, character of the separation of these two chapters of grammar. The same observation may be made with regard to repetition as a means of sentence-structure and of word-formation.

Repetition may imperceptibly lead to word-formation: *to talk (write) about it and about it* is now used without reference to any noun (formal *it*).

Must we magazine it and review at this sickening rate for ever? Shall we never again read to be *amused*? but to judge, to criticise, to talk about it and about it?

Lamb, Readers against the Grain.

For the present age, I believe, reads too little poetry. A certain select minority, indeed, led by its critical Scribes and Pharisees, does read only too much about it and about it; but that is no substitute.

F. L. Lucas in Pref. to Eight Vict. Poets (1930).

1913. Closely related to this repetition of words is the formation of new words by repeating one or more syllables, generally with the vowel-alternation [ɪ æ]. The repetition

¹⁾ From *snip* a nickname for a tailor. The word occurs frequently in Meredith's *Evan Harrington*.

in these words (mostly verbs) serves to express repeated action; they express sounds in the majority of the cases, and are often onomatopoeic (1919).

The tip-tappings of the tiny pink claws of the pigeons as they milled on the floor. Porcelain Lady p. 96 ch. 5.

(He) asked Jasmine what she thought she was doing jibbering and jabbering on his garden wall; . . .

Mackenzie, Rich. Rel. ch. 1 p. 23.

A pitter-patter of feet that spoke anxiety followed the elastic steps of Cromarty. ib. p. 143 (ch. 10).

He had nearly finished his fiddle-faddling arrangements.

Vachell, Brothers II ch. 3 p. 37.

She lay back on the bed in a semi-trance soothed by the unending bibble-babble all round.

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 21.

The familiar rigmarole of a hundred such tellings droned its course accompanied by the flip-flap, flip-flap of the cards. ib. p. 47.

Also to *wig-wag*, *zig-zag*.

1914. In the following cases repetition serves to intensify the idea.

. . . all of which is skimble-skamble thought in slipshod language, a confusion of platitude, falsity, and nonsense stark but inarticulate. Times Lit. 4/6, '14.

What's the use of trying to flim-flam¹⁾ me?

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 24 (ib. p. 218).

He could be relied on to see the facts of the situation without any of that 'flimflam' with which imagination is accustomed to surround them.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 34 p. 430.

1915. The same repetition, also often with vowel- and consonant-variation, is frequent in nouns. It may express repetition (chiefly of sounds) or serve to emphasize the

1) to deceive.

idea. Such words are *clâp-trap*, *sing-song*, *tip-top*, *riff-raff*, *wishy-washy*, *harum-scarum*, *roly-poly*¹), *hurry-burry*, *hurry-scurry*, *helter-skelter*, *namby-pamby*, *narrow uneven alleys leading to higgledy-piggledy workshops and kilns* (Bennett, *Clayhanger* I ch. 2 § 5), *a crowded higgledy-piggledy of plunt-coloured walls and chimneys* (id. *These Twain* I ch. 1). Over night had sprung up this amazing ordered *mish-mash* of lorries and cans and tents (Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 1 p. 13), *the thought of Pauline's hands criss-cross in his own* (Mackenzie, *Guy and P.* p. 82).

How little this method of 'word-formation' can be separated from the repetition of words discussed in 1912 f. seems to be clearly shown by the following instance.

It's always best to smile and try to look on the bright side of things and not be grumbly-grumbly.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 37.

1916. In nursery talk repetition is frequent, generally with variation of consonants or vowels and the diminutive suffix [-i]. These words are all nouns, and the repetition serves the purpose of endearment.

to-toes, handy-dandy, nosy-posy, piggy-wiggy, leggy-peggy.

Never mind, Dr. Conrad; I'll tell you presently. I've a bone to pick with you. Wait till we've seen the little churchy-wurchy.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 41 p. 446.

A nursery word like *to kiff-cough* shows a vowel-variation (like *ping-pong*) which is probably onomatopoeic (see 1919), like the other cases.

Portmanteau Words

1917. We may also mention here the so-called portmanteau-words in Lewis Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland*,

1) ['rouli 'pouli]. Perhaps this is rather a nursery-word (1916).

such as *galumphing*, a combination of *galloping* and *triumphing*¹). Such words are naturally nonce-words, even though they may occasionally be repeated by way of conscious or unconscious quotation.

You went galumphing over that gravel.

Daily Mail, Aug. 1911.

A few words are in more or less regular use: *Eurasian*, *Bakerloo*, *electrocute*, *squarson* (*squire* and *parson*).

This child, together with his fellows, used to wear a blue cap adorned with a band of gold braid and a patriotic emblem. It had a midshipmite air and was a romantic and glorious cap for which a small English boy would sell his soul²).

Times W. 18/1, 18.

The Americanadian problem of the spoken word by Marguerite E. de Witt (title).

American Speech I 3 (Dec. 1925).

A group like *bed-sitting-room* is not really the same type, but related, like the following.

Fynes received him in his luxurious study-drawing-room.

Squire, Grub Street p. 117.

Sentence-Condensation

1918. A sentence, especially a short sentence, may become a word, the meaning of its elements being completely forgotten. Such words are *maybe*; also, with vowel-variation, *shilly-shally* (i. e. *shall I?*), *willy-nilly* (*will he, nill he, i. e. will he not*). See 1847.

She was not a woman weakly to accommodate herself to shilly-shally proceedings.

G. Eliot, Scenes of Clerical Life (Amos Barton ch. 6).

1) See the interesting note by R. Withington in Mod. Lang. Notes 37, 6 (June 1922).

2) A combination of *midshipman* and *mite*. See 1674.

Onomatopœia

1919. Several of the words formed by means of repetition are onomatopœtic, such as *pitter-patter* of feet. Other examples, without repetition, are *whizz*, *buzz*, *plop*, *whist*, *to boo*, *booby*, *bother*, *to loll*, *to mumble*; also *peewit*, *cuckoo*. New-formations of this kind are rare.

(He looked) at the gas-burners which exploded one after another with a little plop under the application of the maid's taper. Bennett, *Old W. Tale IV*, ch. I § I.

THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1920. The division of labour between the writer of a dictionary and a grammar is not absolute: both generally deal with word-formation. But the treatment of the meanings of what may be called individual words is always left to the dictionary. Yet, it may be useful if some general observations are made here.

To say that the English vocabulary is a mixed one, consisting of words of very various origin, Germanic, French, and Scandinavian chiefly, may seem a historical statement, out of place in a book dealing with living English as it is, not as it has become. But this would hardly be correct; for this origin of the vocabulary, even though speakers are unaware of it, has its influence on the mental attitude of English speakers towards their native language. In this connection it may be pointed out that it is by no means chance that English has no current equivalent to the words *langue maternelle*, *muttersprache*, etc. of neighbouring nations ¹⁾: the Englishman is generally unaware

¹⁾ *Mother-tongue* is hardly so common as the corresponding French and German words.

of any sentimental tie that binds him to his native language; to him it is a necessary tool, so necessary, indeed, that he can hardly understand why foreign nations should choose to speak a different language, instead of talking English like any 'normal person'. And the modern Englishman is consequently unable to appreciate the value of the native language in all education, nor does he understand the violent outbursts of popular feeling against the oppression of foreign languages such as have been witnessed in modern times in countries with more than one national language, such as Belgium, and the countries that used to be under Austrian or Russian rule, and finally South Africa. The influence of these views on the methods of education in the English colonies (chiefly India) cannot be entered upon here.

The mixed origin of the English vocabulary has another consequence: words related in meaning are often unconnected in form. To the substantive *house* corresponds the adjective *domestic*; similar pairs are *hand, manual*; *head, capital*, etc. This characteristic has been pointed out before, and the supposed consequent strain on the memory has sometimes been dwelt upon. But there is another result that is more important: each word tends to be isolated, instead of being a member of a large family of words, such as are familiar to speakers of less mixed languages. That the word *law* is unconnected with *right* or *just*, as the corresponding words for this idea in related languages (French *droit*, German and Dutch *recht*), or with what is established (German *gesetz*), may not be without its influence on the attitude of Englishmen towards their law. It is well-known that English lawyers declare English law the "best in the world," but this only applies to its practical utility, and law has this excellence in common with practically all other English institutions.

which are also proclaimed "the best in the world" ¹⁾. But the idea of law as the outcome of national character is less familiar to Englishmen; it may be hardly more applicable to law, in their eyes, than to any kind of English machinery from Birmingham.

It is also natural that the contrast between *native* and *foreign* words, that plays such a large part in the minds of speakers of less mixed languages, should be quite unknown to English speakers. They are conscious only of the contrast between words that are familiar and such as are not, or of no difference at all.

Perhaps it is a result of the attitude of English speakers towards their language that experiments with new words are so frequent: they are attempts to increase its "degree of precision and energy," which, according to the late Henry Bradley (*The Making of English* p. 110), "can be equalled in few languages either ancient or modern".

The mixed character of the English vocabulary as the result of the number of words borrowed ready-made from other languages also has an important influence on word-formation. For the existence of a foreign word often makes a derivative with an English suffix, or a compound, superfluous. Examples have sometimes been pointed out in the preceding chapters, as in 1601. A suffix like *-ing*, too, is often left unused because there is a loanword with another suffix or a simple word (vol. 1, p. 80 ff.). Compare the parallelism of the nouns in *-age*, *-ment*, and *-ing* in the following quotation.

There had been a good deal of drainage in marshy places, much building of bridges and the development of numerous rough roads and customary lanes.

Powicke, *Medieval England* p. 43.

1) G. J. Renier, *The English: Are They Human*. Williams and Norgate, 1931.

Besides the mixed character of the English vocabulary, another peculiarity may be considered here: the invariability of most English words. This has already been referred to in the *Summary* at the end of the second volume. The consequences have also been pointed out there with regard to English word-formation. But from a syntactic point of view the question may be asked whether we are really justified in adhering to the traditional classification of words into verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc. For it has been shown that a great many English words are used in the functions of nouns and verbs, nouns and adjectives, adjectives and adverbs, etc. not only by way of conversion, i. e. in such a way that the speaker is aware of a syntactic shift, but also regularly in such a way that a speaker who is grammatically trained is unable to decide whether the word is 'properly' a verb, or a noun, etc. Thus, it would be impossible for him to classify such words as *will, need, want, wish, love, walk, dust, book, condition*; for they are used as verbs or as nouns. It would not be difficult to collect words with similar pairs of functions by turning a few pages of a dictionary. And it has already been pointed out (1886) that the classification is not infrequently impossible: thus in the case of *Mr., Mrs., random*, and the words in *-ing*; also in the treatment of adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions in volume 2. All these facts might induce us to give up the classification into verbs, nouns, etc. But it may be remarked that there are a good many words that always serve one and same syntactic function, and this seems to make it justifiable to retain the traditional arrangement.

**SYNTACTIC WORD-GROUPS
AND SENTENCES**

SYNTACTIC WORD-GROUPS

1921. In the first two volumes the forms and uses of the various 'classes' of words, as far as there can be said to be any in English, have been dealt with. They have not only been treated as individual elements of a sentence, however, but also as members of syntactic groups; it would have been impossible satisfactorily to treat of the uses of words without considering them as parts of such groups. Some of them, indeed, do not occur except as members of syntactic groups; such are the genitives of nouns, the articles, the prepositions, etc. The syntactic groups that have been considered in the preceding volumes have been studied from the standpoint of the class of words to which one of their members belonged. We must now consider syntactic groups in general, referring the reader for details to the preceding volumes.

1922. A *syntactic group* is a combination of words that forms a distinct part of a sentence. If the definition of the terms *word* and *sentence* could be regarded as settled, the definition of the term syntactic group, and its delimitation with respect to the other terms, might be perfectly clear. In many cases it is by no means a simple matter, however, to decide whether a given number of syllables is to be looked upon as a single word or as a group of words. The difficulty has been treated in the chapter on *Composition* in this volume. The delimitation between syntactic groups and sentences, which depends on the definition of *sentence*,

is equally uncertain. But for the practical or scientific student of language the inconvenience is not so great as it may seem: it may be no greater than the impossibility for the student of religions to define what religion really implies, or for the student of botany what is the exact meaning of the word plant. Such definitions, as far as they claim to be final, seem to presuppose the existence of the body of knowledge that the study of the subject may be hoped to reveal to us.

1923. With regard to the syntactic word-groups we shall have to study their structure in the first place; from this point of view they are distinguished as *close* or *loose*.

We speak of a close group when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. We speak of a loose group when each element is comparatively independent of the other members. Examples of close groups are nouns with an attributive noun or adjective, or with an article or a possessive pronoun; also the groups of nouns and pronouns with a verb stem or participle or a verbal ing; indeed, most of the groups treated in the first two volumes. This is natural, for it is only when the function of the separate words could not be understood that their use in groups has been examined there. The loose groups, on the contrary, leave the individual words unaffected by their membership of the group, as in *men and women*; they have not been treated in the chapters dealing with the parts of speech, and will consequently receive special attention here.

The elements of a syntactic group may be connected by form-words or not; this will be discussed in each case. To prevent the reader from being overwhelmed by the details, short typical examples will be given when the group has been fully treated and illustrated elsewhere.

Structure of Close Syntactic Groups

1924. Close groups can best be enumerated when we arrange them according to their leading member: we may thus distinguish *verb groups*¹⁾, *noun groups*, *adjective groups*, *adverb groups*, *preposition groups*. The *pronoun groups* are most suitably included in the noun or adjective groups to which they are evident parallels.

Verb Groups **1925.** In the close verb groups the term verb denotes the verb both as the leading element of a predicate and in a non-predicative function. Consequently, the form may be the plain stem, or a characterized verb with one of the suffixes [ɪz, ɪd, ɪŋ]. The stem with *to* is a group in itself, and is not included in the simple term *verb*.

In close groups containing two verbs one of these *must* be non-predicative, and both *may* generally be so; the first case under A below includes the only exceptions to this last statement.

A. Leading Verb with Verb.

- (1) Leading Verb with plain stem: *You can go*.
The leading member is always a predicative verb (an auxiliary), except in the case of *go*, *hear*, *help* (*go see*, etc.); see 186 ff.
- (2) Leading Verb with ing: *came staggering towards me*, *finished undressing*, *was heard grimly asking*; see 84—6, and 113.
- (3) Leading Verb with participle: *Your shoe has come undone*; see 56—58.

1) Not to be mixed up with *verbal groups*, i. e. groups containing verbal forms only.

B. Leading Verb with Noun.

- (1) Leading Verb with a noun ¹⁾ serving as an object. The object completes the meaning of the verb (*a*); when the verb denotes a voluntary action it may specially express what is affected (*b*), or what is effected (*c*) by the action of the leading verb.

a. To hear a noise; to see a sunset; to enter a house; to give advice; etc.

b. He has cleaned the knives; we killed two hares; don't strike the boy; etc.

c. The Council has appointed a new master; to write a letter; to build a house; etc.

- (2) Leading Verb with a noun as a nominal predicate: *to look an object, to be a member, etc.*

C. Leading Verb with Adjective.

To seem cheerful; to be quiet.

These groups are closely related to those of B 2.

D. Leading Verb with Compound Personal Pronoun.

To stir oneself, to avail oneself of an opportunity, etc.

See 1028 and 1958.

E. Leading Verb with Adverb.

- (1) Adverb expressing place: *He lives here; staying anywhere, etc.*
- (2) Adverb expressing time: *He will come early; he was late, etc.*
- (3) Adverb expressing manner: *He speaks distinctly, running quickly; I understand you perfectly; etc.*
- (4) Adverbs expressing modality: *Possibly thinking, not imagining.*

1) See 1926.

Noun Groups 1926. The word *noun* in these tables means the indefinite case, i. e. the stem form, or the form with a sibilant in the function of a plural.

A. Leading Noun with Noun.

(1) Leading Noun with attributive noun:

a. with even stress: *a village church, a country doctor*, etc. See 1852 ff.

b. with uneven stress: *Mr. Jones, King Edward*, etc. See 1378 ff. and 1886.

(2) Leading Noun with attributive genitive: *Mary's dress*; see 833 ff.

B. Leading Noun with Adjective:

Mild weather, rude words, a pleasant man, etc.

See 946 ff.

C. Leading Noun with Pronoun or Numeral.

My reason; this charge; six horses; etc.

See *Pronouns* in volume 2.

D. Leading Noun with Adverb.

After events. — The above remark, etc.

Will it be a step on or a step back?

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 10 p. 89.

I have got some rooms for us in that little house up there on the terrace.

Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 83.

See 956, and 1842.

E. Leading Noun with Participle.

The desired channel of the conversation, etc.

See 43 ff.

F. Leading Noun with Verbal Ing.

The seeming sleeper; it's no use men being angry; etc.

See 95, 115 ff.

Of the pronouns some classes only occur as the leading elements of a group: the personal pronouns (*we English*), the neuter relative *which* (*all which*), the neuter demonstratives (*all this*), and the indefinites (*it concerns us all; somebody nice; anything useful*). The pronouns can also take preposition groups: *some of them, all of whom*, etc. For further examples, see below on word-order in these groups.

Adjective Groups 1927. Adjectives are not so often the leading members of simple groups as verbs and nouns.

A. Leading Adjective with Noun.

This group is very restricted, and occurs only with *worth*, (*un*)*worthy*, and with *like*, *near*, which, however, may be interpreted as prepositions:

He is very like his father.

We have come nearer the Greeks.

Murray, *Essays* III p. 11.

His sketches are well worth inspection.

Athenaeum 21/9, '12.

Mercia was even less homogeneous than Northumbria; it had no frontiers worth mention.

Pollard, *Hist. of England* p. 16.

He was being loudly acclaimed for work unworthy his talent.

Whibley, *Thackeray* p. 76.

If we set aside altogether Shakespeare's sonnets, one sonnet of extraordinary beauty... and perhaps other thirty worthy a place in an anthology, constitute a very satisfactory proportion of the thousand here printed.

Athenaeum 6/8, 1904.

"It was worth it," smugly remarked Mr. Campbell,
Squire, Grub Street p. 100.

B. Leading Adjective with Adverb:

quite evident, very clear, perfectly simple, etc.

Perhaps it is best to include here such cases as *wide open*, *clean gone*, etc.; see 1831.

C. Leading Adjective with ing.

This construction is rare, and occurs only with *worth*, *like*, *near*. The last two are nearly always used predicatively when forming this group: some adjectives, like *long*, *busy*, never take it except in predicative use; see 89 f.

Adverb Groups **1928.** Adverbs can only form a group with another adverb: *very well*, *extremely badly*, etc.

Preposition Groups **1929.** Prepositions are very common as leading members of syntactic groups.

- (1) **Leading Preposition with Noun:** *at home*, *in the garden*, etc. See *Prepositions* in volume 2.
- (2) **Leading Preposition with Genitive:** *at Robinson's*: see 850.
- (3) **Leading Preposition with Ing:** *on going there*, etc. See the chapter on the verbal ing in volume 1.
- (4) **Leading 'preposition' to with a Verb stem:** *to go*. See volume 1. On the character of *to*, see also 1480.
- (5) **Leading Preposition with Adverb:** *until now*, etc. See *Prepositions* in volume 2.

Extended Groups **1930.** It is possible, indeed very common, for a member of a group to be a group in itself; thus, we find a verb group of the type A, 1 with a verb grouped with an adverb (type D) for one of its members: *You can go immediately*. And in the groups

containing a noun, the latter is often accompanied by an adjective, etc. Such groups are called *extended groups*; the member that is a group in itself is called a *sub-group*.

It would probably serve little purpose to enumerate all these extended groups; but some must be mentioned, especially those that occur only as extended groups.

1931. Among the most frequent extended groups are those containing a verb stem with *to* for a sub-group; they have been treated in the first volume (verb stem with *to*) as an adjunct to verbs, nouns, adjectives; also to predicative participles (*was heard to say*); see 290.

Another common type of extended groups are those with a preposition group for a sub-group: they occur with a verb, noun, or adjective as their leading member:

Standing in the garden; he stared at us; the men in the street; a friend of my brother's; it's no concern of anybody's (Orczy, *Pimpernel and Rosemary* T. p. 193); fond of a good dinner; etc.

Among the extended groups a very important class are the plain or prepositional object with plain stem, with stem with *to*, with participle, and with *ing*. All of them have been treated in the first volume.

1932. Some groups occur as extended groups only. Among them are the verb groups with a non-prepositional noun as a sub-group to express extent of time (*a*), or extent of space (*b*); also a point or period of time (*c*). Thus we can say *We have walked six miles*, but a preposition is necessary in *We have walked for miles*; *I met him that Sunday*, but *I met him on Sunday*; similarly *It happened one Sunday*, but *on Sunday*, also *on a Sunday*, *on Sunday the 10th of October*.

a. He walked all day. — He insisted on my stopping the night. Sweet, *Element*. p. 56.

Of course he was staying the night, as usual.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14 p. 131.

If a person ran all the way twenty minutes would cover it, but, most of the time, the road went up hill and that made running difficult.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 2 p. 15.

b. We have walked ten miles. — We have walked this path before.

It was a move towards London, and I couldn't rest till I had come the whole way. Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

This wide heath, east of Beaulieu, stretching miles away towards Southampton Water, looks level to the eye. Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 2 p. 38.

c. Nobody except himself came near the spot that night. Hardy, *Return of the Native* I ch. 9.

The same hour the next evening found him again at the same place. id. *ib.*

He pursued precisely the same course yet four nights longer, and without success. But on the next, being the day week of their previous meeting, he saw a female shape, . . . id. *ib.*

And it is not want of memory; for I declare I can see him this moment. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*.

That year the summer was of a blazing heat.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 § 2 p. 67.

1933. The verb in the groups just illustrated is usually one of motion, but not invariably, as is shown by this example: *I haven't seen him these last few days (Cf. for a week).*

See 1936 on cognate objects.

The constructions in the preceding section occur chiefly in verb groups; but when a noun has a distinctly verbal meaning it may take the same adjuncts.

Virginia's reply to Miss Nunn's letter brought another note next morning — Saturday. It was to request a call *that same afternoon.* Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

1934. A *vêrb* group with a noun as a sub-group can also express direction (*a*), and measure (*b*); but the reservation of this construction to extended groups is due to the meaning of the whole.

a. He did not know what way to go.

He said very little one way or the other about his experience as an officer. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 1.

He lives Cricklewood way.

Is there any skating out your way?

Collinson, *Sp. Engl.* p. 32.

Next day she went her ways as usual.

Hardy, *Native VI* ch. 2 p. 485.

b. It weighs twenty pounds.

It costs five shillings.

We also find these noun-groups with a verbal participle that does not form part of any verbal system.

And Dr. Vereker appears, *quartette bound*¹⁾, for this was the weekly musical evening at Krakatoa Villa. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 26 p. 281.

1935. The nouns that are used as elements of verb groups have been distinguished as objects and adverb adjuncts. The latter are always extended groups, the objects may be simple. There is generally a difference in the meanings of the two formally distinct classes, as indicated. But it is not always possible to distinguish between the two (*a*). We also find nouns that can hardly be said to complete the verbal meaning in the way objects do, although they do not express the meanings of the adjuncts of 1932 (*b*).

a. They began to *talk dogs*.

Bennett, *Old W. T.* II ch. 1 § 3.

1) Cf. *bound for Calcutta*.

He began to *feel panic*. Why should he imagine that he was able to write? Walpole, Fort. II ch. 1 § 2 p. 155.

The air *changed its temperature*.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 38.

The spectacle of the wealthiest nobleman in Great Britain *tramping the road*, pack on back . . .

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 8.

It's *raining cats and dogs*.

b. It had *slipped his memory*.

Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 5.

He was *banished the country*.

She might have *looked her thanks* to Gabriel on a minute scale, but she did not speak them.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 1.

Valentine *looked his query* at the proprietor who came to his rescue with fuller reports.

Chesterton, Inn. of Father Brown.

He *felt his way* into the dark hall and struck a match.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 7 § 2 p. 82.

He *begged his way* home.

We *waited dinner* for you.

Also *to look admiration at a person, to look daggers, to smile encouragement upon, to talk shop (politics)*.

1936. The last examples of the preceding section are closely similar to what are called *cognate objects*, i. e. nouns that may be interpreted as objects, having the same meaning, and the same or a very similar form as the verbs: *to sing a song, to live a life*, etc.; the noun must have a qualifying adjunct. Of course, the object-character is not always the same in these cases any more than elsewhere.

Monica *laughed that sedate laugh of hers*, which always seemed to Pauline like a clock striking, so independent was it of anybody's feelings.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 100.

He had *said his say*.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 12 § 2 p. 485.

It was at Chatham that poor little David Copperfield, on his solitary tramp to Dover, *slept his Sunday night's sleep* "near a cannon, happy in the society of the sentry's footsteps."

Ward, Dickens ch. 1.

Prodigious was the amount of *life I lived* that morning.

Brontë, Vilette ch. 6.

Smiling a smile of which the levity puzzled me... ib.

And then Blandley *laughed a great jolly laugh*, which set him coughing, because he smoked too much.

Niven, Porcelain Lady ch. 4.

Indirect and Direct Object 1937. Some verbs are used with two objects. In that case the first (*indirect*) object nearly always denotes a person (*a*), rarely a thing (*b*). The second (*direct*) object is usually non-personal, but it may denote a person (*c*).

a. I have sent your brother the book he had asked for.

Whether or not she could be called a comely woman might have furnished matter for male discussion; the prevailing voice of her own sex would have denied her charm of feature.

Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

Rosalind had read him that aloud, he knew, but he couldn't say when.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 38 p. 414.

To remember this will spare the reader some disappointment.

Athenaeum, 23/1, '15.

No one paid him any heed.

Cannan, Corner ch. 30.

He allotted them a house to live in.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 12.

b. This lends his departure strange effects.

Besant, All Sorts and Conditions of Men.

You ought to give the house a new coat of paint.

Give the pen a rest. Clara joins in hoping you'll come.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 5.

The hall was empty. He gave it one last friendly

look, the door had closed behind him and he was in the street. Walpole, Fort. II ch. 5 p. 200.

“Ah,” said Herr Lutz giving Peter’s arm a squeeze. ib. II ch. 3 p. 174.

c. And she almost envied Grace Crawley her lover. Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 28.

“I don’t envy you him, but ‘it’”, said Lily. ib. ch. 52.

1938. It is usually explained that the first object is indirectly affected by the action, whereas the thing-object is directly affected by it. But this is hardly correct, for the first object rather denotes the person who is affected, quite as directly as any other object, but not by the action expressed by the verb: it is affected by the action expressed by the whole verb-group, i. e. by the verb with its ‘direct’ object. This accounts for the fact that the participle of these verbs with the direct object can be the predicate of the ‘indirect’ object in the group-passive: *he was told the truth*. See 461 ff.

This interpretation only can account for a case like the construction of *to ask*: *I asked him some questions*. In this sentence *him* is evidently the direct object of the verb-group *ask questions*.

These cases also explain why we can say *John sent his uncle a telegram*, the uncle being affected by the sending of the telegram, whereas we can only say *John sent his boy to his uncle*, in which sentence *his boy* is the real object and *to his uncle* is an adjunct of place.

A verb that can be construed with an indirect and a direct object can also take a direct thing-object and an adjunct with *to*. It is generally said that *I gave John the money* is equivalent to *I gave the money to John*; from what has been said it is evident that this is wrong: in the first sentence *John* is the object of *gave the money*, in the second *the money* is the object.

1939. When a verb-group contains two non-
Adjunct of prepositional nouns, the relation of these to the verb
Benefit may be different from the one discussed so far.
 The second noun may be the object and the first may denote
 the person benefited (not really affected) by the action.

Light me the gas before you go. Bennett, *Old W. T.*

"To the best of my ability," I said, "I will do you a
 translation." Wells, *Country* p. 468.

Well, then, suppose you prove it by calling me a cab.
 H. James, *Reverberator* p. 18.

(Bulgaria) has in great measure forfeited the sympathy
 and the admiration in Europe which her history since
 her liberation and her achievements in the contest with
 Turkey had earned her. *Times W.* 18/7, '13.

In the darkest hour of danger and disgrace, great men
 had not been wanting to our need. Carleton had saved
 us Canada. Hastings had saved us India.

Trevelyan, Brit. Hist. p. 42.

These *adjuncts of benefit* are closely related in meaning to
 noun-groups with the preposition *for*. Essentially identical
 are the adjuncts expressing a person who is harmed or injured
 by the action; of course, the use of *for* is impossible then.

At length, in 1782, he (i.e. John Bull) was again
 exasperated into action, by discovering that the cor-
 ruptionists had lost him America.

Trevelyan, British History p. 1.

1940. The adjunct of benefit differs from the indirect
 object in that it is invariably a personal pronoun, and is
 never used as the subject of a group-passive. For examples
 of compound personal pronouns, see 1028, 3. Its relation
 to the 'oblique pronoun of interest' is defined in 1942.

1941. It sometimes happens that a verb can be construed
 with an object and also with an adjunct with *to* that seems
 its equivalent.

I can telegraph my lawyers.

Wharton, House of Mirth p. 192.

They telephoned me from headquarters.

Bennett, Milestones III, Brit. Pl. p. 64.

The explanation of this is probably that the word has shifted its meaning a little: *to telegraph*, as long as it was understood to mean *to send a telegram*, took *to*. But when it was understood as *to inform* (by telegram), which might be when telegrams came to be daily and ordinary things, it could take an object. Compare also the following quotation:

"If I may, I'll go out at once and telegraph to Lady Doleford — or are you on the telephone?" said Graham.

"We're not, but Aunt Agnes is", said Barbara. "And I'm supposed to be with Aunt Agnes till to-morrow. If you could telephone Aunt Agnes. — But it (*viz.* the fog) may lift in an hour or two."

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

1942. Closely related to the adjuncts of benefit is the oblique pronoun (of the first and second persons only) expressing the person who takes an interest in the action or whose interest is appealed to. It may be called the *oblique of interest*, if a term is required.

In his gusto for life and letters, this septuagenarian youngster peppers you his page with allusions and illustrations . . .

Times Lit. 27/1, '16.

1943. Some verbs with an object can be qualified by a preposition-group containing a noun of inherent possession as in *He patted the boy on the head*; see 1202. The adjunct in this case is not an adjunct of place, naturally: sometimes the noun is made the object, the person being expressed by a genitive: *He kissed the Queen's hand*. Perhaps it is unnecessary to define the difference between the two

constructions: it is evident that the genitive makes the action less 'personal.'

1944. There are a small number of verbs, however, such as *look* and *stare*, which do not take an object, and yet can take a similar construction. The noun does not necessarily denote a person.

He had hardly dared to look his clergy in the face.
Trollope, Framley.

Ruin stared him in the face.

There was one post in public life in which a man could really do what he liked if only for a short time, and that was the post of Prime Minister, which would never be his. He looked that in the face, and was under no illusion about it.

Spender, in *Engl. 19th Cent.* II p. 131.

Similarly, although *in good stead* is an inseparable group, in the following sentence.

Her childhood's training stood her in good stead.
Rose Macaulay, *Potterism* I, ch. 4 5 p. 46.

1945. A far more usual construction than the preceding is the use of a preposition-group with the noun as an attributive adjunct: *The blood rushed to Lily's forehead* (Wharton, *House of Mirth*). The peculiarity of this construction is that the attributive genitive denotes the person affected by the action.

Lord Lufton, as he spoke, looked full into his mother's face.
Trollope, Framley.

June bit her lip till the blood came.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* II ch. 2.

She could not help the tears of rage rolling down her face.
Galsworthy, *ib.*

Gift bread chokes in a man's throat.

Trollope, Framley ch. 36.

Verbs with Object and Predicative Adjunct 1946. A number of verbs take an object which may be looked upon as the subject of the following noun or adjective (adverb): *to call a man a pig, to consider a question improper*. The noun or adjective is called a *predicative adjunct*. For examples, see Volume 2.

1947. Among the verbs that take an object with predicative noun are those of making and declaring: *to make, appoint, call, create, name, proclaim, acknowledge, consider, crown, elect*. Also *to find, have, know*, and verbs expressing wish: *to wish, choose*.

What struck him was a general level of behaviour, accent and costume that sorted them, as it were, labelled them Londoners belonging to the prosperous classes.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 4.

(The pseudonymous author) reveals himself a professional in a number of little touches. *Times Lit.* 29/6, 16.

He has a clergyman whom he pronounces a blessing to the entire neighbourhood. *Escott, England I.* p. 15.

(His father) had said before Rodney was born that he would like to have a son a sculptor.

Moore, *Untilled Field* p. 7.

To catch the spirit of the common field system, to see that system no mere historical survival, but developing in harmony with modern needs, one must go to the Isle of Axholme.

Slater, *Engl. Peasantry* p. 52.

If, as in the good old days, I could boldly believe a Frenchman to be an inferior creature, while he, as simply, wrote me down a savage, there would be an easy end of the matter.

Lytton Strachey, *Books* p. 3.

... with a semi-apology for the phrase "daughter," and allowed the rest of what they were speaking of to lapse. — "I called her it for the pleasure of saying it," said he. *de Morgan, Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 196.

Amid laughter and exclamations Hamilton confessed

himself the man who had guessed Latin to be the cause of Miss Current's remaining an old maid.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 167.

In Fallowfield, among impertinent young men, Evan's pride proclaimed him a tailor. ib. ch. 16 p. 162.

As to my works I know them faulty.

id. quoted in Sturge-Henderson ch. 1 p. 1.

When we know ourselves fools, we are already something better. ib.

It is curious and interesting to find our younger men of letters actively concerned with the present condition of literary criticism. Times Lit. 13/5, 20.

I knew that he came because he had heard of the charm and beauty of Vicky Van. He had no idea he would find her his own wife,

Caroiyn Wells, Vicky Van ch. 20 p. 298.

A proud day for her to have a son a mitred abbot. Stevenson, Donkey p. 75.

She . . . might have had her own reasons for wishing him dead. Carolyn Wells, Vicky Van ch. 10 p. 139.

See 285 on the object with predicative stem with a number of these verbs (*noting his dress-clothes to be well-cut*).

1948. Most of the verbs in the preceding section, and a good many others, can also take an object and a predicative adjective: *I consider your plan too dangerous*.

It is hard to say why I rate "Middlemarch" so high.

Lord Acton, Letters to Mary Gladstone p. 90.

Now, Molly, I can't have you democratic. Rank is a great distinction. Gaskell, Wives III p. 267.

Lysander won the final victory which brought Athens low. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 178.

I stretched out my hand, picked it (viz. a little snake) up *unresisting*, and put it in my coat like the husband-man of old. Fairless, Road-Mender I.

He talked himself hoarse.

She laughed herself crooked.

Benson, Mr. Teddy ch. 13 p. 293.

Lady Harman was surprised to discover herself hungry.

Wells, Harman ch. 6 § 9.

Do you think I want to send him crazy again?

Clement Dane, Bill of Div., Brit. Pl. p. 668.

For examples of adverbs, see 956.

1949. Some of the verbs in 1947 can also take an object and a predicative adjunct with *as* or *for*; such are *to acknowledge, reveal, know*. A number of verbs must have the connecting *as* or *for*, rarely either, as in the case of *to know*.

They still looked on themselves as mere settlers and regarded the name of 'Irishman' as an insult.

(Don Quixote) saw the world only in the mirror of his beloved romances: he mistook inns for enchanted castles, windmills for giants, and country wenches for exiled princesses.

Times Lit. 27/4, '16.

I know him as an honest man.

But after that meeting in Cheyne Walk he knew her for a prize that some fortunate man might, one day, win.

Walpole, Fort III ch. 3 p. 257.

... that people aboard acclaimed him as the saviour of their lives.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 1 p. 2.

1950. In some cases a preposition group has the same function as a plain predicative adjunct. Such are the groups with *among, by way of*.

Do you count him among your friends?

Mr. Oak carried about him, by way of watch, what may be called a small silver clock.

Hardy, Madding Crowd p. 2.

1951. Somewhat different in character are the groups with words whose prepositional character is undoubted, such as *in* and *to*. The latter is rarely used.

We found him in a dreadful condition.

... planted to woodland.

Hardy, *Return of the Native*, Pref.

Vice-Admiral Keyes, who was in command of the operations, has been knighted, and Commander Carpenter of the *Vindictive*, has been promoted to captain.

Times W. 3/5, '18.

1952. The close connection between the predicative and the adverb adjuncts pointed out in 1951 makes it clear why both adjectives and adverbs are used occasionally: *You shall have these cheap.* — *We ought not to get the book too cheaply.* It need not be shown in detail that the two constructions are not identical in meaning.

Structure and Meaning **1953.** In the examples of verb groups discussed until now each member of the group expresses a meaning of its own. It frequently occurs, however, that one of the members has little independent meaning, or even none at all. The chief effect of this relationship is that the group becomes closer; it may even become inseparable. These relationships between structure and meaning must now be treated.

What is syntactically the leading member of a verb group has sometimes little if any independent meaning. This applies to the groups of an auxiliary with a plain stem mentioned in 1925 A 1. The effect is composition in *daresay* (23, 6).

There is also subordination of the leading verb in the groups of *to be* with an ing, distinguished as the progressive; and with the participle, called the passive. Also of *to have* with a participle, the perfect. All these important groups have been treated in detail in the first volume. The parallelism of such groups and a simple verb is shown by the following quotations.

The key *went* into the lock, and *was turned*.

Squire, Grub Street Nights Entertainments p. 21.

Obstacles must *impede* them and *be surmounted*; re-
volvers must *point at* them and *be knocked aside*.

ib. p. 24.

See 492.

In some cases the leading verb is not without a meaning of its own, though it expresses a modification of the other verbal form; this applies to such groups with a stem as *happened to see*; and with an ing, as in *kept saying*. These have also been treated in the first volume in the sections on the stem with *to* and the ing respectively.

1954. In dealing with the group-passive in the first volume (489 ff.) we have shown that this construction is often equivalent in meaning to intransitive verbs. Conversely, simple verbs may express what is sometimes to be looked upon as an action rather than an occurrence. This parallelism between the two constructions is illustrated by the following sentences. It may be noted that the simple intransitive verb does not take an adjunct with *by* to express the agent, and that its subject is non-personal.

In regard to style this volume compares favourably with its predecessors. Athenaeum 4/7, 1908.

The translations read well, but we notice that Dr. Wright disclaims responsibility for them.

ib. 18/11, '11.

The translation chosen proved to have, in full, that dramatic value which it is so hard to gauge without an actual trial on the stage. It played well: it did not sound like a translation.

Classical Rev. 26 (Febr. 1912).

(Dickens's) fame was never more secure than at the present time: edition after edition of his works pours from the press. Athenaeum 10/2, '12.

All the substantialities of his scheme of policy, most of its details, even, had been tossing about in the public journals and other channels of information for days before.
Pilot 10/12, 1903.

The hall was empty. He gave it one last friendly look, the door had closed behind him and he was in the street.
Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 5 p. 200.

In some cases the passive and the simple form are both used in the same meaning, although the passive seems to be the usual form.

Efforts made to sink her before the flames reached the explosives were unsuccessful, and, after an interval, she blew up.
Times W. 14/12, '17.

They have neglected the art of swimming, and therefore, when a canoe upsets, they commonly drown.
Daily News 15/2, '12.

1955. We find similar shiftings in the verb groups with a noun (1925 B). An important group is formed by the verb *to have*, with a meaning that reminds us of 'to hold, possess,' or 'to experience,' but much weakened (544 ff.). The first meaning can still be traced in *to have money*, the second in *to have breakfast*; but it is evident that to English speakers the groups are semantic units. A very important group are those with the stems of verbs with an indefinite article: *to have a wash, a smoke*, etc.; see 1836. The meaning of *have* is perhaps still more weakened in *to have a cold*. In these groups a passive construction is generally impossible, but when the whole expresses an action, as in *to have recourse to*, the group-passive is used.

Chapter and verse being difficult to give, recourse is had to allusion.

None of the facilities for hearing music which we now enjoy existed for Shelley, and . . . his principal experience of it was had in Eton College Chapel. Times Lit.

1956. Another important class of a similar kind are the groups of nouns with *to give*: *to give a brief glance, to give orders.*

(He) gave orders to saddle the grey gelding.

Mackenzie, *Seven Ages of Woman* ch. 1.

Mrs. Baines gave a brief glance at her.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale.*

(The book) showed that he was, in no kind of way, a man of one book, and it gave, in its London scenes, proof that its author was not limited to one kind of life and one kind of background.

Walpole, *Fort.* III ch. 8 p. 315.

Similarly: *to give the alarm, to give advice, to give honour, to give a promise, to give a cry,* etc.

Less common, perhaps, are the groups of this kind with *make* and *do*: *to make resistance, a choice (or one's choice), a suggestion, an attack,* etc.; *to do a translation, a town, good, harm, justice,* etc. See also 603 ff.

We have similar groups in *to catch cold, to take place, to take part, to take pleasure, to take leave, to take care, to get the sack, to shake hands, to pay a call, or a visit,* etc. In many of these groups the verb is also phonetically subordinated to the noun, which is caused by and at the same time promotes the unity of the group. The absence of an article often shows the closeness of the group, for it makes the noun dependent upon its membership of the group.

To guard the North he left Edwin and Morcar, Earls of Mercia and Northumbria, whilst he himself took post in his own Wessex. Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 68.

1957. English consequently possesses in many cases two alternative expressions for what may be roughly called the same verbal idea: *to resist, to make resistance; to smoke, to have a smoke; to attack, to make an attack; to call, to pay a call.* The difference between the simple

and the group-expression depends upon the kind of verb that is used, or upon the noun that accompanies it. In the groups of *have* with a verbal abstract (*have a smoke*) the group often denotes the personal feeling connected with the action: the result, naturally, of *have* 'experience.' This is quite evident in the following sentence (in indirect style).

He *had had a rise*; he had gone into partnership;
he had bought his partner out.

Squire, Grub Street p. 25.

Sometimes the group expresses the deliberateness of the action. This seems to be the difference between the simple verb and such groups as *to make resistance*, *to give a look*.

He was perfectly cool and made no resistance, but gave me one look, so ugly that it brought out the sweat like running.
Stevenson, Jekyll p. 7.

In groups with *take* the action is often denoted as beginning (the inchoative aspect), as in *to take possession of*, *to take hold of*, *to take a loathing to*.

I had taken a loathing to my gentleman at first sight.
Stevenson, *ib.* p. 7.

When the noun has an article, this may help to express the individual character of the action (*pay a call*).

It may also happen that the noun (or pronoun) is reduced to a word of little or no independent meaning, especially when it is the pronoun *it*. This case has been treated in volume 2 (1016 ff.).

Reflexive Verbs 1958. In this connection it may be useful to discuss the reflexive verbs: *to avail oneself*, etc.

The air changed its temperature and stirred itself more vigorously. Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 38.

To put the point metaphorically, we may say that

the river of fiction to-day pours itself in ever-increasing volume into the ocean of print.

Lord Ernle, Eng. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 50.

The sky had rained itself out.

Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea ch. 2 p. 23.

1959. Some reflexive verbs are only used in this way: *to plume oneself, to pique oneself, to pride oneself, to avail oneself, to absent oneself, to perjure oneself, to bethink oneself.* Others can be used with an object as well; such are *to enjoy oneself (to enjoy a dinner), to confine oneself (to confine a person in a room), to resign oneself (to resign an office).*

The reflexive verbs must be distinguished from the free groups of a verb with a compound pronoun as an ordinary object, which denote that the action affects the subject: *He shot his revolver at the policeman but wounded himself.*

"He's my brother," she said, as though explaining herself, the hour, everything.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 7.

... the dome above was turning slowly from peacock-green to peacock-blue, and the stars detached themselves more and more like solid jewels.

Chesterton, Inn. Father Brown p. 17.

1960. The verbs that *can* (not *must*: 1959) be used reflexively are often used without a reflexive pronoun.

"I can assure you I let dozens of little matters go, rather than bother myself."

"Then why do you bother now?" Sophia posed her.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 4 § 6.

I can wash and dress myself in half an hour.

By the time you have washed and dressed, breakfast will be ready.

Sweet, Element. no. 31.

She was a long time undressing.

J. O. Hobbes, Some Emotions, p. 29.

Mrs. and Dr. Workman — we follow the order of their title-page — have proved themselves most persistent

and energetic explorers of the glaciers of the Himalaya.
Athenaeum, 23/5, 1908.

Toby proved to be an ugly creature.
Conan Doyle, Sign of Four.

"You have been over-working," said Golightly.
Hobbes, Emotions p. 6.

Her eyes filled with tears.

Every now and then she indulged herself in the
luxury of terror, reading signs in everything.

Cannan, Corner ch. 16.

Don't worry yourself. Wells, Country p. 69.

As the story unfolds, and with it the characters of
the simple, yet shrewd mountain-dwellers, there is some-
thing in the drama, its persons and scenery, that compels
interest and sympathy. Athenaeum 14/3, 1908.

At this time, after his family had settled itself in the
Marshalsea . . . Ward, Dickens ch. 1.

Hide, Martha, hide. Dickens, Christmas Carol st. 2.

He watched the white clouds showing through the
branches. Moore, Untilled Field.

The country tossed for miles to right and left in great
stretches of pasturage. Mackenzie, Guy and P. p. 15.

1961. Although both the reflexive and the simple verb can be used in these cases, they do not express exactly the same meaning. On the contrary, it is often possible to use one of the two constructions only. Thus, a mother would say: "Go upstairs immediately, and wash yourself." On the other hand, the daughter in answering the question whether her mother is at home, might answer: "Mother is dressing"; the use of the reflexive would be absurd here. The reason is that the reflexive form in these cases is more emphatic; it may indicate the personal interest of the agent. This also explains the following: "I can wash and dress in half an hour." "But do you wash yourself properly?"

1962. We also find the simple verb as an alternative to the verb with the pronoun group *each other*.

Seventeen she had told him had been her age, and they had kissed in the dark, midway between two lamps.

Mackenzie, *Sinister Street* p. 839.

He was not there, but rather on some height alone with her and their hands touched over a photograph.

Walpole, *Fort. III ch. I § 4 p. 242.*

These two shapes of her crossed and were confused and again were parted.

ib. *III ch. 3 p. 257.*

Compare also the following.

But he had an amazing number of things to think about and the solicitor's office was the barest background for his *chasing* thoughts.

ib. *I ch. 10 p. 111.*

Copula 1963. One case of subordination of the verb in a mixed noun and verb group has not been treated here: *to be a clerk*. The verb in these groups is traditionally called a copula, and there is reason to retain the term, even though we interpret it differently from our predecessors. But the construction can be properly treated only in connection with similar ones in which the verb retains its full meaning (*I had walked into that reading-room a happy, healthy man. I crawled out a decrepit wreck.* Jerome, *Three Men in a Boat* ch. 1). These groups will be dealt with in the chapter on the *Simple Sentence*.

Verbs with Preposition Groups 1964. One kind of extended groups requires special treatment: the verb groups with a prepositional group for a sub-group. The prepositional sub-group often serves as an adverb adjunct, defining the time, place, manner, or circumstances of the action or occurrence. Thus in *It happened on the same day; at Chichester; we managed with his help to get through*, etc.

But it often happens that the prepositional group

merely serves to complete the meaning of the verb, i. e. has the same function as the objects discussed above (1935). The following sentence very clearly seems to require this interpretation.

I cannot close my eyes *upon this day* without setting down some record of it. Gissing, *Ryecroft* (Autumn).

It seems unnecessary to multiply examples, because many will be found in the first volume (458). But the similarity between the prepositional groups and plain objects is clearly demonstrated by their being grouped with the same noun.

There are moments in which the thought of death *steals upon and takes* us as it were by surprise, and it is then exceeding bitter. Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 2 p. 49.

A big pike had *dashed at* and tried *to seize* it at the moment of dipping in the water, and the swallow had escaped as by a miracle. ib. ch. 2 p. 36.

A Japanese picture of a hill both *differs from and resembles* a typical modern European painting of the same kind of hill. Sapir, *Language* p. 4.

He refused *to accept, to listen to, or even to consider*, the opinions of those who differed from him.

Times Lit. 14/4, '21.

For these names hardly seem to fit places which are bits of a real geological system you can *look at* in the light of common day *and tramp over and describe* as limestone or schist or whatever it may be.

Times Lit. 23/2, 22.

A preposition group may also accompany a verb with a plain noun: *to get hold of*.

It caught hold of and satisfied the higher imagination of contemporaries more than any other political movement. ib. 16/9, '20.

1965. The preposition groups illustrated in the preceding section are generally called *prepositional objects*. The term

is quite acceptable, even if we consider that the words called prepositions here are often rather adverbs, or even not words at all but elements of an inseparable word-group (*look upon, look at, laugh at, etc.*).

The object-character of these preposition groups is also shown by the circumstance that in many cases the verb can be used without the preposition or adverb (*a*), although the passive of such verbs is rarely possible without a preposition (*b*).

a. She sat the horse with perfect ease.

Garvice, *Staunch* p. 48.

A severe blizzard swept the greater part of England and Wales yesterday.

Daily News 3/2, '12.

The wanton giddy-pated pusses who play two gentlemen or more on their line.

Meredith, *Beauchamp's Career* p. 100.

The train had apparently, through some cause or another, jumped the rails.

Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 17 p. 136 f.

b. They will try and rush the boats.

Van Neck, *Adv. Engl. Prose*.

The poetical books are not to be read without a great deal of application; they cannot be rushed.

Ker, *Medieval Lit.* p. 13.

Transitive and Intransitive 1966. Verbs which are construed with an object are said to be used *transitively*. The term must naturally be applied equally to the verbs that take a plain and those that take a prepositional object.

Many verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: *I tasted the wine — The wine tasted sweet*. It will be sufficient to give a few of the less obvious cases ¹⁾.

1) Sometimes the meaning of the intransitive verb is so widely different that we might speak of two verbs in spite of their phonetic identity.

The modes of the moment are frankly picturesque, and they are meeting with general favour. The truth is most women had tired of the straight silhouette.

Daily News 25/3, '12.

The method of selection which has obtained up to now.

The pronunciation still obtained in the School in the middle of the eighteenth century.

Westminster School p. 120.

The collection had begun in Melchester.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 170.

The rain drove against the panes ... There was no conversation, and the wind could be heard driving the rain past the windows.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 1 2 p. 154 f.

There is no place in which the curse which attaches to slavery, both as regards the master and the slave, has been more strikingly illustrated.

Engl. 19th Cent. II. p. 19.

Peter, as the egg boiled, looked back rather wistfully over his year. Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 2 p. 25 f.

Before many days had gone by Dicky had received the box of water-colours. These things will not wait.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 9 p. 68.

Presently his horse's ears pricked, and the animal gave a low neigh. Meredith, Harrington ch. 45 p. 455.

The carriage was hot, for it had roasted all day under an August sun. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 2.

Yet change has come over him also. Both his tastes and hopes seem, in some degree, to have modified.

J. C. Squire in Observer, 11/3, 23.

Sometimes it seems necessary to call a verb transitive, even though the object is not expressly mentioned. It would hardly do in the last of the following quotations to distinguish a transitive and an intransitive verb *wash up*.

They strike equally cold and dead, for the truth is not in them. E. Sichel, in Essays I. p. 139.

Even the majestic thought that whenever and wherever

in all England a woman washes up, she washes up the product of the district, . . .

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 1 § 1.

Causatives 1967. Some verbs that are usually intransitive can also be used causatively. The third quotation illustrates the causative meaning of the *intransitive sell*.

Only the vigorous efforts of the states of Middle Greece led by the Aetolian League halted them near Delphi, and drove them back.

Goodspeed, *Hist.* p. 229.

He put his arm through mine, and signing to the others to accompany us, walked me off, westerly, through the forest.

Hope, *Zenda* ch. 3.

What is it that sells a novel? Is it the quality of surprise. . .

Globe.

There was a sequence of particularly high tides after Saturday morning, but there was no further flooding. The repaired walls stood the strain.

Spectator 14/1, 1928.

She becomes so absorbed in the details of the toddy that she has to stand a mere emendation over until it is ready. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 16 p. 162.

It was the last hole in the final, and the boy trod on his ball, thereby losing Marrovale the hole, the match, and the championship.

G. C. Dixon, *Strand Mag.* Aug. 1925 p. 152/2.

Prepositional Objects to Nouns and Adjectives 1968. A preposition group serving as a sub-group to a noun or adjective sometimes has a meaning that is quite parallel to the prepositional objects of verbs.

This may be seen in such groups as *the demand for this book, fondness of children, the certainty of success, in memory of; certain of, fond of*, etc. The relationship between the elements of these groups has some grammatical consequences. Thus, adjectives that take a pre-

positional object can take a non-prepositional clause as an object: *I am certain that he will fail*. And nouns that are grouped with a prepositional object do not take the defining article: *fondness of walking*; see 1174.

The following sentence illustrates the parallelism of the objects to adjectives and to verbs.

(They were) suggestive of anything, proclaiming
nothing. Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 11.

Anaphoric To 1969. One of the most peculiar and at the same time important groups in English is the one with *to* referring back to a verb stem. Anaphoric *to* is used in groups with verbs (*a*), with mixed verb and noun groups (*b*), and with simple nouns and adjectives (*c*).

a. You need not go to bed at 10 unless you want to:
Times W. 13/2, '14.

She (i. e. the heroine) makes me impatient at moments when I doubt if she was meant to.

A. C. Bradley, *Essays* II. 28.

"I know it's a rather curious thing to say", she continued, as before; "and I'm not quite sure that I am putting the matter as I wish to."

Patterson, *Stephen Compton* p. 233.

As a people we do not take kindly to being organized; and yet we shall have to learn both to do and to endure a great deal more of it than we ever thought to.

Times Ed. S. 20/6, '18.

b. Mother often says things one wouldn't expect her to.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 14 p. 159.

This sentence, strictly taken as it stands, would mean something that the writer by no means intends it to.

King's English.

"Look at poor B."

"I thought you told me just now not to."

H. James, *Sacred Fount* p. 25.

c. I wanted to turn round and look. It was an effort not to.

Crawford, *Uncanny Tales*.

"Richard, my boy!" he said heartily, "congratulate me." — "I should be happy to if I could," sedately replied the hero, to the consternation of those around.
Meredith, *Feverel*.

"Suppose we burn this too," I said. "It's absurd not to!" but she seized my hand.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 14 p. 162.

1970. Anaphoric *to* is quite evidently related to anaphoric *one* and anaphoric *so*. Like these it is not used when the reference is too vague to require expression.

a. I do not always reply to Georgiana, though I always could if I chose.

Allen, *Kentucky Cardinal* p. 132.

"Why don't you do as you are told?"

"Because I don't choose." Sweet, *Elem.* no. 47.

Even Rose unbent, and Leonora thought how attractive the girl could be when she chose.

Bennett, *Leonora* ch. 7.

I told her she should have gone fishing; she said she never wanted.

Correspondent in Gaskell, *Life of C. Brontë* ch. 6.

He might have been a scholar if he had wished.

Times Lit. 10/2, '21.

"There is a spare table in my room," said he. "You could pop down there with your papers if you like, while the change is being made, — or go home for the day if the man messing about would worry you — and you prefer."

Niven, *Porcelain Lady*, p. 24.

But Michael's tiresome family never did what it ought.

Sidgwick, *Severins* p. 218.

(They) don't know how to hold their tongues when they ought.

Montgomery, *Misunderstood* ch. 1.

b. It would have been so very hard to go away when he told her not.

Trollope, *Wortle* ch. 19.

"I will go if Cynthia wishes me," said Molly.

Gaskell, *Wives III* p. 30.

.... to make our whole enumeration as illustrational as we wish it. Henry James, *Times Lit.* 19/3, '14 p. 133.

"Won't Milly sing?" Themlow asked.

"Certainly, if you wish," Leonora responded.

Bennett, *Leonora* ch. 7.

Compare also the following.

There are many Cleopatras in History — a round dozen in fact — but there is only one in Romance; and we should have thought it impossible to make that one dull, if Mr. Weigall had not shown us how.

Times Lit. 18/6, '14.

In all of these quotations there is a verb or a mixed noun and verb group. But we also find the construction with nouns and adjectives, if less frequently.

She strained her eyes to see them, but was unable.

Hardy, *Native II* ch. 3 p. 140.

Other Groups 1971. In the preceding sections the preposition groups used as sub-groups to nouns and adjectives have already been discussed (1968). We find shiftings of the syntactic relations in groups with *of*; these have been treated in the second volume in the chapter on *Prepositions*, and in the sections on numeratives. The use of attributive nouns with nouns as their leading member has sometimes led to forms that are hardly to be considered nouns, as in the case of *Mr.*, *Mrs.* Other syntactic peculiarities of such groups, as the absence of the article, have been noted in volume 2.

It may occasionally be difficult to decide which element is the leading one. In the following case the adjective is an adjunct to the noun.

It was two storeys high. Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 5.

Concord in Close Syntactic Groups

1972. As English attributive words are generally invariable, there is little of concord in close groups. The only

case is the agreement in number between the demonstrative and its leading noun: *this remark, these remarks*.

Word-Order in Close Syntactic Groups

1973. The almost complete absence of inflectional forms in English makes the order of words important as a means of showing the functions of words in a sentence. It will be convenient to take the groups in the order in which they have been enumerated in the preceding sections. The groups accompanying a verb or adjective as the leading member are generally called *adverb adjuncts*, as far as they are not objects; those accompanying nouns are called *attributive adjuncts*. These traditional names may sometimes be useful, even if only on account of their familiarity.

1974. The order of words in verb groups often depends upon the function of the verb in the sentence; this is the reason why the problems must be treated in the chapter on the sentence. But some observations may be made which apply to the non-predicative verb; also some which concern other groups as well. See 2020 ff. on the prepositional combinations as sub-groups.

1975. Adverbs and objects qualifying a non-predicative verb (stem or ing¹), generally have post-position (*a*). Adverbs of indefinite time, and of modality precede (*b*).

a. Writing a letter; to say a few words, etc.

To show this clearly . . . Times Lit. 23/2, 22.

1) The participle is either a member of a verbal group, or a verbal adjective.

It was especially stimulating to find so many people anxious to discover what his opinions were concerning art, letters, and politics. Squire, Grub Street p. 9.

At first I was too much confused to observe anything accurately. Van Neck, Adv. Engl. Prose p. 40.

Sitting upright on the edge of a chair.

Squire, Grub Street p. 13.

"Look here, to put it bluntly, I know very well you've got every word of it in your damned diary."

ib. p. 14.

b. She did not wish to reflect; she strongly wished not to reflect; but her mind insisted on reflection.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 1 § 4.

I told you not to speak about it.

At last he was silent, not knowing what to answer.

See 184 f.

1976. Adverbs qualifying a stem with *to* are frequently given mid-position, but this construction is rare in literary English.

Russia has too sparse a population to properly open up the territory already hers. Pilot 3/10, 1903.

Lord Coleridge realised to the full that the proper end of punishment is to deter, and not to merely inflict pain. Pall Mall Mag. April 1903.

To thoroughly appreciate Elizabeth's amusing and interesting experiences one must first rid the mind of any suspicion that it is selfish to go on a holiday by one's self and leave the husband, the Man of Wrath, to look after the children. Academy 20/2, 1904.

He apparently never allowed himself to just be happy.

Think of asking Agnes to really rough it.

I wish the reader to clearly understand the central principle.

The time has come to once again voice the general discontent.

The sun is obliged to always keep an eye on the rascals.

I wish I had told the laundress to well blue the clothes.

This word-order is rare with the adverb *not*.

I don't see how you had the heart to not ask us.

Pam, Part II, ch. 3.

It is doubtful if he had quite listened — he having so much to not listen to at the Home Office that the practice was growing on him.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 16.

... the young woman who attends to such matters (viz. brushing her mistress's hair) has been taught to fulfil her duties about a mistress recumbent in an easy chair before an open window, and to not profane with chatter that sweet and solemn time.

Eliz. and her German Garden.

Noun Groups 1977. Attributive adjuncts are most conveniently discussed with respect to their place by distinguishing:

(1) adjectives; (2) verbal adjectives; (3) noun stems; (4) genitives; (5) pronouns; (6) numerals; (7) verb stems with *to*; (8) adverbs.

On attributive prepositional groups, see 2020 ff.

Attributive Adjectives 1978. Attributive adjectives generally precede their leading noun, as in *a good man*. But sometimes adjectives require post-position in order to express a special meaning, as in *China proper has many towns*. Similarly in the following sentences.

Of literary work proper he produced comparatively little. Quoted in *Academy* 94, 1904 p. 395/1.

It was a word not to be mentioned to ears polite.

Gaskell, *Cranford* p. 6.

An attributive adjective that precedes its leading noun forms a closer whole with it, and expresses a quality

that is more or less thought of as lasting and characteristic of the noun, not an accidental quality or circumstance. This seems to account for the order of words in the following sentences.

Before him stretched the long laborious road, dry, empty, and white. Hardy, *Native I* ch. 2 p. 9.

In all these cases, possession is a gentle term for enslavement, bestowing the sort of felicity attained to by *the helot drunk*. Meredith, *Egoist* p. 132.

Vowels uttered with *the tongue tense* have a clearer, shriller sound, and a higher pitch, than those uttered with *the tongue slack*. Wyld, *Hist.* p. 44.

It was with *a conscience uneasy* that Edwin shut the front-door one night a month later.

Bennett, *Clayhanger III* ch. 15 § 1.

The last two cases may be due to the structure of the sentence, for they can be looked upon as absolute adjuncts.

1979. The adjective sometimes follows its leading noun for the sake of emphasis or rhythm. This order is naturally literary.

You tell me that money cannot buy the things most precious. Gissing, *Ryecroft V*.

Had Peter waited a thousand years he could not possibly have chosen a time more favourable.

Walpole, *Fortitude III* ch. 2 p. 245.

For the wealthy, there are volumes magnificent, lordly editions; works of art whereon have been lavished care and skill and expense incalculable. Gissing, *Ryecroft XXII*.

Germany entered on the war under circumstances the most unfavourable that could be conceived.

Times Lit. 2/11 '16.

He gathered welcome materials in fields fresh and pastures new¹). Hole, *Memories* p. 33.

1) To-morrow to fresh woods, and pastures new. Milton, *Lycidas*, last line.

1980. The adjective has post-position in many traditional combinations, mostly borrowings from French. They are naturally frequent in legal and political terms.

heirs male; heir apparent; Vicar Apostolic; law merchant; Knights of the Table Round.

The rising trade gives the lie direct to the stories of universal anarchy. Daily Mail 26/2, '12.

The word-order in such groups as *heirs male*, though the group is traditionally handed down, may be partly due to the emphasis of contrast. In other cases, as in *table round* it is strengthened by rhythm. Emphasis may also explain post-position of *dear*, although this, too, is supported by tradition.

Oh, Major dear! is that what being a trustee means?
de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14 p. 131.

Oh, Rosey dearest! ib. ch. 9 p. 87.

1981. In the case of the groups with *sort of*, etc. the adjective precedes *sort* when this has retained its independent meaning, and when *sort of* qualifies the noun only (*a*). But when *sort of* is an adjunct to the group of the adjective with the noun it naturally precedes the group (*b*). See 1445 ff.

a. A funny sort of man.

A new sort of literature.

(He) considered himself a hardened sort of brute, free of illusions. Bennett, *Clayhanger* I ch. 1 § 2.

b. "Yes, mother," answered Sophia with a sort of cold alacrity. Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 3 § 3.

1982. When a loose group of two adjectives qualifies a noun, it generally precedes, like simple adjectives: *her beloved but reticent old fossil* (de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 166).

When such a group of adjectives refer to two specimens of the idea expressed by the noun, both adjectives may precede, and the noun may have the singular or plural form: *his juster appreciation both of the fiery and the official points of view* (Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 16); see 804 f. Or, in the case of class-nouns, the noun may follow the first adjective, and the second may take the prop-word *one*: 1276 ff. When it is not a class-noun, so that the prop-word cannot be used, the noun may be repeated or not. The same construction is also possible in the case of class-nouns, especially when two classes are contrasted: 1298 ff. The following quotations may be added to those in the sections referred to.

Could it be, he thought, that this boy shared their bad qualities instead of his father's good qualities?

Burnett, *Fauntleroy* ch. 2.

The cathedrals of the English Church are distinguished as those of the Old and of the New Foundation.

Dict. of Engl. Church Hist. ed. Ollard.

As a student at Bologna he had made himself familiar with the principles of the civil and the common law.

Wakeman, *Intro.* p. 107.

This was one of the most notable features of the Mid-Elizabethan as it was of the Mid-Victorian age.

Times Ed. S. 7/9, '15.

1983. Post-position of a double group of adjectives also occurs, for the same reasons as in the case of single adjectives.

(1978 *b*).

There was yet a third kind of activity, distinct from that of *literary work pure and simple*, in which Dickens in these years for the first time systematically engaged.

Ward, *Dickens* ch. 4 p. 97.

Such work is the business of *the lexicographer pure and simple*.

Wyld, *History of English* p. 27.

(1979).

He had in his blue silk tie a pearl so large and so white that sophisticated citizens might have doubted that it was a pearl at all. Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 9 § 3 p. 105.

The sense of her loneliness, physical, spiritual, and intellectual, overwhelmed Sylvia's aspirations.

Mackenzie, *Sylvia and Michael* p. 57.

He evidently thought that neglect of Burns was another true bill against the illiterate Englishman, a crime wanton, stupid, and inexplicable. *Times Lit.* 21/1, 15.

(1980).

The Lords Spiritual and Temporal.

He looked upon himself as, to all intents and purposes, a Kentish man born and bred. Ward, *Dickens*, p. 1.

1984. When an attributive adjective is accompanied by a plain noun (always expressing measure) the attributive group generally follows the noun (*a*), but pre-position occurs sometimes in spoken English (*b*).

a. A ditch five feet wide.

A child three years old.

b. A three-year-old child.

1985. An attributive adjective accompanied by a prepositional group generally has post-position.

All the implements necessary for salmon-fishing.

A majority might, and almost certainly would, in such circumstances, be used to effect changes irretrievable in their consequences, and highly objectionable to the people themselves.

The *Pastorals*, written, according to Pope's assertion, at the age of sixteen, were published in 1709, and won an amount of praise incomprehensible in the present day.

Dennis, *Age of Pope* p. 29.

Pre-position of adjectives with a prepositional adjunct, and of length groups in general, is apt to have a strange

effect. It is possible only if the adjective is the last element of the attributive group.

Browning is a very great, though also very far from perfect, poet.

A handy re-issue of the long out of print and now expensive edition of 1876.

I do not suppose that many have dug, as I have, a fifteen-feet-deep hole, just for the joy of doing it.

Daily Mirror 1919.

1986. Adjectives accompanied by a prepositional adjunct sometimes precede the noun and have the adjunct after it.

Those holy and humble men of heart.

Hole, Memories.

Toleration to-day is becoming a different thing from the toleration of former times.

Wells.

Mrs. Tulliver had a facility of saying things which drove her husband in the opposite direction to the one she desired.

G. Eliot.

Mary Thorne was learning music in Lady Arabella's schoolroom on equal terms, as regarded payment, with her own daughters.

Trollope.

There is a story in Lockhart's *Life of Scott* of an ancient beggar-woman who, whilst asking an alms of Sir Walter, described herself, in a lucky moment for her pocket, as "an old struggler."

Covered with a checked cloth in red and white.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale I* ch. 5 § 1.

The girl followed their flight with grey eyes dimmed with tears; for the impending peril to the climber had cleared her inward vision.

Vachell, *Spragge* p. 5.

Outside the four walls of his University the Master of a college, if a poor man, has an inferior status to that of a Bond Street tradesman.

Well, Mr. Utterson, you are a hard man to satisfy, but I'll do it yet.

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 71.

1987. It seems convenient to treat here of attributive

adjectives to pronouns, and to words that form a transitional class between nouns and pronouns.

The adjective always follows a leading pronoun (*a*); hence it also often follows nouns that have a general meaning, like pronouns, such as *thing*, *matter* (*b*). See 1356.

a. Perhaps somebody nice may come in your place; one can but hope so. Norris, Matthew Austin p. 474.

I have talked over these matters with those best informed. Times W. 24/8, '17.

The general idea of all the rumours has been that something big is about to happen. ib. 9/11, '17.

There is nothing disquieting in the success gained by the enemy. ib. 23/2, '17.

b. But you will allow that in matters musical my opinion is worth something. Hichens, Ambition ch. 1.

Mr. Weigall has made himself a high reputation, not only as an explorer, but also as a writer on things Egyptian¹). Athenaeum 7/10, '14.

His love of things theatrical. Ward, Dickens p. 18.

In Matters Homeric we are, as Professor Murray recently remarked, 'getting on.' Classical Rev. 62, 259.

1988. The reason for the different place of the adjective when qualifying a pronoun must be in the character of the group. It seems evident that the pronoun is not so evidently the leading member of the group as nouns generally are. This is also the case when the leading element is a numeral (*a*). In this type of groups we frequently find a converted adjective with an *of*-adjunct (*b*).

a. (On this war) the author has not much new to say. Athenaeum 18/11, '11.

1) Compare the following quotation.

The work is claimed to be "the first attempt to cover in a book of reference all Chinese matters useful to the student of Chinese things or the resident in China." Times Lit. 7/6, '18.

1991. The adjectives in *-able*, *-ible* are chiefly words denoting a quality, not connected in meaning with a verb, and have pre-position accordingly: *the available space*. See 1682 ff.

1992. All these verbal adjectives can also have pre-position when they express a meaning connected with an action or occurrence. Those in *-ed* can express a state that is thought of as the result of an action or occurrence: *the returned mistress*, etc. See 45 in vol. 1.

This one was Major Roper, of the Hurkaree Club, an old schoolfellow of ours, who was giving us a cup of coffee and a cigar at the *said* club.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 7 p. 59.

That orchard in full bloom — not mathematically planted, like his just-sold North Carolingian peach-trees — was as lovely . . .

Galsworthy, *Swan Song* P. I ch. 3 p. 25.

And Hardy was to show once more that no lapse of time is a bar to the passionate imagination of a *remembered* thing by poetry. But the *recollected* life abated nothing of his susceptibility to fresh impressions.

Times Lit. 26/1, 1928 p. 49/3.

He agreed with the same publisher to write two other tales; the *expressed* remuneration in each case being certainly inadequate to the claims of a writer of any marked popularity.

Foster-Gissing.

The majority of the hundred tombs excavated in the *already-mentioned* cemetery of Zafer Papoura.

Burrows, *Discoveries* p. 98.

He was the *best-loved and the best-looked-after* elephant in the service of the Government of India.

Kipling, *Jungle Book*.

On the opposite side of the high road to the site of the *destroyed* church and mansion of Chilton Candover is a singularly fine avenue of old yew trees.

Athenaeum 1/8, 1908.

The account of the beautifully-situated church of Tichborne is in the main well-written. In the *screened-off* north aisle ib.

The adjectives in *-ing* may similarly express a state connected with a verbal action or occurrence. See 95 in vol. 1.

It looks brighter over there. I think it is only a *passing* shower after all. Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 34.

Similarly in the following adjectives in *-able*.

Precipitous mountains and belts of almost impenetrable forest. Strand Mag. Febr. 1925 p. 186/2.

Deserts and impassable barriers. ib. 186/1.

1993. When the adjectives in *-ed* and *-able* are distinctly verbal in their meaning, suggesting a definite action or occurrence, or an agent, rather than a quality, they have post-position.

For extent and variety combined, the Duke of Northumberland's property is perhaps unequalled in the United Kingdom. Escott, England I p. 54

It is a commonplace that the manner of doing things is often as important as the things done.

Morley, Compromise p. 9.

The arrangement adopted is a classification of books according to their subject-matter, with an index of authors. Athenaeum 23/5, 1908.

It will not be time lost but time saved, to make sure that you know the precise meaning of every word that you meet with. Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 25 f.

But the beauties are so many and so great that if a few of them are spoilt there are still enough left to make Lauterbach one of the most delightful places conceivable. Eliz. in Rügen.

But we frequently have pre-position of an *ing* with a definitely verbal meaning, as in the following case.

A mile away, the clock of Ekington church tolled out the hour of six and, with the last strokes of it, from

the mill-house, came the sound of an opening window.
Temple Thurston, *Antagonists I* ch. 1 p. 11.

For examples of adjectives in *-ing*, see 96.

1994. When these verbal adjectives are accompanied by adjuncts they have post-position like the non-verbal adjectives. It should be considered, however, that the adjuncts generally imply a verbal meaning of the verbal adjective, so that post-position would be necessary in any case.

In the following sentence post-position is emphatic.

All between, through the soft circling of the dial's shadow, was loveliness and quiet unutterable.

Gissing, *Ryecroft*.

1995. It may be observed here that the verbal character of the formations in *-able* is sometimes shown by their taking an adjunct with *by* to denote the agent, or an adjunct of time. See also 1683.

The idea of offering Mr. Critchlow a tea which did not comprise black-currant jam, was inconceivable by the intelligence of St. Luke's Square.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale I* ch. 2 § 1.

The forest, still impenetrable save by a few daring hunters, lay deep on both sides of the Icknield Way.

Trevelyan, *Hist. Engl.* p. 9.

It is often observable, that the older a man gets, the more difficult it is to him to retain a believing conception of his own death.

Silas Marner ch. 5 ed. Vechtman p. 64.

1996. The effect of the twofold order in noun groups with verbal adjectives is very evident in the following cases.

Two factors were needed for the maintenance of the now established constitution.

Gardiner and Mullinger, *Introd.* p. 81

The principles now adopted are thoroughly sound.

Times W. 9/11, '17.

An involved problem.

It may at once be said that Dr. Morgan has made a notable contribution towards the elucidation of the educational problems involved. Times Ed. S. 1/2, '16.

An unheard-of insult. The objections heard-of.

Advanced opinions. The opinions advanced by Mr. A.

The present king. The people present.

1997. In some cases pre-position of the verbal adjective is exceptional and literary.

Kirsteen passed into the fast-being-gutted cottage.
Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 18.

This is not the case with such groups as the *incoming tenant*, *the outgoing tenant*; these may probably be explained according to 1993.

Nouns **1998.** Attributive adjuncts may also have the form of nouns, either in the stem form or in the genitive.

Attributive nouns, apart from those with a preposition, always precede the headword, for it is by their place that the attributive function is expressed.

A silver watch. My father's money. A mile's walk.

I took your father down by the two-fifty train yesterday.
Pett Ridge, *Garland* ch. 5.

See the chapters on the *Number* and on the *Genitive* of nouns, in vol. 2.

1999. When both nouns denote persons, it may be evident that the first is an attributive element, as in the cases of 1882 ff. (*a man student*), but it often happens that the two elements hold the balance, as in *a man dressmaker*. In such a case we speak of an *appositional group*. See also 766.

2000. Appositional groups are specially common when one of the nouns is a proper name. Examples with an

attributive noun denoting an occupation or a title (*the labourer Tryst*) have been treated in 1886. When the noun expresses relationship the weight of the two elements of the group is so even that either may precede (*a*).

· In names of firms *Brothers* always follows (*b*). See 770.

a. The cousins Povey sounded an alarm.

Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* II ch. 2 § 4.

The sisters Brontë. The three Brontë sisters.

b. Baring Bros.

2001. Proper names of persons are more or less clearly attributive when they precede, but these combinations, too, are sometimes closely similar to appositional groups. See also 1863.

The younger Giles children were pupils at the school.

Ward, *Dickens* ch. 1.

There are the Johnson girls, Margaret and Jane.

Sweet, *Element*. no. 69.

The Baines family had few friends.

Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* II ch. 2 § 1.

His grandchildren married into the Fortescue, Rolle and Lovys families. Baring-Gould, *Old Country Life* ch. 1.

The Framley property.

Trollope, *Framley* ch. 15 p. 143.

The Gresham party.

ib. ch. 29 p. 281.

How on earth does that Galer woman¹⁾ manage to put up with him?

Van Doorn, *Dramatic Conversations* I p. 71.

2002. In combinations of proper names with class-nouns denoting a profession or title we have different degrees in the closeness of the connection between the two elements. We may express it by the following series showing an ascending degree of closeness:

1) i.e. Mrs. Galer.

1. William III, King of England.
2. Dixon the hatter (no pause).
3. The watchmaker Lestrangle.
4. Sergeant Mulvaney (no article, but even stress like the preceding groups).
5. King Edward (uneven stress).

Attributive Pronouns **2003.** Attributive pronouns precede the leading noun (*a*); they also precede the adjective that may accompany the noun (*b*).

- a.* This man; the man; what books; my remark.
- b.* This old man; what new books; such funny remarks; my old clothes.

2004. When two pronouns qualify a noun both may precede. In a combination of *all* with a possessive or demonstrative, *all* precedes (*a*); a possessive precedes a group with *every* (*b*).

- a.* All his wishes; all these problems.
- b.* The children hung on his every word.
Montgomery, *Misunderstood* ch. 3.
This task will take up his every spare moment.
Daily News 9/2, 12.

In the construction under *a* the numerical pronouns *all* or *both* qualify the group of possessive with noun; thus, *all their wishes* refers to the wishes of a group that is anaphorically referred to by the genitive of the pronoun *they*. But in literary English this construction is sometimes used in another sense: *all* or *both* are also taken to qualify the following pronoun, so that *all their wishes* comes to mean the *wishes of all of them*.

They belonged to that sequestered playground of silliness which exists in all our minds.

Benson, Mr. Teddy ch. 1 p. 24.

It went to all our hearts. Stevenson, *Treasure Island*.

It will be well, therefore, before going further, to give the bare facts of both their lives. Bailey, Johnson.

A less rare type, though still exclusively literary, is the attributive use of *all* and *both* with an *of*-adjunct containing a possessive: *all of our* as the genitive to *all of us* or *us all*.

I'm taking the trouble of writing the true history for all of your benefits.

The brandy you've poured down both of your throats.
Jerrold, Caudle.

The hopeless resignation that had settled on some of their faces.
Black, Fortunatus.

There is not the slightest doubt in any of our minds that Davidson has really seen the place.

Wells, Country p. 99.

The only construction that is really in accordance with the natural structure of living English is the double *of*-adjunct: *the benefit of all of you*, etc.

2005. An indefinite article precedes the leading noun or the attributive adjective accompanying it (*a*). The article retains this place when there is a demonstrative *such* or an exclamatory *what* (*b*).

a. A difficulty; a great difficulty.

b. Such a good thing; what a fool; what a funny remark.

2006. When an attributive adjective is qualified by *so*, *as*, *how*, *however*, *too*, the adverbs with the adjectives have emphatic pre-position, the noun following with an indefinite article.

I am sorry to be the bearer of so unpleasant a communication.
Burnett, Little Lord ch. 2.

It is long since there has been such an important or so successful an inter-Allied Conference.

Times W. 11/5, '17.

Cuffe would certainly have been asked to any other so representative a gathering. Sinister Street p. 554.

No, that was too blind a hope.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 34 p. 364.

However clever a retort it may have been, it was disrespectful.

Similarly to *so good a man* we also find *no worse a nan*. See Stoffel, *Studies* p. 98.

Occasionally the adjective group has mid-position.

An only too vivid memory. Malet, Calmady.

But his face and voice made a so deep impression that during the next few minutes I ordered many pairs.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 183.

2007. In literary English we sometimes find a demonstrative *this* (not *that*) with a possessive as an attributive group to a following noun. The two pronouns form an appositional rather than a close group.

In the profound stillness, the trotting of a horse beyond the still water sounds strangely near; it serves only to make more sensible the repose of nature in this her sanctuary.

He has made them, in this his first description, hardly less than studies of social environment and character.

Camb. Hist. Engl. Lit. IX p. 52.

Nature, unconquered and unconquerable in these her remote fastnesses of flood and forest.

Eustacia went upstairs, thinking that she would take a walk at this her usual time.

Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 131.

2008. It is possible for some pronouns to be used as what seem to be attributive adjuncts to other pronouns. Most of these pronominal combinations, however, are only apparent syntactic groups: their true character appears when we find them separated by an enclitic word; thus,

an apparent group like *we all* (*we all agree with you*) betrays its nature by the separation of the two pronouns when there is an auxiliary: *we are all agreed upon that*. The order of words in such cases is evidently a question of the order of the independent elements of a sentence.

But we have a real syntactic group when *all* qualifies a neuter demonstrative: *all this, all that* (*a*). This syntactic group must be distinguished from the case when *all* and a demonstrative or personal pronoun are used as independent elements (*b*).

a. "But all that does not matter," he went on impetuously. Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 3 p. 174.

b. To Peter this all seemed supremely unimportant.
Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 3 § 2 p. 175.

Yes, that was all very pleasant to think of.

ib. I ch. 4 § 2 p. 39.

Peter's heart warmed under the friendliness of it all.

ib. I ch. 9 § 3 p. 106.

2009. Numeral adjectives precede their Nounal Adjectives noun, and also other attributive adjuncts: *Three old friends; those three rooks' nests*.

2010. Ordinal numbers usually precede the noun; but post-position of the ordinal is frequently preferred for the sake of emphasis. In writing the Arabic numbers are found with the ending of the ordinals (*-st, -rd, -th*) or without, to denote the day of the month; in speaking the ordinal is always used.

The first day.

The first chapter *or* Chapter the First.

28^(th) August 1914 *or* August 28^(th), 1914.

2011. Cardinal numbers used as ordinals follow the noun.
Chapter five. Act one, scene three, line 412.

2012. When a cardinal and an ordinal are used with the same noun, one of them forms a closer group with the noun, the other numeral serving as an attributive adjunct to the group, not to the noun only.

I didn't see a sail after the first three days.

Wells, *Country* p. 77.

Flora had accompanied him the first few times.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 5 p. 45.

In Mr. McNair's hands the events of the first nine months in the west fall into a simple and coherent story.

Times Lit. 16/3, '16.

2013. We find *first* with a cardinal prefixed to a noun when the cardinal does not form a closer group with the noun (*a*). The reverse order is less usual (*b*).

a. In the portico of St. Gregory were buried the first six archbishops—Augustine, Lawrence, Mellitus, Justus, Honorius, and Deusdedit.

I have now given you a description of Grammar and of its separate Branches, or Parts. I have shown you, that the two first of these branches may be dismissed without any further notice; but, very different indeed is the case with regard to the two latter. Cobbett, *Engl. Gr.* § 10.

b. The Six First Heads of Oxford Houses.

Mainly About Books (1916).

2014. When cardinal or ordinal numbers are compound, the higher numerals precede the lower ones. But in numbers consisting of tens and units the latter sometimes precede; see 2026.

Four hundred and forty-six men.

Disappointment is disappointment indeed when it comes to abide with us for at best four and twenty hours.

Pilot 20/9, 1902.

At three-and-fifty a man ought not to be brooding constantly on his vanished youth. Gissing, *Ryecroft* X.

He was some seven-and-twenty years of age.

James, *Daisy Miller* ch. 1.

The bulk of the fifty or sixty tales from which this present three-and-thirty have been chosen dates from the last century. Wells, *Country* p. III.

But during at least the first five-and-twenty of these thirty-five years Henry Fox played an important part. Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

I haven't lived in this world one-and-seventy years for nothing. Pett Ridge, Mrs. Galer's Business.

The nine-and-twentieth birthday. Wharton, *House of Mirth* p. 2.

2015. When mixed numbers qualify a noun, the fractions usually follow the noun; but the whole number *may* precede, especially with *half*.

Four miles and a half. Two miles and three quarters.

A pound and a half.

Six inches three fifths.

One and a half pounds.

A small quarto volume of vellum folios, measuring six and three-fourths inches by four and five-eighths.

Pearl ed. Osgood p. IX.

Three and a half years ago.

Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

2016. The adjectives and pronouns denoting number or quantity: *all*, *both*, *double*, *half*, *treble*, precede all other adjuncts.

All the people; double the sum, etc.

All his things, double this amount.

Half a guinea is a very common fee for a doctor's visit I make as little of it as I can for all our sakes.

Trollope, *Framley* ch. 35 p. 344.

She had all a woman's keen and swift intuition.

Peard, *Madame* p. 126.

It didn't seem half a bad climate ¹⁾.

H. James, *Daisy Miller*.

1) Adapted from the colloquial predicative use: *it isn't half bad*.

2017. It may be noted that *double*, *treble*, *half* may form the first element of a compound, in which case the pronouns and articles naturally stand first.

The letter had made the double journey (i. e. from France to China and back).

A half-column of trenchant English; a half-smile.

He made a half-promise.

Oppenheim, *People's Man* ch. 22 p. 221.

Note also the following.

The cabman was paid the double of his correct fare.
Sinister Street p. 501.

We thus make a distinction between *a half-sovereign* (a coin) and *half a sovereign* (a value). It is natural, however, that the distinction should sometimes be lost sight of, as in the following sentence.

We refused to waste the whole afternoon looking for half-a-sovereign which he said he had lost in the snow.
Punch 31/3, '15.

2018. Examples of attributive adverbs have been given before, both with post-position (*the man there*) and pre-position (*the above remark*); see 1842 and 1926 D.

Pre-position gives the adverb a somewhat more adjectival character, i. e. causes it to express some quality rather than position in time or space; see 1978. This order is also found with adverbs with *a-*, especially when these are accompanied by an adverb.

Later Winnie found herself sharing a good room with the two fast asleep servants.

Pett Ridge, *Garland* ch. 17.

A half-asleep soldier.

Allen, *Kentucky Cardinal* ch. 3.

Adjective and Adverb Groups **2019.** Adjectives can be qualified by a following verb stem with *to*, or by a noun or verbal ing (*easy to find, worth a lot, worth doing*); see 1927. Apart from these cases, adjectives like adverbs form close groups with adverbs only¹).

Very good; much astonished; very well done.

Several not at all important reasons decided him to flee.

Stella's unexpectedly prompt departure to Vienna.

Sinister Street p. 719.

He sat well back in the depths of his big seat.

Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

Her soberly rich dress had a countrified air.

Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. I § 1.

Preposition Groups **2020.** In preposition groups the preposition invariably precedes the noun or noun-equivalent with its adjuncts (usually adjectives or articles or other pronouns). It is unnecessary to give examples; a reference to the chapter on *Prepositions* in the second volume is in reality equally superfluous.

But a few words may be added on prepositional combinations as sub-groups. These sub-groups always follow the leading member, which is generally a verb, a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

2021. When a preposition group is an adjunct to a verb, it does not necessarily form a group with it: *In this year there was born in a village on the north coast of France*, etc. The prepositional adjuncts in this sentence are all independent elements; consequently their place must be treated in the chapter on the sentence. This will also be the place to deal with the distinction between prepo-

1) Prepositional sub-groups are treated below.

sitional adjuncts and objects, and the effect of this on word-order.

2022. A special kind of preposition group is the verb stem with *to*. Its use has been fully dealt with in the first volume, but some observations may now be added with respect to its place.

2023. The verb stem with *to* can be an adjunct of purpose and a complementary adjunct. The distinction of these two functions is necessary, because it decides the place of the stem. When it is used to form a group with a noun or an adjective as the leading member of the group, the stem invariably follows its leader: *the difficulty to be in time, easy to do*.

Here is a knife with which to cut it.

Rodney had always looked upon Dublin as a place to escape from. Moore, *Untilled Field* p. 11.

There won't be any corn to make bread of. Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 49.

2024. When the leading member is a verb, the order is the same when the stem serves to complete the meaning of the leading verb: *happened to come, attempted to seize*, etc. When the stem is an adjunct of purpose, however, it is not an element of a close group, but an independent element of the sentence, whose place depends upon the structure of the sentence.

To understand the plan of the movement we must look across the North Sea.

Williamson, *Evolution of England* p. 45.

2025. It may happen that one leading noun is accompanied by two prepositional sub-groups. In such a case the sub-group that completes the meaning of the leading noun

takes precedence of the one that expresses a qualification (often place or time).

The report deals with the questions of Parliamentary Estimates during the War, the control *by the Treasury over the expenditure of the departments*, and the effect *on national expenditure of the increase of prices* and the causes of that increase. Times W. 21/12, '17.

When the two sub-groups both complete the meaning of the leading noun, their order may be decided by the selection of one of them for special emphasis, according to the structure of the sentence. See the note by Preusler in the *Beiblatt zur Anglia* 33, 206 f.

The celebrated picture by Gainsborough of the Duchess of Devonshire. l. c.

We have to announce, too, the death last week, at Wickham, Hants — whither he had gone for the benefit of his health, — of Mr. David Robertson. ib.

To the population of the Near East, accustomed to successive waves of alien conquest, there was nothing strange in the adoption by the conqueror of Constantinople of the title of Roman Emperor. Times Lit. 6/1, '16.

Released by these mercurial companions from Clarendon's control, Charles, his own master at last, entered upon strange courses. Trevelyan, Hist. p. 456.

Structure of Loose Syntactic Groups

2026. The members of a loose group may be connected by other words or not. Accordingly we distinguish *linked* groups and *unlinked* groups. An example of a linked group is: *five and twenty*; of an unlinked group: *a low soft breathing*.

It is of importance to consider the number of the members of a group. Accordingly we distinguish *double*, *triple*, *quadruple*, etc. groups. It is generally unnecessary

to treat groups of more than three members separately; they can be referred to as *multiple* groups.

2027. When a linked group contains more than two members a further classification is necessary. For it may happen that some members are linked, whereas others are not: this produces the distinction of *full-linking* and *part-linking*.

We have a full-linked group in the following.

... the light glinting on his hard polished feathers,
black and white and crimson, the setting in which he
appeared of *greenest translucent leaves and hoary bark
and open sunlit space*, ...

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. I p. 13.

It is commoner for a loose group to be part-linked; the most frequent form is *end-linking*, as in this sentence.

(He) *whipped out a key, went in and presently came
back* with the matter of ten pounds in gold and a cheque
for the balance on Coutts's, ... Stevenson, Jekyll p. 9.

A part-linked group may also have its members grouped in pairs; such a *pair-linked* group is found in the following sentence.

We owe, indeed, a mighty debt to Rome, but it is a
debt incurred by our Saxon and English forefathers when
the Empire itself was dead, but when *its mind and its
spirit, its law and its literature*, went marching on, as
indeed they march on to-day.

Williamson, Ev. of Engl. p. 25.

2028. Both the linked and the unlinked groups may be of two kinds: they may be *broken* or *continuous*. We call a group broken (*a*) when its members are separated by a clear pause; a group is called continuous (*b*) when there is no such pause between its members.

a. When he drew nearer he perceived it to be a spring van, *ordinary in shape, but singular in colour*, this being a lurid red. Hardy, Native I ch. 2 p. 10.

This *obscure, obsolete, superseded* country figures in Domesday. ib. I ch. 1, p. 7.

b. ... the *third and only remaining* house was that of Captain Vye. Hardy, Native I ch. 8 p. 85.

... if it would be prudent to interrupt so splendid a creature as Miss Eustacia on his *poor trivial* account. ib. ch. 8 p. 86.

2029. The terminology of the treatment of the loose groups being thus settled, it will be possible to study each type, and to compare the various types. We shall deal with the structure of loose groups in this order:

- I. Double Linked Groups.
- II. Triple and Multiple Linked Groups:
 - (1) Full-linked Groups.
 - (2) End-linked Groups.
 - (3) Pair-linked Groups.
- III. Broken and Continuous Linked Groups.
- IV. Unlinked Groups:
 - (1) Broken Groups.
 - (2) Continuous Groups.
- V. Comparison of the various ways of grouping.
- VI. Special Types of Loose Groups.

2030. The members of double loose groups **Double Linked Groups** can be linked by conjunctions; of course, they are coordinating conjunctions (1484). Their number is restricted to three: *and, or, but*; we may look upon the negative *nor* as a fourth.

1. In fact, precisely at this transitional point of its nightly roll into darkness the *great and particular* glory of the Egdon waste began.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 4.

2. . . . with an aspect of *peculiar and kindly* congruity.
ib. p. 4.
3. Haggard Egdon appealed to a *subtler and scarcer*
instinct ib. p. 4.
4. . . . a plot of land redeemed from the heath, and
after *long and laborious* years brought into cultivation.
ib. ch. 4 p. 41.
5. Only unusual *sights and sounds* frightened the boy.
ib. ch. 8 p. 85.
6. It was a *fine and quiet* afternoon, about three
o'clock. ib. II ch. 1 p. 128.
7. In the dazzling sunshine — all the more dazzling
for the suddenness of *its come and go* — and . . .
de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 36 p. 374.
8. *Diarists and non-diarists*, we all travel the same
road. Squire, Grub Street p. 19.

2031. An examination of the grammatical functions of the loose groups in the quotations in the preceding section will show that their structure is independent of function. The loose groups in the first four sentences are sub-groups to a close group; the loose group serves as an attributive adjunct. It may also be an independent group, whether a subject (as in 5), or a predicate (as in 6), or a prepositional adjunct (as in 7), or a free adjunct (as in 8).

Double linked groups consisting of two verb stems and of two attributive genitives of nouns and pronouns have been illustrated in the preceding volumes (344 ff., 831 and 985).

2032. When the members of a double group are linked by *or*, the group may express a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives (*a*) or an alternative by way of explanation or correction of the first member (*b*).

a. Except during *one or two* bouts of illness, such a thing never happened in my life before.

Gissing, Ryecroft p. 3.

Very rarely do I hear even the clink of crockery;
never the closing of *a door or window*. ib. p. 6.

I can *open or close* a window without muscle-ache.
ib. p. 7.

Right or wrong, this is my temper. ib. p. 47.

b. It matters not how long I wander. There is no
task to bring me back; no one will be *vexed or uneasy*,
linger I ever so late. ib. p. 10.

To-day's newspaper contains *a yard or so* of reading
about a spring horse-race. ib. p. 43.

Nothing on earth is more irritating to me than *a*
bellow or scream of idiot mirth, . . . ib. p. 71.

A pedant or schoolmaster might object to this.

In my garret-days it was seldom that I rose early:
with the exception of one year — *or the greater part*
of a twelvemonth — during which I was regularly up
at half-past-five for a special reason. ib. p. 109.

The Brythons *or Britons*, as it is more convenient to
call them, maintained an active trade with the continent.
Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 11.

2033. *Or* can join two negative words, the negation
being expressed in the first member only (*a*). The negative
nor is never used in this function in colloquial English, and
is rare even in literary English, if, indeed, it exists at all (*b*).

a. There is no definition of indecent or obscene in
English Statute Law. Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 1.

In Balzac's day the literary man's favourite scientist
was not Laplace or Faraday, but Mesmer. ib. p. 49 f.

Old Jolyon could not bear a strong cigar or Wagner's
music. Galsworthy, *Indian Summer of a Forsyte*.

b. The inhabitants . . . not possessing arms nor means
of resistance. Scott, *Pirate* (NED s. v. *nor*).

2034. *But* in loose groups is used to contrast two members
(*a*), or to contradict the idea expressed by the first (*b*). In
the last case the first member is always negative.

a. It is expensive but very good material.

She woke next day, fairly at ease in her mind, but feeling as one does after any near-run escape.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 9 p. 88.

The empire of the Catuvellaunian kings seems to have reached beyond the Ouse, but never to have touched the Trent.

Oman, *Conquest* p. 66.

John of Gaunt, the king's younger son, a man good at politics but at nothing else, mismanaged the war.

Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 129.

b. It is not blue but green.

2035. The members of double groups may be joined by correlative groups: *both ... and, at once ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also), what with ... what with, what with ... and.*

The cowardly assailant was never discovered; but Mel was both gallant and had, in his military career, the reputation of being a martinet.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 2 p. 15.

The Polish question is at once one of the most urgent and the most difficult of those which will have to be settled at the end of the war. *Times Lit.* 23/2, '17.

The local feuds and mutual recrimination to which this state of things gives rise are at once unfortunate and humiliating.

Escott, *Engl.* I p. 122.

He neither explains away vices nor undersizes the virtues.

Times Lit. 4/11, 1915.

Lucas neither spoke nor understood French — he had been at a great public school.

Bennett, *Roll-Call* I ch. 8 § 1.

Neither Liberal leader nor Conservative could think of forming a Government unless he had a majority in the House of Commons.

Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

He had neither whisker nor moustache ...

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 2 p. 10.

Richard was neither to go to school nor to college.

Meredith, *Feverel*.

2036. A similar correlative group serving to connect the members of a double group is *as well ... as*. The simple *as* is not so frequent in loose groups.

She was in person full-limbed and somewhat heavy; without ruddiness, as without pallor; and soft to the touch as a cloud ¹). Hardy, *Native* I ch: 7 p. 77.

Triple and Multiple Linked Groups

2037. Triple and multiple loose groups can be full-linked, using the same conjunctions as the double ones, except that the negative *nor* is quite common in this case, if only in literary English.

So we all set off, the doctor, and the child's father, and our friend and myself. Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 10.

In all the Five Towns there was not a public bath, nor a free library nor a municipal park, nor a telephone, nor yet a board-school.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 1 § 2.

I could not pity myself, nor feel sorry for my friends, nor conceive them as grieving for me.

Wells, *Country* p. 161.

... while he drifts to a bourne which he can neither choose nor escape nor foresee. *Times Lit.* 8/3, 23.

Neither kings nor bishops nor the English at large wished for the bureaucratic episcopacy of the Roman Empire. Watson, *Eng. Church* p. 23.

2038. The conjunction *but* is possible in groups of three and more members, but only if they are grouped so as to present a pair which may be contrasted; or the first may be contradicted.

He saw Peter, recognised him, but continued a kind of triumphal hymn that he was singing.

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 7 § 2 p. 83.

1) We may interpret these groups as pair-linked.

He is not a torpid and dignified, but an aggressive animal.
Baker, Use of Libr. p. 3

2039. It is far commoner for triple and multiple loose groups to be end-linked than full-linked. The conjunctions are *and*, less often *or* and *nor*. These can also form correlative groups as in 2035.

He is a curious, interesting, and nearly perished link between obsolete forms of life and those which generally prevail.
Hardy, Native I ch. 2 p. 10.

Yet the permanent moral expression of each face it was impossible to discover, for as the nimble flames towered, nodded, and swooped through the surrounding air, the blots of shade and flakes of light upon the countenances of the group changed shape and position endlessly.
ib. ch. 3 p. 19.

The wars helped to weaken the monarchy, to liberate the villeins, to develop Parliament and to unify the nation.
Williamson, Ev. of Engl. p. 121.

Very different were the views of the Elizabethan tragedians, who aimed at representing not only the catastrophe, but the whole development of circumstances of which it was the effect; they traced, with elaborate and abounding detail, *the rise, the growth, the decline, and the ruin* of great causes and great persons.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Char. p. 8 f.

Enriched by its Eastern colonies, its worldwide commerce, and its open door for refugees of all races and beliefs, the home of Grotius, Descartes and Spinoza, of Rembrandt and Vermeer, led the world in philosophy, learning, finance, painting, gardening, scientific agriculture, and many other of the arts and crafts that liberate and adorn the life of man.

Trevelyan, Hist. of England p. 457.

Between these two extremes, every variety of Tudor and Stuart manor-house arose, built, according to the materials of the country-side, in stone, in new-fangled brick, or in old-fashioned half-timber. ib. p. 371.

The extremes of vulgarity are as rare as the extremes of goodness, wickedness, or genius.

Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 4.

It was at present a place perfectly accordant with man's nature — neither ghastly, hateful, nor ugly: neither commonplace, unmeaning, nor tame; . . .

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 1 p. 6.

Well, there's St. Cuthbert's, but the curate is a bit too high for my liking what with his sung Eucharist, altar lights and children's confessions.

Collinson, *Spoken English* no. 25 p. 68.

And altogether, what with the caps and jackets of the men, the pretty coloured dresses of the women, the excited dogs, the moving boats, the white sails, the pleasant landscape, and the sparkling water, it is one of the gayest sights I know of near this dull old London town.

Jerome, *Boat* ch. 7.

On *but*, see 2038.

2040. The pair-linked groups are naturally restricted to the literary language, chiefly in learned discussions or in scientific style generally.

But once aroused he could be *active and courageous, faithless and merciless* as a beast of prey.

Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 155.

2041. The double groups in 2030 are all continuous; this is generally the case with double groups connected by *and*.

The following sentences, however, show that a break is possible.

This, then, brings us to *a third, and very different, question.*

Coulton, *Med. Village* p. 8.

To the end I shall be reading — and forgetting.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* p. 53.

Perhaps it may be objected that the last quotation is not a case of a loose group at all, but rather an appended modification of the preceding verbal form.

When the members of a double group are linked by *or* and *but*, the broken order is very common, but continuous groups are also frequent with *or*.

In the linked groups of three and more members broken order is the rule, as an examination of the quotations in the preceding sections will show.

Continuous groups are very frequent in the case of sub-groups serving as attributive adjuncts; they usually precede the leading noun. See 1982.

The difference between broken and continuous groups seems to be very clear: in the broken groups the individuality of each member is preserved; when there is no break they tend to become a closer whole, as is specially shown by the attributive adjuncts.

Unlinked Groups **2042.** Unlinked groups are most frequently broken; a number of illustrative quotations follow.

The imagination of the observer clung by preference to that *vanished, solitary* figure, as to something *more interesting, more important, more likely to have a history worth knowing* than these new-comers.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 2 p. 15.

This was the *obscure, removed* spot to which was about to return a man whose latter life had been passed in the French capital.

ib. II ch. 1 p. 132.

This *obscure, obsolete, superseded* country figures in Domesday. Its condition is recorded therein as that of *heathy, furzy, briary* wilderness — 'Bruaria.'

ib. I ch. 1 p. 6.

To have grown familiar with the voice of Racine, *to have realised* once and for all its intensity, its beauty, and its depth, is *to have learnt* a new happiness, *to have discovered* something exquisite and splendid, *to have enlarged* the glorious boundaries of art.

Lytton Strachey, *Books and Char.* p. 6

Having stolen all there was to steal, having reduced the land to a smouldering wilderness, having gorged themselves on the crops and the livestock, it is not likely that they changed suddenly into peaceful tillers of the soil.
Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 33.

To be pale, to have no appetite, to swoon at the slightest provocation — these, not so long ago, were the signs of maidenly good breeding.
Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 8

The savage hordes who did these things were *plundering pirates, not industrious colonists.*
Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 33.

The scene before the reddleman's eyes was a gradual series of ascents from the level of the road backward into the heart of the heath. It embraced *hillocks, pits, ridges, acclivities*, one behind the other, till all was finished by a high hill cutting against the still light sky.
Hardy, *Native I* ch. 2 p. 14. See *ib.* p. 4 f.
the sentence beginning *Twilight combined.*

2043. Continuous groups are illustrated in the following sentences; in all of them we have two attributive adjectives.

The *great inviolate* place had an ancient permanence which the sea cannot claim.

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 1 p. 7.

From the interior a *low soft* breathing came to his ear.
ib. ch. 2 p. 8.

The wedding subject was no further dwelt upon; and soon a *faint diverging* path was reached, where they parted company.
ib. ch. 4 p. 41.

2044. Continuous loose groups are not separated from the close groups by any clearly visible barrier. When a double group serves as a sub-group, it frequently happens that one of the members of the sub-group forms a closer group with the leading member, to which the second member consequently serves as an adjunct.

In the following sentences the first adjective may be

looked upon as an attributive adjunct to the group formed by the next two words in italics.

Her course was in the direction of the small *undying fire* which had drawn the attention of the men of Rainbarrow and of Wildeve in the valley below.

ib. ch. 6 p. 66.

Eustacia sighed: it was no fragile *maiden sigh*, but a sigh which shook her like a shiver. ib. ch. 6 p. 76.

Her normal manner among the heathfolk had that reticence which results from the consciousness of superior *communicative power*. ib. ch. 3 p. 37.

Similarly: a closely wrapped *female figure* (Hardy, *Native* I ch. 6 p. 61); an old *vicinal way*, which branched from the great *Western road* of the Romans (ib. ch. 1 p. 7 f.); the same antique *brown dress* (ib. ch. 1 p. 6 f.).

2045. The difference between the linked groups with *or*, *nor*, *but* and the unlinked ones is too evident to require comment. But there is cause to compare the loose groups linked by *and* with the unlinked ones. It must be observed in the first place that the function of *and* is not always the same; a full discussion of this point would require much more liberality of quotation than can reasonably be supplied here. For it is often quite insufficient to quote single sentences, and the whole context must be studied.

The function of *and* is often cumulative, as in enumerations; in this case it is emphatic in full-linked groups, but in end-linked ones we have a simple grouping without any emphasis. Indeed, unlinked triple or multiple groups separate their members more emphatically by breaks than the end-linked ones.

When the linked groups with *and* are continuous, the members are closely united though retaining their independent meaning; in the continuous unlinked groups one member is generally somewhat subordinated, or at least one of them is

so much more closely connected with the leading member that their word-order is decided by it; see below on word-order in these groups.

Special Types of Loose Groups **2046.** It happens not infrequently that a loose group consists of identical elements; such formations may be called *repetition-groups*.

Linked repetition-groups are very common, chiefly with *and*. The construction is especially used as a means of intensifying the idea (*a*), but is sometimes distributive (*b*).

a. But Lucy cried. She, like Peter, was oddly not herself to-day, and cried and cried.

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 17 p. 250.

My heart ached and ached and ached. I wanted so for her to die.

Mary Borden, *Jane — Our Stranger II* ch. 17 p. 298.

In his hands he turned and turned a piece of china.
Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 1.

The more he knows and knows, or at any rate learns and learns — the more, in other words, he establishes his saturation . . . Henry James, *Times Lit.* 19/3, 14.

And a disturbing intermittent sense of a general responsibility increased and increased in her.

Wells, *Wife of Sir I. Harman* ch. 5 § 6.

That week, I could do little more than dream and dream, and rove about.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 17.

No, I *will* nurse my grievance; I'll nurse it and nurse it and nurse it! Bennett, *Hilda Lessways I* ch. 2 § 2 p. 19.

Rose. But why?

Mrs. R. Do I know, my dear? Just managing the house, and managing it, and managing it.

Bennett, *Milestones Act I* in *Brit. Pl.* p. 18.

Why, then, say anything about it? Why not follow the others who have written books and books and books about the New Forest, books big and books little, . . .

Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 2 p. 32.

And then he began to talk about his fatness and his fatness; all he did for his fatness and all he was going to do for his fatness: what people had advised him to do for his fatness and what he had heard of people doing for fatness similar to his.

Wells, *Country of the Blind* p. 465.

But to this Sally replied that Tishy had told her over and over and over again, only she said *over* so often that her adopted parent said for Heaven's sake stop, or he should write the word in his letters¹⁾.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 26 p. 281.

O why do you walk through the fields in gloves,
Missing so much and so much?

Francis Cornford, in *Poems of To-Day* p. 85.

"After all, my darling," he whispered, "we have got each other."

"Indeed and indeed we have," whispered Virginia, clinging to him. Love, By Elizabeth p. 114.

ð. The whole matter continued to be wrapped in a painful obscurity: there were, he believed, Unitarians and Unitarians; and he could say no more.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 193.

"By the time you're my age, Sally dear, you'll see there are ways and ways of looking at things...

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 15 p. 154.

2047. Unlinked repetition-groups are also common; they are always broken.

I do not know why I have such a fancy for this little café. It's dirty and sad, sad.

Mansfield, *Bliss* p. 71.

But all this time Mrs. Jerome Jarvis was talking, talking.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 9.

Here was an old, old room furnished in heavy and simple Dutch style. Parker, *Judgment House* p. 443²⁾.

1) He was writing letters in the same room.

2) This and the following quotation are borrowed from a collection by van der Gaaf, *Engl. Studien* 62, 414 f.

That is very, very beautiful, she said.

Hall Caine, *Drink* ch. 11.

End-linked triple groups are less common.

He — he makes you feel uncomfortable. On the works, under discipline, admirable. Outside the works, — no, no, and no.

Bennett, *Milestones Act II* in *Brit. Pl.* p. 55.

2048. It is also possible for a linked group itself to be repeated.

The stream itself babbled and was still, babbled and was still. Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 22.

2049. We have a somewhat different type in the following cases, where the second element is appended rather than part of a loose group.

Enrico was of the Germans, German.

Lyall, *Knight-Errant* ch. 1.

The scenes or associations with which they connect themselves, are of England, English.

Ward, *Dickens* ch. 4.

Very similar to this is the type *of the earth, earthy* instanced in 1705.

Repetition has been treated in some cases in the preceding sections; the repetition of *such* and *so* (1136) and in the type *fainter and fainter* (1740) has been illustrated. It has also been pointed out in close groups, as the type *a Latin of the Latins* (1433 ff.), and the cognate objects (1936).

2050. Repetition in loose groups, whether linked or not, as well as in close groups, may lead to word-formation. The connection between close groups and compounds has been treated in 1582. Some examples of loose groups whose members have become so closely united that they are rather to be considered compound words, are the following :

Writing has come to be recognized as a profession, almost as *cut-and-dried* as church and law.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* p. 210.

But the doctor's case was what struck me. He was the usual cut and dry apothecary, . . . ¹⁾.

Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 7.

Also *by-and-by*, *deaf-and-dumb*.

A related case, with formal *it* repeated in a prepositional adjunct, is found in the phrase *to talk about it and about it*; see 1912. It must be distinguished from the apparently similar group with anaphoric *it* in 2046 *a* (*managing it*).

2051. Another special type are the loose 'groups that serve as leading members of a close group (*a*) and as sub-groups of such a group (*b*).

a. Their wives and children.

b. Regiments of foot and horse.

One of the questions that arise in these groups is whether the common element is repeated, or must be repeated, or not.

2052. In the following quotations the loose group is the leading member of a close group.

. . . the other species that *equal and surpass* it in lustre. Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 6 p. 115.

(It) *does not hold or attract but rather wearies* the sight; . . . ib. ch. 3 p. 63.

It was as if the bonfire-makers were standing in some radiant upper storey of the world, *detached from and independent* of the dark stretches below.

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 3 p. 18.

Birds, especially the more aerial insectivorous kinds, have the habit of *flying at and teasing* any odd or grotesque creature they may see on the wing.

Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 4 p. 71.

1) The variation in the form of the last element (*dried* and *dry*) is due to the traditional character of the group.

... when I *stood close to and looked down upon* them, ...
 ib. ch. 4 p. 83.

I was *watching and listening to the shrilling of a great green grasshopper, or leaf cricket.*
 ib. ch. 6 p. 116.

... when a meadow-pipit, which had come there probably to roost, *dashed at and struck it down,* ... ib. ib.

... *the desire to possess and pleasure in the possession of,* dead insect cases.
 ib. ch. 6 p. 113.

Mr. Freeman has *come across, and faithfully portrayed* one of the most primitive and out-lasting types we possess.
 Freeman, Joseph, Pref. p. IX.

Like all organised beings, *they are the creatures of, and subject to,* the conditions they exist in; ...
 Hudson, l.c. p. 31 f.

..., to show in some way how much she *sympathized with and loved* everybody.
 Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 32 p. 57.

The first Teutonic communities in this island must have been started by the gift of land *with or without servile dependents dwelling upon it*¹).

Oman, Conquest p. 352.

His instinct was to regard her as *a conspirator against* rather than as *an antecedent obstacle to* Thomasin's happiness.
 Hardy, Native I ch. 9 p. 96 f.

... assuming that they *could or did* see me.
 Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 4 p. 83.

2053. The loose group may also be the adjunct to the leading member of a close group.

North and central Wales were conquered and given an administration on English lines.
 Powicke, Medieval England p. 37.

1) Similarly: *with or without justification* (Oman, Conquest p. 142). — *with or after Eardwulf and Alric* (ib. p. 337) — *with or without the supreme source of strength of which I have spoken* (Haldane, Addresses p. 109). In all these groups of *with* and *without* the positive *with* is the first member.

The sombre stretch of *rounds and hollows* seemed to rise ... Hardy, *Native* I ch. I p. 4.

Smiling champignons of *flowers and fruit* hardly do this. ib. ib.

... three regiments of *foot and six of horse* under that officer. Oman, *Conquest* p. 170.

... to insist on *our and European* interests being maintained. Queen Victoria, in *Engl.* 19th cent. II p. 5.

... overgrown with a mixture of plants of different habits — lovers of *a dry soil and of a wet* — heather and furze, ... Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 4 p. 49.

But there is no reason to suppose that anywhere in Britain did the pre-Celtic population *maintain itself independent or succeed* in swamping and denationalising its conquerors. Oman, *Conquest* p. 20.

On the group-genitive, see 825 ff. Loose groups consisting of two attributive genitives have been illustrated in 831 and 985.

2054. Of special importance are the loose groups serving as attributive adjuncts to a following noun, with which they form a semi-compound (see 190 ff.).

Here, too, albeit the nobler *bird and animal forms* are absent, ... Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 3 p. 53.

... like dark floors inlaid with red and gold of *beech and oak leaves*. ib. ch. 3 p. 63.

(It) still had a few ancient *apple and pear trees*.

ib. ch. I p. 5.

I wish they would put on more *nature and travel* films. Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 78.

Our modern system of elected *district and county councils*. Somervell, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 18.

You all know the sort of thing. The *sweet and toy and china* stall ... Punch 25/9, 1929 p. 344/i.

See the examples in 1897, where some cases are quoted of loose sub-groups consisting of an adjective with a noun. Of the latter type are these examples:

After the breakdown of the *tribal and class organization*, . . .
Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 89.

Suggestions for the formation of the English section of a *School, Training college, or private Library*.
Engl. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 66.

2055. Sometimes the first elements of what are practically compounds are so grouped.

The bird is a red- and a warm-blooded being . . .
Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 2 p. 43.

Those who do not know the New Forest, or know it only as a *collecting- or happy hunting-ground* of eggers . . .
ib. ch. 2 p. 29.

Some *god- or devil-inspired* instinct compels me to reproduce my species.

W. J. Locke, *Ancestor Jones* ch. 8 p. 113.

2056. In words that are completely compounds repetition of the common element is far more usual (*a*). Repetition is invariably resorted to in derivatives with a common suffix (*b*).

a. Yet it has been pointed out that Barbour, as archdeacon of Aberdeen, was a serf-owner and serf-dealer.
Coulton, *Med. Village* ch. 13 p. 159.

It was terrible to her, all of it. She saw, cruelly contrastive, the immeasurable difference between good-breeding and bad-breeding. Maxwell, *Gabrielle* p. 157.

b. . . . all through the childhood and girlhood of their subject. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 46 p. 515.

2057. When a loose group forms a close group with a word of little or no independent meaning, such as a pronoun, including articles (*a*), the elements of the loose group form a closer whole than when the common element is repeated (*b*).

a. . . . she saw *a horse and vehicle* some two hundred yards beyond it, coming towards her . . .

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 4 p. 42.

While *the men and lads* were building up the pile . . .
 ib. ch. 3 p. 17.

No light, sound, or movement was perceptible there.
 ib. II ch. 3 p. 139.

(She) professed an interest in *the fortunes and future*
 of the systematized youth.

Meredith, *Feverel* ch. 16 p. 106.

*b. Labour may be, and very often is, an accursed and
 a brutalizing thing, . . .* Gi-sing, *Ryecroft* p. 201.

She was the daughter of the bandmaster of a regiment
 which had been quartered there — *a Corfiote* by birth,
and a fine musician. Hardy, *Native I* ch 7 p. 80.

The time seems near, if it has not actually arrived,
 when the chastened sublimity of *a moor, a sea, or a
 mountain* will be all of nature that is absolutely in
 keeping with the moods of the more thinking among
 mankind. ib. I ch. 1 p. 5.

. . . and there would be *his aunt and his grandfather
 and his father* sitting up waiting for him.

Walpole, *Fortitude I* ch. 2 p. 15.

Both constructions may be used in the same sentence:

Then the way was clear for the true Anglo-Saxon
 conquest, the steady infiltration year after year of working
 colonists, bringing *their wives and children and their
 stock for agriculture.* Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 33.

2058. The loose group of two words may also be a combination of words of little meaning forming a whole with a leading word. Examples of this type with genitives of pronouns have been given in 985 (*your and my money*). The alternative construction (*your money and mine*) has been treated there as well.

2059. When two prepositions share their noun, it is not only possible to make them into a sub-group to the noun but also to use the construction shown in the second quotation here.

There is the turnip-fly, . . . *in and out of houses.*
Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 6 p. 111 f.

The buggy twinkled away in the sunlight and fine golden dust *up the hill and over.* Mansfield, Bliss p. 3.

Structure and Meaning 2060. The loose groups have been defined as consisting of elements that are mutually independent in meaning. It sometimes occurs, however, that what are formally loose linked groups contain an element that is distinctly the dominant member. This construction is frequent in groups of two non-predicative verb stems, the first being a verb of motion, the second expressing the purpose of the first (*a*). It is also frequent with imperative stems of the same kind of verbs (*b*). See 317 in vol. 1.

a. . . . to go home and sleep for an hour or two.
Hardy, Native IV ch. 2 p. 311.

The sombre stretch of rounds and hollows seemed to rise and meet the evening gloom in pure sympathy.
ib. I ch. 1 p. 4.

b. Come round and listen in (to the wireless) to-night.
Collinson, Spoken English p. 78.

Come and have a game of tennis. *ib.* p. 88.

Come and have a dip in the sea. *ib.* p. 90.

Go and do whatever you like.
Hardy, Native IV ch. 3 p. 318.

Come up and have a chat with my wife, Westcott, before going. Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 2 p. 256.

2061. The construction is less often found with preterites of verbs of motion (*a*) and with verbs with another meaning (*b*).

a. I remembered that I had my coat. This I went and got.
Daily Mail 7/4, 1930 p. 7.

b. The place became full of a watchful intentness now; for when other things sank brooding to sleep the heath appeared slowly to awake and listen.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 4.

Why don't you treat me properly and be a good
husband? Shaw, *Androcles*, 3.

See also vol. I on the verb stem: 345.

The subordination of the second element is very clear in this quotation: *Try and not be a fool* (*Love* by Elizabeth p. 289). The word-order shows that *be* is taken to be a non-predicative instead of an imperative stem.

2062. Sometimes the verb expresses no movement at all, but serves to define the process denoted by the second verb. In this way a perfect of *go* is often used in conversational English.

"He mustn't catch cold," the doctor had declared, and he had gone and caught it. When he first felt it in his throat he had said to his nurse — for he had one now — "There, I knew how it would be, airing the room like that!" Galsworthy, *In Chancery* ch. 13.

"Well, the old man has gone and done it!"
ib. *Silver Spoon* I ch. 6 p. 45.

Such *apparent loose groups*, as the construction may be described, are also found with the verb *to be* as the first element; this is only current, however, in familiar, or vulgar, English. From the quotations by van der Gaaf in *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 404 f. I copy the following. In the last example the participles *been* and *gone* are combined to express the meaning emphatically.

See what you've been and done.

Dickens, *Pickwick* ch. 26.

What's he done? Why, he's been and punched me
in the intercostal region. Punch 6/12, 1905.

"Oh, if you please, Mum, there's no meat for dinner
to-day. The butcher 'as been and gone and never come
this morning."
Punch.

2063. We also find apparent loose groups of this kind consisting of two adjectives or adverbs. These, too, are mostly

restricted to informal English, although such a group as *nice and sweet* is perfectly current in familiar conversation ¹). The number of these groups is restricted to a small number of cases, the chief being those with *nice*, *fine*, and *rare*. It is evident that these groups are closely similar to the combinations of the type *bitter cold*, which have been interpreted, or at least grouped, as examples of conversion (1831), although they should rather be explained, perhaps, as apparent loose groups.

Yes, Mr. Caudle, you'll be nice and ill in the morning
Jerrold, *Curtain Lect.* 2.

How nice and early you are.

Lyall, *Hardy Norseman*.

They'll be fine and vexed at her. Eliot, *Bede* ch. 1.

Further examples of these groups in Storm, *Engl. Phil.* (from whom the above sentences have been borrowed), and Poutsma, I p. 567.

Concord in Linked Groups

2064. The independence of the members of loose groups naturally leaves no room for concord. Yet, it seems convenient to treat here, rather than in the sections on close groups, of the linked sub-groups of two attributive adjectives, each referring to a specimen expressed by a class-noun as the dominant member. In such combinations the class-noun is pluralized when the articles or pronouns accompanying the adjectives are not repeated (type: *the French and English languages*); they have the stem form when there is repetition (type: *the French and the English language*). The difference between the two types hardly requires any comment after what has been observed on the effect of

¹) Such groups as *rare and hungry* are hardly current among educated speakers.

repetition (2046). Examples of pluralized dominant members have been given in 804 f.; an example with *or* may be added here.

Few of the younger voters know anything, for example,
of the Balfour or Campbell-Bannerman administrations...
Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 473.

Word-Order in Loose Groups

2065. In strong contrast to the close groups the word-order of loose groups depends almost entirely upon the sequence of the thoughts of the speaker or writer, as in the type *I and mine*. But in some traditional groups the word-order is traditional, too. It might sometimes be argued that the order of the members is required or at least justified by the natural succession of the ideas they express; but a comparison with other languages where the very opposite order prevails in the corresponding expression, is apt to make one less confident. There seems to be little doubt that the order of words is sometimes due to rhythmical considerations ¹⁾.

to keep watch and ward; bag and baggage; everything goes to rack and ruin; for weal or for woe; from pillar to post; in a rough and ready way; spick and span; we beat them black and blue; with might and main; betwixt and between; without rhyme or reason; few and far between; bat and ball; life and limb; hale and hearty; sum and substance; kith and kin; fond and foolish; live and learn; safe and sound; forget and forgive.

milk and water; soda and milk; Oxford and Cambridge; Eton and Harrow; Army and Navy; bow and arrow; fire and water; arts and crafts; far and near; wear and tear; ham and eggs; weights and measures; foot-and-mouth disease.

1) See Prick van Wely, *Engl. Studien* 39; 45; 48. A further list in *Neophilologus* I. A full discussion by Poutsma in *Neophilologus* II (*Henriadys in English*).

Right or wrong, my country; for good or evil (Lytton Strachey, *Books* p. 9).

2066. The word-order of unlinked groups is equally free. It has already been pointed out (2044) that continuous unlinked groups are not rigidly separated from close groups, as is usual in language when there are no formal barriers.

Special attention may be called to the groups with *little*. The commonest type are those in which *little* is quite subordinate to the following noun, and is weak- or medium-stressed, although attributive adjectives and nouns generally form an even-stressed group: *a little girl* (for the stressing, see Sweet, *Primer of Spoken English* p. 47: ə :litl boi). In these groups *little* is hardly more than a derivative (not compositional) prefix. For this reason it must precede the noun, also when there is another adjective: *a pretty little girl; poor little thing* (Hardy, *Native I* ch. 4 p. 41).

... and that hot little bosom couldn't play such a cold-blooded trick to save its life.

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 6 p. 75.

Because I chose — because you're such a funny little article. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 192.

A strange little laugh flew from her lips.

Mansfield, *Bliss* p. 1.

But when *little* is an independent member of the group it must precede the other adjective.

... their coats with brass anchor buttons and little round caps with battleship ribbons. Mansfield, *Bliss* p. 1.

One little pleasant surprise awaited her.

de Morgan *ib.* ch. 8 p. 69.

... or shooting through the air in her little blue costume straight for the deepest water ... *ib.* p. 72.

Both uses of *little* must be distinguished from the groups with *little* as an adjective converted to a noun, in the function of the dominant member of a close group.

Thank heaven, then, that a little illusion is left to
us . . . Eliot, *Scenes* (Amos Barton ch. 2).

2067. Mention may be made here of the order of numerals in linked groups: the order is a descending one from the higher to the lower number, as in *a hundred and twenty-five*, *a thousand and fifty-two*, etc. Units before tens are less usual: *five-and-twenty*.

The conjunction *and* is invariably used in connecting tens or units with higher numerals.

2068. In a few cases linked and unlinked groups compete: we find *whisky-and-soda* (*a few whiskies-and-sodas*: E. Phillips Oppenheim, in *Strand Mag.* Aug. 1925 p. 144/1) and *whisky-soda*. The latter looks like a shortening of the former when we compare the two; of course, this is of no value to the student of living English.

Retrospect on the Syntactic Groups

2069. It has been shown in the preceding sections that in living English the grouping of words does not much depend on their forms. As far as there can be said to be any formal indications, these are conjunctions and word-order, and phonetic indications such as the stressing and the use of pauses or their absence.

The reality of the groups is shown not only by an analysis of their relations but also by the fact that the groups are used as the basis of derivation and conversion. Many examples have been given in the chapters on *Word-formation* (e. g. 1638, 1647, 1651, 1659, 1795, 1809, 1811, 1833 f., 1900, etc.), and also in the first volume in the sections on *Compound Ings* (149 ff.)

2070. The difference between the close and the loose groups is very important: the close groups generally have

a single syntactic form, the loose groups are mostly free and depend upon the speaker's mood or thought of the moment. Consequently these loose groups enable the speaker to express his individuality; they are of great importance from an artistic point of view. A comparison of the structure of loose groups and the number of their members in various authors would almost certainly be of value from a stylistic point of view. Even on a superficial examination it is evident that the style of a writer such as Hardy, both in his prose and his poetry, owes part of its effect, which so plainly distinguishes it from the style of Bennett or Wells, to the frequency and complication of the loose groups.

It is in the use of loose groups, too, that spoken and literary English differ most. Of course, there should be no attempt to describe literary English in this respect as in any degree artificial: both styles of English are equally natural and necessary, for they serve different, though equally necessary, ends. On this natural character, which has sometimes been misunderstood by one-sided advocates of the spoken form of the standard language, I may refer my Dutch readers to a short treatise, *Taal en Maatschappij* (Kemink, 1909).

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

2071. The division of speech into words and syntactic groups presupposes an analysis of speech into sentences. No one has yet succeeded in dividing speech into sentences in such a way that no objections have been made, and it is not likely that any one ever will. Nor has any one succeeded in presenting a definition of the term sentence that has found favour among a majority, or even a large class, of grammarians. Great importance has been attached to the question whether a sentence is to be looked upon as the result of the grouping of words into a whole, or on the contrary as the primary linguistic entity that can be analysed into syntactic groups which, again, can be analysed into words. All these theoretical discussions, however instructive they may be, are of no great importance to the student of a special language, except that they enable him to understand the cause of the different ways the same facts are treated by different grammarians. To give a single example, it is usual in some grammars to treat free adjuncts as elements of a simple sentence: this is the result of the view that a sentence in most languages of the Indo-Germanic group normally contains a subject with a predicative verb, i. e. a verb agreeing with it ¹⁾. But it needs little ingenuity to show that sentences in these languages do not invariably contain a predicative verb, and the fact that free adjuncts do not contain a predicative verb, or even no verb at all, need not prevent us from looking upon a sentence with a free

1) The current term is *finite verb*.

adjunct as compound. It seems to matter very little which of the two interpretations is adopted.

2072. The 'practical person' is generally inclined to despise the difficulties raised by scholars; indeed, he finds no difficulty at all, but only as long as no inconvenient cases are presented, and no unpleasant questions are asked. An example may be useful:

Curiously, for so young a boy, he had a satirical irony that showed him the world very much in the light that he was afterwards to see it.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 § 2 p. 65.

It will usually be said that this is a sentence with an adjectival *that*-clause (*that showed*, etc.), which itself contains another adjectival *that*-clause (*that he was afterwards*, etc.). But is not *curiously*, and even *for so young a boy*, to be looked upon as a sentence rather than an element of a single sentence?

2073. English sentences can be divided into two classes with regard to their structure:

- (1) such as contain a subject and a verbal predicate agreeing with it;
- (2) such as do not contain a subject and a predicate.

There is no reason to look upon either of these as more normal than the other, the former type being more common in argument, the latter in familiar conversation. The two types will therefore be treated in succession; the dual type is best treated first because some kinds of the second are probably to be explained as shortenings of the first.

Structure of Sentences with a Subject and a Predicate

2074. The analysis of English sentences is made more difficult even than those of many other languages by the almost complete absence of inflections in English. In other

languages the subject is often characterized by its own form, as well as by its agreement with the verbal predicate, both in person and in number. In English the nouns and most pronouns have no characteristic forms for the subject, and there can be no agreement in number and person except when the verb happens to be a present with the suffix *-s*; apart from the case that the verb is *to be*.

Sometimes it may be said that the subject is indicated by the difference of intonation between the two elements. It may be instructive to compare these two sentences.

1. George the gasfitter has been called in.
2. George the king was called.

In the second sentence *George* has a rising tone, which shows that it is part of the predicate.

2075. The distinction between the two elements is sometimes attempted on the basis of the meaning. In many sentences the subject expresses the idea that may be considered the starting-point; it denotes the idea about which something is predicated. This definition is suitable to logical statements: *My brother has forgotten to pay*. But it does not by any means apply to all sentences: in many the subject is completely meaningless, as in *It is snowing*. It is not permissible to look upon this last type of sentence as in any way exceptional, or inferior to the first.

2076. With regard to form we can state that the subject of a sentence is a noun or a word or group that serves as a noun-equivalent. The subject may express a meaning or not.

He has gone home.

To convince him is impossible.

Going to bed was out of the question.

Impossible is a word you use far too frequently.

Black suits you best.

Eleven years old does this sort of thing very easily.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 15 p. 135.

In an hour would do — or three quarters.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 42 p. 457.

Half an hour later would certainly have answered his purpose quite as well. Hardy.

Can't you imagine that *to see you made a fool of* before the whole river may possibly hurt me even more than it would to be jealous of Muriel Wister?

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 545.

For *vulgar here* is not necessarily vulgar there.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 2.

It froze hard for three weeks without interruption.

2077. The pronoun *it* as a subject without a meaning should be distinguished from *it* referring to an idea in the mind of the speaker, and is usefully called *formal it*. We find this type of sentence:

(1) with verbs expressing the phenomena of the weather, such as *it snows, freezes, etc.*

(2) with *to be*:

a. in sentences expressing time.

It is eight o'clock.

It was sunset when we arrived.

It was Autumn. The morning was early.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 1.

b. in sentences with an adjective or noun to express the temperature or the weather generally.

It is hot, cold.

It is frosty weather.

c. in sentences with an adjective or a noun with a verb stem with *to*, or an ing as an adjunct.

It is difficult to prevent this.

It is inconvenient arriving in London on Sunday.

The last of these constructions has been fully illustrated

in the second volume, 1003. It is often said that the verbal in these cases expresses the logical subject, and *it* is consequently called the *provisional* subject. This analysis is evidently based on the assumption that the subject 'ought to' express a meaning, but this has not been proved; it is, indeed, plainly contrary to the facts of language. It will be shown, in the chapter on the compound sentence, that there are grammatical reasons for positively rejecting this interpretation.

2078. Closely related to the *it* as an empty subject as illustrated in the preceding section is the introductory particle *there* [ʔə(r)]. It is formally distinct from the adverb *there* [ʔeə(r)]; and the two may occur successively, or with an intervening word, in the same sentence.

A palmary example of the absurdity of unannotated bibliography is on p. 492 of volume V. *There there* stand in order, undifferentiated, three books . . .

Engl. Hist. Rev. Jan. 1929 p. 119.

He shut everything in the surrounding world from his mind and thought of his dead mother. *There* indeed *there* was strangeness enough, . . .

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 9 p. 96.

Compare also this case.

(It) might just as well have fed upon a plainer exterior *where there* was nothing it could harm.

Hardy, *Native* II ch. 6 p. 167.

2079. The particle *there* differs from the formal *it* in that it does not agree with the predicate, except in familiar English (*There's no first-class masters in this district*. Bennett, *Leonora*; see below on *Concord*). On the other hand, the particle is repeated in the appended clauses of the type *There is a library in my house, isn't there?*

Similar pairs of pronouns and adverbs are *it (that)* and *so* (1139 ff.); the relative *which* and *as* (1497).

2080. The introductory particle *there* is used in sentences with the verb *to be* or a similar verb of little independent meaning as the leading member of the predicate (*a*), also with a group-passive (*b*). The predicate contains a noun in a general sense (not in an individual sense), which is often looked upon as the 'logical' subject of the sentence (see 2077).

a. There have been many people to inquire how you were.

That afternoon there was a search for Sophia whom no one had seen since dinner. She was discovered by her mother, sitting alone and unoccupied in the drawing room.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale I* ch. 3 § 3.

Under such conditions, the most elaborate system of ventilation might well have been at fault; but here there was no ventilation¹). Strachey, *Eminent Victorians* p. 129.

There was a violent storm, a shower of snow, a draught, etc.

This year there has been no thaw for a month.

Times Weekly ed. 16/1, 1914.

Properly speaking there is no mediæval and no modern history of England: there is just English history.

Powicke, *Med. Engl.* p. 15.

There once lived a king who had one daughter.

b. There was very little tea eaten that evening²).

Montgomery, *Misunderstood*.

We also find the introductory *there* with the same verbs when they are qualified by a stem with *to*. In this case the formal *it* is more usual, and indeed the only possible form when the verb is *to be*; see 1003 ff. The two following sentences may be compared.

1) When the sentence opens with an adverb of place, the introductory *there* can be dispensed with.

Outside, in the snow, were a brougham, twin horses, twin men in yellow, and a little crowd.

Bennett, *Card* ch. 1 § 3.

2) For examples of passive sentences, see 451-3.

There remains for me to apologize for the delay in the appearance of this volume. Sinister Street, Epilogue.

It remained to choose a beast of burden.

Stevenson, *Donkey* p. 6.

2081. The introductory *there* is also used with a verb of full meaning as a predicate.

On the opposite side of the house, several hundred yards away, the country turnpike ran; and from this there reached them the rumbling of many vehicles, hurrying in close procession out of the nearest town.

Allen, *Bride of the Mistletoe* p. 48.

On *there* with a verbal *ing*, see 117.

2082. In sentences of the type dealt with in these sections the predicate is a verb or a verbal group, as illustrated in the chapter on *Syntactic Groups*. As in the case of the subject, the verbal element of the predicate may express a meaning (*a*) or not (*b*).

a. My father *went* home at eight.

My father *has gone* home at eight.

b. John *is* quite tall.

John *has been* a good boy.

When the predicative verb does not express a meaning, as in the cases under *b*, the words accompanying the verb form the semantically important part of the predicate. They are generally nouns or adjectives, and such predicates are called *nominal predicates*. The other predicates are called *verbal*, and the two kinds of sentences are also distinguished by these terms. It is hardly necessary to point out that the term is not really correct, for both types of sentences are verbal, and it is little short of arbitrary to consider a predicate like *was sent* as verbal, on the plea that *was sent* is a verb group, whereas *was pleased* is considered nominal. But the distinction is often useful,

and it seems unobjectionable to retain it after we have pointed out its limited justification.

The verb *to be* in nominal sentences is called a *copula*, by which we mean that it has a grammatical, not a semantic function.

2083. A number of verbs resemble *to be* in its function as a copula, expressing a modification of this verb. Such are *to seem*, *to appear*, *to become*, *to remain*, and verbs of related meaning. See 56.

It should be understood that some of these verbs may be the dominant part of a verbal predicate, as in *He suddenly appeared round the corner of the street*.

In verb groups these verbs may be the syntactically leading element even when they rather serve to modify the accompanying verbal form. This is frequently the case with *to seem*, as in these sentences. Compare 2115.

We seem to understand all and so to pardon all.

Times Lit. 14/9, 22.

She seemed to feel, after a bare look at Diggory Venn, that the man had come on a strange errand.

Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 10.

It should be noted that in these cases *seem* has a special meaning: *we seem* means *we seem to ourselves*; *she seemed* is *she seemed to herself*. If *seem* refers to the ideas of others than the subject, it has more of an independent meaning: *He seems to approve of your plan*. In this case *seem* might be interpreted as meaning *to produce the impression*.

2084. Some verbs of motion (including position), although not usually void of meaning, are occasionally used as copulas.

It is a notorious fact that, caught in the whirlwind of passion, nations have waged wars which *stand* condemned at the bar of common sense. Everyman.

This political turmoil did not hinder the progress of art and literature for which Athens in the third century stood pre-eminent. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 234.

The Kpelle ¹⁾ *stand* in fear of demons.
Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

Kingslake's prediction *came* true.
Athenaeum 21/3, 1908.

"That you, Samuel?" The voice *came* low.
Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 5 § 1.

In 1827 the headmastership of Rugby School *fell* vacant. Lytton Strachey, Eminent Vict. p. 177.

Peter shivered. The coals *fell* from a dull gold into grey and crumbling ashes.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 9 p. 96.

His step *fell* slower and slower as he passed along the road.
ib. ch. 2 p. 19.

Soames *went* cold all over.
Galsworthy, Silver Spoon I ch. 13 p. 97.

In most of these quotations the nominal predicate is an adjective. This is the most frequent case with verbs of motion, but nouns are possible: *to stand godfather, god-mother, sponsor; to stand security, surety*, etc. It may be observed, however, that the verbs have not so completely shed their usual meaning as in the groups with adjectives; and the combinations with nouns are chiefly traditional. Note, too, that in many cases a predicative noun with *as* or *for* is an alternative construction: *to stand as godfather, to stand for godfather*, etc.

A verb of position, like *to stand*, when used as a copula, may be paralleled with *to be*; verbs of motion in the proper sense of the term are generally alternatives of *to become*, but not necessarily, as appears from this quotation:

On that trip, when I had the pleasure of Cockney's

1) A negro tribe in Liberia.

company, we had with us Donovan who, as a thief, certainly *ran Cockney a good second*.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 12 p. 98.

The verb *to get* when construed with adjectives (including the verbal adjectives: 56) is as much of a copula as *to remain*, etc. (2083). But it is little used with a predicative group of adjective with noun or a simple noun; this construction seems to be connected with the progressive of *get*, as pointed out by Dr. Arvid Smith in *Moderna Språk*, Dec. 1931 p. 225.

Ernest was getting a big boy now.

Butler, The Way of All Flesh.

I don't think you ought to be able to stop and gossip like this, you're not getting an idler, are you?

Hutchinson, If Winter Comes Again.

The verb has become a traditional one in the group with the adverbial *too much*.

Paulof . . . promised them an orderly in case he got too much for them. Walpole.

2085. Although the nominal predicate is oftenest an adjective or a plain noun, it may have other forms. Many adverbs, especially such as denote place, may be used predicatively (*a*); prepositional groups are also found in this function (*b*).

On *so* as a nominal predicate, see 1146.

a. The stove is out.

Master is not up yet.

John is quite well again.

b. Is Mr. Jones at home?

The dog was at fault.

That remark is not to the point.

That year the summer was of blazing heat.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 6 p. 67.

In the afternoon the fog became of an impenetrable thickness.

ib. II ch. 2 p. 164.

And some of the apparent exceptions are, I think, of easy explanation.

Of what good is it to you?

There is some difficulty in interpreting a seemingly simple sentence like the following: *He is the only doctor in the village*. The prepositional group is an adjunct to *is*, not to the noun *doctor*. Consequently, the predicate can be analysed into three elements: *is*, *in the village* and *the only doctor*; it is hardly correct to consider the verb in this predicate as a copula, for it expresses, if vaguely, the idea of 'performs the duties of'; and the true interpretation seems rather to call it a verbal sentence with a predicative adjunct.

In sentences like *I have been to London*; *My brother is here*; *He is in the garden*; we might explain *to be* as a verb with full meaning. But in reality its function is felt to be the same as that of *to be* with a predicative noun or adjective: 441—4.

2086. The sentence quoted in the last part of the preceding section (*He is the only doctor in the village*) has already shown that the distinction of verbal and nominal sentences is not always an easy one to make. Other cases have been pointed out in 2084, in the combinations of verbs of motion with nouns. These cases are useful reminders of the character of the distinction that has been made: it is founded on meaning, not on form, and it is only to be expected that we find sentences that do not exactly fit the definitions given.

A further transitional case is provided by the verbs that take a noun or adjective, not serving as an adjunct to the verb, but as a predicate to the subject of the sentence. Here, too, as in 2084, we have to do in most cases with verbs of motion.

I had walked into that reading-room a happy, healthy, man. I crawled out a decrepit wreck.

Jerome, *Three Men in a Boat* ch. 1.

I had gone to bed Henry Jekyll, I had awakened Edward Hyde. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*.

The term *predicative adjunct* is convenient for these parts of the sentence.

2087. Predicative adjuncts to the subject may also be adjectives, as in *He arrived safe and sound*. It is not always possible to distinguish between predicative adjectives and adverb adjuncts; thus in *Her heart beat very quick*. Perhaps, some of the quotations of 944 must be so accounted for.

2088. Some examples of verbs with nouns and adjectives as predicative adjuncts may be given here, but any attempt at completeness is out of the question. It will be noticed that the construction is not limited to verbs of motion.

It was a clever equivocation, for though he had so far made nothing of the name on his arm, he was quite clear he came back to England *Harrison*.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 39 p. 419.

Johnny might end *a cabinet minister, a notorious journalist, a Labour leader, anything...*

Rose Macaulay, *Potterism* I ch. 1 § 2 p. 5.

Descartes lived *a wanderer* in fear of persecution.

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 10.

How *solitary* gleams the lamplit street

Waiting the far-off morn!

L. Binyon, *Poems of To-Day* I p. 93.

2089. It is more usual for predicative adjuncts to the subject to be connected by *as* or *for*; examples will be found in the sections on nouns without an indefinite article (1397 ff.).

It is also evident that the predicative adjuncts to the

subject are closely allied to, indeed inseparable from, the predicative adjuncts to the object, which have been treated in 1946 ff. When the verbs mentioned there are used in a group-passive they also take a predicative adjunct, as in *He was called a blockhead*. Some examples have been given in the sections on the group-passive, in 470. The following quotations may suffice here.

“Don’t take up weaving and dyeing. It’s shockingly cranky, anyway, all this Morris craze of yours.”

“All the best things are thought *cranky* at first.”

Rose Macaulay, *Told by an Idiot* I ch. 3 p. 25.

In which Dawson’s, as the gate of life, is proved a *disappointment*.

Heading of ch. 4 in Walpole’s *Fortitude* Bk. I.

Free Adjuncts 2090. Sometimes adjuncts are separated from their leading word by a pause or by other words. In these cases it is often difficult to decide which is the word qualified by the adjunct. Indeed, the adjunct often refers both to a noun (usually the subject or object of the sentence) and the predicative verb. Such adjuncts are called *free adjuncts*.

In most cases the relation between the free adjunct and the rest of the sentence is very vague; it may be expressed by “attendant circumstances.” It is this very vagueness that is the reason for the existence of the construction.

A mining engineer, he had come home only yesterday from a long absence abroad. Kenealy, Mrs. Grundy.

The work of a distinguished French historian, this article has been translated for publication in “The Round Table.”

Times Lit. 14/9, '16.

The son of a Stratford burgess, who had married the daughter of a wealthy farmer, William Shakespeare grew up to manhood in his native place.

Herford, Shakespeare p. 10.

Ruskin’s strange and solitary boyhood had a lasting

influence on his life. It was singularly shielded. An only child, we see him first in the Bloomsbury nursery absorbed in the colours of the carpet or in the operations of the turncock in the street... Times Lit. 7/2 '19.

2091. The close relationship between the free and the predicative adjuncts that have just been treated is so evident that little need be said to prove it. A single example will suffice.

A pleasant, happy child, little Jack was welcome everywhere. Mem. Verney Fam. III p. 352.

The two constructions may succeed each other with little difference of meaning.

The son of a respectable Collector of Customs, he had been educated at Winchester and at Oxford, where his industry and piety had given him a conspicuous place among his fellow-students. It is true that, *as a schoolboy,* a certain pompousness in the style of his letters home suggested to the more clear-sighted among his relatives the possibility that young Thomas might grow up into a prig. Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 177 f.

2092. It may be pointed out here that the use of free adjuncts in English is greatly promoted by the almost complete absence of conjunctions that can introduce a subordinate clause expressing attendant circumstances. The only conjunction that answers to this description is *but*; and *but* can only be used when both clauses are negative. English has no conjunctions corresponding to Dutch *waarbij*, (German *wobei*), *zonder dat* (German *ohne dass*), *terwijl* (German *während*).

It might be suggested that English *while* is to be classed as a conjunction expressing attendant circumstances, but the idea of time is generally very prominent (apart from other uses of *while*).

"Tasty little place," commented Mr. Godbold, while

the trap jolted cautiously down the last twist of the hilly road. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 15.

2093. In the quotations of the preceding sections the free adjuncts contain nouns or adjectives. It occurs frequently that the leading element of such an adjunct is a verbal form: an *ing*, a participle, or a stem. All these have been illustrated in the sections on these verbal forms in in the first volume.

The most frequent of the verbal forms in this function is the *ing*; this is natural, for the *ing* expresses the durative aspect, and this is often what is required when attendant circumstances are referred to. The participle may be an adjectival form, like a non-verbal adjective, but it may also have a verbal meaning. The stem with *to* is rare in free adjuncts, apart from a number of traditional forms (see 241); in accordance with its general meaning it expresses purpose, which accounts for its use in legal documents (240).

2094. Among the circumstances attending an action or occurrence, cause and reason are very important. It is only natural, therefore, that this should often be the prominent element in the relation between a free adjunct and the rest of the sentence. It must be remembered that the relation is never purely one of cause or reason; other circumstances, though in the background, are thought of.

We may interpret the free adjuncts as primarily expressing reason or cause in the following sentences.

Italian by birth and Norman in spirit, he knew the strength and the weakness of the papal system, now growing to maturity under Hildebrand.

Constit. Essays p. 287.

An infantry officer, Major Lock had no chance of seeing the best of the fun in either of the great pushes northward.

Times Lit. 21/8, '19.

An active politician, Moore devoted many years to the support of the Whig party in the House of Commons.
Whibley, Thackeray p. 3.

Shy, reserved, and proud, I would have died rather than have breathed a syllable of my secret.
Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 59.

The observed of all observers, the reviewers concentrated great attention upon one another's movements.
Times Lit. 22/1, '20.

It may happen that the relation of cause is indicated by the adverb *therefore*, as in this sentence written by a Welshman.

For my old grandmother had left me one third profit of a small estate, my share at that time amounting to ten shillings per week, and during these five years I had not drawn one penny, therefore having over a hundred pounds entered on my account.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 17 p. 134.

2095. Another meaning that may be more prominent than other circumstances is the difference of time.

A boy home from Eton, he had his valet, and on his voyage to Lisbon he was accompanied by a footman.
Times Lit. 14/8, '19.

This case is specially frequent when there is a verbal in the adjunct. Examples will be found in the last two quotations of 61 *a* and of 91 *a*. It should also be noted that this difference of time is specially expressed, in the case of an ing, by the prepositions *on (upon)* and *after*; see 81. Examples with a perfect ing primarily expressing time are quoted in the last three sentences of 137 *a*.

2096. It happens not infrequently that there is a contrast between the circumstances expressed by the adjunct and the predicative verb.

A Christian it would seem, but certainly nurtured on the precepts of Plato and the Stoics, Boethius turned in his extremity to these teachers for reassurance on the doubts... Davis, *Medieval Europe* p. 34 f.

Persons coming from a distance usually arrived at this place late in the evening, and, if they could afford it, went to the Station Hotel. Not that the Station Hotel was costly, *being*, indeed, quite a humble little public-house. Kennedy, *Constant Nymph* p. 12.

The contrast is sometimes expressed by an adverb.

Miss Nunn entered. *Younger only by a year or two than Virginia*, she was *yet* far from presenting any sorrowful image of a person on the way to old-maidenhood. Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

When the free adjunct expresses a clearly subordinate circumstance, the contrasting adjunct resembles a concessive clause.

Never assuming superiority, he was obliged to yield. *No orator*, he addressed any company with effect. *No student*, he seemed to be intuitively aware of the merits of any book of mark. Times W. 19/10, '17.

Not much of a talker in general, to-day her tongue was marvellously loosened. Peard, *Madame's Grand-daughter* p. 82.

Like all craftsmen of the kind, he is at the mercy of his material, which, *abundant enough in some respects*, is disappointingly scanty where the matters most provocative of curiosity are concerned. Times Lit. 12/10 '16.

Less healthy than Scandinavia and Denmark, it (i. e. England) ranks with Holland as a very salubrious country. Inge, *England* p. 9.

A great theatre-goer all his life, he was very lukewarm towards modern authors... Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 153.

2097. A free adjunct may also present two alternative circumstances.

Thrush or blackbird, he is curious to look at.
Hudson, Hampshire Days.
... and *wish or no wish*, it was difficult.
Huxley, Vulgarity p. 11.

Sympathy or no sympathy, a man's love should no more fail towards his fellows than that love which spent itself on disciples who altogether misunderstood him.
Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 25.

The young cavalier perused that letter again in memory.
Genuine, or a joke of the enemy, it spoke wakening facts to him.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 18.

But she was going to go her own way and not be dictated to, *maternal authority or no*.
de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 18 p. 176.

2098. When the relation between a free adjunct and the rest of the sentence is not one of circumstances in general, but of a particular or special kind, this is indicated by a conjunction: *as if, if, when, however, though, whether*; also by a compound relative pronoun. Closely related are the predicative adjuncts with *as*: see 1404 ff. on the *Indefinite Article*. On *if so*, see 1144.

As if in response to this appeal, the leading newspapers have begun to express themselves as plainly as possible in favour of radical changes in the Government.
Times W. 26/1, '17.

Yet, so introspective was the age in which he wrote, that, *as if unconsciously*, he had made them, in his first description, hardly less than studies of social environment and character. Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. IX p. 52.

This is true; but, *if an explanation*, it is certainly no excuse for the choice. ib. XII p. 172.

When a child, I was permitted to handle on Sunday certain books which could not be exposed to the more careless usage of common day. Gissing, Ryecroft V.

Sheldon, *when bishop of London*, began at once the repair of St. Paul's. Wakeman, Introd. p. 395.

However excellent the work of the individual, it is isolated; it bears little or no relation to the work of other individuals. Athenaeum 28/8, '15.

However self-confident, Tod Sloan tells some stories against himself. ib. 11/9, '15.

Though rather shy and distrustful of this new acquaintance, Rip complied with his usual alacrity. W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

Whether small or great, the town was a phenomenon sufficiently unfamiliar to vex the soul of lawyers reared upon Teutonic custom. Davis, Med. Europe p. 215.

Whatever the immediate result, there can be no doubt that the dispute has raised issues which can no longer be ignored. Daily News, 27/2, '12.

2099. The free adjunct frequently has a 'subject' of its own; it may then be called an *absolute* adjunct¹). The subject has the form of an indefinite case of a noun (or pronoun); personal pronouns take the nominative, in which case we may speak of a *nominative absolute*. The free adjuncts that refer to a word in the rest of the sentence may be termed *related*, by way of contrast to these *absolute* adjuncts.

The classic beverage within him, he was once more able to look the world in the eye.

Snaith, Principal Girl

The three times regulation in regard to accidents rarely failed in Winnie's experience, and *the number once complete* something of a gratifying nature could be reasonably anticipated. Pett Ridge, Name of Garland.

Bridget sat sewing in the garden, *her thoughts more busy than her fingers*. Vachell, Pinch of Prosperity.

But this apart, the Conference will have much to do. Times W. 2/2, '17.

1) The name, though conveying little meaning in itself, is a convenient adaptation of the Latin *ablative absolute*.

Henry dead, the crown was seized by Steven of Blois.
Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 60.

It could do no harm to an obedient young girl to hear that there was no youth in the world like a certain youth. *He the prince of his generation*, she might softly consent, when requested, to be his princess.

Meredith, Richard Feverel.

Slowly, *she first*, we went down the narrow stairs to my landing.
Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 3 p. 18.

2100. In some cases the use has become more or less traditional; this is the case with the free adjuncts with *apart*.

Theory apart, we are all entirely convinced . . .
Laird, Our Minds p. 16.

Turner apart, perhaps no painter typified the art of water-colours in England to the past generations so completely as David Cox. Times Lit. 28/12, 17.

2101. The absolute adjuncts 'are very frequent with a verbal form. Many examples will be found in the sections on the participle, the ing, and the stem with *to* in the first volume.

Henry Galleon drew Pater into his own especial quarters and soon they were sitting in a lofty library, *its walls covered with books* that stretched to the ceiling.
Walpole, Fort. III ch. 2 p. 253.

Dinner being over, Bathsheba, for want of a better companion, had asked Liddy to come and sit with her.
Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 13 p. 107.

2102. Absolute adjuncts are often introduced by prepositions expressing attendant circumstances; these are *with*, and its negative counterpart *without*. For examples with verbal forms, see 61 c, 115 (p. 92); no examples occur with the stem (240) because it expresses purpose.

With a farm-house not many minutes' walk from the forest for a home, I have here spent long weeks at a time. Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 3 p. 54.

But, *with this clearing of the platform*, the hatred between Peter and his father became a definite and terrible thing. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 9 § 3 p. 103.

He drew caricatures, in the margin, of Sir Evelyn Baring, *with sentences of shocked pomposity coming out of his mouth.* Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 292.

The night was dark and heavy, *with no moon or stars* — but . . . Walpole, Fort. I ch. 6 § 4 p. 45.

2103. The absolute adjuncts can also have the formal subjects *it* and *there*.

The next morning the Jesuit took him to his father's house on the north side of the Strand, where he saw both his father and his brother, *it not being the latter's turn in waiting at the Court.*

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 4 p. 47.

Meanwhile, Martha was more quiet and shorter of words than usual — except when she and Uncle met, *there being a strong bond of friendship between them.*

Patterson, Stephen Compton p. 143.

There being no survivors the exact causes which led to the accident will never be known.

Times W. 26/6 '14.

There was no attempt to answer this question, *it being felt probably* that it was, like the conventional "How do you do?", one to which an answer is neither desired nor expected. Anstey, Vice Versa ch. IV.

2104. In vulgar English the subject of the absolute adjunct is indicated by the oblique (or absolute) form of a personal pronoun.

"It will be a very good match for me, m'm," said Jane, "me being an orphan girl."

Wells, Country p. 16.

2105. The *related* and the *absolute* adjunct are not rarely found combined in one sentence.

Completely drenched, the track lost, everything in dense gloom beyond the white enclosure that moved with him, Evan flung the reins to the horse, and curiously watched him footing on.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 18 p. 185.

The look of his place had a sad effect, scaring me very greatly, and making me feel that I would give something, only to be at home again, with Annie cooking my supper, and our dog, "Watch," sniffing upward.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 7 p. 46.

The watcher wondered, with a little prick of jealousy, what they would be discussing in the large bedroom, her father's beard wagging feebly and his long arms on the counterpane, Constance perched at the foot of the bed, and her mother walking to and fro, putting her cameo brooch on the dressing-table or stretching creases out of her gloves. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 2 § 2.

Later he would dine, eating majestically, and savouring his food, behind a bottle of champagne set in an ice-pail — his waistcoat defended by a napkin, his eyes rolling a little or gluing in a stare on the waiter.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 3.

2106. It appears from many of the quotations given until now that the free adjuncts are separated from the rest of the sentence by a distinct break. When there is no such break the character of the free adjunct is less clear, and we may rather prefer to interpret the group as an adverb adjunct. Still, there occur cases when there is no break, and yet the interpretation as a free adjunct seems the most natural. This is the case in the following sentences.

Easter Monday opened with the sun shining brightly from a blue heaven. Times.

Should an untidy maid put her hand upon this the marks can easily be removed without any damage being done.

Bibliophile 1909 p. 322.

My Father was often away all night without notice given, and my Mother postponed belief in disaster quite contentedly. Morgan, Vance ch. 15.

He was very young, he was very tired, he was very lonely. He sobbed with his hands pressed against his eyes. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 9 p. 97.

He discovered that he was very hungry, it had been a most exhausting day with old Parlow so cross in the morning; and the scene in the inn at night — and now —! ib. I ch. 2 p. 19.

His father's austere habit of reproof had inspired him with a reverential awe without impairing his filial affection. Sidney Lee, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 1 f.

Even when there is a break, the interpretation as an adverb adjunct, or an attributive adjunct, may be quite admissible, as in these sentences.

"He never told you," cried Hyde, with a flush of anger. Stevenson, Jekyll p. 25.

He forgave her because she was a nice girl, with beautiful rows of teeth and merry eyebrows. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 19.

2107. The subordination of the free adjuncts to the rest of the sentence has been illustrated in the preceding sections. The construction with a subordinating conjunction emphasizes this character of the free adjuncts. It sometimes happens, however, that a syntactic group has the appearance of an absolute adjunct, being separated from the rest of the sentence by a break, and expressing what may be defined as attendant circumstances, without forming a clearly *close* syntactic group. It may rather seem to be a *loose* group, as in the following sentences.

At first hunters and users of flint, then shepherds also, they naturally learnt the uses to which man can turn the dog, the sheep, the goat, the ox, the pig.

Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 7.

Peter crossed the room, *his laughter dead*.

Rose Macaulau, Lee Shore ch. 7 p. 93.

Peter hung back, *his face white*.

Walpole, Fort I ch. 9 3 p. 107.

2108. The character of the free adjunct as a loose group is sometimes formally expressed by the use of *and* to connect it with the rest of the sentence. Some examples have been quoted in the first volume, in the sections on the verb stem 345 f. The following may be added.

It was not a little thing for him to die, *and he protecting his neighbour*.
Lady Gregory, Gaol Gate.

Of all the company of those days he himself alone seemed left, except Swithin, of course, *and he so outrageously big* that there was no doing anything with him.
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 2 p. 28.

For would that I myself had such a son,
And not that one slight helpless girl I have, —
A son so famed, so brave, to send to war,
And I to tarry with the snow-haired Zal.

.Arnold, Sohrab and Rostum.

For instance, can a man disappear like that, even in Constantinople, *and no questions asked?*

It must be remembered, in considering these quotations, that the use of *and* is not in itself a proof of a loose group; and the above sentences are best interpreted as close groups. On a similar use of *and* see the chapter on *Form and Function of Sentences*.

Unrelated Adjuncts **2109.** When a free adjunct has a subject of its own this may be a formal subject *it* or the particle *there* (2103). It is a small step from this to the *unrelated* adjuncts without a subject, whether in the rest of the sentence or in the adjunct group itself.

The absence of the subject is often caused by the context which makes it superfluous.

Two doors from one corner, on the left hand going east, the line was broken by the entry of a court.

Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 5.

Beginning with the July number, it is intended materially to widen the scope of this Quarterly.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev.

By the way, talking of tomatoes, who is that red-haired girl who has been about the house.

Baring-Gould, *Swaen* I p. 7.

Talking of owls, a curious thing happened to a boy about here.

Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* 69.

Granting, though, that English farming has fallen below its opportunities, what are Mr. Wolf's remedies?

Times Lit. 3/5, 18.

Being your view of course you must express it.

Pilot 7/6, 1902.

2110. In many cases there is no subject because none is clearly thought of.

Looking at Batty, as she sat amongst things familiar to Mark from childhood, it was difficult to believe that she was a married woman.

Vachell, *Brothers* vol. 2 ch. 7 p. 85.

Looking ahead through the tunnel, all was black as night. Grant Allen, *What's Bred in the Bone* ch. 2.

Being a Crescent with a reputation, there were householders determined the reputation should not go down Pett Ridge, *Name of Garland* ch. 13 p. 218.

Successive commentators, beginning with Coke, misunderstood the genesis and effect of the instrument.

Times Lit. 28/12, 17.

All the examples of this and the preceding section contain an *ing*; it seems that the construction is specially found in this form. But see 1490 and the following example, which represents another type of frequent occurrence.

Up in his room again, the house began to be haunted.

Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 3 p. 27.

2111. When an unrelated verbal is construed with an object, it may easily come to be dissociated from its verbal system. In such cases it often happens that we should rather interpret the verbal as a preposition. This explains the prepositional use of *barring*, *excepting*, *touching*, *pending*; see 1423.

A transitional case is supplied by *considering*, as used in the following sentence; the form is not dissociated from its verbal system, although it seems to be on the road to becoming a preposition.

Considering the circumstances, you may be excused.

2112. When an unrelated verbal form is construed with a subordinate clause, it may similarly adopt the character of a conjunction; see 1490.

As for what construction others would put on Lady John's immediate flight — he cared nothing for such confirmation, *providing that* she went.

Patterson, Compton p. 305.

2113. The prepositional character of a verbal may be promoted by its place: when it precedes a noun that serves as a subject as long as the association with the verbal meaning remains intact, a dissociation from the meaning of the rest of the verbal system may easily lead to the noun being taken as an object, or as a noun in a preposition group. Of the verbals in the following quotations none are really to be interpreted as prepositions, except, possibly, *notwithstanding*. The use of the oblique pronouns with *failing* in the last two sentences may be taken as a proof that a shifting has taken place, but see 971.

It was not due to him at all, but simply to the fact that the House wanted the measure passed into law; because the House, notwithstanding anything to the

contrary, was very responsive to the general tides of feeling which flowed in the country.

Times Ed. S. 8/8, 18.

The English kingship was hereditary and elective; that is to say, it was elective within the limits of a single family; failing that family it was elective absolutely.

Constit. Essays p. 21.

But, yielded all that obeisance, they did a good deal for the town.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 1 p. 10.

Given a king, a new order of nobility was sure to arise — nobility by service.

Stubbs, Lect. p. 8.

They enjoy learning it, given sympathetic teachers.

Times Ed. S. 27/2, 19.

James's son-in-law, the Prince of Orange, would not have been accepted by the nation as king . . . , and, failing him, there was nobody but . . . Monmouth.

Garnett, Age of Dryden p. 21.

The testator devised the Ardmore estate in trust for his eldest son for life, with remainder to his male issue in fee, whom failing to testator's other sons, according to seniority.

Wendt, Grammatik p. 35.

Structure and Meaning **2114.** After dealing with the elements of the simple sentence we must now discuss the relations of the two chief elements: the subject and the predicate.

The subject of a verbal sentence may express very different relations, according to the meaning of the verbal predicate. It may express the source or origin of an action or occurrence: *he talked about his new discovery; he came late; he shot two hares; he built our house.* When the predicative verb expresses a sensation, the subject denotes the person affected by it: *he heard someone go upstairs, he likes baked potatoes, we saw some rare flowers.* This is also the case with predicative group-passives: *he was killed in that skirmish,* etc. It should be noted that the

subject of such passive verbs expresses the same idea as the object of the corresponding simple verbs.

A third class is formed by the impersonal verbs, i. e. verbs with a formal subject.

We see, therefore, that the relations between the grammatical subject and the verbal predicate are very various, and show no real unity.

2115. A personal subject is very freely used in English with other verbs than those mentioned in the preceding section. Mr. H. Palmer, in the *Bulletin* (Tokyo, July 1925) observes: "Not only do we say: 'They are building a house over there' or 'We have heavy rains in Japan' rather than 'A house is being built', 'Heavy rains fall', but we even employ a sort of false face pronoun and say 'It is cold'."

Compare the use of verb groups with *seem* as illustrated in 2083.

2116. We must now treat of nominal sentences. When the nominal predicate is an adjective it expresses a state or quality of the subject. The same meaning is expressed by an adverb, or a preposition group (*She is at her happiest*, etc.; see 1816).

When the nominal predicate is a noun it may express the class to which the subject belongs; this is not always easy to distinguish from a quality.

The predicative noun may also express identity. In this case it is occasionally difficult to say which is the subject, which the predicate. The answer may be supplied by considering the concord (*a*). Moreover the first noun must generally be considered the subject, simply because it stands first (*b*).

a. Our perusal and our enjoyment are our watching of the growth of the pile...

H. James, *Times Lit.* 19/3, '14.

The quarrel does not take any form that it took in his day. The enemy is not priests or Kings, but a doctrine more obsolete and barbaric.

Times Lit. 24/2, '16.

b. His study was his reception-room.

Sir Douglas decided to seize the occasion which he discerned and to strike at once. Surprise was the essence of the plan.

Times W. 8/3, '18.

There were frequent periods of anarchy and factious rebellion. The greatest kings were the strongest kings.

Powicke, Med. Engl. p. 230.

The following passage is instructive.

So that was Urquhart. . . .

That great man was Urquhart. Urquhart was that great man. Put so, the two pieces of knowledge may seem to have a certain similarity; there was in effect a delicate discrimination between them. If not wholly distinct one from the other, they were anyhow two separate aspects of the same startling and rather magnificent fact.

Rose Macaulay, *The Lee Shore* ch. 1 p. 1.

2117. In nominal sentences expressing the identity of subject and predicate these two elements may be the same words.

In her days mothers had been autocrats. But Sophia was Sophia. Bennett, *Old W. T.* I ch. 3 § 1 p. 52.

"It's only for a week after all."

"Yes, darling; but a week's a week, and I can't have you worried to death."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 35 p. 371.

2118. When nominal sentences express the identity of subject and predicate the function of the predicative noun is distinctly that of a noun: *The president is Mr. Asquith.* The same is the case when the predicative noun expresses the class to which the subject belongs: *My brother is a lawyer.*

When, however, the predicative noun expresses a quality of the subject, it is distinctly adjectival in function (*a*). The adjectival function of these predicative nouns is often shown grammatically in various ways: by the absence of the article before class-nouns (*b*), by the use of adverbs as qualifiers (*c*), by the absence of concord of number (*d*), or by the identity in meaning between the noun- or adjective-form of a predicative word (*e*).

a. Littledale said his wife was great fun.

H. James, *Daisy Miller* p. 134.

The title of Lord Ilchester's book is a misnomer.

Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

b. "Yes, my pater's Archdeacon," said David.

"I wish mine was," said Maddox. "But I've got some right here. I came down two days ago to stay with my uncle, who's Bishop" Benson, *David Blaize* p. 135.

c. The bookseller was very much a gentleman.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* XIII.

No one of the party was botanist enough¹) to tell whether . . .

Sweet, *Element*. 96.

She is quite a lady.

d. Well, the Committee are at once alarmist and hopeful.

Times Lit. 28/7, '21.

The inn looked as if its beds were feather and its butter bad.

Eliz. in *Rügen*.

Undoubtedly the best dancers in the hotel, especially among the men, were American.

O Browning, *Times W.* 6/6, 13.

e. He explained that, though he was Swiss by birth, he had lived so long in Paris, and felt so really French, that on the day war was declared he volunteered.

Times Lit. 16/10, '19.

1) *Enough* and *much* can qualify a noun (*much money, money enough*) but only if the noun allows of the idea of quantity.

They are both Englishmen. They are both English.
His wife is a Frenchwoman. His wife is French.

See 896; also 1077 on the relative *which* for persons; 1143, 1146 on *so*; 1396 ff. on the absence of the article; 1242 ff. on *no*; and 1890 ff.

Compare also the use of the neuter pronoun in the following sentence.

'Every great poet is a teacher; I wish to be considered as *a teacher*, or as *nothing*.'

Wordsworth, quoted *Engl. Studien* 62, 448.

2119. It has already been shown that it is not only sentences with a predicative *be*, *remain*, *get*, etc. that must be considered nominal, but frequently also sentences with predicative verbs of motion (2083 f.). There are other verbs that in some of their uses have so little independent meaning that the predicate may be considered nominal rather than verbal.

Such verbs are *to play*, *to make*, and *to form*. When we say that a company is 'playing *Arms and the Man*' the predicate is distinctly verbal, *playing* being equivalent to *performing*. It is also verbal when applied to an actor playing a certain part. But when we say that somebody 'has been playing the fool', the idea conveyed is that of a quality as much as of an action; all the more because a modern speaker is not aware of 'the fool' as a possible personage in a drama. The verb is quite parallel to a copula in the following sentences.

Mrs. Rossiter and Mrs. Galleon played waiting chorus.
Walpole, *Fort.* III ch. 3 p. 262.

Though unused to play the schoolmaster, he taught me to read the small print.

Mary Lamb, in *Sel. Short Stories* I.

Similarly in the following sentences with *to make* and *to form*.

“Oh, I remember,” said Arden, “you two made great pals, didn’t you?” Squire, Grub Street p. 57.

We have recently been talking about these affairs, and a sad enough talk they made. Arden, Green Hat ch. 2 p. 49.

But if she makes you a good wife, there has never been a bad one. Hardy, Native III ch. 5 p. 250.

These plants form a class by themselves.

Compare also *to make bold, merry, free.*

Sentences not distinguishing Subject and Predicate

2120. In the preceding sections the sentences have been treated as normally containing a subject and a predicate (2074ff.). Although this is a very common form, especially in sentences stating an opinion or giving information, there are as many sentences, in conversational English, that do not express both subject and predicate. In some cases there is a predicative verb but no subject, in others there is what may be called a subject, but no predicative verb. Again, a sentence may consist of words, or of one word, that cannot be considered as either a subject or predicate.

It must be remembered that in dealing with the structure of sentences we inevitably isolate them. In real life they form part of a larger whole, so that elements that are supposed to be missing are readily supplied by the hearer: the situation completes the sentence, or the context, as we express it when referring to the written language. Other elements that contribute to the complete understanding of a sentence are intonation and gestures.

2121. The commonest type of sentences without a subject are the sentences with an imperative stem (*a*). Indeed, sentences are hardly imperative when there is a subject; in this case they may be said to express a statement of something

Sentences without a Subject

that is looked upon as something to be desired and reasonably certain to occur (*b*). There is no formal difference between the present tense and the imperative stem with the subject, except in the case of *to be*. But when the sentence is negative we have an imperative sentence that is formally characterized (*c*).

a. Come home in time.

b. Just you carry these things down.

You be careful.

You stop here, my lad, till I come back.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 1 p. 3.

c. Don't you dare to go and tell tales.

See further the sections on *Word-order* in these sentences.

2122. Sentences without a predicative verb are chiefly such as express the meanings of nominal sentences.

Sentences without
a Predicative Verb

"You're a wonderful fellow," he said slowly; "the hare you, the tortoise I. It was always so."

Vachell, *Brothers*, voll. II, ch. 7, p. 92.

I explained that I was leaving to-morrow, and therefore the disorder.

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch 1 § 3 p. 22.

In the following cases a word is added by way of appended subject.

Let's get under that tree. Fine old oak this!

Sweet, *Element*. no. 66.

And such a change, this, after his country life.

Gissing, in *Sel. Short Stories* II p. 381.

The sirens had eyes like that, without a doubt, when they sang of better dreams. But no siren, she!

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 11.

Other sentences of a verbal kind are the exclamatory sentences with the stem (with *to* or without *to*), which have been treated in the first volume.

In the following sentence we may consider the part beginning with *their weapons* as an absolute adjunct. But it is at any rate closely connected with the construction here treated.

Secret political clubs flourished, their weapons slander and murder, their purpose the overthrow of the constitution. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 179.

2123. When the verb to be supplied in thought is not a copula it is often so general in meaning that it is impossible to say what verb is required. Indeed, we must say, in these cases, that we have an independent type of sentence (*a*). This is evident in many proverbs, which could not be adapted to the pattern of a sentence with a subject and a predicative verb, no matter what verb were added (*b*).

a. Hundreds of thousands a year, and tramping it like a pedlar, with a beggar for a friend.

Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 8 p. 94.

What if I die under it? Wells, *Country* p. 161.

I could not see her face, her back was to me. The leather jacket, the brave green hat, the thoughtful poise.

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 13.

b. First come first served.

Least said soonest mended.

Nothing venture nothing have.

Waste not want not.

No song no supper.

One man one vote.

Miss Fairfield. You've jilted him?

Sydney. Yes.

Miss F. Like mother, like daughter.

Dane, *Bill of Div.* Brit. Pl. p. 694.

2124. The reference is clear to the preceding auxiliary (or copula) in emphatic denials consisting of *not* with a personal pronoun.

Besides, was Margaret one to give way before strange men, or even household friends like the cook and Charlotte? Not she!

Gaskell, *North and South* ch. 6 p. 59.

2125. Any noun that is used to call a person (a 'vocative') may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word.

Some words regularly form a sentence, such as *yes*, or *no*; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be used alone to form a complete sentence, but, again, in connection with another sentence only. Such are e.g. *Sure?* — or *You?* or *Never!* to denote surprise.

2126. Words that are frequently used as sentence-words may become interjections. Such are *say*, *my hat*¹), *good gracious*, etc.

He pushed at the trap-door²). "Say, driver, go up Park Lane and along Oxford Street a bit."

Bennett, *Leonora*, last chapter.

Tod in the plough works? My hat!

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 2 p. 18.

Good gracious, how late it is! Shan't we catch it?

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 28 p. 303.

Gracious me, how slow you are.

ib. p. 95. Also p. 139, 163.

Say, lad, have you things to do?

Housman, *Shropshire Lad*

Say and *thank you* seem to be the only remaining verbs without a subject-pronoun in a declarative sentence. *Say* may often be taken for an imperative.

Interjections like these are often called *secondary* inter-

¹) Its origin as an oath (*by my hat*) is forgotten now. See Chaucer, *Parl. F.* 589.

²) i. e. in the roof of the cab.

jections, by way of contrast to the sounds that directly express feelings, such as the vowels *ah*, *eh*, *oh*, also *hullo*, etc. The latter are called *primary* interjections. An aspirate may precede: *he*, *ho*; also, with repetition: *aha*, *oho*. See NED. s.v. *interjection*. Also *tut-tut* (Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 10).

Another case of repetition is shown in *hity-tity* (Brit. Pl. p. 573, bott.).

Primary and secondary interjections are often combined: *oh crikey* (by schoolboys), *oh dear* (by women), *oh bother* (by women).

The use of interjections is naturally restricted in good society, but the rules of decorum are not so strict as they were in the nineteenth century. A swear-word like *damn* would have been incredible from a lady formerly; it is not now (a printed example in W. Somerset Maugham, *Brit. Plays* p. 588). In less restrained speech they are still more frequent. W. de Morgan (*Somehow Good* p. 3) in describing a crowd witnessing a street-fight speaks of the 'incessant appeals to God and Christ by terrified women, and the rhetorical use of the names of both by the men'.

Shortened Sentences 2127. A very different type of sentences that do not distinguish a subject and a predicative verb are the shortened sentences. They are parallel to the shortened words; but in the case of sentences it is the first part that is omitted.

2128. Interrogative sentences often have no subject; the cause is that the unstressed first part, including the auxiliary, is omitted (*a*). That the auxiliary is really present to the mind of the speaker is shown by the sentences that 'repeat' the auxiliary and subject (*b*).

a. "Buying much this trip?" asked Stanway.

Bennett, *Leonora* ch. 4.

Great book *Intentions*. Ever read it, Clarke?

Waugh, *Loom of Youth* I ch. 6 p. 70.

Like to go to Zachary Tan's with me this afternoon, boy? I've got to be lookin' in.

Walpole, *Fort*. I ch. 3 p. 31.

I say, seen the evening-paper?

... I say, have a drink?

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 3 § 1 p. 73.

"Mean to tell me," asked Winnie, "that they don't know more down in the country than to charge a trifling sum like that?"

Pett Ridge, *Name of Garland* ch. 5 p. 89.

b. Dick fancies the pink one ¹⁾. Can't have it, because it ain't cricket ²⁾ for kids of three to take precedence of grown-up ladies rising five. Pipe his eye ³⁾, does he? Not so, my masters — the yellow one is just as agreeable to Master Richard.

Snaith, *Principal Girl* p. 45 (and passim).

Come out of our way a bit, haven't we?

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 191.

Many examples will be found in Collinson's *Spoken English*.

2129. Exclamatory sentences show the same form.

"What a splendid idea!"

"Isn't it?"

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 191.

Yes, please — two lumps. And, oh — muffins! How too luxurious!

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 13 p. 153.

A different type is instanced by the following quotation.

"Clare's an old friend of ours. I told you down at the sea about her and you said you remembered meeting her."

1) a box of chocolates.

2) it is not proper.

3) weep.

“Remember meeting her! Did Dante remember meeting Beatrice — did Petrarch remember Laura? . . .”
Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 1 § 4 p. 241.

2130. A similar omission of the weak-stressed subject-pronoun, and often of the auxiliary, is found in declarative sentences (*a*); frequently in sentences with an appended subject, which are related to the exclamatory sentences (*b*). In spite of the absence of a comma we also have an appended subject and an appended sentence in the last quotation.

a. “I wonder where Evelyn is?”

“I don’t fancy we shall see her. Doesn’t ride, you know . . .”
Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 19 p 215.

By the way, as you’re a bit of a novice at this game, better stick to me when we get off. *ib.* p 215 f.

“How did you like your bathe? Was the water warm?”

“Never had a better bathe in my life.”

Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 83

“Take care,” said Mrs. G., “he might hear you.”

“Do him good,” said the squire cheerfully.

Crawford, *Lonely Parish* ch. 9.

“How do you really think Father is, George?” asked Timothy.

“Sound as a bell,” said Henry’s father, “getting deaf of course — must expect that — but it’s my belief that the harder his hearing the brighter his eyes — never knew anyone so sharp. Nothing escapes him, pon my soul.” Walpole, *Green Mirror* I ch. 1 p. 12.

Betty, we are old friends! I ask it as a favour — not to Muriel, to me — put your pride in your pocket.

Betty. Don’t wear pockets.

Chapin, *New Morality*, in *Brit. Pl.* p. 553.

b. Look well on the stage, that boy! said Crawford’s voice.
Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 27.

An agreeable young man, that Peel-Swynnerton!

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 1 § 4.

Each felt aggrieved that the other had not modified his habits to secure his society a little longer; but as Roger voiced it in his thoughts:

'Always a stubborn beggar, Nick!'

And as Nicholas expressed it to himself:

'Cantankerous chap Roger always was!'

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* I end of ch. 1.

See Karpf, *Neuere Sprachen* 37 (1923) p. 423.

2131. The formal subjects *it* and *there* are seldom absent, at least in spoken English. When they are absent the copula is often absent, too.

Oh, I became quite a nob at once. Bit of luck me having gone to India, wasn't it?

Bennett, *Milestones* II, Brit. Pl. p. 37.

May-Day afternoon in Oxford Street, and Felix Freeland, a little late, on his way from Hampstead to his brother John's house in Porchester Gardens.

Galsworthy, *Freelands*, first sentence of ch. 1.

London. Michaelmas term lately over, and the Lord Chancellor sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall, etc.

Dickens, *Bleak House*, beginning of ch. 1

Parenthetic *may be* has come to be looked upon as a word (an adverb).

I suggested that may be I had better see her upstairs to her brother's flat. Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 8.

The isolation of *may be* is shown by the want of concord of tense.

Concord

2132. It has been shown in the first volume that verbs generally do not take suffixes distinguishing persons. The ending in a sibilant in the present tense is the only indication of person, apart from the verb *to be*.

The indication of number, too, is chiefly restricted to the verb *to be*. Some cases must be mentioned here, in

addition to what has been observed in the preceding volumes. It will be convenient to include some details concerning the number of attributive adjuncts (see 1972).

Subject and Predicative Verb **2133.** We generally find concord of number between the subject and its predicative verb (or copula).

This man is an old servant of ours.

These men have done their work well.

In the autumn and winter the sheep find a home there. Times W. 30/11, '17.

American farmers have already found out that trout pay — positively pay — better than poultry. Pilot.

Athens was constantly on the verge of financial exhaustion, although she had a fairly prosperous commercial activity. Goodspeed, History p. 193.

2134. Words in *-s* with one form for the singular and the plural meaning, such as *barracks*, *means*, etc. (706 f.), are construed with a singular or a plural predicative verb according to their meaning.

Price's works was small. Bennett, Anna ch. 3.

Every holidays Eglantine came to tea.

E. M. Delafield, What is Love (T.) p. 19.

2135. Plural titles of books are generally construed as singulars.

Percy's *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry* was first published in 1765.

In 875 Lindisfarne was burned and sacked by the Danes, and the monks fled, carrying with them the body of St. Cuthbert and the Lindisfarne Gospels, the latter of which is now in the British Museum.

Clayton, Dioceses p. 15.

2136. Nouns in *-ics* are generally construed as plurals (*a*) In many cases, especially if they denote a science rather

than a practical matter, they are also construed as singulars (*b*).

a. Gymnastics have become one of the institutions of the country.

Our politics are unconvincing. They do not convince even members of the House of Commons, whose attendance at debates is remarkably meagre.

Observer 31/10, '21.

The Newtonian mechanics were for Maxwell, as for most other English physicists of his time, the basis of comprehension of natural phenomena.

Times Lit. 17/9, 1925 p. 590/1.

Economics, as a subject of serious study, were passed over in silence by the Greeks.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. Oct. 1911.

b. Mathematics is the science of quantity; its students are mathematicians.

What mechanics has achieved in this gigantic ship, may be gathered from the following.

Phonetics is the science of speech-sounds.

Sweet, Primer of Phonetics § 1.

Politics is a very complex business.

Wilde, Ideal Husband.

2137. Plural nouns of measures are often construed as singulars.

Thirty yards is a good distance.

Ten minutes is a short time.

Three times five is (are) fifteen.

The 'nineties was a good and stimulating period for a short-story writer.

Wells, Country p. IV.

The course of events in that six months.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 9 p. 82.

What was this kind of thing, this bad ten minutes that had made her tremble?

ib. ch. 9 p. 86.

2138. The pure collective nouns denoting persons that

can be used in one number only, such as *public, clergy*, are frequently construed as plurals (*a*), although they are also found as singulars (*b*).

a. "The fact is," he added confidentially, "the public take their chairs at the beginning of the evening, and stick to them."

The landed gentry are the untitled aristocracy of England.

At any rate modern clergy are not so deficient in education as they were in the early years of Queen Elizabeth.

About 100 extra police were drafted into the city.

Times W. 9/11, '17.

b. I say that the Anglican clergy, as a body, has failed, as it failed in the Lollard upheaval.

Some of these collective nouns denoting persons are always treated as plurals: *people, kinsfolk, horse* 'cavalry foot' 'infantry'.

2139. Individual collective nouns (797) denoting persons are construed as singulars or as plurals. The use of the number form naturally depends on the meaning connected with the noun; but some nouns are generally construed as plurals, even when the idea is looked upon as a whole rather than as consisting of individual members.

After all, the Fiscal question is not the only matter in which the Party (i. e. the members of the party) are interested.

Standard 12/4, 1904.

We have to assume that the instructed class believe the catholic dogmas to be untrue, and yet wishes the uninstructed to be handed over to a system that reposes on the theory that these dogmas are superlatively true. (In this quotation the writer uses *the instructed class believe* because every one believes for himself; but *wishes* in the singular, because the instructed class express this wish as a party, not as individuals).

Morley, *Compromise* p. 50 f.

The Cabinet are declared to be unanimous.

Times 10/6, '16.

The Cabinet are responsible to Parliament as a body,
for the general conduct of affairs.

Dicey, Constitution Lect. VII.

It is not till after the 17th century that the jury
practically lose their character as witnesses.

Holdsworth, Hist. of Engl. Law I p. 157.

The English nation are descendants of Celtic, Saxon,
Danish, and Norman settlers or colonists.

The party were puzzled by the size of the lions, and
by their great manes, particularly the mane of the
biggest.

Times Lit. 30/3, '16.

The United States Government has made a loan of
£ 5,000,000 to Italy

The United States Government emphatically deny the
truth of these reports.

Times W. 21/12, '17.

2140. Other collective nouns than those denoting persons
usually show concord of number.

The information received is very favourable.

His hair is sandy-coloured.

The fruit is not half-ripe.

The graves in which the pottery is found are in most
cases entirely free of any trace of metal.

Burrows, Disc. in Crete p. 187.

His savings have been put into the bank.

2141. Some nouns with a plural form are often construed
with a singular verb. The collective idea is very little
prominent in these cases, if they can be said to be collective
nouns at all.

The news is too good to be true.

The United States is at war with Germany.

Times W. 13/4, '17, p. 297/1.

The United States are now at war with Germany.

ib. p. 301/1.

At no other period has such pains been taken.

Pilot 13/2, 1904.

An assumption for which there are little grounds.

Observer 10/4, '21.

2142. The number of nouns from Latin and Greek may naturally be different in living English from that in the original language; but it seems probable that the number is sometimes misunderstood by popular writers. This may explain why we find *apologia* as a plural.

Well, you begin to understand my breakdown now.

I have been copious enough with these *apologia*.

H. G. Wells in *The English Review*, Jan. 1909, p. 283.

On the other hand *data*, *criteria*, *paraphernalia* are sometimes construed as singulars.

Maggie discovered much data about the university town.

Pett Ridge, Lost Property Ch. XIV.

If newspaper advertisements are a criteria, its sale was considerable.

Botsford ¹), *English Soc.* 18th Cent. p. 62.

But from one cause or another most modern civilised states have found it necessary to clear away a good deal of this age-worn paraphernalia.

S. Low, *Governance of England* p. 4.

It is uncertain whether we must consider *regalia* as a singular in the following quotations as a slip; it *might* be considered as a collective.

The regalia which was used at the Coronation of English Kings and Queens until the reign of Charles I. appears to have been regarded in pre-Reformation times as relics of St. Edward the Confessor.

Times 19/6, '11. Coronation ed.

... the Emperor of Japan to whom the full regalia was sent when he was made Knight of the Garter by King Edward.

Daily Mail.

2143. When a noun is followed by an adjunct with *of*, the predicative verb sometimes agrees in number with the noun in the adjunct. The cause is evidently that what is formally the adjunct is in thought the dominant member. See 1438 ff. on the preposition *of*; also 1450 ff. on the group-plurals.

This race of wood owls perhaps have exceptionally strong voices. Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. I p. 4.

The main body of the Celts were not only in the Black Forest . . . Oman, Conquest p. 11.

There was heaps of time ¹).

Waugh, Loom of Youth III ch. 8.

I failed to pass in the small amount of classics which are still held to be necessary.

We are of opinion that quite the right class of men have been chosen to fill the positions of magistrates.

The reproduction of the Caedmon M. S. in the Bodleian is to be undertaken as soon as a sufficient number of subscribers have been secured.

Out of the mass of families and tribes emerged bit by bit larger political associations of a rude sort, to which are usually given the name of kingdoms.

Wakeman, Introduction p. 8.

The first ten years of the present century has witnessed fifty treaties to one war. Everyman 3/1, '13.

Nine-tenths of every man's happiness depends upon his reception among his fellows in society ²).

2144. When the word that is formally the leading word is also the dominant element in the meaning of the group the predicate must, of course, agree with it.

The number of fools is infinite.

1) But see 2150 on the introductory *there*.

2) The last two quotations should rather be explained, probably, according to 2137.

2145. When (*n*)*either* with an adjunct containing a plural word is the subject, the predicative verb may be singular (agreeing with *either*) or plural (agreeing with the word in the adjunct).

Neither of them is very young now, or foolish.

Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

I don't mean that either of the writers I name are absolutely thus narrow in their views.

Ruskin, Val d'Arno.

An accident has happened. Both the young gentlemen have fallen into the pond, but neither are drowned.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 13.

2146. In sentences with a nominal predicate it is sometimes difficult to say which part is the subject and which the nominal predicate. It is especially so in sentences with an interrogative or relative pronoun, for these pronouns do not distinguish number.

The only difficulty in Finnish are the changes undergone by the stem.

Diplomacy and versatility is what is wanted.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 94.

He is always ready to question what are regarded as established views on the New Testament.

Times Lit. 16/3, '16.

What the Russian people really want are better roads, more railways, better housing, better sanitation, better schools.

Everyman 3/1, '13.

All that is wanted to develop the resources of the Argentine are capital and labour.

ib. 14/2, '13.

Marmaduke goes off to his work, and I to the kitchen to find out what are Annie's special prejudices in the way of work.

Swaen I p. 37.

2147. When the construction with *it is (was)* is used to emphasize some part of the sentence the verb is in the singular, no matter what follows.

In that great style of his I loved even the faults — indeed, now that I come to think of it, it was the faults that I loved best. Conan Doyle, *Magic Door*.

It was the great English historians who taught us this. *Times Lit.* 11/5, '17.

2148. We also find agreement between the predicative verb and the identifying *it* and *that*.

Mrs. Milvain mentioned her son's encounter an hour or two ago.

"No doubt it was they," said the visitor.

Gissing, *New Grubstreet* ch. 2.

"Ah, there they are!" said a voice. Sibylle turned gladly round; Marçelle made no movement.

"It is my father and M. Solignac," cried Sibylle.

Peard, *Madame* p. 130.

"I hope the owls did not disturb you."

"O, was that owls! I heard a most unearthly screeching. . ." Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 68.

2149. When the pronoun, however, is really the subject of a sentence serving to describe persons, etc. (922 ff.), the plural *they* is used.

Lily knew people who "lived like pigs", and their appearance and surroundings justified her mother's repugnance to that form of existence. They were mostly cousins, who inhabited dingy houses. . .

Wharton, *House of Mirth* ch. 3.

"Ah! my boy, you should have heard X., or Y., or Z. *They*¹⁾ were great artistes. . ."

Strand Mag. July 1925 p. 60/1.

2150. The introductory *there* is really a sort of subject. Hence we sometimes find singular *is*, although the predicate is plural. This construction is limited to colloquial (but educated) English. Compare 2175.

1) Italics in the original, to denote strong stress.

"Ah," Stanway mused, "there's no first-class masters in this district." Bennett, Leonora ch. 7.

There's few people can make a plain frock look decent. id. Anna of the Five Towns ch. 10.

There's worse things than domestic service when you come to think it over calmly.

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland p. 169 (ib. p. 125).

"There's the letters, General," I said. de Morgan, Vance ch. 51 p. 508.

Good bye, Mr. Derek. 'Tis quiet enough here now; there's changes ¹⁾. Galsworthy, Freeland's ch. 38.

There's chaps from the towns and the field, and the till and the cart... Housman, Shropshire Lad st. 23.

We'll have him in the breakfast-room; there's fewer steps ²⁾. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 21.

2151. Double (multiple) subjects, whether linked by *and* or without linking words, usually have a plural predicate (*a*). If the members of a double subject are linked by *or*, *nor*, etc. in their *disjunctive* meaning (2032 *a*), they do not form a real unity, so that the predicate follows in the singular (*b*).

a. The squire and his family usually sit nowadays on benches similar to those used by the rest of the congregation. Ditchfield, Parish Clerk p. 10.

It's very hot, still weather; the country and the sea seem to sleep in the sun. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 281.

On the banks of that canal were assembled the riff-raff of America and the scum of Europe.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 13 p. 102.

All learning, he pleads, and all culture begin with poetry. Vaughan, Lit. Criticism p. XIX.

1) The speaker is a country girl, and the sentence may be intended by the author as dialectal.

2) The speaker is a lady not given to talking slang.

No, the charm — the undeniable charm; the strength — the unquestioned strength: the utility — of the House of Commons do not depend upon the nobility of the character of either its leaders or its rank and file.

There are cribbing and dishonesty at schools, which grow in inverse ratio to the competence of the staff.

Spectator 10/11, '17.

George had told her that there were gold and silver and copper in the foothills. Vachell, Spragge p. 73.

b. Either my brother or John has done it.

Neither the difficulty nor the vastness of his task deters the author.

Times Lit. 2/2, 22.

2152. The use of the singular or plural verb depends upon the idea expressed by the double subject. Hence we naturally find the singular when the members of a double subject are connected by *and* meaning *as well as*. And we find a plural verb after a double (or oftener a multiple) subject when the connecting *or* is used in a meaning practically equivalent to *and*.

Perhaps if the strivings of science should succeed in proving as evident and comprehensible the existences which spiritualist and psychical research is striving to establish, we should know the thrill that the great twin discoverers, Copernicus and Columbus, brought to Europe.

Mair, Eng. Lit.

Novalis or Rückert, for instance, have their eye fixed on nature.

M. Arnold, Celtic Lit.

So from many sides came a willingness, if not a demand, for change which Henry was willing to gratify so long as neither the Catholic faith nor the authority of the Crown were impaired.

Wakeman p. 252.

Compare these two quotations from the same article (A. Harrison in *Eng. Rev.* Jan. 1915):

There can be no renown for a people or a soldier who know no right.

When there is no moral force behind the ravages of physical exhaustion and the depression arising from an enforced defensive, a man, or an army, rapidly deteriorates.

Subject and Nominal Predicate **2153.** There is not necessarily concord of number between subject and nominal predicate (*a*). But there is generally concord when the predicative noun expresses a profession, trade, etc. (*b*).

a. It would almost seem as if he were two different men, following opposite courses and each so violently as to lead to his own misery. Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

But life then was not all lectures! — nor was it all Oxford. Mrs. Humphry Ward, Harper's Mag. May 1918.

b. Both his sons have become soldiers.

On the contrary, they seem to be destined, in most cases, to become either the Head Masters of our most splendid Public Schools, or else Prime Ministers.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 43.

There is agreement in number, evidently, when the predicative noun expresses what applies to each of the individuals mentioned in the subject. Similarly in *to be friends with somebody*.

On yonder island, not to rise,

Never to stir forth free,

Far from his folk a dead lad lies

That once was friends with me.

Housman, Shropshire Lad st. 49.

2154. With regard to these sentences: *These are the names of his correspondents* and *What are the names of his correspondents*, the NED. sv. *what* explains that *what* is plural. It seems a misleading statement; for *what* is not used as a subject with a plural verb. The true interpretation is rather that *what* is used adjectivally here, referring to *names*, or else that it is neuter as in Dutch.

Subject and other parts of the Sentence **2155.** There is not always concord of number between the subject and adverb adjuncts (including objects), and other parts of the sentence (*a*). But there often is concord when the noun is qualified by a possessive pronoun, even when the noun is more or less clearly abstract in meaning or otherwise seldom found in a plural form (*b*); this may be called the *plural of concord*.

a. His successor has kept up the good custom that those to whom the college looks for spiritual guidance should from time to time speak forth their mind concerning the highest matters.

Until we were out of our depth.

Hole, *Memories* p. 143.

Fellowships became more and more frequently the prize of the maturer mathematicians.

Edinb. Rev. Oct. 1905 p. 435.

b. 'Have you had your breakfasts?' The small creature and her smaller brother shook their heads.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 11 p. 131.

They knew their own minds; they were both enthusiasts; they both had strong wills.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 27 p. 330.

Persons with any weight of character carry, like planets, their atmospheres along with them in their orbits.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 3 p. 37.

It (the room) had been repapered twice in their lives, and each papering stood out in their memories like an epoch . . .

Bennett, *Old W. T.* I ch. 2 § 3 p. 43.

They put their watches into their waistcoat-pockets.

We do not know very much about her, for the poet was one of those rare men of genius who are prepared to do justice to their fathers.

We have washed all the children's hairs.

It was not that their ideas were confused but their wills.

Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 12 § 1 p. 475.

And she thought of how their holland suits wore

out and of how she used to cut their hairs, spending at least three quarters of an hour on each

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 31.

Moreover, his heroes, whatever their pasts, set themselves to the winning of their mistresses in passably honourable fashion.

Times Lit. 4/10, 23.

2156. The following instances of concord between the headwords and their prepositional adjuncts may be specially mentioned as illustrating the distributive character of the plural of concord.

The *mentions* made of Lammas lands and half-year lands show the many kinds of divided ownerships which existed. Gonner, *Common Land and Inclosure* p. 28.

In studying the *lives* of poets it is sometimes better to seek their portraits in the poems they write rather than in the men themselves and their circumstances.

Teacher's World 28/1, '14.

The story of the *deaths* of Eustacia and Wildeve was told throughout Egdon, and far beyond, for many weeks and months. Hardy, *Native VI* ch. 1 p. 473.

Many went to avoid the papal dungeons, some few hoped for opportunity to plunder, and some merely sought escort and company upon their way back towards their *homes* in the *provinces*. Trevelyan, *Garibaldi*.

I am sorry to be so tiresome and feeble: do go on with your own *businesses*, you more fortunate and capable people, and never mind me.

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 1 p. 3.

2157. As a rule the concord between Nouns and Attributive Adjuncts nouns and their attributive adjuncts is the same as that between the noun and its predicative verb. Examples have been given in the preceding sections. The following may be added.

She had spared the time from her idleness to cul-

tivate a language or two, a little music, a few politics ¹⁾.

B. Harraden, Fowler.

And at breakfast the elder brother had thought that Steven's mind was dwelling on the spinning-shed, or on some of those "rotten politics."

Patterson, Compton p. 78.

The only choice we can have is between a conscious metaphysics and an unconscious one.

Jones, Browning ch. 2 p. 36.

Mrs. John Wood has not been equalled this fifty years for broad, ripe comedy.

That five minutes of overhearing furnished Eustacia with visions enough to fill the whole black afternoon.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 1.

His purpose in regard to that fifty thousand pounds.

Bennett, Anna ch. 13 p. 246.

He came to stay with me; hadn't been in Oxford this seventeen years — and this is the end of it.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 41 p. 372.

Countess, he is a good six days overdue.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 9 p. 99.

Much infantry; many infantry.

Among the spectators were many police and detectives.

Lay Views by Six Clergy. The title of this book is curiously ambiguous. Is not "clergy" a collective noun, to be used for a body of clerks in holy orders belonging to a district or diocese? And if this is so "six clergy" might mean the whole body of clerks belonging to six dioceses, or it may be provinces.

Times Lit. 28/5, '14.

The Declaration for freedom in Biblical criticism which, 1905, was signed by 1,725 Anglican clergy.

Athenaeum 30/5, '14.

A few wild cattle are preserved in Chillingham Park.

1) Also *We talked a little politics*. But in this case *politics* might be looked upon as the adjunct to *a little*, for *politics* is generally treated as a plural in spoken English (2011).

China is going to become an Asiatic United States.

Everyman 2/5, '13.

The (theatre-going) public wants more action and less words.

Times Lit. Febr. 1925.

2158. Individual collective nouns denoting persons (*nation, family*, etc.) always have singular attributive adjuncts. *Pains* is regularly treated as a singular, taking *a little* and *much*; a plural adjunct is hardly natural English.

This family consisted of father, mother and three children.

Many of the remedies suggested would appear to be feasible enough, if only a little pains were taken to secure better arrangements.

Everyman 27/6, '13.

But in the verses . . . the author seems to us to have taken too few pains to be really entertaining to his chosen audience.

Academy 11/10, 1902.

The legal lady, having been at few pains with her appearance, was keen for conversation.

C. D. Jones, *The Everlasting Search* ch. 5 p. 37.

Noun and Referring Pronoun **2159.** The concord between a noun and the referring pronoun is the same as between nouns and their attributive adjuncts.

Matters that have least to do with politics, or even nothing at all to do with them.

Morley, *Compromise*.

Language cannot be explained by Metaphysics; for it is prior to them, and much more nearly allied to sense.

Jowett, *Plato*, Introd. p. 17.

The whole country will associate themselves with him in his thanks and congratulations to the troops engaged.

Times 30/11, '17.

In 1369 the heiress of the country was given to a French prince of the blood; the French party in Flanders reared their heads.

Davis, *Med. Europe* p. 236.

The Admiralty felt bound to retrieve our defeat, and

they deserve the utmost credit for the rapid and thorough fashion in which they have done it.

Times W. 11/12, '14.

Come what may, the United States is now our Ally until the end of the war, and afterwards she will be an effective partner in the work of restoring the world to a permanent basis of peace and decency. *ib.* 6/4, '17.

As no man of seven could reach the upper shelves, a pair of steps was provided for Darius, and up these he had to scamper. Bennett, *Clayhanger* I ch. 4 § 2.

Indefinite Pronouns **2160.** The indefinite pronouns *each*, *every one*, *any one*, *everybody*, *anybody* have a singular predicate, but the referring pronoun is often plural, evidently because the singular necessitates a choice between different genders. For *none*, see 1345 ff.

"I wouldn't have anyone allowed to marry until they were five-and-twenty," said Lady Beach-Mandarin.

Wells, *Harman* ch. 3 § 1.

It was a good thing that everybody kept their heads.
Times W. 9/8, '18.

It seems to me that everyone has arrived who ought to come, and judging by the noise they are making, everyone is thoroughly enjoying themselves.

Oppenheim, *People's Man* ch. 2 p. 15.

I don't know what has become of my umbrella. Some one must have taken it by mistake for their own.

Sweet, *Elementarbuch* no. 40.

Somebody ought to write a book about it, indeed they ought. Trollope, *Last Chronicle* II p. 325.

No one need know . . . need they?

Sidgwick, *The Severins* p. 104.

'Oh no. It's (i. e. the steamer) as firm as a house. No one could be ill with this.'

'Couldn't they?' he exclaimed. 'Beatrice could be.

Bennett, *Anna of the Five Towns* p. 161.

2161. The agreement of *a person* with a plural pronoun is due to its meaning; see 962.

A person cannot help their birth.

One need not always see a person to be interested in them. Peard, *Madame* p. 35.

2162. The use of the plural referring pronoun is no doubt often due to the want of a genderless singular personal or possessive pronoun of the third person. The alternative *he or she, his or her* is sometimes found, although it is an awkward way out of the difficulty (*a*). Sometimes the masculine form is used as a genderless personal form (*b*).

a. (These circumstances) had naturally cast each member of the little circle upon his or her own resources.

Bulwer, *Eugene Aram* ch. 1.

For somebody there would be an extra cake, but that same person, anxiously hurrying, would practically lose his or her potted meat.

Amber Reeves, *Helen in Love* ch. 1 p. 10.

... the last stage, in which the accomplished professional dancer simply comes forward to exhibit his or her gracefulness.

Prof. G. Murray in *English Lit. and the Classics* p. 18.

b. I wondered if everyone perceived things in this way under chloroform; and forgot it again when he came out of it.

Wells, *Country* p. 167.

No one is the worse off for hearing every point of view, is he? Oppenheim, *People's Man* ch. 6 p. 65.

Order of Words

2163. As English words have hardly any inflections, and as the inflected forms that are available are not always restricted to definite functions¹⁾, the order of words is a

1) The genitive of nouns, for instance, is in the first place used as an attributive adjunct, but it may also be a predicative adjunct or a nominal predicate. And the absolute genitive may be any part of the sentence.

very important means of showing their relation in a sentence. In discussing the order of words it is advisable to treat first of simple sentences and headclauses of compound sentences, before we take the subordinate clause.

Subject and Verbal Predicate **2164.** The most important question as to word-order is the relative position of the subject and the verbal part of the predicate (including the copulas). The position of the rest of the sentence often depends upon this.

When the subject precedes the verbal predicate, we speak of *normal order*. When the subject follows the whole or part of the verbal predicate, we speak of *inverted order*. There are objections to these terms, for *normal* suggests the contrast *abnormal*. And *inverted order* is apt to suggest that the order is a development of what was once 'regular'. It should be understood, however, that the terms do not denote any theory of origin or merit, and should be taken to mean no more than such symbols as x and y in algebra.

Normal Order **2165.** The normal order of subject and verbal predicate is the usual one in declarative simple sentences and the main clauses of compound sentences: subject-verb, or subject-copula-nominal predicate.

My father sent him the money.

My father will send him the money.

The plan is impracticable.

As the 'normal' order of subject and predicative verb is almost regularly found in declarative sentences, it is often called the *declarative* word-order.

2166. Questions may have the normal word-order, and the rising intonation peculiar to disjunctive interrogative

sentences. This form is used when an affirmative answer is taken for granted. It is closely related in meaning to the appended confirmative questions (*You are late, aren't you?*); see 425. If a name is required, these sentences might be called *confirmative interrogative sentences*.

Good-night, Dr. Huët; you will come in the morning?
Buchanan, *That Winter Night* ch. 11.

"You think so, ma'am?"

"I am sure of it." Baring-Gould in *Swaen* I p. 7.

Bertha, you don't think she'll hang about the house, and lie in wait for me, to be revenged?

Van Doorn, *Dramatic Conversations* I p. 60.

"Randolph wouldn't go either; he says he doesn't think much of old castles..." — "Your brother is not interested in ancient monuments?" Winterbourne inquired, smiling.
James, *Daisy Miller* ch. 1 p. 25.

"Is this Black Strands?" she shouted.

The little woman advanced slowly with her eyes fixed malevolently on the pink paper. She seemed to be stalking it.

"This *is* Black Strands?" repeated the tall lady.

Wells, *Harman*.

2167. Interrogative sentences that open with a subject-pronoun, or a subject-noun with a pronominal adjunct, have the normal word-order.

Who told you that?

How many war-loans have been issued since the beginning of the war?

2168. Exclamatory sentences are really a special kind of interrogative sentences as far as their origin is concerned: they are interrogative but do not require an answer. In form, too, the exclamatory resemble the interrogative sentences, for they may open with a pronominal part or not.

Pronominal exclamatory sentences, apart from the opening pronominal words, generally have the normal word-order (*a*). The same order is used in exclamatory sentences containing *not* without being negative in meaning (*b*).

a. Lord, what a night that was.

Wells, Country p. 80.

Oh, what a day this would be for the old chapel.

Sweet, Spoken English p 47.

Yet what great things the Russians have done in art already!

Times Lit. 5/8, '15.

How naturally poor Juliana Bonner was moved to mistake Evan's compassion for a stronger sentiment!

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 166.

How often this method has been employed, and how often it has proved disastrously fallacious.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Char. p. 11.

b. On that terrace by the House, the sisters walked during their hour of contemplation. How many feet, I thought, had daily trod that gravel path, beating out a measure to what thoughts? God knows. How many feet, I wondered, had not trodden that path day by day, year by year, getting feeble and more feeble until at last they had ceased.

Temple Thurston, Thirteen III.

Inverted Order 2169. Inverted order may be of two kinds:

- (1) an auxiliary (or a copula) may precede the subject, the rest of the verbal predicate following the subject (*What did he say?*);
- (2) the whole predicative verb or verbal group may precede the subject (Then *came* the bad days of the landowners. Lower and lower *dropped* the price of wheat. Sheila Kaye-Smith, *End of the House of Alard* I ch. 1 p. 9).

It is necessary to distinguish these two types of word-order. The former occurs primarily in interrogative sen-

tences, and may be distinguished as *interrogative order*, i. e. inversion of the interrogative type. The second order is chiefly found in literary English.

2170. Interrogative word-order, i. e. the order auxiliary (or copula)-subject-rest of the predicate, is found in all interrogative sentences, both pronominal and disjunctive¹⁾, except in those of 2167.

The pronominal sentences open with any part of the sentence containing the interrogative word (*a*). The others usually open with the predicative verb (*b*).

a. What was Italy's position in the Trentino at the end of last summer's campaign?

What colour are his eyes?

What did you tell him?

What did she call the man?

Whose hat is that?

What are you thinking of?

How many people have you counted on?

In what year did he die?

How was the remnant of the Servian army saved?

When was cotton declared contraband?

b. Did you ask him to tell me?

Don't you think so too?

Are you coming with us?

2171. Disjunctive questions *can* open with another word than the auxiliary (or copula), but this is rare.

Cold, did they call her? Let others think her cold.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 24 p. 250.

Have her middle-aged accusers no memories of their

¹⁾ This term is not only used for alternative questions (with *or*) but for all interrogative sentences requiring the answer *yes* or *no*.

own youth? Dare they quote it as perfect? *Out of their teens and twenties* does no giggling spectre raise its head?
Berta Ruck, *The Clouded Pearl* I ch. 1 p. 9.

2172. The word-order in repeated questions is the same as in direct ones.

“What do I think of Lucy Roberts?” she said, repeating her son’s words in a tone of evident dismay.

Trollope, *Framley* ch. 34 p. 326.

Exclamatory Sentences **2173.** Sometimes pronominal exclamatory sentences have the interrogative word-order (*a*); also negative exclamatory sentences (*b*).

a. How red and foolish looked poor, greedy Sydney.
Bo-peep. Cassel. 1913.

To him she would always be splendid and magnificent, and with what determination would he expel from him any base attacks on that loyalty.

Walpole, *Duchess of Wrexhe* I ch. 3 § 2.

In what strangely different accents does the historian Guglielmo Ferrero speak of the proletariat and the revolutionary agitators of Paris in 1848.

Times Lit. 9/10, 1919.

How impossible would it have been for any family . . . to feel otherwise than uneasy!

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 1 p. 9.

How has our indignation been fired by the thought of the ruined villages of France. Patton, *Village* p. 2.

b. What lives and hearts and fortunes had it not already devoured, that old exquisite stone house.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 18 p. 198.

How many times had she not sat there, in white frocks, her hair hanging down as now.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 15.

How they all laughed and beat the table with their teaspoons. Wasn’t that a take-in! Wasn’t it now! Didn’t he fox her! Good old Stan. Mansfield Bliss p. 4.

2174. Non-pronominal exclamatory sentences have the same order as the corresponding interrogative sentences, from which they differ only by their intonation. They are generally negative (*a*), but not exclusively (*b*).

a. Don't say anything at present about it — at present. Won't she live to find out the difference, and to know what she has done! I can tell her of one that won't pity her.
Trollope, Prime Minister ch. 16.

"Oh, wouldn't it be fun!" said Humphrey.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 11.

b. "Know it!" said Scrooge. "Was I apprenticed here!"
Dickens, Christmas Carol st. 2.

2175. When a verbal predicate without any adjuncts that enlarge its meaning is little more than a copula without adjuncts, it precedes the subject. In this case the sentence is introduced by the weak-stressed particle *there*. The particle cannot be considered a subject because the predicative verb generally agrees in number with the subject that follows. But there may be concord between *there* and the predicative verb (2150).

There have been many strange rumours about him.

Pretty women were everywhere, and there were many young and very smart men¹).

Hichens, Ambition ch. 7 p. 72.

There is no predicting what he will do.

2176. When the verbal predicate of a sentence with the introductory particle *there* contains an auxiliary and a verb of full meaning, we often find the order *auxiliary-subject-verb* (*a*). But we also find the whole of the verbal

1) The first part of this sentence strikes the reader as unusual. The normal construction would be: *There were pretty women everywhere.*

a. Never had the doctrine of persecution been urged with such a blind and reckless ferocity.

Green, Short Hist. p. 469.

No sooner had she entered the hall than she announced the proximate arrival of the Duke of Belfield at her heels.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 165.

Hardly had he returned from his Indian campaign when he plunged into the task of organizing his Empire on the lines which he had planned ¹).

Goodspeed p. 217.

Very rarely in war has a single error had more far-reaching consequences.

Times W. 28/1, '18.

b. Nowhere did Venice leave a deeper imprint of her civilization than upon the west coast of Istria di San Marco.

Times Lit. 4/1, '18.

At no point south of the river have the enemy advanced more than a mile or two.

Times W. 19/7, '18.

Only after a century and a half of confusion was the royal authority restored.

Times Lit. 26/10, '17.

Once only does the author give us first-hand information about any public character he has met.

Times Lit. 22/6, '16.

In no religion do birth and death play the part which they play in Christianity.

Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

Only so is communication possible.

Sapir, Language p. 11.

Scarcely less impressive than the universality of speech is its almost incredible diversity.

ib. p. 22.

2183. The inversion of the predicative verb and the subject is also found when *not* does not really make the sentence negative.

Not till three o'clock that Saturday did the Bigwigs begin to come ²).

Galsworthy, Freeland's ch. 8.

But not only was Thackeray a master of his craft in the delineation of individual characters, but also he had

1) On the character of *hardly*, compare 1355.

2) It may be argued that this sentence is really negative.

the power of describing society, the commingling of these individuals, naturally. Westm. Rev. July 1911.

2184. When a negative adjunct is clearly understood as a word-modifier to the subject, it naturally precedes the subject without causing inversion.

'Only one short struggle broke a peace of fifteen years.
Green, Short Hist. p. 48.

Scarcely a sound came through the open window.
Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 11 § 1.

"Only yesterday they were little girls, ever so tiny,
and now —." Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 7 § 3.

2185. Inversion is also regularly found in sentences opening with *so* which repeat the auxiliary of the preceding sentence in order to apply its predicate to a new subject. See 1149 *b*.

2186. When the object or an adverb adjunct opens a sentence with a transitive verb, inversion is possible. But it is only the *first auxiliary* that precedes the subject.

Inversion thus makes it necessary to substitute a group with auxiliary *do* for a simple present or preterite (619).

Many a dun had she talked to, and turned away from her father's door; many a tradesman had she coaxed and wheedled into humour, and into the granting of one meal more.
Thackeray, Vanity Fair.

So much skill and probity did he show in all his dealings that he gained a high character among the merchants.
Van Neck, Easy Prose.

Beatrice was Mary's friend, and many heartburnings and much mental solicitude did that young lady give her mother by indulging in such friendship.

Often have I seen a man in that country kill a hog on the floor of his house, cut it up, roast it, and then offer the meat to his guests.
Lamb, Essays.

Bitterly did I regret the perverse, superstitious folly that had induced me to neglect so obvious a precaution.

Had any one seen me, it must have been supposed that I was looking for something among the bushes, so closely did I scrutinize every foot of the soil and every tree.

Well do I remember the rambles of that spring tide.
Gissing, *Ryecroft* IX.

2187. In sentences with an object the normal order, however, is the usual one, in spoken English.

Books of this sort every reader worth his salt possesses for himself.
Baker, *Uses of Libr.* p. 6.

Much the same is to be said of many other books, of a different character altogether, the great works of literature especially. These we want to have at hand to enjoy whenever we are minded. ib.

He had his own ideas about dealing with it. The task that the harrow had begun, human hands could finish, so it seemed to him.

Freeman, *Joseph* ch. 1 p. 2.

Command of countenance the Countess possessed in common with her sex.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 15 p. 157.

Alan, however, Michael saw more often than last year, because Alan was very popular at Two Hundred and Two 1).
Sinister Street p. 739.

He did not hear their remarks but that he ascribed to the deafening effect of the experiment.

Wells, *Country* p. 216.

A cousin of Melchisedec's had risen to be an Admiral ... Him they besought to take charge of the youth, and make a distinguished seaman of him.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 3 p. 19.

The liberty they claim for themselves they are not anxious to deny to others.
Pilot 1/2, 1902.

1) The number of Michael's lodgings.

All these experiments in forms and methods of literary expression, our contemporary masters and mistresses of fiction have inherited.

Lord Ernle, Engl. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 50.

2188. Front-position of a prepositional object is frequent in colloquial English, it is less frequent as a literary use. Hence we always find normal order when a prepositional object has front-position (*a*). The same applies to prepositional adjuncts when the preposition is connected with the verb (*b*).

a. Danger on the field the Major knew not of.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 5 p. 41.

All these complaints Molly had to listen to.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 15 p. 255.

These details one could dispense with.

Times Lit. 12/10, '17.

This object, of course, Professor d'Alton has deliberately aimed at.

ib. 12/10, '17.

Indeed, she was constitutionally unable to be afraid of anything, except motor-cars, and, of course, ear-wigs, and even them one must put up with.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 26 p. 323.

Some of the finest manners I have met with *I have met with* in cottages, because there I have found some of the most considerate of people ¹⁾.

Haldane, Addresses p. 113.

Everything he needed he paid for in fish, and often went months at a time without a glimpse of money of any description.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 14 p. 114 f.

The animals were in the direct line of his path, but *that* the child thought little of.

Hardy, Native I ch. 8 p. 86 f.

b. But boxing you and I are too old for.

Holmes, Autocrat p. 166

1) This is not quoted as an example of excellent English.

The big hotels I doubt whether you'd ever be able to get out of, when once they found where you were. Oppenheim, *People's Man*, ch. 14 p. 140.

2189. In literary English we frequently find inversion, the whole verbal group preceding the subject, in sentences without an object. The order of words is *verb (or verbal group) and subject* when the subject has the stronger stress or the greater weight, and *subject and verb (or verbal group)* when the verb is the more important of the two.

2190. Front-position of an adverb adjunct often causes inversion, the simple verb (*a*), or passive verbal group (*b*), preceding the subject.

a. Along the road walked an old man. He was white-headed, . . . : Hardy, *Native I* ch. 2 p. 9.

The king's will governed the law — there was the evil. That the law should govern the king's will — there was the remedy ¹). Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 126.

And now began politics in deadly earnest for Steve. Patterson, *Compton*.

Lower and lower bent Uncle Charlie's head over his plate. Montgomery, *Misunderstood*.

At Canterbury and Silchester are remains of churches built during the Roman occupation.

Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 2 ²).

To His Majesty's generous permission is due ³) the fact that the honour and virtue of this much misunderstood woman are now established beyond doubt.

1) Note that in this sentence *there* is an adverb of place, pronounced with a strong stress [ðeə]. It should be distinguished from the introductory *there*, which is entirely unstressed [ðə(r)]: 2175.

2) A great number of examples of inversion are to be found in this book.

3) In this sentence the whole predicate precedes the subject to avoid separating *fact* from its appositional clause.

Nedda, therefore, walked alone; but at her side went always an invisible companion.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 14.

So down she sat and down sat he, the fire dancing in their faces.

Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 56.

b. But for each of them Fate had intervened; on each had been laid the duty of obligation to a family.

Nash's *Mag.* Aug. 1927.

Passing through the door of a typist's office may be seen the thick-set, ponderous figure of a man with a red face.

ib. Oct. 1927 p. 14.

2191. In the case of verbal groups other than the passive ones, the subject may follow a shorter group (*a*), but in other cases the first auxiliary only precedes the subject (*b*). It is only occasionally that a passive group is broken up by mid-position of the subject (*c*).

a. Throughout our Northern Europe has persisted this wonderful Christmas ceremonial of the home and the church.

b. Day after day, month after month, year after year, would Molly have to sympathize with her father, and pity her stepmother.

Gaskell, *Wives II* p. 278.

c. Especially in the monasteries were young people instructed, many of them the sons of quite poor people.

Gill, *Government* ch. 13 p. 160.

2192. The nominal predicate can also open the sentence and cause inversion (*a*). In the case of a verbal group the auxiliary only precedes the subject (*b*). See 840.

a. Small indeed was my appetite.

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 119.

Far different was the effect of Liddon, in those days, upon us younger folk!

Mrs. Humphry Ward,
Harper's Magazine May 1918, p. 880/1.

The untameable, Ishmaelish thing that Egdon now was, it had always been.

Hardy, *Return of the Native I* ch. 1.

Another periodical of the 'nimble and more familiar kind' came to life very soon after the start of *Blackwood*, and very warm grew the rivalry between the northern and the southern monthly.

Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII p. 160.

The deeper we pursue our subject the greater becomes our distrust of accepting charters and statutes at their face value ¹⁾.

Times Lit. 28/2, '19.

The more abstruse his theme, indeed, the finer is his sense of the ring of words.

Times Lit. 16/12, 20.

Particularly well arranged seem to us to be the two volumes on the Balkan States.

Times Lit. 13/1, '21.

b. Great ladies must they be, at the web of politics, for us to hear them cited discoursing.

Meredith, Diana ch. 1.

So serious was the position regarded in the west that in the Bristol diocese and some others the bishop has sent a circular notice to all the clergy suggesting that prayers for fine weather should be general at Sunday services.

Daily Mail.

2193. According to 2189, there is usually no inversion when the predicate has more stress than the subject.

Up went this roaring dragonfly in which Peter was sitting... Up they went and up, until the world seemed nearly all sea and the coast was far away.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 13 § 8 p. 605.

He was delighted to see how much the squire Alan was already become.

Sinister Street p. 986.

That way we run no risk at all.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 202.

2194. When the subject is unstressed it occasionally follows the simple copula or the first auxiliary (*a*), but it does not end the sentence (*b*).

a. Thus were we at open hostility with our only neighbour.

¹⁾ See further the chapter on the *Compound Sentence*.

For two days have I been tramping over the mountains.
To the forgetfulness of the tomb must we all come at last.

b. Possibly Clym's fame, like Homer's, owed something to the accidents of his situation; nevertheless famous he was. Hardy, *Return of the Native* III ch. 1.

But she appeared to be in no hurry. Thoughtful she was. Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 8.

2195. When there is no introductory word, front-position of the verbal predicate occurs in poetry only, as a conscious archaism. The corresponding prose-construction is the one with the particle *there*.

Times followed one another. Came a morn
I stood upon the brink of twenty years.

E. B. Browning, *Aurora Leigh* Bk. II.

We have an apparently identical case in the following sentence; but it is different; we must probably interpret it as the result of shortening (2130 f.).

Things do break so; break and get lost and are no more seen; and that hurts horribly. *Remains* the idea, Rodney would have said.

Rose Macaulay, *Lec Shore* ch. 4 p. 57.

Optative Sentences **2196.** Sentences with an optative stem have the normal order when there is an object. English has only a few instances of this construction as a survival of earlier practice.

God save the King.

2197. In poetry and archaic prose we sometimes meet with inverted order of a verb of full meaning and its subject. See 1531.

Lie you easy, dream you light,
And sleep you fast for aye;
And luckier may you find the night
Than ever you found the day.

Housman, *A Shropshire Lad* XIX.

Turn we now to the historian and biographer.
 Birrell, *Obiter Dicta* (Essay on Carlyle).

2198. Optative sentences generally have an auxiliary before the subject. An adverb adjunct may open the sentence. The last of the following quotations may be interpreted as an exclamatory sentence.

May you be successful.

Long may he live.

Here ¹⁾, in the calm interplay of hypothesis and fact, he found his satisfaction. Could political theories be tested with equal dispassionateness.

Times Lit. 17/11, '21.

2199. Objects are normally placed after their verb, whether predicative or not. When there are two objects, not both personal pronouns, the indirect object stands first so as to show its function.

I bought the book for five shillings.

I never noticed him.

We expected to find your brother at home.

He gave the man the necessary information.

He gave us nothing.

He has lent them some books.

He asked himself this with almost a belief in the super-natural.

Garvice, *Lorrie* p. 23.

To show this clearly (viz. the inherent value of Greek) is the most hopeful way of securing Greek studies an important place.

Times Lit. 23/2, 22.

Leave your home behind, lad,

And reach your friends your hand,

And go, and luck go with you

While Ludlow tower shall stand.

Housman, *Shropshire Lad* III.

1) i. e. in the laboratory.

2200. When both objects are personal pronouns the indirect object *usually* stands first (*a*), but the reverse order also occurs, specially when the direct object is the enclitic *it* (*b*).

a. Agnes gave me them first thing when she got up.
Bennett, *Anna of the Five Towns* ch. 3.

She told him her story and told him often.

Nation 12/7, '13.

"I have only a guinea in my possession," he said presently. "So have I — exactly. I'll lend you it."

Niven, *Porcelain Lady* ch. 13 p. 189.

b. He told it me with such a direct simplicity of conviction that I could not do otherwise than believe him.

Wells, *Country of the Blind* p. 513.

"Shall I keep 'em for ye?" — "Yes, please." —
"Then give 'em me."

Bennett, *Anna of the Five Towns* ch. 3.

2201. Some verbs that can be construed with two objects can also take a direct object and an adjunct with *to*, others take *for* and *of* (1937 ff). This construction is chiefly used when the word in the adjunct is more important owing to its being mentioned for the first time; hence the word is often strong-stressed (*a*). When the objects are not both personal pronouns, the adjunct with *to* occasionally precedes the direct object, if the latter has the greater importance (*b*).

a. My father gave the books to us.

My father gave them to me for a present.

b. Henry II. gave to England a good administration of the law. Stephen Langton gave to the government good law to administer. Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 126.

The Phoenicians brought them into contact with Oriental civilization, and the Greeks gave to them their own splendid achievements in arts and culture.

Goodspeed, *Ancient World*.

Mrs. Meredith culled for her a few of the most resplendent blossoms — she could not have offered to any one anything less. Allen, *Mettle of the Pasture*.

Direct Object and Adjunct with to **2202.** Verbs that are always followed by a direct object and an adjunct with *to* (*to dedicate a book to a person, to address a petition to the King, etc.*) are free to place the part that is most emphasized at the end.

Lord Derby described to us the steps which have been taken towards the better performance of the promise made to the married men. Times 16/3, '16.

I shall explain to you the details of the whole plan.

I put this question to you because I am sure you can answer it.

He protested that he took no notice of anything; he felt content to go steadily on his own way, paying to the remarks no attention.

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland ch. 7.

2203. Plain direct objects can open a sentence. This order has been fully discussed in the preceding sections: 2170, 2173, and 2186 ff.

Front position of prepositional objects is illustrated in 2188. Their place in other cases is treated together with the place of adverb adjuncts below.

The object in the object-with-verb construction (object with plain stem, with *ing*, with participle, with stem with *to*) generally precedes its verbal, which has a similar function to that of a verbal predicate. Front position of the object does not occur in these constructions except in the case of the object with predicative stem (*These views we believe to be fair and true*), which shows by this its different character from that of the other, apparently similar, constructions. For examples, see volume 1.

Indirect objects can never open a sentence, because their function must be shown by their place; see 891 and 1046.

Objects of Compound Verbs **2204.** Some verbs, instead of merely being modified by an accompanying adverb, form one whole with it. We may consider such combinations as semi-compounds: *to put on, to take off, to carry out*¹⁾. See 1590. The place of noun-objects and pronoun-objects to these verbs requires some comment.

2205. As a rule these compound verbs do not take stressed words between verb and adverb. Noun-objects usually follow the whole group.

We are *saving up* money for a holiday.

But in the matter of *breaking up* grass-land they have not all fully realized the needs of the moment.

Times W. 28/12, '17.

The horse *laid back* its ears.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 18 p. 185.

There was no help for it; Sir Everard had to *break off* his discourse.

Montgomery, Misunderstood.

2206. Pronouns are generally placed between verb and adverb. Mid-position of the pronouns is generally due to their weak stress (*a*), but we also find it in other cases (*b*).

a. My watch stopped at half past six this morning; I suppose I forgot to *wind it up* last night.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 81.

I cannot *make it out*.

Will you *hand me down* that hammer and box of nails?

ib. p. 37.

It may be useful to *point this out* to President Wilson's countrymen.

Times W. 1/3, '18.

The Oxford and Cambridge scholars are far less likely than the scholars of a German University to spoil their careers by *giving themselves up* to the noble, but ill-requited life of a man of learning.

G. Birkbeck Hill, quoted In Praise of Oxford I p. 453.

1) Van Dongen, *Neophilologus* IV.

b. I have not *packed everything in yet*.

Sweet, Element. p. 74.

The police would have *found all this out* within the next few hours. Orczy, Lady Molly of Scotland Yard.

As the President had *thought nothing out*, the Council was generally working on the basis of a French or British draft. Keynes, Economic Consequences p. 42.

Machinery which will enable historical monographs to be ground out by persons who are as ready to *grind anything else out* will not make a great school of history. Times Ed. S. 4/2, '21.

2207. End-position of an indefinite pronoun is quite common if it has sufficient weight, e g. *everything, nobody* (a). Personal pronouns hardly ever have it. Demonstrative pronouns are occasionally found at the end (b), but rarely when they have no strong stress (c).

a. I have *packed up everything*.

b. George pointed his whip at a distant pillar of smoke, rising high into the sky, and flanked by low banks of blacker smoke.

"They can't *put out that*," said Hazel.

"They'll light a back-fire." Vachell, Spragge p. 160.

No one knew better than she that the labourers on the Malloring estate were better off than those on nine out of ten estates; better paid and better housed, and — better looked after in their morals? Was she to *give up that*? Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 12 p. 139.

c. Little was altered, but the big hall had been re-carpeted and the boughs lopped off the great tree which shadowed the library.

I *pointed out this*.

White, Mr. John Strood ch. 21 p. 196.

2208. Mid-position of noun-objects is frequent, especially when the adverb is short; although end-position of noun objects is to be considered as the regular order.

He *sought his sister out* just as the dressing-bell rang.
Oppenheim, *People's Man* ch. 11 p. 103.

"Why has she asked me?" said Charmian to herself,
laying this note down after reading it twice.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 5 p. 50.

You had better *wrap those books up* in a piece of
brown paper. Sweet, *Element.* no. 74.

Those who *carried the changes out* were openly pleased
that while they reformed abuses they wounded feelings.

Watson, *Church of England* p. 216.

2209. The chief cause of mid-position of noun-objects is their want of stress. This explains why a noun when mentioned for the first time has end-position, and when repeated has mid-position (*a*). It also explains the frequent mid-position of pronominal words like *things*, *matter* (*b*). But noun-objects in mid-position may be strong-stressed (*c*).

a. We'll *make up a parcel* for them

On the morning of Christmas Eve together we *made the parcel up*.
Punch 25/12, '15.

b. Any committee which *takes the matter up* will have the encouragement and support of the Department.

Times W. 21/12, '17.

He sat down to *think things over*. W. W. Jacobs,
Castaways (*Strand Mag* Nov. 1916, p. 487).

He seemed to be *thinking the matter over*. Sweet,
Spoken Engl. p. 52 (*matter* is marked with weak stress).

c. His flow of talk is wonderful, he'll hardly let you *get a word in edgeways*. Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 76.

I've only got to *get my boots on*. ib. 82.

He borrowed some decanters of his landlady to *put some wine in*.
ib. 83¹.

2210. Mid-position of other parts of the sentence than objects is rare.

1) All three quoted by Ellinger, in his review, *Beiblatt zur Anglia* 35 p. 374.

He stopped at Masters's and *looked sharply up* at the name.
Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 4.

His feet, which he *lifts carefully up* at the bidding of his keeper. Gaskell, North and South ch. 14 p. 113.

This opinion of hers was *spoken simply out* before the old man. id. Wives II p. 168.

Parliament in its terror and its revenge *took blindly up* the old weapon of repression.

Wakeman, *Intro.* p. 382.

2211. Mid-position of other words than pronouns is found only with some of the compound verbs. Others never show it; especially those in which the original local meaning of the adverb has become obscured or lost. Quotations showing end-position of a noun-object naturally cannot prove that mid-position is impossible. But it will probably be impossible to find or hear examples of mid-position of the noun-object of the following verbs:

- to bring out the character of.
- to back up a friend.
- to get up linen.
- to pick up knowledge.
- to put on a serious countenance ¹⁾.
- to pluck up courage.
- to rub up one's English.
- to square up accounts.
- to take up arms, too much room.
- to throw out hints, a proposition, etc.

1) The spelling *put-on* in Carlyle's *Heroes* (edd. of 1841, 1842, 1846) also proves that the writer took it for a compound.

Hardship, rigorous necessity was the poor boy's companion; no man nor no thing would put-on a false face to flatter Martin Luther.

Lecture on the Hero as Priest.

Adverb Adjuncts **2212.** The place of adverb adjuncts that qualify an adjective or adverb has been treated in the chapter on *Syntactic Word-Groups* (2019). It is not always possible, however, to distinguish between adverb adjuncts that form elements of syntactic groups and those that modify the sentence. This may be illustrated by the following sentence.

But Peter felt *curiously* certain that Stephen was going to return. Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 7 § 2 p. 82.

It might seem that *curiously* in this sentence is a member of a group (*curiously certain*); and this interpretation might be strengthened by a comparison with such a sentence as *He felt a curious certainty* . . . And yet, the context shows that *curious* modifies the whole thought expressed by the sentence.

It is convenient, on this account, to treat here of some adverbs that are sometimes undoubted members of a syntactic group only. They are *enough*, *quite*, *rather*, *only*.

2213. The adverb *enough*¹⁾ always follows a predicative adjective (*a*). Generally it also follows an attributive adjective (*b*), but it is occasionally separated from the adjective by the noun (*c*).

a. That is likely enough.

I can't reach it; I am not tall enough.

Sweet, *Element.* no. 37.

b. He is a bad enough tenant.

Burnett, *Fauntleroy* ch. 6.

He is a decent enough clerk. Bennett, *Leonora*.

The attack on the canal was a brave and determined enough effort on the part of the Germans.

Times W. 26/4, '18.

1) Note that *enough* is not only used to express a *sufficient* degree, but also, perhaps more frequently, to express a *high* degree.

A small room that probably has not a large enough window. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 6 p. 68.

c. The bishop seems to be a quiet man enough. Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 6.

He was a fat-faced rotund young squire — a bully where he might be, and an obedient creature enough where he must be. Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 20 p. 207.

It was a pleasant room enough, fitted with glass windows strongly barred.

Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 12 p. 137.

2214. *Enough* also accompanies nouns. It may precede them, though it usually follows (a). It *must* follow predicative class-nouns that have no article owing to their adjectival function (b); see 1396 ff.

a. I have enough money to go on with.

I thought that we had light enough, and ought to make use of it. Tyndall, *Glaciers*.

b. Lady Lufton might, probably, hear that her son had been fool enough to fall in love with the parson's sister. Trollope, *Framley* ch. 31 p. 309.

I fancied too, I had noticed — but was not philosopher enough to know whether there was any connection between the circumstances Brontë, *Villette* ch. 4 p. 39.

2215. When an adjective is qualified by *quite* or *rather* the indefinite article either precedes or follows these adverbs.

It seemed he must have stood there quite a long time.

There has on the whole been quite a remarkable stability in aesthetic opinion.

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 11.

A quite definite sense of suspicion and alarm.

The windows of the dining-room gave it rather an ecclesiastical appearance.

He eyed me with a rather sour expression on his face.

This was a rather contradictory speech, to be interpreted by intuition rather than by logic.

Gaskell, *Wives* II p. 110.

This place of *quite* and *rather* before the noun with its adjuncts imparts a slightly different meaning to the sentence. In that position they modify the sentences rather than the adjective. Thus, 'It was rather a coarse joke' suggests some hesitation on the part of the speaker to call the joke 'coarse'. In 'It was a rather coarse joke' the coarseness is assumed as a fact and an opinion is expressed only on the degree of coarseness.

Quite is also used when the noun is not accompanied by an adjective. In this function it is clearly a sentence-modifier: *It is quite a surprise to me; she is quite a lady.* See the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*.

2216. *Only* either precedes or follows the word it qualifies

a. One of those devoted attachments, of which only a mother or nurse is thought capable.

M. Pattison, *Essays* (N.E.D.).

b. In one only of the casements. Lytton, *Leila* (N.E.D.).

Very frequently, however, *only* is separated from the word it refers to, although, according to the *New English Dictionary*, perspicuous writers avoid it. In spoken English it "generally occupies the pre-verbal position, and the word modified is marked by an appropriate nucleus-tone" (Palmer, *Grammar of Spoken English* § 386). In *I only saw my friend yesterday* the intonation decides if *only* qualifies *saw*, *my friend*, or *yesterday*. Thus also in:

I only asked the question from habit. Jowett, *Plato*.

2217. In declarative sentences, adverb adjuncts qualifying the predicative verb, whether adverbs, or nouns with a preposition or without, either precede or follow the subject with its predicative verb ¹⁾. The verb is not, usually, separated from

¹⁾ The place of adverbs in groups with a non-predicative stem is treated in 1975 f.

its object. In pronominal questions and pronominal exclamatory sentences the 'pronominal' adverb adjunct opens the sentence (according to 2170). In other sentences the adverb adjunct generally follows the verb (with its object).

I saw the boys *in the garden*.

Did you see the boys *in the garden*?

Don't you go *into the garden again*!

Here you will find all manner of plants.

I did not see him *anywhere*.

I have been writing *the whole afternoon*.

Last night we had little work to do; it is much more to-day.

At first he did not know what to say.

The evening of the day on which she had had the above conversation with Roger, Osborne arrived.

Gaskell, *Wives*.

In recent years, in this northern land, it had not seemed so important a place as at an earlier period of my life in a country nearer the sun.

Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 6 p. 110.

Sally always thought of this cabinet as "Major Roper's cabinet," because she got the whiskey *from it for him* before he went off in the fog.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 25 p. 264.

We shall stay at home *on account of the weather*.

In consequence of this news the expedition was postponed.

The book was praised *by many reviewers*.

To my surprise he consented.

To understand the plan of the movement we must look across the North Sea. Williamson, *Ev. of Eng.* p. 45.

The last example shows that a verb stem with *to* in the function of an adjunct to a verb is a more independent element of the sentence than a verb stem qualifying the preceding noun or adjective.

2218. When a verb is qualified by two adverb adjuncts, adverbs of time generally follow other adjuncts.

He was born *here in 1875*.

I saw him *in the garden yesterday*.

The woman was a Christian, and, to oblige her,
Timothy went *weekly to church*.

Phillpotts, Forest on the Hill ch. 1.

2219. It is possible for adverb-adjuncts to be placed between the subject and predicative verb ¹⁾. Longer adjuncts, however, cannot separate an unstressed pronoun-object from the predicative verb.

I *now* see that I did them injustice, poor dears.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

Sir Oswald *here* gives an account of the War Seal Foundation.

Graphic.

He had been much freckled in his youth; he *now* was greyish, lined, drawn.

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 1 p. 9.

She had *not far* retraced her steps when sounds in front of her betokened the approach of persons in conversation along the same path.

Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 139.

Peter, *that evening*, took the manuscript of *Reuben Hallard* into Miss Monogue's room.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 1 § 3 p. 155.

... for the rude mind *with difficulty* associates the ideas of power and benignity.

Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 1.

I have *to-day* seen a brief, dated June 11, 1911, by Pius X, addressed to the Apostolic Delegate at Washington.

It was an ideal spot for small birds. I have *never in England* seen so many breeding close together.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 6.

The *Novoje Vremya yesterday* printed the following outspoken words to which every public-spirited Russian will willingly subscribe.

Times W. 26/1, '17.

1) Schulze, Neuere Sprachen 20.

2220. Some classes of adverbs, especially those of one or two syllables, are comparatively free in their place, and are primarily placed between subject and predicative verb. It is convenient to distinguish:

- (1) adverbs of indefinite time.
- (2) adverbs of manner.
- (3) adverbs of degree.
- (4) adverbs of modality.

2221. Many adverbs of indefinite (or general) time, especially those of one or two syllables, *precede* strong-stressed verbs or parts of verb-groups, *follow* weak-stressed ones.

Consequently, they usually precede the simple predicative verb, and usually follow the verb *to be* and the auxiliaries; if there are more auxiliaries the adverb is oftener placed after the first than after the second (*a*). But they can precede any strong-stressed auxiliary or copula (*b*).

a. He never comes in time.

And he sometimes thought that he could judge the world better than most neighbouring mortals.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 1 § 2.

He has never done (= he's never done) better work.

He would often help people and as often be abused for his pains. (Here *be abused* is a single group, opposed to *help*).

That boy'll never be quiet, unless he is spanked¹).

The highly romantic life of the woman has been often glanced at with a view to its central episode.

Athenaeum 14/3, 1908.

Thenceforward her captain's worst anxieties were over, for she was in a sea which had been already ploughed by the *Enterprise*, a vessel of ten times her size.

Athenaeum 11/7, 1908.

Of his doings in the world, and of the sort of fame

1) i. e. beaten.

which he has achieved, enough has been already said.
Trollope, *Barchester*.

b. I slept beside a spring last night, and I never shall ¹⁾ like a bedroom so well.

Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 6 p. 64.

If the matter were not so interesting, the manner would now and then exhaust the most sympathetic attention. The matter always is interesting, however.

Times Lit. 12/10, '16.

He never could think that his wife had done him any honour in espousing him.

Meredith, *Evan Harrington* ch. 2 p. 9.

"You make me so angry when you talk like that," Sylvia said. "Of course, if you think you'll always be a fool, you always will be a fool."

Mackenzie, *Sylvia Scarlett* p. 117.

But the Suffolk Colthurst, *pur sang*, sets less store by the making of money than spending of money in the way it has always had money to spend. As a matter of fact it always has had money to spend.

Snaith, *Principal Girl* p. 10.

2222. These adverbs, especially those of more than two syllables, sometimes have another place although they are not stressed.

He came to see us recently.

He recently came to see us.

M. Paul Sabatier recently has added to his own reputation and to our knowledge by discovering an early form of the rule of the Franciscan Tertiaries.

Pilot 14/6, 1902.

2223. Compare:

1. He does not often do his best.

2. He often does not do his best.

In 1 *often* is part of the predicate (*often do one's best*) which is denied with regard to *him*; in 2 *often* qualifies the predicate *does not do his best*.

1) [*ʃæl*] with the 'strong' æ.

2224. In non-declarative sentences these adverbs mostly follow the same general rule.

Who ever heard of such a thing?

Never mind what he says.

You never mind him.

Who has ever heard of such a thing?

Did you ever tell him why he was not invited?

Have you already told him we are not coming?

Would he ever have recognized us?

Are you ever in time?

Don't ever believe him.

Don't you ever believe him.

May he never fail in his duty.

2225. Although the adverbs of general time generally have mid-position, they are occasionally put at the beginning (*a*) or at the end (*b*) of a sentence. Both of these constructions serve to make the adverb emphatic except when it is appended after a break (*c*).

a. Often has he told me of the dinner he gave in honour of that event¹). Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 149. .

Always his mother sat with him in the afternoon, till the light was feeble and the high tea at six o'clock was served downstairs.

Temple Thurston, *Antagonists* I ch. 4 p. 30.

The Conference is the only such body that exists. It meets seldom. It may not meet again till peace has been made.

Times W. 9/3, '17.

The pair talked together very seldom after Quinney's injunction.

Quinney's p. 200.

But he had certainly met the affair in a new way, and although in the week that followed he saw his father

1) Observe the inversion.

very seldom and spoke to him not at all beyond "Good morning" and "Good-night," . . .

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 p. 26.

c. He mended so badly, always.

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 2 p. 25.

2226. Front-position of *never* in imperative sentences with a subject is also emphatic, but not exceptional. See 2178.

With regard to *never* it must be remembered that it is also used in a function causing it to resemble *no*, as in the following sentence.

But even fifty years ago there was *never a volume* that had not been defaced out of all knowledge by crooked marks of the most inquisitive interrogation . . .

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 27 p. 292.

See 1411 in volume 2.

Adverbs of Manner **2227.** Adverbs of manner are placed as near to the verb as is convenient; consequently:

- (1) immediately after the verb, and where there is an object after the object.

"Don't answer back," Mrs. Baines repeated sternly.

Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* I ch. 3 § 4.

At this Quinney smiled complacently.

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 194.

Tamlin rose, walked to the door, and opened it. He closed it softly and came back. ib.

Mr. Evans had made his selection wisely.

Observer 24/4, '21.

- 2) immediately before the simple verb (*a*); and, in verb groups, after the last auxiliary (*b*).

a. Our host carelessly said that a great Revivalist was to address a meeting that night.

They wonderfully enjoyed these hours.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* ch. 5 p. 244.

Peter quietly closed the door behind him and went up to his room. Walpole, Fort. I ch 10 § 4 p. 122.

When, after many weeks, she was strong enough to travel, she was implored to return to England, but she utterly refused. Lytton Strachey, Eminent Vict. p. 138.

Apparently he had some time ago reached that entrance to middle age at which a man's aspect naturally ceases to alter for the term of a dozen years or so; and, artificially, a woman's does likewise.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 12 p. 104.

b. The history of the College is clearly and succinctly told.

The translation will be warmly welcomed by the serious student of psychology. Lit. World 16/1, '13.

I do not see how it could have been better done.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 6.

There were no modern conveniences, excepting a telephone, and that could be easily unhitched. Punch.

(This) might have been more cordially acknowledged.

Pilot 10/10, 1903.

It could best be felt when it could not clearly be seen.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 4.

When she became cooler she perceived that many of the phases of the dream had naturally arisen out of the images and fancies of the day before. id. ib. II ch. 3 p. 143.

The following cases are apparently of the same kind, but in reality they illustrate the predicative verbal adjective, not a verbal group.

He was *bigly made*, and his legs and arms were round. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 9 § 3 p. 105.

The face was well shaped, even excellently.

Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 167.

Place may be the means of distinguishing adverbs of manner from predicative adjuncts e. g. when it is a comparative not showing adverb function by its form. See the quotation in 1194.

This chair is *better made* than yours.

2228. Adverbs of manner are often given emphatic front-position; see 2226.

There was no sound from within and very slowly he turned the handle. Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 8 § 3 p. 90.

Very softly and stealthily the door opened.

ib. I ch. 9 p. 97.

Peter mechanically, as one walking in a dream, crept into an omnibus. Mechanically he left it and mechanically climbed the stairs of the nouse in Bucket Lane. ib.

Slowly his mind travelled over his investments; he could not think of any single one that was unsafe.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 42.

Also in exclamatory sentences.

Peggy snuffed. "Much Vivian will care!"

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 10 p. 141.

2229. Adverbs of degree qualifying verbs are often difficult to distinguish from adverbs of manner, e. g. *perfectly* in *I understand you perfectly*.

Those that are pure adverbs of degree, such as *almost*, *entirely*, *quite*, *scarcely* are almost invariably placed between the subject and the verb, in verb groups after the first auxiliary, i. e. they have the same position as adverbs of indefinite time (2221). See also 2230.

I almost think I will go too.

He quite agrees with you.

I have entirely settled the plan.

Once-fortified cities have destroyed their walls as being useless, and those at York have from time to time barely escaped destruction. York.

The *Daily Telegraph* declares that "Mr. McKenna, the seconder, almost seemed an orator," instead of "seemed almost an orator." Pilot 1/2, 1902.

It seems scarcely a house. Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 12.

Adverbs of Modality **2230.** Adverbs of modality are *probably, hardly, really, certainly, surely, perhaps*. Other adverbs may be included, such as *hardly* and *perfectly*, and similar adverbs of manner; it is also impossible strictly to distinguish those of degree and of modality. The following sentence shows an intermediate case between an adverb of manner and of modality.

To one of middle age the countenance was that of a young man, though a youth might *hardly* have seen any necessity for the term of immaturity ¹⁾.

Hardy, *Native* II ch. 6 p. 167.

2231. Adverbs of modality mostly stand between subject and verb, like those of indefinite time.

Thousands will probably lose their lives.

We could not possibly be ready by eight.

Babylonian civilization may be the most ancient, as it is certainly one of the two most ancient recorded in history. Times Lit. 24/2, '16.

Her mother had not at first perceived the unusual; for mothers, despite their reputation to the contrary, really are the blindest creatures ²⁾.

Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* I ch. 6 § 1.

2232. Some adverbs of modality can also be put at the beginning or at the end of the sentence; in both cases, however, they are separated from the rest of the sentence by a pause, thus approaching the character of free adjuncts. This place is possible in the case of *probably, really, certainly, surely*, and is the usual one of *perhaps*. It is not possible in the case of *hardly*, and other adverbs that are originally, or primarily, adverbs of manner or degree.

1) *Hardly* may be called an adverb of degree in *hardly enough money*, but it is an indubitable adverb of modality in *I hardly know if I can do that*.

2) Note that *are* is strong-stressed.

Many examples of *perhaps* are given in the first volume in the sections on *may* (677); the word should probably rather be included among the sentence-adverbs of the next section, both on account of its meaning and its place.

2233. The negative adverb *not*, when used to make a sentence negative, is enclitically added to the first auxiliary. The auxiliary is strong- or medium-stressed; and the adverb must follow.

He does not know what to do.

It should be remembered that *not* is also used as a word qualifier; in that case it precedes the word it qualifies. See 1975 ff. and 1244 ff. (on *no* and *not*). It may also be the object.

The advice was certainly not without reasonable grounds.

"Has my father then fallen, Monsieur?" she said. —
"I trust not, Fräulein, but he is at the seat of war."
Buchanan, *That Winter Night*.

2234. When *little* is used as an emphatic negative it precedes the verb. It may also have front-position (2182).

They little knew the man with whom they had to deal.
Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 10.

He little guessed that I knew Sherwood.
Fairless, *Road-Mender V*.

This use of *little* is confined to sentences with the verbs *know*, *think*, *care*, and synonyms of these; it does not seem to occur in the groups with auxiliaries.

2235. Another class of adverbs are those that express an opinion on the rest of the sentence; they are often independent of the rest of the sentence, and might even be called sentence words. Such are *fortunately*, *honestly*, *mercifully*, etc. These adverbs are called *sentence-adverbs*.

In accordance with their meaning, it is very common for sentence-adverbs to be put at the beginning or at the end of the sentence, separated from the rest by a pause. This break distinguishes the words from adverbs of manner in final position.

Frankly this is a grave disappointment.

Times W. 28/12, '17.

He did not attempt to deny the gravity of the position. Unquestionably it is very grave indeed. *ib.* 8/3, '18.

Wisely, no attempt has been made to give a formal history of the larger states. Times Lit. 13/1, '21.

Artfully, she talked to the two women, who replied in monosyllables. Vachell, Spragge ch. 7 p. 109.

Candidly I had forgotten that there was such a county as San Lorenzo. *ib.* p. 197.

Briefly the facts are these.

Strangely enough he began to feel now that it would not be so hard to persuade her.

Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 3.

The newcomers just glanced at the garden apparently.

There was a knock at the door, apparently gay and jaunty. But she thought, truly: "He's nearly as nervous as I am!" Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 1 § 1.

2236. Sentence-adverbs can also have mid-position, between the subject and the predicative verb, or the auxiliary *do* (*a*); also before or after other auxiliaries (*b*). Note that here, too, they are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by pauses.

a. Mr. Baring rightly demands that Pushkin should be judged from the Russian standpoint. Athen. 18/11, '12.

A great war inevitably involves investigations into the bases of society, and much reconstruction.

Times Ed. S. April 1915.

Theological doctrine and controversy, unfortunately, do not make interesting reading for posterity.

Journal of Eng. Studies II 159.

He of course returned to his office . . .

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 9 § 3 p. 103.

He minded, curiously, leaving Peter.

b In our present state of religious divisions it cannot fairly be contended that the presence in the House of Lords of twenty-six Bishops of the Established Church is an adequate representation of the religious interests of the community.

Still it must candidly be admitted that the extent of the royal power was in many directions ill-defined.

Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 255.

They were evidently dissatisfied.

That is admittedly a hard nut to crack.

Everyman 24/12, '12.

The immediate results unfortunately are already grievous enough.

Times W. 2/1, '17.

But the members of the Conference, very wisely, have not confined themselves to such material considerations.

ib. 11/5, '17.

2237. When an adverb of manner is put before its predicative verb, it may assume the character of a sentence-adverb.

Peter politely listened to what she had to say, although he understood little of it. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 3 § 2 p. 31.

2238. These sentence-adverbs, if at the beginning of a sentence do not cause inversion, even when they have a negative meaning (see 2235). Note that they cannot always open a main clause if a subordinate clause precedes. We can say *No doubt he will agree with me*, but the adverb adjunct must have end-position in *If he hears of this, he will agree with me, no doubt*.

Compound Verbs **2239.** The adverb of the compound verbs of the type *break down* (2204 ff), if they are intransitive, can also open the sentence, to express strong emphasis.

That night there was a great crash. Down came beams, joists, tiles, the whole roof.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 68.

Adjectives and substantives derived from these compounds regularly have front-position of the adverb apart from emphasis. See 151 and 1640.

They stood up-gazing at Miss Matty's drawing-room windows.

Gaskell, Crawford p. 343.

The last good influence in the lives of down-going men.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 2.

Exceptional **2240.** It has been shown that the order of
Word-order words in English, although strict, is not without some freedom. Any part of the sentence may have front-position contrary to the usual order if it is necessary to give it special emphasis. Sometimes front-position is not due to this cause; it may be the result of the connection of the sentence with the preceding one. Thus, in the sentence quoted in 1902: *At Southwell Lord Byron lived when he wrote his 'Hours of Idleness'*, the adjunct of place comes first because the writer wished to express the thought: *Southwell is remarkable because Lord B. lived there*, etc. Similarly in the following sentence.

And its door you could see through the glass of into the hall. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 15.

Word-order may also be emphatic by the simple fact that it is unusual, no matter whether the word has front-position or is put in another part of the sentence.

2241. The preceding sections represent the most important facts, but there are cases when the rules are deviated from. It is especially the adverbs that are comparatively free in their place.

Thus it is usual for objects to follow their verb immediately. But we sometimes find an adverb or adverb adjunct between

the verb and its object (*a*). The place of the adverb adjunct is also unusual in the following sentences under *b*.

a. He discusses admirably the development of the legend.

Athenaeum 21/9, 1907.

He announced curtly his intention of getting rid of the rubbish.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 15.

Husband and wife remembered guiltily their child.

ib. p. 287.

The words of the Bishops express faithfully the mind of the Pope.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 14.

He would pay gladly a thumping price.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 220.

Each (of the two races) was won by G. Richards, who would seem now to have a following who back blindly anything which he may ride¹). Times 8/10, 27 p. 5/1.

In the morning he felt still that same exultation.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 8 p. 86.

b. Always she comforted herself with the reflection that . . .

Vachell, Spragge p. 12.

A little more detail would have been sometimes useful, as in the accounts of Grey's controversy with the New Zealand Company.

Times 9/11, 1907.

Freshness of colour would perhaps be by some critics considered the quality. . .

Ed. Rev. Jan. 1903 p. 60.

The little town built against the hill nowhere straggled.

Sinister Street p. 762.

Compare also the following cases.

But the *abandon* and extraordinary brilliance of the writing more than atone for these defects.

Pilot 7/2, 1903 p. 147/1.

The exclamation was by the Foreign Office rightly regarded as the strongest testimony to the Ambassador's ability.

ib. 14/6, 1902 p. 634/1.

1) The unusual place in this and the preceding sentence prevents *gladly* and *blindly* from being taken for sentence-adverbs. But *wisely* is a sentence-adverb, in spite of its position, in the following sentence.

The author gives wisely little more than an outline of Stevenson's career.

Athenaeum 28:3, 14.

Front-position of adverb adjuncts has been fully illustrated in the sections on inversion of the subject.

Shifting of the relations of the elements of a syntactic group sometimes causes a shifting in the order of words. In the following quotations *better*, from an adjunct to the verb, has come to be an adjunct to the pronominal word to which it is now added, causing *better* to resemble *else* in its meaning.

Who better could buy these for the public good than the English gold-miner? Graphic 18/2, 1928.

How better can science present a respectable front to Governments than by . . . Times W. 11/3, 1921.

On *far to seek*, etc., see 532 in volume 1¹).

2242. **Predicative Adjuncts** generally follow the object they qualify; see 1946 ff. They can open a pronominal question (*What do you call this word?*); this is also possible in adjuncts with *as*: *Well, what shall we put her down as?* (de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 25 p. 274). Sometimes predicative adjuncts in a declarative sentence precede the object (*a*), especially when the latter is accompanied by longer adjuncts or clauses (*b*).

a. "You did look wholly funny, then," said Harry, suddenly overcome and almost choking with laughter, "swimming in all that wine. Waste of good drink I call it." Freeman, Joseph ch. 16 p. 142.

Even the authors who have made illustrious the earlier decades of the nineteenth century have already (though very recently) taken their appropriate places.

Times Lit. 26/1, '17.

1) Compare this quotation.

Miss Nunn entered. Younger only by a year or two than Virginia, she was yet *far from* presenting any sorrowful image of a person on the way to old-maidhood. Gissing, *The Odd Women* ch. 3.

In this sentence *far from* is an adjunct to the *ing* rather than the leading element of the group.

b. He leaves unsettled, indeed almost untouched, many obvious difficulties which stand in the way of his plan.

Times Lit 29/6, '16.

They caused to be set up certain newspapers, published in Flemish.

Times Ed. S. 1/2, '16.

There had been several moments during his talk with Clarissa when he had feared to see vanish that aureole with which he had incircled this gathering.

Sinister Street p. 614.

She felt . . . as if she were fighting to preserve intact her independence, her individuality.

Hichens, Way of Ambition ch. 36 p. 452.

When Ingres painted his vast 'Apotheosis of Homer,' he represented, grouped round the central throne, all the great poets of the ancient and modern worlds, with a single exception — Shakespeare.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Char. p. 3.

On predicative adjuncts to the subject of a verbal sentence, see 2086 ff. The following sentence is parallel to the one from de Morgan at the beginning of this section: "*Do you know, I am thinking of starting in business for myself*" — "*Where, and what as?*" (S. Phillips Oppenheim, *The Game of Liberty* ch. 24 T. p. 214).

Free Adjuncts **2243.** The order of elements of a related adjunct presents no peculiarities; the order of the elements that form an absolute adjunct is parallel to that of a subject and its predicate; see 2090 ff.

This accounts for the place of the adjectives after the noun that serves as its 'subject', as in the following sentence.

"Don't be silly, girls," interposed Aunt Bel. "Do you want to graduate for my state with your eyes open?"

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 168.

2244. As to the place of free adjuncts with respect to the rest of the sentence, they may have front-position,

end-position, and mid-position, as has been shown in the quotations of 2090 ff. Front-position is by far the most frequent, and is mostly necessitated by the sequence of the speaker's thoughts. End-position is frequent when the adjunct explains the cause of the occurrence or action in the predicate, as in the examples of 2103; if the adjunct precedes, as in the third sentence of 2103, it expresses reason rather than cause. In some cases mid- or end-position is the result of the adjunct serving specially to qualify the word that precedes, as in the two last quotations of 2102. The actual order is usually the only one that is possible, as an examination of the quotations in 2090 ff. will easily show; the same applies to the following case of mid-position of the adjunct.

He even, *standing there in his little room and looking over the London roofs*, despised the winter's inaction.
Walpole, *Fort.* II ch. 5 p. 195.

*Order of Words in Sentences that do not distinguish
a Subject and a Predicate*

2245. In sentences that do not distinguish a subject and a predicate, the order of words is almost completely the same as in those dealt with until now. This naturally applies in the first place to those sentences that must be looked upon as shortened ones: see 2127 ff.

Imperative sentences also have the usual word-order. Note that adverbs frequently *must* precede the imperative stem to prevent them being taken for adverbs of manner. Adverbs of indefinite time generally follow, but *never* has front-position only.

Tell me the truth.

Do tell me what you have seen.

Kindly do not touch (Notice on exhibits).

Just post this letter for me, will you?

Never mind what he says.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

2246. A sentence may consist of elements that have more or less completely the appearance of sentences. An example is: *I believe you are right.* In this sentence we have the group *you are right*, which may have the function of a sentence in a given context. The first element *I believe* can hardly have such a function, although it is evidently not impossible. But we should not be justified in considering the sentence *I believe you are right* as a group of two sentences, for neither of the two elements fully expresses its meaning except as part of the whole sentence; this is expressed by calling the two elements *clauses*, and giving the name sentence to the whole group only. A sentence containing two or more clauses is called a *compound sentence*.

2247. In every compound sentence there is one member that is, syntactically speaking, the leading element; this is called the *main clause*; the other clauses are called the *sub-clauses*.

The main clause is the *leading clause* of the whole sentence. The sub-clauses may form a group of which each member is directly connected with the main clause (*a*); but it may also be that two or more sub-clauses form a closer group, one serving as the leading clause of this group (*b*).

a. It was seized by Saxons, *who speedily reached the*

limits of their expansion and settled down as the small and backward kingdom of Sussex.

Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 35.

b. The authority for it all is the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, *which certainly does tell a story that can be read in this way...*

Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 31.

2248. As the examples quoted have already shown, sub-clauses may be connected with their main clause by conjunctions or relative pronouns; they may also be unconnected. Both types are equally common in English; neither should be looked upon as a deviation from a regular type. In most cases unconnected clauses follow their main clause; sometimes they must precede. Clauses with conjunctions are generally free in their order with respect to the main clause. Relative clauses must follow any word they may refer to, but are free in their place in other cases.

These questions will be dealt with in detail below.

2249. As regards their structure, main clauses and sub clauses may both have the form of a simple sentence with a subject and a predicate: *When we turn to English history, we find examples of these truths on every side.* (Powieke, *Med. England* p. 10).

A main clause may differ from this type of sentence by lacking its subject: Whether or not she could be called a comely woman *might have furnished matter for male discussion* (Gissing, *The Odd Women* ch. 3). It may also lack a predicate, in a nominal sentence: *My great regret is* that for what I have done no man or law can punish me (Hardy, *Native V* ch. 9 p. 470). It may also lack both, so that the main clause consists of a single word without any meaning (a copula): The fate of England and of Western Europe hung, humanly speaking, on the

heart and brain of a young man of three-and-twenty years. That, under God, he proved himself equal to his high task, *is* what has justly earned for him the title of Great (Plummer, *Life and Times of Alfred the Great* p. 96).

A main clause may also have a different structure, like simple sentences. It may be an imperative clause: *Hurry up* if you don't want to lose your train. It may also be exclamatory: *How funny* that he should refuse after all.

Summing up, we can say that the main clause may have the structure of any type of independent simple sentence, and may lack any of its parts.

With regard to the sub-clauses, we can say that they generally have the structure of sentences with a subject and a predicate, as in the examples quoted until now; but it is possible for sub-clauses to be construed without a subject of their own: Move up a bit; there's another couple *want to find seats* (Pett Ridge, *Name of Garland* ch. 14 p. 243). Similarly they may lack any one of the other elements of a simple sentence, as will be shown in dealing with the sub-clauses in detail below.

2250. From what has been said it follows that the distinction of main and sub-clauses is a purely grammatical one, without any bearing on the meaning of the whole sentence. Either the main clause or the sub-clause may contain the dominant element of the meaning expressed by the sentence, and it is also possible for the elements of the compound sentence to be equally balanced.

With regard to the functions of sub-clauses it is evident that these are generally parallel to, but not always identical with, the functions of the elements of a simple sentence. Accordingly, we can distinguish *subject clauses*, *object clauses*, *predicate clauses*, *attributive clauses*, and *adverb clauses*. We can also consider the *apposition clauses* as

a separate class. There are no clauses in English that can be considered as parallel to the predicative adjunct of an object (as *a mistake* is in a sentence like: *I consider your decision a great mistake*).

As the form of a clause greatly depends upon its function in the sentence, it will be convenient to deal with the various kinds of sub-clauses separately. We shall successively treat of 1) their structure; 2) the concord of person and of tense; 3) the order of words and of clauses.

Structure

Subject Clauses **2251.** In exact parallelism to the simple sentence, we find compound sentences with a sub-clause in the function of a subject opening with the sub-clause. As in most cases when a sub-clause opens a sentence, the subject clause is always introduced by a connecting word, which is the conjunction *that* (*a*), a relative pronoun (*b*), or a relative adverb (*c*).

a. . . . which has always infuriated them. That he meant it to, seems improbable.

Greig, *Breaking Priscian's Head* p. 7.

That she was doing for an earnest reason what would most naturally be done in jest was at any rate a safe secret.

Hardy, *Native* II ch. 4.

b. What I required was something cheap and small and hardy, and of a stolid and peaceful temper.

Stevenson, *Donkey* p. 6.

However, Ben's hostility was no longer a burden to her; *what sat upon her mind now* was the untidy kitchen window.

Freeman, *Joseph* ch. 13 p. 113.

Who this mysterious wife might be faded into insignificance before the wonder of where she was.

Gaskell, *Wives* II p. 20.

To what extent the British population had disappeared is a matter of controversy.

Gardiner and Mullinger, *Introd.* p. 16.

Whoever has said it — if any one has, which I doubt — is no friend of mine. C. Brontë in Gaskell, *Life* ch. 16.

c. How stubborn the contest was may be seen from the fact that it took sixty years to complete the conquest of Southern Britain alone. Green, *Short Hist.* p. 10.

How they spent the time did not seem to be certainly known, but the impression was that politics occupied them. Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 2 § 1.

Whether it will amuse the German professors is not easy to say. *Times Lit.* 2/12, 15.

2252. It is usually supposed that English also has subject clauses following the main clause, as in *It is certain he doesn't want to come*. However we may interpret this compound sentence, it is clear that the main clause has a subject. It is true that the subject *it* expresses no meaning, but that is of no essential importance grammatically, for the circumstance does not alter the structure of the sentence. The current interpretation also leads us into peculiar difficulties, as we shall show in a later section.

It is generally said that the sub-clause is the *logical subject*, the subject pronoun *it* serving as a *provisional subject*. This would be a reasonable interpretation if we were justified in starting from the supposition that the subject necessarily expresses a meaning. But it should be considered that it is not possible to invert the order of the two clauses without changing the meaning of the whole sentence. Sometimes, indeed, the inversion is hardly possible, as in *It seemed almost dreadful they should be able to sing like that* (see 710). And in a sentence of the type *It is time we gave a second thought to Puritanism* (36 in vol. 1) few will be prepared to explain the sub-clause as being a subject clause.

Object Clauses **2253.** As in the case of objects in a simple sentence we can distinguish plain object clauses (*a*), prepositional object clauses (*b*), and retained

object clauses (c). For the reason given in the last paragraph of 2203, English has no indirect object clauses.

The most usual place of object clauses is after the main clause but several of the following sentences show that they can also open the compound sentence.

a. In 1910 the government introduced its Parliament Bill. It provided *that the Lords should have no power to reject a money bill*. Williamson, Ev. of Engl. p. 452.

The duty of deciding *what was or was not a money bill* was laid on the Speaker of the House of Commons.
ib. p. 454.

The movement had been sufficient to show more clearly the characteristics of the figure, and *that it was a woman* ¹⁾. Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 2.

(The book) cannot fail to bring sympathetically closer Great Britain and *what is to be hoped still may be called the sister isle* ¹⁾. Quarterly Rev. July 1927 p. 213.

That the thing is impossible in England, who would venture to say? Gissing, Ryecroft XIX.

In all his designs, *whatever Mr. Leech desires to do*, he does. Dickens, in Hole, Memories p. 92.

That there remains in them a residuum of acceptable fact, when all the errors have been cleared away, our historians agree. Oman, Conquest p. 186.

He always did her good; but *that he could do Charlie good*, she had long given up hoping.
Phillpotts, Beacon II ch. 10.

What he did he did well.

Gardiner and M., Introduction p. 39.

Voltaire boasted *that if he shook his wig the powder flew over the whole of the tiny republic*.

Morley, Voltaire NED.

I don't wonder *you need it*.

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 2 p. 29.

1) These two sentences illustrate the parallelism of the object and the object clause.

Messrs. Duncan and Co. informed us *that the goods had been sent off.*

b. It is well to be reminded *of how eventful the earlier months were.* Times Lit. 12/8, '15.

He was far too certain of the future to worry much *about what anyone said.* Waugh, Loom of Youth III ch. 8.

She had grown so deaf that what was repeated to her became known *to whoever might be in or about the house.* Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 5.

Lewis and Sebastian wrangled a little *over which of them was to play.*

Kennedy, Constant Nymph IV ch. 20 p. 272.

And that reminds me *of how this slowness of action once saved his life.* Davies, Super-Tramp ch 3 p. 25.

He looked *at what Rodney described as the morning.* Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 4 p. 59.

It depends *upon whether an apology is offered or something* Chapin, New Morality, in Brit Pl. p. 554.

c. Then, too, it was generally discovered *that the maker of these splendid books was himself a splendid old man.* Times Lit. 9/2, 28.

2254. We also find object clauses with a mixed verb and noun group as the leading member.

As soon as I *could make up my mind* what had actually happened, I would take Hugh Desprez into my confidence ¹⁾. de Morgan, Vance ch. 49 p. 491.

Why she thought of him thus suddenly *she had no idea.* Galsworthy, Freeland's ch. 8.

I *give you my bible-word* it was Mr. Hyde. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

I *had no notion* how I could make any part of his happiness. Mary Lamb, Sel. Short Stories II p. 4.

2255. All the examples of object clauses in the preceding

1) Observe that the leading clause of the object clause is itself a sub-clause.

sections depend upon a verb or verb group in the main clause. We have seen, however, that it is reasonable to interpret some prepositional groups with adjectives as objects (1968). Parallel to these objects are the clauses in the compound sentences. All adjectives that can take a complementary verb stem (224) can also take an object clause. Among these adjectives the most frequent are those expressing a perception or desire: *sure, certain, aware, desirous, anxious, afraid*, etc.

The preposition is not retained (*a*), except in relative clauses (*b*).

a. I am certain that he has done it.

I am afraid you will fail.

We are confident that in this moment of sore trial they will be faithful to the glorious traditions.

Times W. 2/11, '17.

Indeed, but for the accident of London auctions or casual visits to the mansions of the great, we might die ignorant that England is the richest portrait storehouse in the world.

Times Lit. 24/7, '19.

That this feeling towards Maxwell on the part of so many men of science comes wholly from his work, in complete ignorance of his life, we should be reluctant to assert; *that it comes partly from his work* we are convinced.

Times Lit. 17/9, 1925 p. 589/4.

b. He is certain of what he has told you.

... ignorant only of at which step the rush would come.

Hutchinson, *One Increasing Purpose* I ch. 3 p. 20.

2256. Object clauses with a verb that is construed with a prepositional object for their leading member and those depending upon an adjective retain the preposition in relative clauses, and drop it in the other clauses ¹⁾;

1) This warns us that the parallelism between sub-clauses and parts of a simple sentence is not to be mistaken for identity.

see the last two quotations of 2253 *a* (with *boast*, *wonder*, and *inform*) and those of 2255 *a*.

Sometimes the plain verb cannot express the meaning denoted by the prepositional construction. In such a case the formal object *it* is used. Compare the sentences with the formal subject *it* referred to in 2252.

Italy may rely upon it that she will not be left
unaided. Times W. 2/11, '17.

In other cases a group with the verbal *ing* must be used, or a clause with a relative pronoun or adverb.

I could say "the Hon. Mr. John Trent" if I liked,
but father does not care about its being dragged in
everywhere. Cotes, Cinderella ch. I.

This was very nice for father and mother and me,
and I did not care how often it happened. ead. ib.

2257. Object clauses may also depend upon nouns which are related in meaning to verbs (chiefly verbal abstracts, such as *discovery*, *fear*, *hope*, etc.) or to the adjectives that take such clauses (*certainty*, *confidence*, etc.). It is not always possible strictly to classify the two groups of nouns; thus, *fear* and *hope* are at the same time verbal abstracts and adjectival nouns.

The distinction between conjunctive and relative clauses can be made here as in the other object clauses, but it is significant that unconnected clauses of this type do not occur.

The *certainty* that he will help us is comforting.

His *fear* that things may go wrong has no foundation in any known fact.

The *hope* is expressed that every teacher in Bradford will use his or her utmost influence to assist the national effort. Times Ed. S. 3 8, '15.

This oppressed her more than *wonder* who he might be. Peard, Madame p. 55.

While that book tells the *tale* of how she hunted, the results of the chase are visible to all the world in a special gallery of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

Times Lit. 29/7, 15.

... and great was his *concern* that circumstances compelled his absence on two of these occasions.

Sidney Lee, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 2.

The age of metal, in Britain at least, starts at once with the use of bronze, there being little or no *trace* that unmixed copper was used, before the method of hardening and alloying it with tin became known.

Oman, Conquest p. 6.

(He) was conscious of *cries* that he was not playing the game.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 5 § 3 p. 58.

(His resentment) was in no way lessened by the *discovery* of who it was.

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 5 p. 64.

That he might not be embarrassed by too many puzzles at once, he waived the *question* of who this was to be.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 28 p. 303.

The use of the formal subject *it* in the main clause is parallel to the construction mentioned in 2252. Its real difference from the other clauses is shown by the possibility of an unconnected clause.

It is our *hope* that the best brains of the Conservative party will ponder deeply the situation as it will be then likely to exist.

They tell me champagne is dangerous; it's my *belief* I couldn't take a better thing.

Galsworthy, Caravan I p. 2.

2258. It has been shown in the preceding quotations that the object clauses, as far as they are plain objects or retained objects to a verb or to an adjective, can be used without a connecting word. The nouns of 2257 do not take unconnected clauses; their relationship to the apposition clauses of 2263 will be discussed there.

When the object clauses do not require an interrogative-relative connecting word it is often indifferent to the meaning whether the conjunction *that* is used or not; the construction without is more colloquial, although perfectly current in the written language. The difference between the two constructions is not always one of style, however. It is sometimes necessary to use the unconnected construction; this is the case when the connection between the main and the sub-clause is very close, the main clause having the function of a sentence-adverb. Thus, no conjunction could be used in: *I'm afraid I don't know; I'm sure I don't know.*

The absence of a connecting word may sometimes cause a slight inconvenience in the written language. In the following sentence the reader may at first sight take *the whole affair* for an object.

They had woken her it seemed from a very delightful sleep, and she considered the whole affair "savoured of Paganism."
Walpole, *Fort. I ch. 3 p. 28.*

The conjunction is necessary sometimes to show that another sub-clause depends upon the *that*-clause as its leader, as in *I felt that, if I went on, I should betray my secret.* The structure would not really be doubtful if in the following sentence the conjunction were omitted: *And then Peter found suddenly that he didn't wish to talk about the carol-singers at all* (Walpole, *Fortitude I ch. 3 p. 28*).

2259. When both main clause and sub-clause are negative in meaning they can be connected, chiefly in literary English, by *but* or *but that*. The same applies to compound sentences with an interrogative main clause. See 1510 ff. The use is limited to compound sentences with main clauses containing a small number of verbs, of which the NED. mentions *fear, doubt, despair, make no question* (or *scruple*).

Never fear but I'll go. Mrs. Oliphant (NED.).

I had not a doubt but that he had been her second husband. Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 3 p. 33.

Subject and Object Clauses **2260** It has already been observed that the distinction between subject clauses and object clauses is a grammatical, not a logical one. The first of the sentences that follow contains an object clause (*a*), but the subject clauses under *b* logically depend upon a verb, or a noun with a verbal sense, in the main clause.

a. What the men would have done without them in the dismal weather when to walk out of doors is to wade ankle deep in mud, it is not easy to conjecture. Times 4 12, '14.

b. How I could be any comfort to my father, struck me with wonder. Mary Lamb, Selected Short Stories II p. 4.

He could have drawn a map of the Orinoco, but he could not have found the Trent in a day's march; he did not even know where his drinking water came from. That geographical considerations are the cause of all history had never been hinted to him, nor that history bears immediately upon modern life and bore on his own life. Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 2 § 2.

Predicate Clauses **2261.** Clauses with a function parallel to that of the nominal predicate of a simple sentence are mostly introduced by a relative word (*a*), less often by the general conjunction *that* or by *as* (*b*). It is comparatively rare for predicate clauses to be unconnected (*c*); the reason for this may be that predicate clauses are not frequent in familiar English.

a. Many of these poems are in English what Baudelaire and Verlaine are in French.

Williams, Mod. Engl. Writers p. 22.

The history of our country... tells us how our fathers before us became what they were...

Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 1.

They looked what they were — the sisters, the wives, the mothers of strong men. Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 42.

But his work was not what he conceived it.

Times Lit. 29/3, '18.

They thought that the world would remain what they and their fathers had known it.

Trevelyan, *British History* p. XIV.

The question, however, is not simply whether a knowledge of ancient Greece is necessary for a complete understanding of our parent civilization. Times Lit. 23/2, '22.

What we have to consider is how and whether we can retain it.

Observer, 29/1, '22.

b. The fact was that Yeobright's fame had spread to an awkward extent before he left home.

Hardy, *Native* III ch. 1.

What surprised me not a little was that I seemed to be the only man that was beating his way on the train.

Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 17 p. 136.

This is natural and as it should be.

Times Lit. 19/10, '22.

c. The fact is his master soon discovered that he was a dull dog.

Contemporary Rev. Oct. 1930 p. 493.

The reason was, Shirley's head ran on other things than money and position.

Brontë, *Shirley* ch. 12 p. 220.

The thing that had emerged was, Urquhart knew he was Margerison.

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch 1 p. 2.

The fact is, if I do not ask you the name of the other party, it is because I know it already.

Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 13.

The last quotations are remarkable because the comma indicates that there is a break between the two clauses, which gives the character of an independent sentence to the final clause or clause-group.

2262. It has already been stated that English has no clauses that are parallel to the predicative adjunct of an object (as in: I saw him *coming*); see 2250. That such clauses are possible is shown by French:

Je le vois qui vient; Je sens la faim qui monte; En tournant les yeux, Daniel aperçut M. Voraud installé dans un compartiment, et qui lisait son journal (Tr. Bernard, *Mémoires d'un jeune homme rangé*); also with other than verbs of perception, e. g. *avoir*, which is evidently related in meaning to the verbs of perception: *J'ai la tête qui tourne; J'ai mon ami qui m'attend*. See an article by C. M. Robert in *Ber. & Med. Lev. Talen* for March and May 1925, no. 38 f.

Apposition Clauses **2263.** Apposition clauses may have a noun or a pronoun as their leading element; the latter, however, are exceptional. In many cases the clause may be interpreted rather as an object clause; this depends upon the meaning of the noun, as explained in 2257. With regard to form it may be mentioned that they are always connected with the main clause by the general conjunction *that*.

How little the theatre entered into their habits (i. e. of the Romans) is shown by the curious *idea* their descendants had, *that* the pieces of Terence were acted in dumb show while the words were spoken from a box at the side. Athenaeum 19/10, 1912.

The *fact that* so long a time had passed since Blanche had received news from her father, was beginning to cause her grave anxiety.

Buchanan, *That Winter Night* ch. 9.

The *news* which one day reached Gabriel, *that* Bathsheba Everdene had left the neighbourhood, had an influence upon him . . . Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 5.

He had an *idea that* perhaps it would be best to say several things which might prepare Cedric for meeting his grandfather¹). Burnett, *Fauntleroy* ch. 2.

The first thing *that* strikes one on looking at it (*viz.*

1) Cf. 2255.

Magna Charta) is that it is a very long document — and a good deal of its importance consists in *this, that* it is minute and detailed¹). Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 15.

Attributive Clauses **2264.** Attributive clauses have a noun or pronoun in the main clause to which they serve as an adjunct. The compound sentences with an attributive clause are of a different type from those treated until now, in that the attributive clause is not a *syntactically* indispensable element of the sentence²). The main clause in these cases is necessarily a syntactically complete sentence, whereas in the preceding cases the sub-clause supplies a subject, object, or nominal predicate to the main clause.

2265. The relations of attributive clauses to their leading noun are various, like the relations of attributive adjuncts to their noun. One distinction applies to both clauses and adjuncts, although it is of grammatical importance only in the case of the clauses: they may be *restrictive* or *continuative*. A clause (or adjunct) is said to be restrictive when it serves to express a quality distinguishing the leading noun from others. The continuative clause (or adjunct) gives incidental information about the noun which is not subordinate to the rest of the sentence but of equal weight. The result is that a continuative clause, though syntactically part of a compound sentence, has the meaning of an independent sentence.

Fenwick stopped and took two from a cigar-case, Sally's present to him last Christmas, and offered one to Dr. Conrad, who, however, didn't want to smoke so early. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 36 p. 377.

1) See below on appended clauses.

2) It need hardly be said that the attributive clause is necessary for the *meaning* of the sentence, for this is implied in the idea of a *compound sentence* (2246).

Eustacia was indoors in the dining-room, which was really more like a kitchen, having a stone floor and a gaping chimney-corner. Hardy, *Native II* ch. 1 p. 128.

2266. The independent character of continuative clauses is very clear from the construction of the following sentences.

a. He (*viz.* Walter Scott) received valuable suggestions from the remarkable young borderer, John Leyden, to whom, and also, to William Laidlaw, his future steward, and to James Hogg, he was further indebted for several ballad versions. Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII 5.

She (George Eliot) was much attracted by the novels of Kingsley, between whose genius and his faults she drew a drastic contrast.

Ward, Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XIII p. 384.

Hector is quoted as the great hero of the Troy story, from which, and from the legends of Arthur, the Middle Ages drew their models of valour.

Sisam, *Fourteenth Century Prose and Verse* p. 219.

The tract on English Idioms was edited by the late Dr. Bradley, to whom, and to Professor Graham Wallas, I am indebted for many suggestions.

Logal Fearsal Smith, *Words and Idioms* Preface p. x.

They merely laughed when they spoke of the kind of scandalous behaviour that suburban readers gloat over and then hide the newspaper lest the details may inflame the imagination of the rest of the household.

Maxwell, *Gabrielle* p. 95.

b. Why, he'd known him from three year old, the striped white shirt ¹⁾ had! Which settled the matter.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 38 p. 407.

2267. In their form continuative clauses are distinguished from restrictive clauses by the pause preceding them, whereas restrictive clauses generally follow their antecedent without any break. That a restrictive clause may be

1) i. e. the man with the striped shirt.

separated from its main clause by a clear break is shown by the following quotation.

The July sun shone over Egdon and fired its crimson heather to scarlet. It was the one season of the year and the one weather of the season, in which the heath was gorgeous. Hardy, *Native* IV ch. I p. 295.

When the relation between the clause and its antecedent is final, the auxiliary *shall* is used; sometimes it is rather conditional. Examples of both in 1546, 2. A classification into relative clauses of purpose (*a*), condition (*b*), reason (*c*), would therefore be possible.

a. We are much nearer a definite discussion of the peace which shall end this war.

President Wilson, *Times W.* 26/1, '17.

He was hoping that if he only remained long enough at Khartoum he would oblige the English Government to send an army into the Soudan which should smash up the Mahdi.

Lytton Strachey, Gordon, in *Engl.* 19th Cent. II p. 86.

b. A traveller who should walk and observe any of these visitants as Venn observed them now could feel himself to be in direct communication with regions unknown to man. Hardy, *Native* I ch. 10 p. 104 f.

He would be a bold man who should declare that its popularity has very materially diminished at the present day.

Ward, *Dickens* ch. 2 p. 20.

c. We might even lower the "archaic" starting point so that "ancient" history would begin with *Alexander*, whose conquests opened the Eastern world to a certain amount of observation and inquiry as well as to the vigorous influences of the West. *Times* 'Lit. 2/2, '22.

2268. It is important to remember that the classification into restrictive and continuative clauses is not exhaustive: there are attributive clauses which are neither restrictive nor continuative.

I shall ask him if the Council of Trent that he is always appealing to, says anything about the Catholic laity. Benson, *Initiation*.

Take your hated body, that I love, out of my house. Galsworthy, *Man of Property*.

Barbara wondered whether she would have the physical strength to continue as a small wheel in this large machine, that so frequently went mad.

Pett Ridge, *Nine to Six-Thirty*.

These cases (quoted by Fijn van Draat, *Neophilologus* IV 49 f. as examples of continuative clauses) are evidently not independent sentences in meaning, but rather express cause or reason, in the second quotation mixed with concession. They are related to adverb clauses (with the conjunctions *as*, and *even though*). Similarly we neither have continuative nor restrictive clauses in the following:

Mrs Carnaby was helped out of the trap; then Miss Carnaby was lifted out by Mr. Hodges; then the children were lifted out by the mother; and then the nurse, an awkward, plain girl that nobody helped, tumbled out by herself. Sweet, *Element*, no. 75.

There is a step behind us, and it is her husband — I am not quite unconscious of a kind of relief at the great strong man that has seen so many die.

de Morgan, *Vance* ch. 46 p. 471.

Architecture, for instance, could not exist without engineering, which tells the architect what he may venture to do and what he may not. *Times Lit.* 2/11, 22.

The sentences discussed in this section show that attributive clauses do not invariably refer to a noun only; they may really depend upon a verb in the main clause, which often means that they qualify the whole of the main clause, not one of its elements only, as was stated in 2265.

2269. In the examples of attributive clauses quoted in the preceding sections the noun to which they refer has

the function of a subject, object, predicate, etc. in the clause. When it is an object it is the object to the predicative verb of the sub-clause. This is the simplest form of attributive clauses.

It may occur, however, that the noun in the main clause is the object or adjunct to a verb stem or *ing* or participle accompanying the predicative verb of the sub-clause.

Then another event occurred which we must go back a little way to explain. R. Haggard, *Meeson* ch. 13.

It is a point that we must exert our imaginations a little to understand.

Murray, *Eng. Lit. and the Classics* p. 10.

The coming weeks will bring with them a strain on the Red Cross against which we shall need all our energy to provide. *Times W.* 26/4, '18.

(These facts) perhaps help us to understand a phenomenon that we have all so keen an interest both in understanding and in modifying.

Morley, *Compromise* p. 22.

There was a party at Monsieur de V-e's, to which Vincent and myself were the only Englishmen invited.

2270. The structure of the sentence becomes more complicated when the noun in the main clause is defined by a group of two sub-clauses, in which one is the leading clause. Thus in this sentence:

It was characteristic of him that he asked Zachary Tan no questions whether of the mysterious bookshop, of London generally, or of any possible news of Stephen, the latter a *secret that he was convinced the dark curiosity-shop somewhere contained.*

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 10 p. 111.

Examples with *whom* have been incidentally given in the second volume (1055 f.); see also below on *Word-order* in these clauses.

The construction is also somewhat complicated when

the antecedent serves as an element of the sub-clause in regard to both the predicative and another verb.

Successful propagandists have succeeded because the doctrine they bring into form is that *which* their listeners have for some time *felt* without being able to *shape*.

Hardy, *Native* III ch. 2 p. 212.

2271. Attributive clauses can be connected with the main clause by pronouns or by conjunctions; they can also be unconnected.

The use of the pronouns *who* and *which* has been fully illustrated in the second volume (1052 ff., 1076 ff.).

Of the conjunctions the most important is *that*, in agreement with all the types of sub clauses treated until now; in special cases we also find *as* and *but*. These uses have been referred to in the second volume (1495 ff.), but must be treated in somewhat greater detail here.

2272. If we bear in mind that there are three kinds of attributive clauses we may keep to the old rule: that in restrictive clauses we specially find *that*, but also *who* and *which*; and that in continuative clauses *that* is not used, but only *who* and *which* (apart from certain adverbs or conjunctions). In clauses that are neither restrictive nor continuative, all of these introductory words are used.

2273. When the antecedent noun is non-personal, *that* is the most frequent connective in attributive clauses of various types, excluding the continuative one. They may be purely restrictive (*a*), but they may also be of the type discussed in 2267 (*b*).

a. To Peter school meant the immediate supply of the two things that he wanted more than anything in the world — Friendship and Knowledge.

Walpole, *Fort*. I ch. 4 p. 38.

The noise echoed terribly through the building, and then there was a silence that was even more terrible.

ib. I ch. 2 § 1 p. 20.

But, very slowly, the shadow of all that he must very soon go through was creeping about him.

ib. I ch. 2 p. 16.

Was this true that Lord Bellmaire told her?

Garvice, Sweet Cymbeline ch. 8 p. 118.

For how was it possible to believe that those large protuberant eyes in Silas Marner's pale face saw nothing very distinctly that was not close to them?

Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 1.

b. Hold-alls, bags and boxes were piled upon the floor ¹⁾. "These are absolute necessities that I will not let out of my sight for one instant," said Linda Burnell.

Mansfield, Bliss p. 1.

All his wonderful successes, that looked like conjuring, had been gained by plodding logic, by clear and commonplace French thought.

Chesterton, Inn. of Father Brown p. 5.

The house was silent again — the storm had died down — and then the dog that had been sleeping suddenly raised its head and barked.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 7 § 2 p. 83.

Irishmen who, out of political spite, attempt to revive a language, Erse, that might well have been let die with the dodo. Greig, Breaking Priscian's Head p. 12f.

2274. As the distinction between these two kinds of attributive clauses has not been made in the chapter on the relative pronouns, which are not affected by it, it may prevent misunderstanding if an example of a clause of the second type with a relative pronoun is added here; for the relatives are quite common in them, and are perhaps preferred in written English.

1) i. e. the floor of the buggy.

Walsingham carried weight, for the system of spies he had organized repeatedly saved the Queen's life from the assassins set on by Philip and the Jesuits, who destroyed William the Silent for want of such a guard.

Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 351.

2275. The conjunction *that* is used in one case when the relative pronouns are not possible alternatives; this is the case when the antecedent serves as a non-prepositional adverb adjunct to the sub-clause. See 2287 ff.

The boy was able very quickly to obliterate himself by sitting down somewhere in a corner and remaining absolutely silent, and perhaps that was the *reason that* he was admitted to so many elderly gatherings — he was never in the way. Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 3 § 2 p. 34.

By the *time that* the Roman came to Britain life had become more localized and more complicated.

Salzman, *Engl. Life in the Middle Ages* p. 37.

Once more, at the thought of all the *ways that* he loved Cornwall, the choking sob was in his throat.

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 4 p. 42.

It was the first *time* for weeks *that* he had thought of Treliss.

ib. I ch. 5 § 3 p. 58.

During the *period that* he¹⁾ was writing his third book the man of genius introduced Harrison to a critic.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 420.

In all the sentences with *that* clauses to an antecedent that serves as an adverb adjunct to the sub-clause, the antecedent noun is used to express direction or time, i. e. in cases when in a simple sentence a plain adverb adjunct is possible. It is only in this case that the construction is used, as an examination of the sentences with anaphoric *when* or *where* in 1092 will show: in most of those sentences the substitution of *that* for the relative

1) i. e. Harrison.

adverb would be impossible. The use of *that* is possible in the following sentence because the prepositional adjunct of the main clause supplies the preposition that is also wanted to complete the meaning of the sub-clause.

Curiously, for so young a boy, he had a satirical irony that showed him the world very much in the *light that* he was always afterwards to see it.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 p. 65.

The following case with *nowhere* as the antecedent to the attributive *that*-clause is exceptional.

"They would not receive Mary as their cousin," said he, "and I will go nowhere that she cannot go."

Trolope, *Dr. Thorne* ch. 47.

2276. *That* is less common than *who* after personal antecedents; it occurs especially in distinctly restrictive clauses, hence e. g. when the antecedent is qualified by a superlative, by *any* or *only*.

They give prizes to the boys that dress best and have the best manners. Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 94.

Colonel Lennox, was perhaps, the first officer that played with his men.

William Shakespeare is the greatest poet that England, and perhaps the world, ever saw.

Any man that knows three words of Greek could settle that point.

Tatham, that the doctor thinks such a genius, does all his constringing¹⁾ from cribs.

Shaw, *Cashell Byron's Profession*.

One woman had a husband that had sailed away in a barque, which was never sighted or hailed after leaving port, and was now three months overdue.

Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 2 p. 13.

2277. *That* is generally used after personal antecedents when they stand to the attributive clause in the relation

1) i. e. constringing.

of nominal predicates. In this case the alternative pronoun is not *who*, but *which* (1077).

It speaks well for him that, on the night before he set out on his adventure, he slept like a *child that* he really was. Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 10 § 4 p. 123.

He wrote in 1880 when Flaubert had not yet become the *classic that* he is to-day. *Times Lit.* 27/1, 16.

For the reception of the unknown *daughter-in-law that* was to be. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 11.

Miss Clemens (that was 1). Pett Ridge, Garland.

2278. *That* is also the usual word when neither *who* nor *which* can be used, because the antecedent denotes both persons and things.

The knowledge of our own history is our memory, and so the recorded history of a nation is the memory of a nation: woe to the country and people that forget it.

Stubbs, *Lectures Early Eng. Hist.* p. 1.

In that far-off time superstition clung easily round every person or thing that was at all unwonted, or even intermittent and occasional merely.

Eliot, *Silas Marner* ch. 1.

2279. *That* is preferred for reasons of euphony, when the antecedent ends in [u] so that *who* would sound strange, or when it ends in [itʃ] so that *which* would be out of place (a). But exceptions occur (b). Conversely, *that* is little used in the rare case that there is an antecedent *that* or a demonstrative *that* (c).

a. Who that has ever known the passion of the writer and the student can read without tears the record of his last months?

Mrs. H. Ward, *Harper's Mag.* May 1918.

Then occurred a hitch that might have been prevented by good management.

1) viz. before her marriage.

b. Among these passengers who came on board were two who excited my curiosity.

Haggard, *Solomon's Mines* ch. 1.

c. If you mean, dear, was it *that that* made us, me and Julius, feel that matters would get no better by waiting, I think perhaps it was ¹).

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 30 p. 316.

But he came home, on that Good Friday evening, with an idea *that that* afternoon on the hill had given him.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 10 3 p. 117.

It is perhaps hardly necessary to observe that in the first of the sentences under *c* we have [ðæt ðæt], in the second [ðæt ðæt] ²).

2280. The use of the relatives in the following sentences is clearly due to phonetic reasons.

So the chatter was all on her side. There is a loquacity *that* tells nothing, *which* was Bathsheba's; and there is a silence *which* says much: *that* was Gabriel's.

Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 22 p. 162 f.

We are even beginning to see the possibility of obtaining some day a clear view of the whole local working of the administrative machine at different periods — with *all which* that implies of increased knowledge about social conditions — . . .

Engl. Hist. Rev. 43 p. 22 (Jan. 1928).

Compare the following quotations where the relative *who* is separated from its antecedent.

But who then who wore a white waistcoat had a word of compassion for the Luddites? *Times Lit.* 9/10, 16.

It would be extremely interesting if we could always find out who it was who made them.

Pearsall Smith, *Eng. Lang.* p. 109.

1) On the character of this clause with *that*, see 2281.

2) We also have [ðæt ðæt] in the following sentence with an object clause.

I decided that that was just as well. *Arlen, Green Hat* ch. 1 § 3 p. 41.

2281. *That* is also used in apparent attributive clauses when a noun or pronoun, whether denoting a person or not, is emphasized by *it is*, etc.

It is not everybody that cares for early Staffordshire pottery. Times Lit. 18/11, '15.

It is such follies that make history something better than a Newgate Calendar of the crimes of common sense. Davis, Med. Europe p. 211.

Who was it that walked at the head of the procession?

But it was not to the words *that* Eustacia listened; she could not even have recalled, a few minutes later, what the words were. It was to the alternating voice that gave out about one-tenth of them — the voice that had wished her good night. Hardy, Native II ch 3 p. 140.

The difference between *that* in the first sub-clause of the last quotation from the other two clauses in the same passage is evident.

The same may be said of the *that*-clauses in the following quotation.

But in some way that he was too young to understand he felt that it was not the beating itself *that* frightened him most, but rather all the circumstances that attended it. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 2 p. 18.

On the interpretation of these sentences and the character of *that*, see the chapter on the *Form and Function of Sentences*.

2282. In spoken English *that* is generally weak-stressed, though not necessarily [ðæt], as is shown by the following passage in Sweet's *Primer of Spoken English* (p. 66):

[ðə dʒoɪfl səpraɪz, ðə wʊm ɪmbreɪs, ðə tiəz, ən ðɪ ɛksplə-
'neɪʃənz ðæt fɒləʊd, ən ðə rɪpruʊfz].

For this reason *who* and *which* are generally used when the relative is separated from its antecedent by a longer group of words, or when it is followed by a pause (*a*). But in literary English we also find *that* before a clear pause (*b*).

a. Nobody could be said to understand the heath who had not been there at such a time.

Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 1.

Enemy columns which, after violent artillery preparation, attempted to launch an offensive.

Times W. 2/2, '17.

b. Dolores had learnt to smile with youthful cynicism at a thing that, but a short while past, would have evoked tears. Harding, Oranges and Lemons p. 114 f.

There is no Victorian writer before him to whom he even suggests a comparison, technically considered, except perhaps De Quincey; who also employed the long rich rolling sentence that, like a rocket, bursts into stars at the end. Chesterton, Victorian Age p. 65.

She was too like the cistus flowers in the little garden before the window, that, with the shades of evening, might lie with the delicate white and glossy dark of their petals trampled in the roadside dust.

G. Eliot, Scenes (Janet's Repentance ch. 5 p. 222).

The use of the relatives and of the conjunction in literary English is not only governed by the linguistic sense of English writers. It may be suspected that some writers are partly guided by rules they have been taught by teachers of the classical languages that are not prevented by a knowledge of linguistics from holding forth Latin as the type to which an ideal literary language should conform as far as possible. Now Latin does not use conjunctions in attributive clauses; consequently these constructions are apt to be 'avoided' by pupils who have the misfortune of blindly believing in the competence of these teachers.

With respect to the spoken language the use of the connecting words may be summed up as follows:

Personal antecedents most frequently take *who*; *that* is also found, and is the more usual of the two in the cases enumerated in 2276; *that* is the only natural connective when the antecedent is a nominal predicate of the sub-clause

(see 2277). Non-personal antecedents generally take *that*, *which* being somewhat 'stiff.' In continuative clauses, as far as these are used in natural speech, the connectives are *who* and *which* only. See the statistics about Sweet's use of the relatives by van der Gaaaf in *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 416 f.

2283. To the rule that we do not use *that* in continuative clauses, there are practically no exceptions in spoken English (in which this kind of sentence is not common), and even in literary English writers seldom deviate from it. The following quotations may illustrate the use of *that* for *who* or *which* in clauses that are neither restrictive nor continuative, but belong to the third type as explained in 2268.

He was a standing example of the lessons of *Maxims for Men*, a very curious book, that fetches a rare price now wherever a copy is put up for auction.

Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 1 p. 7.

My candle was a little tongue of light in its vastness, that failed to pierce the opposite end of the room.

Wells, *Country* p. 236.

He had a pale, large, and cruel face, and grey eyes that had become sinister since the disaster which had overtaken him.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 7 p. 71.

He led us to a stream, crossed by a simple plank with a handrail, on which some children had put a trap, baited with nut for the poor squirrels. that love to run chattering across the rail from wood to wood.

Benson, *Thread of Gold*.

A faint, delicate colour, and a soft glow in her dark eyes that only wanted a touch of gentleness, to make them irresistible.

Garvice, *Staunch as a Woman*.

Mr. Utterson the lawyer was a man of rugged countenance, that was never lighted by a smile.

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 1.

2284. We sometimes find *which* when the antecedent is the name of a person, especially one that is denoted by an abstract noun, like *personality*, *character*.

Let her escape unmangled (viz. from the scandal incident to a divorce), it will pass in the record that she did once publicly run, and some old dogs will persist in thinking her cunninger than the virtuous, which never put themselves in such positions, but ply the distaff at home.

Meredith, *Diana of the Crossways*.

These "memoires" are an interesting self-revelation of a personality which played a great part in literature for nearly half a century.

It is a common experience that, when repeating a statement that has not been understood, one is apt to vary its form. This 'law of variation' also governs the use of the relatives and the conjunction *that*; it explains the connecting words in the following sentences.

"I'm *anything*," Maraton answered, "*that* will do away with such profits as you've been speaking of. I am *anything which* will bring a fair share of the profits of his labour to the operative who now gets none".

E. Ph. Oppenheim, *A People's Man* ch. 14 p. 95.

...to make reproductions of the animals that surrounded him, from the mammoth *that* may have been the supreme terror of his life ... to the horse, *which* was still nothing more than an eligible source of food.

Oman, *Conquest* p. 2.

As **2285.** It has already been observed that *as*-clauses depending upon a noun that is accompanied by *such* or *same* are often to be regarded as attributive rather than adverb clauses (1500). It is a natural consequence of this that such clauses are frequently construed with a relative pronoun (*a*) or with the conjunction *that* (*b*). When the antecedent noun has the function of an adverb adjunct in the sub-clause, *that* is the only alternative to *as* (*c*); see 2275.

a. Mr. Strachey... wrote some two or three years ago to the county press, inviting such officers and men who had completed their military life to send in their names.

Rev. of Rev. 1912 p. 647.

The difficulty would be greatly mitigated if housewives would give to bread and flour the same attention which they are giving to meat. Times W. 6/4, 1917 p. 287/1.

I remarked that there was the same atmosphere of dreary repose inside the house which I had already observed. Wilkie Collins, Sel. Short Stories III p. 232 f.

He read the Sonnets of Petrarca, and he learnt what is meant by "form" in poetry; but Petrarca never had the same power over him which Dante possessed.

Stopford Brooke, Primer p. 43.

b. He liked and disliked pretty nearly the same things that she did. Gaskell, North and South ch. 1.

She asked the same sort of delightfully foolish questions about Oxford that she used to ask about school.

Sinister Street p. 732.

This was emphatically the case with the Ishams, who as large landowners and members of Parliament held the same place in Northamptonshire that the Verneys did in Buckinghamshire. Mem. Verney Fam. III p. 196.

While we speak time flies, and we cease at the end of a word to be physically the same beings that we were at the beginning. Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 1.

c. I think that you will see the matter in the same light that I do. Punch.

A question of great speculative interest is whether English law will ultimately prevail in India to the same extent that Roman law did in the later Empire. Pilot 15/3, 1902.

Queen Ealdgyth was restored to her place and honours, the king apparently taking her back with the same equanimity that he had dismissed her.

Oman, Conquest p. 621.

According to Dr. Murray (NED. s. v. *as*, 23) *same* ... *as* usually expresses identity of kind, *same* ... *that* absolute identity (this applies to clauses only, not to adjuncts: *the same book as mine*). The instance given: *He uses the same books as you do* and *He uses the same books that you do* is, no doubt, ingenious enough. It is to be feared,

however, that English writers (not to mention speakers) find it difficult to reach this standard of ingenuity: several of the quotations in this section show this.

But 2286. Clauses introduced by *but* sometimes have the character of attributive clauses. Examples have been quoted in the second volume in the chapter on *Conjunctions* (1510 ff.).

**Unconnected
Attributive
Clauses** 2287. Like the object clauses, attributive clauses often succeed the main clause without any break and without a connecting word. This statement naturally excludes the continuative clauses, for these are separated from their main clauses by a pause. In all other attributive clauses, however, whether defining (restrictive) or adverbial or apparently attributive (the compound sentences with a main clause introduced by *It is*), the construction without a connective is a frequent one in spoken English.

It is of some importance to consider the function which the antecedent has with regard to the sub-clause; for this reason the arrangement will be according to this relationship.

2288. The construction without a connective is frequent in spoken English when the antecedent noun or pronoun serves as an object, a nominal predicate, a predicative adjunct, or as an adverb adjunct of the sub-clause.

The use of the construction when the antecedent is the adverb adjunct of the attributive clause is subject to the same restrictions as in the case of the *that*-clauses (2275).

The antecedent may be the object, etc. with respect to the *predicative* verb of the attributive clause; the construction becomes somewhat more complicated when it has a similar function with respect to a *non-predicative*

verb in the attributive clause, and especially when the attributive clause is itself the leading member of a group of two clauses. In all these respects the unconnected clauses agree with the attributive *that*-clauses (2269 f.). Examples of these more complicated sentences will be given in the following sections; it will be unnecessary to add any detailed comment.

2289. The antecedent is the plain object of the predicative verb of the attributive clause in the following sentences under *a*. It has the same function with respect to a non-predicative verb in those under *b*. In the sentences under *c* the attributive clause is the leading member of a clause-group.

a. But the most important *work* he *did* for Hampstead lay in the impetus he gave to its concerts.

Life of Ainger p. 121

He walked on until he came to a hidden *haven of silence* some plane-trees were *enjoying* unmolested.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 6.

b. I got down the book and read *all* I came to *read*.

Jerome, Three Men in a Boat ch. 1.

They afflict the world because they will attempt *that* it is given to none but noble workmen to *achieve* ¹).

Meredith, Letters in Scribner's Mag. Aug. 1912.

c. It was really complicated with emotion and excitement in a *way* I don't know whether I can *describe*.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 3.

2290. The following quotations illustrate the case that the antecedent is the nominal predicate (*a*) and the predicative adjunct of the object (*b*) of the attributive clause.

a. His literary and philosophical essays seemed rather

to mark him out as the disciple of M. Taine than as the Catholic *protagonist* he was soon to *become*.

Mrs. H. Ward, Harper's Magaz. May 1918.

"And what's a gentleman, mademoiselle?"

"Can't tell you, Don Doloroso. *Something* you *are*, sir," she added, surveying him.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 4.

Your father is not the *man* he *was*.

Cannan, Round the Corner p. 76.

Even his dog could see the *sort of man* he *was*.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 3.

It is said that St. Leger Day is not the important social *event* it used to *be*.

Times 12/9, 1913.

He knew . . . that now, if ever, was the time to prove that he was anything but the raw *youth* he was conscious of *appearing*.

Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 4.

b. You have found him not to be the *saint* you *thought him*.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 2.

But if she was to be the practical *woman* she had intended to *show herself*, business must be carried on, introductions or none.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 12 p. 102.

2291. The antecedent is frequently a prepositional adjunct to a word in the sub-clause, whether a verb or a noun or a mixed noun-with-verb group (*a*). The case that the antecedent refers to a non-predicative verb is also common (*b*). Of special interest is the case when the sub-clause does not express the preposition because it is the same as is used in the main clause (*c*). The last quotation is worth noting, because the use of vicarious *do* adds to the peculiarity of the construction.

Several of the prepositional groups can be interpreted as prepositional objects, but this distinction is of no importance here.

a. Bacon shows that it is only by the use of patient observation and experiment that we can verify the

knowledge we already possess and learn the secrets of the *earth we live upon*. Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 76.

But that Sylvia Peplow was just the *sort of girl men run after*. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 5 p. 48.

He would say that if it (*viz.* Euphuism) is due to the teaching of the humanists, then the humanists misunderstood the nature of *that they worked in*.

Croll, Introd. to Lyly's Euphues p. XXV.

And that's a *man they believe things of*.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8 p. 96.

When he had done this he turned towards the *restaurant he had taken note of*.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 6.

b. He looked handsome in it, with those strong cheek-bones and bronzed *throat* Mr. Salter would have been so glad to *get at*.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 6.

c. I told her my name, *in that embarrassed way* one always *does tell* anyone one's name, and we smoked a while in silence. Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 16.

'Do you call Michael very young?'

'Not *in the sense* you *mean*. Not young as you are now ...

Mrs. Henry de la Pasture in
Cornhill Mag. Sept. 1912 p. 309.

In its relation to France, Paris occupies an altogether unique position. It is the one centre of national life *in a sense* no other capital *is*. Everyman 30/5, 1913.

Never again could she treat anyone *with the scorn* she had *treated* Michael. Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 363.

Play (*i. e.* gambling) should be reserved for the old — the old get so quickly deadened, they do not go *through the terrible moments* younger people *do*.

Lowndes, Chink ch. 2.

2292. Another frequent type of non-connected attributive clauses is when the antecedent has the function of a plain adverb adjunct to the sub-clause, whether to its predicative (*a*) or to another verb (*b*).

a. The *reason* she *shuffles* is that she has to hold the heels of her shoes down on the floor with her feet.

de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 1 p. 3.

"It'll be all right later," Bobby answered, thinking that he had never seen anything finer than the *way* Peter had *taken* that afternoon.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 6 4 p. 75.

A very dramatic account has leaked out of the *way* the Kissingen interview was *received* by M. Monis, who was French Prime Minister at the time.

Daily News, 1911.

b. But a man of Peter's temperament pays for this sort of thing — it isn't the *sort of way* he's meant to *take* life.

Walpole, *Fort. III* ch. 7 § 3 p. 313.

2293. The construction is also common when the antecedent is the subject of the attributive clause, but only when the main clause is introduced by *it* (*this*, *that*) *is*, etc., or *there is*, etc. (*a*). We also find the construction when the sub-clause contains *there is*, etc. (*b*). See below on *Apparent Compound Sentences*.

a. It's a bad business brings me, young man.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 4.

Grandpa, what is it makes your eyes so bright and blue like the sky?

Gilbert Cannan, *Round the Corner* ch. 34.

I sometimes wonder who it is makes the fashions.

'Ah,' she said to herself, 'want of object to live for — that's all is the matter with me?'

Hardy, *Return of the Native II* ch. 4.

"Don't try to tell me your grandfather did all that," protested Wyckoff. "There were a lot of others helped. I read about it in a book."

Scribner's *Magaz.* Aug. 1912.

"I am not happy here."

"And would you be happier at Boxall Hill? It is not the place makes the happiness."

Trollope, *Dr. Thorne* p. 354.

If you are out of the way there's no one else can state that I shot Pine. Fergus Hume, *Red Money* p. 299.

There was a party tried that game last week. He's in the hospital now.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 2 p. 13.

There's another piece of news I think will please you.

Pickthall, *Larkmeadow* ch. 35 p. 231.

b. This is, I believe, the best handbook there is to Latin syntax. Classical Rev. 25 p. 27.

His (i. e. Johnson's) table-talk inspired the best biography there is in English Literature — *Boswell's Life of Johnson*. Sefton Delmer, *Eng. Lit.* p. 103.

It is one of the best examples there are of sustained irony. ib. p. 110.

She was anxious to make what amends she could in the short time there was left to her.

Patterson, *Compton* p. 360.

Blackwood's Magazine was lent them by a neighbour, and the children had been taught to regard it with veneration as "the most able periodical there is."

Flora Masson, *The Brontës* p. 25.

2294. In the following quotation the antecedent (*corpse*) is the subject of the clause *is there*. The construction is naturally avoided in written English.

You need observe no period of mourning for a corpse people don't know is there.

Fräulein Schmidt and Mr. Anstruther p. 21.

i It is rare for the construction to occur when the antecedent is an adjunct (with a preposition) to a verb with a longer loose group used as an object in the attributive clause.

Such was the man they wanted to make first an engineer and then a lawyer of. Everyman 15/11, 12.

The construction seems possible here, if rather peculiar, because *man* can be looked upon as the object of *make an engineer of*.

2295. The construction that we have illustrated in its current uses is sometimes found in a way that is probably rather to be looked upon as an experiment than an example of common English. Many specimens can be found in de Morgan's novel *Somehow Good*, which attempts to render the exact constructions of colloquial London speech among the educated classes. Some may be reproduced here.

And that, too, because of a line of Horace! — sound in itself, but quite cut asunder from its origin, the book he read it in, or the *voice* he had *heard* read it.

ch. 38 p. 413.

The only *person* she could get any consolation from *talking with* was the Major...

ch. 20 p. 197.

And after a mysterious short cut through narrow ways that recall old London, some still paved with cobbles, past lofty *wharves or warehouses* daring men *lean from the floors of* at dizzy heights, and *capture bales for* that seem afloat in the atmosphere,...

ch. 1 p. 5.

Could she sit there much longer with him beside her, and his words of twenty years ago sounding in her ears? — almost the feeling of the *kisses* she had so dutifully pointed out the *lawlessness*, and allowed the *repetition of*, in that old forgotten time — forgotten by him, never by her!

ch. 1 p. 116.

He had suddenly remembered in the *dream-street* he could identify the *house of* so plainly, a first floor he occupied where he had left all his furniture locked up years ago.

ch. 10 p. 90.

But when the little bobs and skirt-adjustments of the fat priest and his abettor (a young *fellow* some girl might have been the *wife of*, with advantage of both) came to a pause...

ch. 19 p. 180.

The terrible *knowledge* she could not grasp the facts *without* would cast a shadow over her whole life.

ch. 27 p. 299.

But did that matter, when it was the *sort of night you stopped out all night on*, according to Sally.

ch. 29 p. 314.

2296. The examples quoted in the preceding sections have shown that the unconnected attributive clauses are not restricted to spoken English, but are freely used in the written language. Poets, too, use the construction very freely, and it is clear that the construction often adds to the compactness of a sentence without causing the slightest inconvenience. The construction is hardly current in scientific prose; partly because most learned people are less in touch with the living language, and because they are naturally influenced by logical considerations more strongly than artistic or unlearned writers. In many cases the clauses with a connecting relative or *that* may prevent a misunderstanding, or at any rate a momentary hesitation as to the character of the clause, because, it must be remembered, English sub-clauses do not show their character by their word-order.

Even in spoken English the unconnected clause is sometimes undesirable or even impossible, although the case would seem to be one of those mentioned above. This may be illustrated by the following quotations.

Some quotations from de Morgan's book show that he was aware of the limits of the range of the construction in spite of his partiality for it.

The whole history of his life, the whole bent of his character, seemed to disqualify him for the task *for which* he had been chosen.

Lytton Strachey, in *Engl. 19th Cent.* II p. 72.

The question he raises, *which* is clearly just as present to the minds of Mr. Thakore and Mr. Horne, is one upon which the whole future of India hangs.

Times Lit. 7/12, 1922.

Grey's object was precisely the opposite. There was nothing he wanted *which* was detrimental to the interests of other Powers.

Times Lit. 1/10, 1925.

I was surprised, too. Maybe it was the way her hair danced formally on her cheeks *that* made it look such a small face.

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 8.

But there were various people we had known in Ottawa *whom* we hoped to see again. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 5.

... and that we are only failing to recall one thing because at the moment it is that one sole thing, and no other, *that* we are trying our brains against.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 24.

It was the last twopence but one *that* he had in his pocket.

ib. ch. 2 p. 9.

But as to the fifteen years he had spent in the States, *that* he had told Mr. Larpent of, they grew dimmer and dimmer as he tried to carry his recollection further back.

ib. ch. 38 p. 413.

**Character of the
Unconnected
Attributive Clauses**

2297. In describing the character of the compound sentence (2247) it has been stated that the sub-clause generally has a function with regard to the main clause that is parallel to some part of a simple sentence. With regard to the unconnected attributive clauses it has been shown that some element of the sub-clause must be supplied by the antecedent noun in the main clause. It may be said that this noun is *shared* by the two clauses, and this sharing is made all the easier by the place of the noun, which is at the end of the main clause, and, as there is no break between the two, consequently at the beginning of the sub-clause. Sometimes we cannot speak of a grammatical division of the compound sentence into its two elements. This is evident in a case like the following, which is an 'apparent compound' sentence.

Toddie. Don't be a fool, Elizabeth.

El. It's *you're* the fool. You're making me cry.

W. Somerset Maugham, The Circle in Brit. Pl. p. 612.

In this respect the unconnected clauses are similar in structure to several of the sentences with a *but*-clause in 1510, 1. But it must be noted that unconnected attributive clauses with an antecedent that serves as the subject of

the sub-clause are limited to the cases mentioned in 2293. The construction would be impossible in a sentence like *I know a dog that would follow that scent to the world's end*; and yet, the omission of *that* would cause *the dog* to be 'shared' by the main and the sub-clause.

2298. The construction is also impossible, sometimes, when the antecedent has the function of a *prepositional* adverb adjunct, as in the sentence mentioned by Sweet: *Observe the dignity with which he rises*. It may be questioned, however, if we have a genuine attributive clause here. The relation of what is formally the antecedent word and the attributive clause may be compared with such *of*-adjuncts as *the frankness of his answer*; see 1438 ff. But we have a real attributive clause in the following instance, where an unconnected clause would seem to be equally impossible or at least undesirable:

He had been a lad of whom something was expected.
Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 1.

Adverb Clauses **2299.** The last of the classes enumerated in 2250 are the adverb clauses. Like the attributive clauses they are usually connected with main clauses that are complete sentences, because they do not supply a part of the sentence that is to be looked upon as essential to its structure, such as a subject or predicate. As far as meaning is concerned, of course, all sub-clauses are equally necessary for the complete expression of a thought.

The adverb clauses differ in one respect from all other clauses: they are generally connected with their main clause by a word that has something of an independent meaning; the conjunction *that*, which is a characteristic connective of all other clauses, is only used in a few kinds of adverb

clauses. The connectives of adverb clauses, though treated as conjunctions, are rather to be looked upon as adverbs; such conjunctive adverbs are the pronominal adverbs *when, where, why*; also *as* and *but*; and some that are peculiar to adverb clauses: *because, if, though, although, before, after*, and the groups *in that, so that, in order that, as if, as though, as far as*.

2300. It is convenient in discussing the various adverb clauses to classify them according to their meaning, although an exhaustive classification is not likely to be provided. The following are the most important kinds of adverb clauses in English:

(1) clauses of *time*.

When you called me I was quite ready.

We had many a pleasant reunion. Whenever we met he invited me to his house. Hole, Mem. p. 83.

Certainly, trade is still very bad. But as you look down on Bruddersford, you feel that it will do something about it. Priestley, Good Companions p. 3.

She turned and talked to Norah Monogue, and whilst she talked he took her in.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 2 § 2 p. 167.

(2) clauses of *place*.

Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

It must be Bruddersford, for there, where so many roads meet, is the Town Hall.

Priestley, Good Companions ch. I § I p. 2.

(3) clauses of *cause or reason*.

It is called Manchester Road because it actually leads you to that city. Priestley, Good Companions ch. I § I p. 3.

I smiled that he talked so boastfully.

They are convenient in that they enable a writer to localize a point of view.

Brewster, Writing of English p. 33.

(4) clauses of *purpose*.

I tell you all this that you may take your measures accordingly.

I was afraid lest he should escape me.

(5) clauses of *result*.

He is so tired that he cannot speak.

Justice was never done but some one complained.

There never was a Samson so strong but he met his Delilah.

All this seemed very pleasant, and Madame appeared goodness itself; and the teachers not so bad, but they might be worse. Brontë, *Villette* ch. 8.

Molly was not so much absorbed in listening but that she could glance round the room. Gaskell, *Wives I* ch. 6.

(6) clauses of *condition*.

If you see that young doctor, tell him I'm still taking that stuff and he's a marvel.

Priestley, *Good Companions II* ch. 7 § 3 p. 447.

If and when the country considers it worth while to pay the price for making education a better profession, a larger number of the best men will take to it.

Spectator 10/11, '17.

Herein I should have succeeded and gone home, and then been angry at my want of courage, *but that* on the very turn and bending of my footsteps, the woman in the distance lifted up her staff to me; so that I was bound to stop. Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 18.

(7) clauses of *comparison*.

He was as delighted as she was.

Priestley, *Good Companions I* ch. 5 § 4 p. 197.

It is not so easy as you think.

"George," said the shopman, concealing his anger as best he could, "show this gentleman out."

He (O'Connell) was certainly a more ardent admirer and a more genuine disciple of Bentham than were many Whigs. Dicey, *Law and Opinion* p. 177.

He knew far more of the world outspread beneath them than did Charles. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 5.

As it was with the clergy so it was with the baronage. Gardiner and M., Introd. p. 79.

Poodle's¹⁾, it was said, would sell their souls and bodies to lower Billy's¹⁾ pride, and Billy's would sell theirs as cheerfully rather than Poodle's should triumph. Vachell, Brothers vol. 2 ch. 2.

(8) clauses of *manner*.

I have done it as it should be done.

(9) clauses of *concession*.

I will help you though you do not deserve it.

His heroines are invariably fresh, healthy girls, and if they are not complex, they are at least straightforward. Everyman 24/1, '13.

Poor as they were they had won the general respect of the neighbourhood.

But you are hardly acquainted with our Darshire fellows, for all you're a Darshire man yourself. Gaskell, North and South ch. 42.

(10) clauses of *restriction*.

He has paid all the bills, as far as I know.

He is not here, that I can learn. NED.

No one knows anything about it, that I can find. ib.

Look at it as he might, he had been a failure at Dawson's — he had not done the things that he had been put there to do, and yet through the disaster he knew that in so far as he had refused to bend to the storm so far there had been victory.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 p. 76.

So far as I can see, my dear, it's only myself and this parish . . .

Priestley, Good Companions I ch. 2 § 2 p. 55.

1) A football-club.

2301. Adverb clauses, like object clauses and attributive clauses, may be connected with their main clauses by special words, or may be unconnected.

The connecting words often serve to express, with more or less exactness, the relation of adverb clauses to their main clauses. When the clause is introduced by a conjunction that does not express a meaning (especially *that*), the relation is often made clear by the form of the verbal predicate (a tense or an auxiliary). Word-order may also help to express the relation, especially when there is no connecting word.

The conjunctive adverbs that are used to introduce adverb clauses, though expressing a meaning that helps to define the relation of the sub-clause to the main clause, frequently do not express such a definite meaning that this relationship depends exclusively on it. Thus, *where*, which primarily expresses place, may serve to contrast the two clauses.

But the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle gives us hard detailed fact, where Gildas prefers to indulge in vague rhetoric and lamentations destitute of names and dates.

Oman, Conquest p. 401.

Adverb clauses introduced by *when* generally denote a relation of time. But time is closely related to circumstances, which may be rather implied in a *when*-clause (*a*); it may also express cause (*b*). Sometimes two successive *when*-clauses must be taken in different senses, as in the quotation under *c*, where the first sub-clause expresses contrast, the second, time.

a. The most thoroughgoing ascetic could feel that he had a natural right to wander on Egdon: he was keeping within the line of legitimate indulgence when he laid himself open to influences such as these.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 5.

b. There were always days of silence after a beating,

and that was more markedly the case now when it was a week of holidays and there was no Parlow to go to.

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 3 p. 26.

c. He wondered sometimes why it was that he remembered it all so clearly, that he had it so dramatically and forcibly before him, when many more recent happenings were clouded and dull, but when he was older he knew that it was because it stood for so much of his life.

ib. I ch. I § 3 p. 20.

Similarly *since*, which may be said primarily to express a relation of time, can also express cause or reason; *as long as* can express condition. Such shiftings, especially of conjunctions denoting time or place, are common in other languages; and, indeed, in English itself, in other classes of words. For abstract ideas are commonly expressed by means of words denoting relations in time or space; compare *expel* and *compel*, *press* and *impress*, *express*, the various meanings of *limit*, and the development of the meanings of *to have* in the first volume (544).

2302. Clauses of time are most frequently introduced by *when*, *whenever*, *as*, *as soon as*¹⁾, *before*, *after*, *while*, *whilst*, *since*, *till*, *until*, *now (that)*, also by the correlatives *no sooner ... than*, *scarcely ... when*, *hardly ... when*.

Clauses of place generally open with a relative adverb: *where*, *whence*, *whither*, also *wherever*, *wheresoever*, etc.

Clauses of cause or reason may be introduced by *because*, *as*, *in that*. When they have the conjunction *that*, it is not always clear whether we have an adverb or an object clause.

Clauses of purpose are introduced by *that*, *so that*, *in*

1) *Soon as* is frequent in familiar English. See 2314.

... and let me know soon as you can if you can come.

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. 7 § 1 p. 443.

order that, and *lest*. The last quotation of 2300, 4 may also be taken for an example of an object clause.

Clauses of result generally have *that* with a correlative *so*, *such*, etc. in the main clause, or *so that*. When the main clause is negative we also find *but* and *but that* in a consecutive function. Clauses with the correlatives *so*, *such*, also express degree.

Clauses of condition may be introduced by *if*, *unless*; with a negative main clause we also find *but*, *but that*.

Clauses of concession are introduced by *although*, *though*, *if*, and by the compound relatives. When there is front position of part of the predicate we find the simple relatives and *as*, *how*, *though* (not *although*), *if*¹).

Clauses of comparison are expressed by the correlatives *as ... as*, *not so ... as*, or the simple *than* (with a comparative in the main clause). Proportional comparison may be expressed by *the ... the*. A rejected comparison may be expressed by *as if*.

Clauses of manner generally take *as*.

Clauses of restriction may be introduced by *as far as*, or by *that*, *in that*.

2303. If clauses of time (with *when*) or condition or concession (with *if*) precede the main clause, the latter occasionally, but rarely, opens with the correlative *then*, which is usually emphatic.

When a man is a complete master of his subject, a clear thinker, and a vigorous writer, and when he applies these qualities to the enthusiastic advocacy of a practical and highly important object, then he produces something of real value.

Times Lit. 18/5, '16.

1) The reason for using *though* only, not *although*, is that a weak-stressed word is required in this position; this is also the reason why the simple pronouns are used.

If it be a distinct point of wisdom to hug the hour that is, then does dinner amount to a highly intellectual invitation to man, for it furnishes the occasion.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 31.

If much of "Michael Field's" poetry has suffered from a certain oppression of loneliness, then the strength of the plays has sprung from the capacity for intellectual judgment only to be acquired by the solitary.

Times Lit. 28/8, '19.

2304. Clauses of time denote the action, occurrence, or state of the main clause as contemporaneous with another (*whilst, as, as long as*), or as preceding it (*before, until, till*), or as succeeding it (*after, since*). Nouns are often used to express contemporaneousness: *the day*, etc.; see 1486 f. When no definite time is to be expressed, but recurrence, the compound adverbs in *-ever* are frequently used.

Very often the relation of time between the two clauses is not expressed formally, but by the context; thus, *when* can be used in clauses expressing contemporaneousness, but also when the time of the main clause *precedes*, and finally to express repetition. Many examples of repetition will be found in the introductory sentence of Hardy's *Far from the Madding Crowd*, part of which has been quoted in section 32.

2305. Clauses of place can generally express position only; the conjunction is *where*; see 1090. Clauses with *wherever* can express direction as well as position; see 1101 *b*. Adverb clauses of place are rare, attributive clauses with a leading noun (*the place where*) being more usual.

Strangers who had heard of many such cases now merely heard of one more; but immediately *where a*

blow falls no previous imaginings amount to appreciable preparation for it. Hardy, *Native* VI ch. I p. 473.

We also find clauses with *to where* and *from where*; but in such clauses the preposition forms part of the main clause, and the sub-clause expresses position, as in other cases. These prepositional adverb clauses are similar to the prepositional object clauses; see 2253 *b*. Some examples have been quoted in 1091.

... and brought him back *to where* there was already quite a group about the screaming child.

Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 7.

In winter you could lose your way in an hour or two and die of exposure perhaps, not a dozen miles *from where* the Bradford trams end or the Burnley trams begin. Priestley, *Good Companions* ch. I p. I.

2306. Clauses of cause introduced by *Clauses of Cause* *because* are very closely related in meaning to sentences connected with the preceding sentence by *for*.

1. I am sure of it because he told me.
2. I am sure of it, for he told me.

When we compare the two sentences it is evident, however, that in the first sentence the part introduced by *because* is logically dependent upon what precedes: it is a part of a *compound* sentence. In the second the part introduced by *for* is an independent sentence, like the preceding: it is a loose group, forming a *double* sentence. The coordinative character of *for* is unmistakably shown by the fact that the clause with *for* cannot stand before the first sentence. Note also the difference in intonation.

2307. Among the conjunctions used to express cause a peculiar place is occupied by *in that*. It is the only prepositional conjunction in living English.

Clergy and nobility were to a considerable extent

parasitic, in that they had political power out of all true proportion to their place in the nation.

Botsford, Engl. Society 18th Cent. p. 2.

International morality was in the ascendancy, in that the scrupulous observance of treaties, outwardly, at least, became a question of national honour and pride.

ib. p. 4.

He had other claims to fame in that he was the first to introduce the lilac and the tulip into Western Europe.

Periodical (Clarendon Press) Oct. 1927.

But if letters are so photographic it may be asked wherein they are an art. One quality of literature they have in that they express something clearly, for they express and make an image of the writer and his sensations.

Times Lit. 20/10, 1927 p. 731/2.

Nevertheless, the official statement issued this morning is a matter for general satisfaction, in that it marks a definite stage in the process of giving the Air Services their true position in the national equipment.

Times W. 30/11, '17.

The character of *in that* as a compound conjunction, not with *in* forming part of the main clause, as is the case in the prepositional clauses we have already dealt with, is proved by its occurrence in a clause that precedes its main clause.

He cared for Stephen as devotedly as ever, and, indeed, *in that* perhaps he needed him more than ever and saw him so little, his affection was even stronger than it had been.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 6 p. 63.

But there is a construction in which *in* can be interpreted as forming part of the main clause and *that* introducing the sub-clause.

Perhaps Peter was fortunate in that the test was not demanded.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 6 § 3 p. 71.

The method has a drawback in that it tends to bring a wave of uncertainty into a region to which we should

otherwise turn, and perhaps rightly turn, as the source of our solidest experience. Times Lit. 13/12, 23.

He was fortunate in that he never had to direct forlorn hopes or to wage desperate fights against heavy odds. Times W. 23/11, '17.

The conjunction *in that*, in both of these constructions, expresses a cause or reason; but it denotes at the same time a restriction of the statement made in the main clause. We see that two different uses of a word are possible without speakers being aware of it.

2308. A clause of cause can bring forward a cause that is an explanation of an action or occurrence in order to inform the reader of this explanation; but it may also take the reader's knowledge for granted, and serve only to remind him of the reason for the action of the main clause.

The most important conjunctions in clauses expressing a reason that is assumed to be known or acknowledged as correct, are *as* and *since*.

The day was Sunday; but as going to church, except to be married or buried, was exceptional at Egdon, this made little difference.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 10 p. 105.

Motor-cars are searching the desert for the three missing R. A. F. aeroplanes, as weather conditions make it difficult for aeroplanes to make a search.

News Chronicle 8/2, 1932.

The submarine will be pumped clear of water after all openings have been sealed, and it is thought that as she is apparently undamaged, she will reach the surface herself. ib.

... since he had saved her from shipwreck she could not refuse his help now.

Ethel M. Dell, *Storm Drift* I ch. 9 p. 68.

They had been friends from the beginning of their acquaintance, and since they never caused each other

the faintest irritation they would probably remain friends to the end. ib. II ch. 4 p. 94.

2309. A special class of the clauses of cause are those introduced by *that*. They denote an occurrence or action whose effect on the person concerned is expressed by the main clause. An example is provided by the second sentence of 2300, 3. It should be noted that the verb of the main clause expresses a feeling or an action that is the result of such a feeling (*smile*).

See other examples in 710.

Clauses of Condition **2310.** Clauses of condition are of two kinds:

- (1) those which do not imply an answer to the question regarding the fulfilment of the condition (clauses of *open condition*). The condition may be impartially contemplated as a possible fact (*a*), but its doubtfulness may be suggested (*b*).

a. If you are right I am wrong.

If I have offended you by saying that I am very sorry.

Old Jack's powers of self-delusion were great indeed if, when he started on his short journey, he really believed the fog had mended.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 24 p. 243.

b. If he should come tell him to wait.

- (2) those which imply non-fulfilment of the condition, or at least that fulfilment is (or was) unlikely (clauses of *rejected condition*).

If I had time I should be pleased to go too.

If I had had time I should have been pleased to go too.

2311. In clauses of open condition we always use the present or past tenses when nothing is implied about the fulfilment of the condition.

I shall be very pleased if you succeed.

If he told you he could not go it must have been on account of his wife, who is seriously ill.

When a writer wants to emphasize his uncertainty as to the fulfilment of a condition, we also find *shall* and the potential stem, chiefly in literary English ¹⁾. Uncertainty can also be emphasized by strong stress on the conjunction, which is especially found when the adverb clause repeats the verb of the main clause.

It would be unjust to say that Lady Lufton had determined not to invite the Robartses if she were not allowed to have her own way about Sarah Thompson.

Trollope, Framley ch. 1.

Some modern philosophers teach that freedom exists in art. Artists and poets assent, if they assent, much less confidently.

Times Lit. 23/8, '18.

2312. In clauses of rejected condition the modal preterite and pluperfect are used, also the preterite *were* (37). The verb in the main clause is grouped with *should, would*; or it is accompanied by the modal preterite of another auxiliary.

The same construction is also used by way of a polite expression of a wish.

Mr. Milford would greatly be obliged if a copy of any review that may be published were sent to him at the above address.

(Notice accompanying a book sent for review.)

2313. It is not always clear whether a clause is one of condition or of time (a). Hence, also, *so long as* may be equivalent to 'if only' (b). We also find *so that* as a conditional conjunction (c).

1) See 1535 ff.

a. If she laughed, the tinge of mourning lent her laughter new charms. If she sighed, the exuberant array of her apparel bade the spectator be of good cheer. Was she witty, men surrendered reason and adored her. Meredith, Harrington ch. 30 p. 313.

b. We don't care who does it, so long as it is done.
Pilot 2/4, 1904.

c. The word might be provincial, it might be derived from the Latin; so that it accurately represented her idea she did not mind whence it came.

Clauses of Comparison 2314. Clauses of comparison may naturally express equality (*a*), inequality (*b*), or a proportional relationship (*c*). We may include the clauses of rejected comparison (*d*).

a. Perhaps no one in high station ever managed to show the identity of duty towards God and duty to his people — that most crucial test of perfect Christian life — with such reality and simplicity *as did Alfred*.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 59.

It must, however, always be borne in mind that character and integrity count in the market-place among these merits as well *as do knowledge and ability*.
Haldane, Addresses p. 123.

Miss Trant could have clapped her hands, *just as she used to do* when she was a little girl and *as she had never thought of doing for years*.

Priestley, Good Companions I ch. 5 § 4 p. 197.

b. Few parts of our coasts have undergone greater changes *than has this*. Williamson, Ev. of Engl. p. 5.

c. *The farther one penetrated into the house* the more evident were the ravages of whatever ruinous influence had been at work.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 7 p. 185.

d. And it certainly looked as if something dreadful would happen to Miss Thong.

Priestley, Good Companions II ch. 3 § 1 p. 305.

In the same way as in *soon as* (2302), we also find

clauses of comparison with a single *as* in familiar English, and occasionally in literary English.

In six (minutes) I was clear of the Castle, heading back fast as I could for the hunting-lodge.

Hope, Rupert of Henzau (T.) p. 133.

Far as the eye can see stretches the golden corn.

Hughes, Schools at Home and Abroad.

And he thought: Pretty a spot as one could have got so close to town.

Galsworthy, The First and the Last p. 74 ¹⁾.

On *as*-clauses, see also 1497 ff.

2315. In comparative clauses of proportion the character of the sub-clause is sometimes made evident by the addition of *that*.

For good or ill the Norman Conquest was accomplished — but the more that we study it, the less easy is it to acquiesce in the easy and comfortable conclusion that all was for the best. Oman, Conquest p. 650.

The longer that Michael was in the company of Lily and Sylvia, the less he was able to ask the direct questions that would have been comparatively easy at the beginning. Sinister Street p. 1010.

... the sad mood that makes one feel that the closer that one gazes into the sorrowful texture of the world, the more glad we may well be to depart.

Benson, Thread of Gold p. 47.

Discussion of who her late husband was, or was not, had long since given way to a belief that he was a bad lot, and that the less that was said about him the better. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 16 p. 156.

The reason for the use of *that* is evidently that the character of the clause is not quite clear without it. This may also be shown by a sentence in which it is not used, such as the following.

1) Dr. Arvid Smith, *Moderna Språk*, December 1929.

The more efficient a despotism, the sooner it makes itself impossible, and the greater the problem it stores up for the future, unless it can divest itself of its despotic attributes and make common cause with the nation it has created. Pollard, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 33.

The same explanation probably accounts for the use of *that* in the *second* of two sub-clauses, as in the following sentence.

But it is the truth; and the more we can make it our own, the deeper that we can set it in our trivial spirits, the better are we prepared to learn the lesson . . . Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 51.

2316. We invariably find *that* in comparative clauses of inequality when the second clause has a subject of its own.

For nothing could be more characteristic of Goldsmith than that the year of his birth should be doubtful. It is not the kind of fact we should expect him to know himself. Times Lit. 8/11, '28.

What was more curious than that these unconventional villagers should have been excited by a preacher of a new school. Hardy, *Life's Little Ironies* p. 66.

In the case of *rather than* the construction without *that* is also used, as shown by the last quotation of 2300, 7.

2317. Clauses of comparison differ from most adverb clauses in that they are often not complete in their structure, but share an element of the main clause.

It is hoped that Part II will appeal to a wider public than can reasonably be expected to read the complete volume.

W. Perrett, *Some Questions of Phonetics* I Preface.

The lawyer liked this letter well enough: it put a better colour on the intimacy than he had looked for. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*.

They were as bad as could be ¹). Peter Pan.

1) We sometimes find: *as bad as bad could be*.

The construction without a subject might be possible in the first of the two following quotations, but not in the second, where the comparative clause contains a copula only, not a full verb.

To read it with the care that it needs and deserves requires more patience and time than it is given to many to bestow. Times Lit. 22/6, '16.

American sentiment, he assures us, has never been more pronounced against Germany than it is to-day. Times 24/7, '15.

Clauses of Manner 2318. The clauses of manner are not clearly to be distinguished from those of comparison, and it is only natural that both should be introduced by *as*.

Perhaps as many as thirty bonfires could be counted within the whole bounds of the district; and *as* the hour may be told on a clockface when the figures themselves are invisible, so did the men recognize the locality of each fire by its angle and direction, though nothing of the scenery could be viewed.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 3 p. 17.

They had been waiting outside for the conclusion of the play, as the players had waited for the conclusion of the dance. ib. II ch. 6 p. 169.

The meaning is less doubtful when the clause is connected with the main clause by *the way*, as illustrated in 1486 *b*. A special kind of *as*-clause of manner has been illustrated in the sections on the superlative *best* (*tramp up the road as best they can*: 1764). The dominant verb of both clauses is the same; it is not repeated in the sub-clause, however, as the auxiliary can be used without the stem: . . . *we were keeping the women off him as best we could* (Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 8).

The close connection between the clauses of manner and comparison explains, and justifies, the traditional

grouping of these clauses as *modal* clauses. The *as*-clauses easily pass into such as serve to express reason or concession; this will be treated further on.

It happens not infrequently that an *as*-clause is not a clause of reason, manner, or comparison; in such cases the term modal clause, or clause of attendant circumstances, would be convenient if a classification is insisted on. The following quotations may illustrate this.

As she stood there, she felt for a moment that she was a vivid and rather delightful person.

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. 1 § 2 p. 269.

So we have everything to be thankful for *as things have turned out*.

ib. II ch. 7 § 3 p. 445.

Clauses of Concession **2319.** Clauses of concession are of three kinds:

(1) of admitted concession.

If an advance needs careful organization, still more does a retreat of the kind we are witnessing.

Times W. 9/3, '17.

If we have not always crowned poets with the laurel I do not remember that we have ever burnt or poisoned them.

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 10.

Incomplete though it was, Sir Francis Palgrave appears to have regarded the "History of Normandy and of England" as, logically, the introduction to his earlier writings.

Times Lit. 22/5, '19.

(2) of open concession (*a*), often with the express mention of two alternatives (*b*).

a. Though he may have spoken the truth I can hardly think it probable.

b. Whether or not we agree with all he says, the reasonableness and force of his argument must be admitted.

Times E. S. 1/2, '16.

Here, wake at what hour I may, early or late, I lie amid gracious stillness.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* ch. 23.

Whether a man is to be teacher, or doctor, or lawyer, or minister of religion, it is width of outlook that for most men in the end makes the difference.

Haldane, Addresses p. 119.

- (3) of rejected concession, including the case that the speaker expresses improbability rather than rejection.

Here at last was the moment for which he had been waiting. Jerrard should be expelled if he, Peter, died in the attempt. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 6 § 3 p. 73.

They were now eating away for dear life, wanting to get away as soon as they could but equally determined to have their three shillings' worth each if it choked them. Priestley, Good Companions I ch. 5 § 2 p. 165.

2320. The examples given in the preceding section have shown that concessive clauses are often identical in form with conditional clauses. Their classification, too, is parallel to that of the conditional clauses. The reason is that the concessive clauses are not a class of adverb clauses like the others that have been enumerated. What distinguishes them is not their form nor the meaning with respect to their main clause, which is usually one of condition, though it may be of other classes (e. g. time, with the conjunction *when*), but the contrast between the main and the sub-clause. This contrast is mostly unexpressed, being clear from the context, but may be indicated by *even*, thus producing the conjunction-groups *even if*, *even when*, *even though*.

"Even when your trousers are tied up with string, a fog's a fog," says she to herself.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 24 p. 244.

Clauses of admitted concession are frequently difficult to distinguish from clauses of condition.

We have become inured to the strain of war; and if we have been sorely tried, we have been immeasurably strengthened.

Morning Post 5/8, '16.

If he was not himself a great thinker or critic, he excelled as a teacher and preacher in cultivating the habit of moral thoughtfulness.

2321. Another consequence of the peculiar character of the clauses of concession is that the main clause and the sub-clause are both complete sentences; this is sometimes so much so that the sub-clause has rather the character of an independent sentence. This is specially the case in clauses of admitted concession, in which two things are contrasted that are both looked upon as facts.

If Walpole sought to escape ridicule by going out to meet it, his modes of escape from his age were nevertheless very near to his heart.

Times Lit. 12/9, '29.

He's weak, Eric is, for all he's so clever and all that . . . Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 5 § 2 p. 177.

Elsie was younger and prettier than her sister Effie, though neither so young nor so pretty as she appeared to be at a first glance.

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. I § I p. 249.

It may also be observed that the difference is apparent in the break between the main clause and the concessive sub-clause. And there is further a difference in their intonation; in most compound sentences a main clause preceding its sub-clause ends with a rising intonation; but in the case of a sub-clause of admitted concession the tone is falling, in accordance with the usual intonation of sentences expressing a statement.

2322. Concessive clauses may not only resemble conditional and temporal clauses, but also those of comparison. Such clauses with *as* have a special word-order, but this does not indicate the concessive function, for it is also used when the clause is one of cause; in fact, the clauses

are rather to be interpreted as expressing attendant circumstances; see 2090 ff.

Both women pour out their hearts without a trace of self-consciousness and, *miserable as they are*, protest from time to time — in the manner of wives — that their husbands are the best and most loving of men.

Times Lit. 20/12, 28 p. 997/3.

The same construction is used in a clause of cause in the same article:

These books have moved us and excited us; and we are anxious, *strangers as we are to their habits of thought*, to know something about the men who wrote them.

ib. p. 997/2.

The concessive character is formally indicated in this construction when *though* is used.

Milton, however, much though he loved the University, eminent as were his scholarly gifts, was not to be a Fellow of his college. Perhaps he was not prepared to enter Holy Orders, perhaps his Puritanism — elegant, beautifully-dressed young man though he was — stood in the way of his election.

R. B. Mowat, Quarterly Rev. Oct. 1926 p. 352.

2323. Another class of concessive clauses are those introduced by a compound pronoun or adverb in *-ever*. Here, too, it is the context that decides whether the clause is concessive or not. See 1094 ff.

The rule of practice which I have quoted from him I believe to be indispensable, whatever career you choose.

Haldane, Addresses p. 116.

For the greatest sayings about the meaning of life come to the same thing, however and wherever they have been uttered.

ib. p. 203.

Similar are clauses with *no matter how*.

Nor am I to be won by any cheap thing, no matter

how brave-seeming it may be to the eye, how admirable in endurance. Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 1 p. 5.

2324. The concessive character of a clause may be indicated by the predicative group or, in literary English, by the use of the potential stem. On the latter, see volume 2, 1535.

In spoken English, clauses of open concession often take *may*, or *might*; see volume 1, 673. We also find *should* (not *shall*); 708, 2 b.

But however easily the system may be explained or paralleled, there can be no doubt as to its iniquity.

Wakeman, *Intro.* p. 421.

The clauses of rejected concession have a modal preterite, as shown in the first volume, 38.

2325. It has been pointed out that the **Continuative Adverb Clauses** adverb clauses are peculiar in having conjunctions with some independent meaning. But it is also clear that they are related in several respects to the attributive clauses. It is not only that the two are similar in their structure, but it is sometimes impossible strictly to classify them, as has been shown in dealing with the *as*-clauses with an antecedent qualified by *such* or *same*.

There is another parallelism between these two kinds of clauses: both can be used when they apparently serve to define a word in the main clause, whereas in reality they are rather independent sentences.

These continuative adverb clauses are in the first place such as are introduced by a relative adverb (*where*, *when*), but also those with *as*. See 166.

Miss Trant had just decided that she had watched and wondered at this odd pair long enough, when the telephone bell rang.

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 5 § 2 p. 164.

Leonard might be the darling of his mother's heart, as indeed he was, but it was clear that his father had no great opinion of him.

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 1 p. 11.

It is often possible to interpret clauses with an introductory *as* both as an adverb clause of manner (*a*) or of comparison (*b*) and as a continuative clause.

a. The town began, as so many small towns do, with a railway station.

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 5 § 4 p. 198.

The train stopped several minutes at Blackmoor, as it always does, and then, . . . *ib.* III ch. 6 § 1 p. 619.

b. Our insects, less numerous, smaller in size, more modest in colouring, and but rarely seen in swarms and clouds and devastating multitudes, do not force themselves on our attention, as is the case in many other regions of the earth.

Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 6 p. 110.

Other cases are less clear; see the chapter on *Form and Function of Sentences*.

2326. It has been stated in the introductory section on the adverb clauses (2299) that they differ from all other sub-clauses in the way they are connected with their main clause.

Connected and Unconnected Adverb Clauses The conjunctions in adverb clauses express a meaning, but it has been made clear in the preceding sections that this meaning is by no means an exact one. For many of these conjunctions are used in more than one meaning, and in some cases these meanings are so many that we cannot really say that they express any definite meaning at all. In such sentences it is the context that decides the relation between the main and the sub-clause.

2327. The conjunctions that primarily express place and time are often used to express cause; the two ideas

are frequently mixed. Clauses with *now that* never express a relation of time only.

It might indeed be possible to cover my face; but of what use was that, *when* I was unable to conceal the alteration in my stature? Stevenson, *Jekyll*.

I'd been wondering about it for the last half hour and trying to find out things, and then *when* that woman talked like that, I suddenly thought. 'All right then, I *will*.'

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. 1 § 1 p. 261.

At first the towns only seem a blacker edge to the high moorland, so many fantastic outcroppings of its rock, but *now that* you are closer, you see the host of tall chimneys, . . . *ib.* I ch. 1 p. 1.

One conjunction that is etymologically one of place, *whereas*, is never used in a local meaning, but invariably expresses cause; it is restricted to the literary language.

Examples of conjunctions expressing condition being used to introduce concessive clauses have been given in the preceding sections: it has also been shown that *as*, which is primarily a conjunction of comparison, is not only used to express manner, but also time and cause and concession.

2328. It follows from the considerations in the preceding two sections that context is more important in the interpretation of the relation between adverb and main clauses than the conjunction. It is not strange, therefore, that we also find the general conjunction *that* in these clauses, though not in all. It is used in the adverb clauses of cause but only those of the special type mentioned in 2309; also in clauses of purpose and result, and in those expressing restriction.

The use of *that* in the clauses of cause is evidently due to the character of these clauses, which closely resemble the

object clauses. In clauses of purpose a general conjunction is possible because the meaning is indicated by the auxiliary. The use of *that* in clauses of result is natural because the main clause generally contains the correlative *so*.

The reason is not so clear in the case of the restrictive clauses. It must be considered, however, that these clauses are essentially traditional: they are used, with a negative main clause, when the subject of the sub-clause is a personal pronoun of the first person (always of the singular number, it seems), and the predicate is the present tense of one of a small number of verbs (*know, remember, understand*). The character of the clauses is similar to that of the appended clauses.

2329. Adverb clauses are sometimes unconnected. This needs no special explanation in the case of the clauses of rejected condition and concession which show their meaning by their exceptional word-order. But it occurs also in clauses of result.

Sir Ralph was devoted to girls: his love for his own little daughter had been so great he had often thought it right to 'dissemble' lest his boys should regard her as his favourite. Mem. Verney Fam. III p. 60.

The boys have a very good time of it: lemonade and cake handed round during lessons. In fact the young rascals get so pampered they don't care to go home.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 94.

Clauses of restriction of the type that can take *that*, as illustrated in 2300, 10 and discussed in the preceding section, are never found without *that*: this is another indication that we have a different construction here from the other *that*-clauses, and suggests a connection with the pronominal function of *that*, which agrees with our interpretation of these clauses as a special case of appended clauses.

2330. Clauses of rejected condition without an introductory word have been illustrated in 1523.

Conditional clauses of *open* condition without an introductory word are rare. They are probably mistaken imitations of the construction for clauses of rejected condition.

On Sundays and Holy Days he (i. e. a man in the Middle Ages) attended matins, mass, and evensong at his parish church. Was he a townsman and a member of the guild of his craft or his calling, he was admitted with religious ceremonies . . . Wakeman, Introduction p. 178.

Are you, without much offending, sacrificed by them, it is on the altar of their mutual love . . .

Meredith, Egoist p. 398.

2331. Concessive clauses are frequently found without any introductory word as shown in the sections on literary English, in vol. 2 (1523 ff., and 1532). The preterite is restricted to clauses of rejected concession. A case like the following is quite exceptional.

Mr. Gibson bowed, much pleased at such a compliment from such a man, was he lord or not.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 114.

Interwoven **2332.** The preceding sections have dealt with
Clauses the most important types of compound sentences. It has been shown that a number of sub-clauses may form a group, one of them being the leading member, and thus parallel to a main clause. These kind of sentences become somewhat more complicated when there is no connecting word, as in the following.

"Perhaps it is," replied Mrs. Chillingford, briskly. "I know I wish I had Elizabeth's opportunities."

Priestley, Good Companions I ch. 2 § 2 p. 55.

A structurally simple case is provided by the attributive clauses with a copula only that require the antecedent to be understood as their nominal predicate.

He looked at his grandfather and thought of the wonderful old man that he was.

Walpole, *Green Mirror* I ch. 1 § 4 p. 18.

But maybe I had better select a few of these things, that you may know the sort of lane ours was.

Arlen, *Green Hat* p. 1.

In the sections on the attributive clauses some more complicated types have been dealt with. The most important is the kind of clause that requires a word or word-group in the main clause or leading sub-clause to complete its meaning (2270). In such cases the two clauses are inextricably interwoven; we call them *interwoven* clauses.

2333. The interwoven clauses are construed with a relative pronoun (*a*) or with *that* (*b*); they are also frequent with the interrogatives (*c*).

a. I've never known him to entertain people except the aunt, whom I think is dead now.

E. Wallace, *The Valley of Ghosts* p. 136 (T.).

For instance there was Miss Verney whom everybody thought was just a cross old maid.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 68.

And that love of form deep in the French soul promoted the girl's admiration for one whom she could see would in no circumstances lose her dignity.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 167.

Jerningham seems uneasy about it, and Elsie — who you would think would jump at it — doesn't seem very interested ¹⁾.

Priestley, *Good Companions* III ch. 1 § 2 p. 470.

1) Note the form *who*, instead of the traditional *whom* taught in the schools. Compare 1047 f. and the following observation by a layman:

Whom is a relic of the bad old days when inflections were cherished for their own sake, and there is no more reason for retaining it than for retaining *these* and *those* as plural forms of *this* and *that*.

J. Y. T. Greig, *Breaking Priscian's Head* p. 23.

It is hardly necessary to add that there is an important difference between the two cases: *these* and *those* are facts, *whom* is not a fact, of living English.

There was therefore nothing left but her trunk, which Aunt Cuckoo decided was neither too large nor too heavy for the brougham.

Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives* ch. 5 p. 120.

It may often happen that a statesman who is pursuing some great object which he considers is for the interest of his own country, knowing that this must inevitably arouse opposition elsewhere, will attempt to veil his real intentions . . .

Times Lit. 1/10, 1925.

b. . . . discovering that he was a serious youngster, she worried him by saying sharp and cutting things that he was never sure whether she meant or not.

Upton Sinclair, *Oil* ch. 8 p. 193.

c. What could he have thought was coming!

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 5 § 2 p. 54.

Where did you say you were going?

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 2 § 4 p. 71.

Non-connected clauses of this type are uncommon: *There's no one I'd rather got that thousand quid than you* (Wodehouse, *Leave it to Psmith*, T. p. 276). See 2294 for another example of a non-connected attributive clause. For the reason why the unfamiliar *whom* is used here, see 1055.

2334. A special type of interwoven relative clauses are the ones with an introductory *than whom*, *than whose*, or *than which*. They are exclusively literary, and can hardly be considered natural English.

a. It is for a Frenchman, M. Delattre, to write the best book on Herrick, than whom none of our poets is more characteristically national. *Academy* 17/8, 1912.

b. . . . and so did his maiden aunt, Miss Monica Thorne, than whose no kinder heart glowed through all Bassetshire. *Trollope*, *Dr. Thorne* ch. 47.

c. She turned once more to the darkness, than which he had said there was nothing nicer.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 8 p. 103.

But those who think of him (*viz.* Henley) merely as

a literary Bombastes Furioso had better read him on Matthew Arnold, and learn his particular enthusiasm for "Balder Dead," than which there is no great English poem more restrained and austere.

Academy 17/8, 12.

The construction is also used in continuative classes.

And man, than whom, as Sophocles long since remarked, nothing is more monstrous, more marvellous, more terrifyingly strange (it is hard to find a single word to render his *deinoteron*) — man, too, is a very unsatisfactory subject for literature.

Aldous Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 16 f.

See 2365 for some further examples.

Concord

2335. The scarcity of distinctive forms of the verb makes it impossible for there to be much of a concord between the subject and the verbal predicate. The regular verb can have a concord of person in the present tense only when the subject is a singular noun or a pronoun of the third person singular. The verb *to be*, however, shows some more cases of this concord.

In real (*a*) or apparent (*b*) attributive clauses with a relative or with *that*, or without a connecting word, there is concord of the verbal predicate of the sub-clause with the antecedent noun in the main clause.

a. Graham was a great deal more than that, though I say it who am his sister. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 12 p. 146.

Is it I, Henry Ryecroft, who after a night of untroubled rest, rise unhurriedly, dress with the deliberation of an oldish man . . . Gissing, *Ryecroft* ch. 18.

It is not easy for us who know only the modern face of England to form an idea of its aspect in days when history began. Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. 1.

"You're Miss Trant who's running these what's it Companions pierrot show, aren't you?"

Priestley, *Good Companions* III ch. 1 § 2 p. 472.

b. "Sophia," said Mrs. Baines with godlike calm, "it is not I who make you cry. It is your guilty conscience makes you cry." Bennett, *Old W. T.* I ch. 3 p. 68.

There's nothing vexes me so much as that way you have.
Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 4 p. 28.

Concord of Tense 2336. When repeating a person's words we can attempt to reproduce them without any alteration; this is called *direct style*.

It is also possible to report words or thoughts or feelings in the form of an object clause depending on a verb of saying, thinking, etc.; this is called *indirect style*, as in *He says he has finished*. The construction is used in all persons, but when the subject of the main clause (the narrator) is a third person, many changes become necessary in the personal pronouns, as well as in the forms of the predicative verb. These changes do not need any comment, for they proceed from the nature of the case, and are in perfect agreement with the general structure of sentences in English. The use of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* to form the group-future has already been treated in the first volume (732—5). It has also been explained that the use of the object with stem after the verbs of declaring is a purely literary construction (284 ff.). There is one point only with respect to indirect style that need be discussed separately: the use of the tenses when the verb of the main clause is in a past tense. The structure of the sentences accompanying direct or indirect style will be discussed in the chapter on *Parenthetic and Appended Sentences*.

2337. When the predicative verb of the leading clause of a compound sentence rendering a person's words, thoughts, or feelings indirectly, is in a past tense, the leading verb of the object clause agrees with it. If the

predicative verb in the original sentence was a preterite, whether used as a past tense or as a modal preterite, no change can occur. But if it was in a present tense the form must be changed. Thus, a sentence like *I think so* is reported in the form *I said I thought so*. And if the original form is in a group-perfect, as *I have said so*, the reported form is a preterite of the auxiliary: *He declared he had said so*.

2338. In the following quotations the preterite reports the present in its various functions. In the last example it depends upon the historic present *explains*.

1. (Actual present). Mr. Masterman intimated that he *was* prepared to accept the amendment.

2. (Future present). He discovered that the sun *rose* about six o'clock, and therefore five o'clock on Easter morning found him shivering, in the desolate garden with his nose pressed to the little wooden gate.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 10 § 3 p. 188.

When I was a boy I was told over and over again that if I *lay* on the wet grass, I should get the rheumatism when I got older. Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 87.

But he was strong in the feeling that when his purpose *was* told it would meet the approval at any rate of Mrs. Dale. Trollope, *Last Chron.* ch. 28.

Nor did James forget that Posy was possessed, under Mrs. B's will, of some three thousand pounds which *became* hers absolutely when she attained her majority.

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 200.

I gathered from his wife in the course of the afternoon that though his life was not threatened, yet there was no doubt that his helplessness was increasing. He could still hold a book and turn the pages; but it was improbable that he *could* do so for long.

Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 75 f.

3. (Neutral present). He agreed at the General's suggestion to aim at a commission in the Bengal Cavalry, preferably in a regiment which *wore* an uniform of canary yellow. Sinister Street p. 111.

"I thought you *dined* at seven." "So we do when my father is at home." Sweet, Element. no. 63.

I may mention that these two points constitute part of the reason why, after many experiments in blank verse, I came to the conclusion that the tragic trimeter *was* best represented in English by rhyme.

G. Murray, Essays III 22.

4. Large estates are being broken up in consequence, it is said, of recent taxation. This is the reason given by Viscount Hythe for selling part of his estate. The burden of recent taxation, he explains, *made* it impossible for any one who *derived* an income from land to live in the ancestral home. Everyman 29/11, 12.

The progressive past tenses are also used in indirect style.

Bianca had in effect declared that she was being driven out of her own house.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 33.

He (i. e. Luther) did not mean to attack the authority of the Church; he only thought its authority was being abused.

Times Lit. 2/11, 17.

He was conscious of resentment and told himself that it was because these things were being said in Mr. Folyat's house.

Cannan, Corner ch. 10.

I knew more and more certainly that I should die under the operation; at times I think I was inclined to pose to myself. The doctors were coming at eleven, and I did not get up.

Wells, Country p. 164.

One day he told his housekeeper that four gentlemen were coming to dinner.

Sweet, Element. no. 55.

This was the last statue he would do in Ireland. He was leaving Ireland. On this point his mind was made up.

Moore, Untilled Field p. 5.

The indirect pluperfect corresponds to the direct perfect.

Mr. J. W. Baron, chairman of the Scholarship Subcommittee, announced that 129 applications for free secondary education *had* been made by the children of

soldiers who *had* fallen in the war. Examinations *had* been conducted by headmasters of secondary schools in 68 cases, and all *had* been accepted except nine. The remaining pupils would be examined before the opening of the new school term. Times Ed. S. 30/9, 20.

2339. The neutral present is sometimes left unchanged when the verb in the main clause is in a past tense. This makes the statement more general or abstract than the preterite (*a*). When the present refers to what is necessarily independent of time, it is hardly possible to use a preterite in indirect style (*b*). When the preterite is used in such sentences it may simply be to express the subjectivity of the statement (*c*).

a. He knew what poverty *means*.

Gissing, *New Grub Street* ch. 5.

Michael wondered whether a spirit haunting the earth *feels* in the perception of its former territory so much shame as he felt now in approaching 64 Carlington Road.

Sinister Street p. 573.

b. I knew perfectly well that the sun *does* not turn round the earth.

c. "A change from London," he said.

"I want the country and I want hills," she answered. "I was told there *were* fine hills."

Phillpotts, *Beacon* I ch. 3.

Those undying Greek masters of ours adhered to the belief that there *was* an absolute standard of right human action, however dimly it might be discerned.

Times Lit. 5/1, 17.

It was a great many years after this that Peter discovered that it was only the wisest people who *knew* how very important fools *were*.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 § 2 p. 33.

In the following case the preterite *was* is used to emphasize the character of indirect style, but, as the context shows, not its irreality.

Some French critic has said that England *was* the least favourable birthplace for genius, an opinion the originality of my own talent compels me to share.

White, Mr. John Strood ch. 1.

2340. In the first volume it has been shown that some verbs that are used as the leading members of verbal groups, and are included among the auxiliaries, have a form that may be defined as a preterite, but is used as a modal preterite only, not as a past tense. This is the case with the preterites *might* and *should*. Other verbs occur in one form only, which is looked upon as a present: *must* and *ought*.

With these verbs may be classed *to need* and *to dare*, which have, indeed, a preterite *needed* and *dared*, used both as a past tense and as a modal preterite, but restricted to literary English. In spoken English the unchanged form of these verbs is used in reported style in the same way as the other verbs mentioned in this section.

When these verbs are used in indirect style, and depend upon a leading clause with a verb in the past tense, the preterite (*might* and *should*) or the uninflected form (*must*, *ought*; *need* and *dare*) can be used in the function of a past tense; we call them secondary past tenses in this function.

He poured out to her all Nina's admissions and refusals — the things she thought they might do, and where she drew the line.

Nash's Mag. Aug. 1927 p. 119.

The beautiful green jade, of which the finest pendants are made, is geologically jadeite; but that did not prevent great artists from carving them. Annibal, as a collector of jade, asked if he might see them (*viz.* some jade fish).

Strand Mag. July 1927.

Martin had been genuinely surprised when Butterman had arrived three days back unheralded in the station,

for no very obvious reason, to make on his first evening at the club the curious request that he might be shown round the leper hospital. Nash's Mag. Aug. 1927.

She did not know who this strange young man might be, and it was not yet light enough to see.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 10 § 3 p. 120.

It is now realized by Servian statesmen that they made a mistake in promising Germany that, in the event of their realizing their ambitions as to a sea-port on the Adriatic, Germany should have their orders for a fleet.

Punch 4/12, 12.

He had promised the boys that they should go in the dogcart.

Montgomery, Misunderstood.

The villains watching him from above called out, that unless he despatched James, his own life should pay the penalty.

Van Neck, Adv. Engl. Prose.

She engaged that her children should be brought up in the faith of the Catholic Church.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 3.

Benjamin, properly enraged, had them driven back and swore that no butcher in the neighbourhood should touch them.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 5 p. 28.

We told the man we could and would make such a scandal out of this, as should make his name stink from one end of London to the other.

Stevenson, Jekyll p. 8.

The question was whether Italy should, once for all, accept a German yoke; whether the Papacy should become a German patriarchate.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 241.

The Council of Ministers yesterday discussed the question whether they should make any statement before the Duma.

Times W. 26/1, 17.

She told them that they must get everything ready themselves.

It was her own design — her own scheme, small as it was, compared with that other vast project. She was anxious about it. It had to succeed; it must succeed.

She felt she must talk with him.

To be sure, there was an intense trouble and disquiet in the thought that she and Mr. Elsmere must meet again, probably many times.

S. began to know exactly how far he could lead or drive, and when he must follow.

Charlotte's eye told her that she must give up just at present for the good of the family.

Trollope, *Barchester Towers*.

Wilberforce and Clarkson saw that they must awaken the public conscience.

In a few words she related the fearful scene of the garden, and concluded that the spectre must have carried off his bride.

I was terribly hampered by the publicity which attended my movements. Michael must know by now of my expedition; and I knew Michael too well to suppose that his eyes would be blinded by the feint of the boar-hunt.

Hope, *Zenda*.

The judge did not think that the defendant ought to be kept in prison any longer. *Law Times* (N.E.D.)

He asked me what ought to be done.

Virginia begged for time to think it over; then, remembering her invalid sister, felt that she must not prolong the visit.

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

The waiter was told that he need not stay.

2341. The preterites in a person's words or thoughts are not affected by the change into indirect style.

He reminded the House that in 1893 76 or 77 days *were* allotted to the Bill of that year. *Times W.*

After referring to the fact that his brother was the managing director of the Marconi Company, he stated emphatically that he had taken no part in the negotiations relating to the agreement. In fact, he *did* not know that such an agreement was contemplated until his brother *told* him at a private social function that he *was* negotiating with the Government. *ib.*

Michael was inclined . . . , and he wished he *possessed* enough knowledge of his own peculiar college customs to counter Alan's display. Sinister Street p. 510.

Alderman Taylor stated that this was the first occasion upon which the estimates had been exceeded, and *had* it not been for the fact that there had been an increase of £ 11.221 in the estimated amount of Government grant the deficiency would have been greater still.

Times Ed. S. 30/9, 20.

Sylvia consoled Mrs. Gainsborough and rejoiced in her assurance that she did not know what she *should* have done without her. Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 266.

The recollection of that day was not a pleasant one on the whole, though she often thought how much she *should* like to see the gardens again.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 4.

Mr. Justice Scrutton said under ordinary circumstances he *should* have sentenced prisoner to penal servitude.

Daily News 18/10, 11.

2342. It is a necessary result of the fact mentioned in the preceding section that a preterite when used in indirect style may report a present or a preterite, which may have been used in the original sentence as a past tense or as a modal preterite. In the great majority of cases the context leaves no doubt about the interpretation of a secondary preterite, but occasionally there may be some doubt; it is never such, however, that there is any practical inconvenience. Thus, a sentence like *He told me he could do it* may report *I can do it* or *I could do it*. But the present and the modal preterite do not express a difference of time, and the difference in the degree of certainty suggested by the use of *can* or *could*, if not shown by the context, will generally be of no importance.

"We were only talking just now, Jimmy," said Jo, "about whether we could give a show at all to-night."

Priestley, Good Companions II ch. 6 § 4 p. 441.

But after that meeting in Cheyne Walk he knew her for a prize that some fortunate man might, one day, win.
Walpole, Fort. III ch. 3 p. 257.

It may be to avoid the interpretation of a modal *could* that *was able* is used in the following sentence; at any rate it has this effect.

He began to feel panic. Why should he imagine that he was able to write?

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 1 § 2 p. 155.

What has been said about the use of the simple preterite as an alternative of the past perfect naturally applies to indirect style as well; see 599.

2343. When a sentence contains a statement of relative time or place, this is sometimes left unchanged in indirect style.

She knew that it was really a definite appeal on behalf of both of them that she should *here* and *now* solemnly put her sign of approval on Peter.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 1 § 3 p. 238.

He swung the canoe under the bushes, tied it to a hawthorn bough and declared triumphantly, as they climbed ashore up the steep bank, that *here* was practically a desert island. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 171 f.

But a sentence like *I shall go to-morrow*, if reported when the day referred to is past, would require a change: *I told them I should go the day after that*.

Personal pronouns may similarly remain unchanged.

She thought the story, so cut, one that her mother and Mr. Fenwick might have shown a more active interest in, instead of saying it was time for all of us to be in bed. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 10 p. 96.

The remark from the back-room that we could hear beautifully in here seemed to fall flat, the second violin merely replying "All right!" passionlessly.

ib. ch. 12 p. 111.

2344. We frequently find a further mixture of the forms or words of direct and indirect style. The following examples show various cases, which do not seem to require any discussion.

Well, I wonder anyhow will this show that silly little Rhoda what sort of a creature she's been making a golden calf of . . .

Rose Mácaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 10 p. 141.

He asked me would I lend him my umbrella.

I wonder was he ever so truly great, so entirely the man we know and love, as when he inspired the chiefs to make a highway in the wilderness.

Fairless, *Road-Mender* ch. 5.

Both were saying might they come in, and doing it without waiting for an answer.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 29 p. 311.

Martha the cook, who admitted him, not feeling equal to the negotiation, had merely said — would he mind steppin' into the parlour, and she would send Miss Sally up? ib. ch. 5 p. 47.

It may also occur that the leading verb of the main clause of a statement or thought is made the leading verb of the sentence of indirect style.

They talked on, the three of them, about flowery subjects while the Rector drank his tea from the mug without a word of comment on the inscription. Then he went off to write a letter, and Guy with a regretful glance at the room supposed he ought to go.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 70.

In this passage the last sentence means: Guy said: "I suppose I ought to go." Similarly in the following passage.

"I would love it. But — but father wouldn't, you know. He wouldn't want to go, and if he did he'd want to pay for it himself, and do it his own way, and travel third-class and be dreadfully uncomfortable. Wouldn't he, Peter?"

Peter *feared* that he would.

Rose Macaulay, *The Lee Shore* I ch. 4 p. 51.

This reports, no doubt, the sentence: I'm afraid he would.

The following sentence is again different, but does not seem to require any comment.

But Sally's resolute optimism thrust regrets for the coming chill aside, and *decided* to be jolly while *we* could, and acted up to its decision.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 30 p. 317.

Semi-Indirect Style 2345. It often happens when a sentence showing that the style is indirect has been mentioned, that a speaker or author continues to tell the rest of the report in simple sentences or compound sentences that do not depend on the verb of saying, etc. But the tenses of the verb, the personal pronouns, and all the other indications of indirect style remain unaltered. This way of presenting the words, thoughts, or feelings of others may be called *semi-indirect style*. It is a very important method of telling a story in living English. One example must suffice.

... This was the visit of a rich and eccentric old lady, Mrs. Hodney. She had driven in by car to the town to see her solicitors on Wednesday, had stayed to see the show, and after it was over had insisted upon being introduced by the local manager, who knew her as a "character," to Miss Trant, to Jimmy, to everybody. She was so delighted with them all, she said, that she wanted them to do a queer old woman a favour. *Would* they all go out to her house, Custon Hall, twenty miles away, on the edge of the moors, and give a performance on Sunday there for her, her maids, and any of the villagers who were not too stupid to enjoy themselves for once on a Sunday night in November? They must not think of it as a matter of business — though she was rich enough to pay for her whims, and if twenty pounds would compensate them for their trouble, there it was — ...

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. 6 § 1 p. 400.

Beginning at *Would they all go*, the sentences are independent, as far as form goes; but the tenses show that the writer intends them as a report of the lady's conversation, which is introduced in the preceding sentence by the parenthetical *she said*. It is not certain whether the first part of this quotation is to be looked upon as reported or as the information given by the author. The distinction between semi-indirect style and ordinary narrative is often impossible.

2346. Semi-indirect style may be evident from the verb tense, auxiliary, or some other circumstance.

"I wrote you six letters."

"I never got them. I expect my aunt wouldn't allow them to be forwarded."

Vibart *was sure* that Jasmine was misjudging her. No one *could have been* more anxious to help him find Jasmine. Why, she had taken the trouble to write to Mrs. Grave-Smith for his address, had asked him to lunch and then volunteered Jasmine's address, and, what is more, advised him to go and call on her.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 6.

"You know he is on his way back from Uganda," Aunt Phyllis remarked with an unreal innocence.

Lady Charlotte had not known¹). But she stood up gallantly to the blow. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 5 § 2.

And if Grandmamma should die? Why then in this great house she, Mary Flower, *should* be all alone.

Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. 3.

Mr. Gilfil, afraid to say more, . . . quitted the library in a state of mingled indignation against Captain Wybrow, and distress for himself and Catherina. What would she think of him? . . . He *should* perhaps not have an opportunity of speaking to her on the subject in time.

Eliot, Mr. Gilfil ch. 12.

Processions be damned! He *wished* that the wet, shining street were not so strangely like the sea-road

1) i. e. she said: "I did not know."

at Treliss, and that the omnibuses at a distance did not murmur like the sea.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 4 § 2 p. 184.

Of course he had not the slightest intention of turning him out, but he *did wish* that old Taylor showed more signs of appreciating his landlord's consideration.

Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. I p. 20.

But now there could be only one thought in his mind. He must see his mother — if he could still help her he must be at her service.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 80.

He went into the tiny kitchen. In a few moments she followed him. *He had remembered to warm the teapot.* She held it while he poured in the water.

Storm Jameson, The Single Heart ch. 2 p. 86
(Benn's Ninepenny Novels, 1932).

2347. Semi-indirect style by repeating a question ¹⁾ occurs frequently.

Scrooge knew he was dead? Of course he did.

Dickens, Christmas Carol st. 1.

Then with his watch still in his hand, he went up to the policeman, asked him if he knew what the time was. "What's the time?" said the man, eyeing George up and down with evident suspicion; "why, if you listen you will hear it strike."

Jerome, Boat ch. 11.

"I like you!" returned Aunt Bel, nodding at him. "Where do you come from? A young man who'll let himself go for small coin's a jewel worth knowing."

"Where do I come from?" drawled Laxley.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16.

Would I live it over again, that life of the garret, and the cellar? Not with the assurance of fifty years' contentment such as I now enjoy, to follow it.

Gissing, Rycroft ch. 11.

1) In talking there is sometimes a difference between the two questions. For the direct interrogative sentence, if pronominal, has a falling intonation; when repeated, however, the question becomes disjunctive, and accordingly the intonation is rising, and the pronoun has a stronger stress.

She smiled. "But how did you know I was in the siege of Paris?" she asked, curious. "How do I know? I know because I've seen that birthday card ye sent to Mrs. Povey in 1871, after it was over."

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 3 § 2.

A maid came in now with a blue silk gown very thick and soft. Could she do anything for Miss Freeland? No, thanks, she could not; only, did she know where Mr. Freeland's room was?

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 5 p. 51.

"Are you cold?" she asked, seeing the new situation of the table.

"Am I cold!" Edwin repeated.

Bennett, *These Twain* III ch. 18 § 1.

"I have found you a gown after all."

"Where is it?"

"Where is it?" her uncle repeated. "Why, waiting upstairs in your bedroom, of course, for you to put it on..." Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives* ch. 12 p. 298.

2348. The habit of leaving the pronouns in indirect style unchanged that was illustrated from de Morgan in 2343, is used by the same author in semi-indirect style.

When he got to the bank another young gentleman, with no spectacles this time, said *he*¹⁾ didn't know if any credit was wired. He was very preoccupied, pinning up cheques and initialling some important customer's paying-in book. But *he* would inquire in a moment, if you would wait. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 1 p. 8, and elsewhere in the same book.

Order of Words

2349. The order of words in the main clauses of compound sentences is governed by the same principles as in simple sentences. For this reason the illustrations in

1) The italics for *he* in both sentences are in the original.

2164 ff. are frequently compound sentences. It will be necessary only to deal here with the sub-clauses.

Subject and Predicate 2350. As a general rule the order of subject and predicate in sub-clauses is the same as that in simple sentences. As in simple sentences we regularly find inversion with an introductory *there* (a) and when negative adjuncts open the clause (b).

a. The most optimistic authorities do not conceal from themselves that there is a bad time coming.

Observer 28/11, '20.

Not that there was not both poetry and prose written outside this charmed circle. Mair, Engl. Lit. p. 30.

He remembered that his mother was small, black-haired and black-eyed, and that only once did he feel glad with his father. Thomas, Lafcadio Hearn p. 11.

b. We have seen that language and national origin do not vary together always, and we shall see as we proceed that neither do language and religion, nor race and religion, neither language and law, nor race and law.

Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 236.

The Labour representatives asked for an assurance that in no circumstances would conscription be adopted.

Times W. 5/1, '17.

She had heard much of him and his ways and egregious manners towards her sex, and she knew that never before in his life had he told a woman he would be glad to see her. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 6 p. 49.

But there is no reason to suppose that anywhere in Britain did the pre-Celtic population maintain itself independent. Oman, Conquest p. 20.

Yet this time it was still warm with long contact and divinely familiar, since but for a moment had it been relinquished. Sinister Street p. 422.

2351. Dependent questions and dependent exclamations, like the corresponding simple sentences, may be introduced

by a pronoun or pronominal word that may be any part of the sentence (*a*). Inversion of subject and predicative verb is frequent, especially in nominal sentences (*b*).

a. I should like to know who told you that.

As the diocese is the unit of the Church's work, the questions naturally arise as to how and when these various bishoprics were created, and why they were made? Clayton, Dioceses of England and Wales.

b. What were Heath's feelings towards Charmian she could not divine. Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 9 p. 103.

If we wanted a lesson how vital is style to the survival of any human memories, we might find it in this very instance. Athen. 18/11, '11.

My personal experience, especially in the case of Akbar, has shown how slight is the foundation for many current opinions. History IV no. 14 p. 75.

The reason why inversion is common in nominal clauses is that the normal order would give undue emphasis to the copula. This seems to be quite clear if we change the order in the following sentence. See 2357.

(This) gives us a kind of idea what *was* the position of things at Krakatoa Villa six months after Fenwick made his singular reappearance in the life of Mrs. Nightingale. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 9 p. 82.

Inversion in a verbal sub-clause may suggest mixed direct and indirect style.

The question for us is how far can the introduction of these Roman words be associated with the historical or political changes that have befallen England.

Stubbs, *Lect. Early English Hist.* p. 227.

2352. Inversion is necessary in clauses of concession (*a*) and of rejected condition (*b*) that have no introductory conjunction.

a. The fewer words he uses the better he hits his

men off; and be they in big ships or small, fighting or merry-making, they are always alive.

Times Lit. 12/10, '17.

Mr. Gibson bowed, much pleased at such a compliment from such a man, was he lord or not.

Gaskell, *Wives* II p. 114.

Nevertheless, choose they their moments never so awkwardly, they cannot outmanœuvre the vigilant hawks of the Press.

Squire, *Grub Street* p. 154.

b. Naturally, had I been the official in Bucharest, I should have given the girl her passport.

Mackenzie, *Sylvia and Michael* p. 239.

Had Heaven preserved Yeobright from a wearing habit of meditation, people would have said, 'A handsome man'. Had his brain unfolded under sharper contours they would have said, 'A thoughtful man'.

Hardy, *Native* II ch. 6 p. 167 f.

Had he but known it he was at that moment exactly like his father.

Walpole, *Fort*. I ch. 8 § 2 p. 88.

(These things) might have a book to themselves were it not that our business is with a wider stage and more lasting issues.

ib. I ch. 6 p. 61.

2353. In literary English clauses of rejected comparison are introduced by *as* (instead of *as if*) with inversion.

Dear man, as were I a Cantabrian provincial, I should say.

Sinister Street p. 802.

Started by the pigmy power of Montenegro, the war has gone on blithely, as were money of no account.

Eng. Rev. 1915.

2354. Inversion is occasionally found in clauses of open condition, perhaps owing to carelessness.

Would he, for instance, estimate the age of the oldest known rocks, he takes the amount of salt brought down to the sea each year by rivers.

Times Lit. 28/10, '15.

Mr. Thornton said very little; but every sentence he uttered added to Mr. Hale's reliance and regard for him.

Was it that he paused in the expression of some remembered agony, Mr. Thornton's two or three words would complete the sentence¹), and show how deeply its meaning was entered into.

Gaskell, *North and South* ch. 35 p. 291.

Did a customer inquire if the grocer could really recommend the wondrous substitute for eggs which a persevering bagman had forced into his stock, he would answer that "When you did not put eggs into a pudding it was difficult to taste them there".

Hardy, *Ironies (To Please His Wife)* ch. 2).

2355. Inversion of subject and predicative verb is very frequent in clauses of comparison.

No writer has ever been more loyal to his school than was Thackeray to the Charterhouse.

Whibley, *Thackeray* p. 4.

Clear-sighted Russian patriots see this as plainly as do their well-wishers in Europe and the United States.

Times W. 21/9, '17.

Edward FitzGerald himself never had a closer friendship than had these two men for each other.

Life of Ainger, p. 133.

They bear the mark of their university more than does Dryden. Mowat, *Quarterly Rev.* Oct. 1926 p. 352.

But the mocking smile was more eloquent than could any words have been.

Alec Waugh, *Look before you leap* p. 7

(*Benn's Ninepenny Novels*, 1932).

2356. Clauses of proportional comparison with *the* usually open with the part expressing the comparison. There may be inversion of subject and predicate if the opening part is an adverb adjunct, but in the main clause only. For examples see also 1737.

Land has little value for nomads, but so soon as they settle its worth begins to grow; and the more labour

¹) *Would* is not used here as in hypothetical statements; it expresses repetition.

they put into the land, the higher *rises its value* and the less *they want* to leave it.

Pollard, Hist. of Engl. ch. 1 p. 22.

2357. We also find inversion in sub-clauses introduced by an adverb adjunct, if the verb is of less weight than the subject. See 2351 and 2358.

Mr. Startup explained other objects of interest as he drove slowly down through the village to where *stood* the Oxenham Arms, the stateliest and most ancient abode of the hamlet. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 3 p. 15.

Guy had left his own room to the last, partly because he regretted so much the delay in the arrival of those books and partly because, however inadequately equipped *was* the rest of the house, this room was always the final justification of his tenancy.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 1 p. 19.

This is true, although even less now than for many centuries *do* the Churches monopolise the world's spiritual treasure.

Daily News.

This was the obscure removed spot to which *was about to return* a man whose latter life had been passed in the French capital.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 1.

To the west, Hillport Fields, grimed but possessing authentic hedgerows and winding paths, mounted broadly up to the sharp ridge on which *stood* Hillport Church, a landmark.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 1 § 1.

I had just been reading a patent liver-pill circular, in which were detailed the various symptoms by which a man could tell when his liver was out of order.

Jerome, Three Men in a Boat ch. 1.

I remember our waiting in a room in which were several other people; most of whom had shades or bandages over their eyes.

2358. Inversion occurs sometimes in *as*-clauses opening with the nominal predicate (*a*). But the predicative verb

can follow its subject; it always follows when the latter is an (unstressed) pronoun (*b*). See 2351 and 2357.

a. Important as is this manner, it cannot be further treated in the present book.

Brewster, Writing of English p. 19.

Great as was its influence upon individual souls, it did not seriously affect the main current of the life either of the Church or of the nation.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 448.

b. Middle-aged as I am, I get carried away by people.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 2 p. 15.

He was not destitute, strange as it may appear.

Oman, Conquest p. 2.

Yet these same oak woods, great as their charm is, their green everlasting gladness, have a less enduring hold on the spirit than the open heath . . .

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 2 p. 37.

The nominal *as*-clauses with this special order are always concessive. When there is no inversion their concessive meaning can be made unmistakable by the use of *though*.

Such books, deeply interesting though they were, often made him feel almost sick at heart.

Hichens, Amb. ch. 6 p. 62.

Nominal *as*-clauses without inversion are not always concessive; this depends upon the meaning of the two clauses. In itself the construction serves to express attendant circumstances.

Wanting to get to bed herself, *tired as she was*, she left the door unbarred.

Hardy, Ironies.

As yet his search for the truth was groping, almost blind; *hampered as he was* by poor methods of organization, by poor tools, . . .

Botsford, English Society 18th cent. p. 3.

See 2322.

2359. Verbal *as*-clauses can have front-position of an adverb adjunct (*a*) or a verb stem (*b*) without inversion of subject and predicative verb. The verb stem may also open pronominal clauses of this type (*c*). See 188.

a. Often as the early Victorian age is decried, it had a charm of its own.
Athen. 8/10, '10.

Much as he had hated and dreaded the man; much as he had suffered from his companionship, — good reason as he had to dislike the whole family, — he felt himself bound by their late companionship not to betray him. Trollope, Dr. Wortle ch. 21 p. 241.

b. Freud essayed the problem single-handed, and, impugn his methods as we may, we cannot but recognize that his courage deserved the success that it achieved.
Times Lit. 4/5, '16.

c. It was the imperative demand of a powerful king determined to have his will, cost him what it might.
Wakeman, Intro. p. 199.

2360. We have an apparently similar, but really very different, construction, when a verbal *ing* precedes an *as*-clause that refers to the *ing* by an auxiliary.

On the edge of this new wave came *Reuben Hallard*, combining as it did, a certain amount of affectation with a good deal of naked truth.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 2 p. 246.

The contents of the work are, indeed, more extensive and varied than the title would perhaps lead us to expect, including as they do chapters on the vegetation and the wild animals of the Alps.

Athen. 21/9, 1912 p. 315/2.

See some examples in the first volume, 94.

The *as*-clause in these sentences is continuative, and the *ing* is an attributive adjunct to a noun in the main clause. The meaning of this type of clause has been dealt with in 2096.

Relative Clauses **2361.** The relative pronoun generally opens the clause, except in concessive adverb clauses; see 1050 ff. On the place of prepositions qualifying the relative see 2369 ff.

2362. Sometimes two constructions are possible in relative clauses. This is the case if the relative pronoun qualifies the word that is the subject or object of the clause.

a. So we get this charming little book, *the newest thing about which* is, perhaps, its method.

Times Lit. 29/10, '14.

Their first feat of arms was the conquest of a Christian city, *the only offence of which* was that it disputed the Venetian supremacy in the Adriatic.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 204.

The dispatch is full of records of actions *each of which*, in a war of less magnitude, would have riveted attention and inspired admiration. Times W. 4/2, '14.

There was nothing in (the room) but that desk . . . and a narrow bookcase *the books in which* Cecilia unconsciously told off on the fingers of her memory.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 8.

It amounts to this that they are ready to undertake work *the results of which* they can visualize.

Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

b. In the exercise and exploitation of his prerogatives he is assisted by functionaries *of whom most* are household officers.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 59.

And then, after they had lunched in an octagon room *of which each panel* had been painted by Van Loo . . .

Belloc Lowndes, Chink in the Armour ch. 13 p. 147.

2363. The construction under *b* makes the leading noun of the relative group emphatic; it is less common than the one under *a*. The latter is the only one possible when the relative is used attributively as in the following quotations.

His brother Alfred, in the meantime, had drifted from work at a London bookseller's into the modern Grub Street, *his adventures in which region* will concern us hereafter. Gissing, *New Grub Street* ch. 2.

He stayed some time in Genoa, *to one or more of the Jesuit fathers in which city* he had letters.

Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 21 p. 209.

2364. Two constructions are also possible if the relative is the object of a verb stem or an ing; front-position of the pronoun is by far the commoner construction, however.

a. It is a matter *which* few Englishmen care even to attempt *to fathom*. Times Lit. 22/2, '18.

This meeting reaffirms its strong adherence to the principles *which* the Primrose League was created *to defend* . . . Daily Mail.

The work *which* she had come to the office early that morning especially *to do* lay upon the desk before her. F. Swinnerton, *Summer Storm* T. p. 147.

Such were the main outlines of the life of the biographer. We may now turn to those of the life *which* he owes his fame to *recording*. Bailey, Johnson p. 87.

These people were the weeds *whom* Bridget had questioned the policy of *transplanting* to other fields and lanes. Vachell, *Pinch of Prosperity* ch. 11.

Stella has had to take a studio, *which* I do not approve of her *doing*. Sinister Street, p. 550.

b. A deeply interesting book is this ancestor of the modern English dictionary *to describe which* adequately would take far more time than the limits of this lecture afford.

Sir J. Murray, *Evolution of Eng. Lexicography*.

The needs *to satisfy which* libraries exist are too multifarious, and sometimes too incapable of precise definition, to be summed up in any rigid formula.

Baker, *Uses of Libraries* p. 8.

There were various observances, *by adopting which* he could plainly show his antipathy to such men as Dr. Proudie and Mr. Slope.

Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 6.

The towns and the lesser nobility had no respect for resolutions *in framing which* they had not been consulted.

Davis, *Med. Europe* p. 171.

2365. If the pronoun is part of an object-with-stem or participle construction, it must stand first (*a*). Also when the pronoun is an object to a verbal form in a sentence subordinate to the relative clause (*b*), or in a clause with *that* (*c*). See 2332 ff.

a. ... not unlike a genial monarch *whom* he was said by his clerks *to understudy*.

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 125.

b. (He was) trying to regain that sense of warmth *which* he knew he must never confess to having *lost*.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 14 p. 174.

c. ... especially as there was so much *that* Lady Tanner wanted to ask Lord Lippington if he *remembered*.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 8.

In the following quotation front-position of *the scene* would cause it to seem the subject, whereas it is meant to be the nominal predicate.

The tragedy in ten thousand acts *of which* that bedroom was *the scene*, almost entirely escaped Sophia's perception.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale I* ch. 3 § 3.

2366. Only one construction is normally possible when the pronoun is a prepositional adjunct to another prepositional adjunct (*a*). Front-position of the pronoun is very unusual in this case (*b*).

a. When defeated in an action against a neighbour, *on success in which* she had greatly set her heart, she brought an action against the lawyer who conducted her case.

Baring-Gould, *Country Life* ch. 2.

Cromwell began by destroying that Parliament utterly, *for seeking the arrest of five members of which* the King lost his crown and was put to death.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 15 p. 166.

Mr. Neville Chamberlain's scheme for civilian national service involves the division of Great Britain into six areas, *for each of which* a deputy-director is to be appointed.

Times W. 26/1, '17.

To-night he was going to sleep in an hermitage *for the right to enjoy the seclusion of which* he had been compelled to fight very hard.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 1 p. 11.

b. He spoke with the broad South Country tongue, *which* I was beginning to weary *for the sound of*.

Stevenson, Kidnapped.

In the following sentences we have a rare construction.

In whatever form and by whatever channel, the story must have reached this country during the Heroic Age — i. e. by the latter part of the sixth century, *early in which* the action took place in Southern Sweden and Denmark and on the North Sea coast.

Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

..., or events to which you come across allusions.

Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 26.

2367. The relative pronoun naturally follows when it can be considered as the object of the action denoted by the noun.

The root of M. Roussel's art is respect. He respects the public, *contempt for whom* is at the root of most artistic display and swagger.

Athen. 5/12, 1908.

(These experiences) led to the delivery of the "Apologia," *his useful edition of which* is Professor Butler's last contribution.

Times Lit. 26/8, '15.

Adverb Adjuncts **2368.** It has been shown, in 2241, that adverbial forms of comparison in pronominal sentences are sometimes put immediately after the opening

pronominal word. Corresponding to this are the *as*-clauses with *best*, and the clauses with *how* that follow. See also 1764.

But on the whole, the vital things at Dawson's are pretty plain to the eye and must squeeze into a chapter as best they can. Walpole, *Fort. I ch. 6 p. 62*.

I counted twelve experts all busy and all wanting advice as to how best a particular job should be done. Westminster *Gaz. 8/7, 1927*.

I had carefully considered how best in conversation I might lead Rosa to the subject of Lord Clarenceux. Bennett, *The Ghost* 1).

Prepositions 2369. In dealing with the prepositions we have shown that they occasionally follow the noun they make into an adjunct: 1418. It may be observed that the preposition in this case expresses direction.

Like the fairies in *Midsummernight's Dream* they danced the whole house through.

E. F. Benson, *Dodo the Second*.

End-position of the preposition may also be the result of emphasis of the noun, and, very frequently, of an interrogative pronoun. See the sections on *Pronouns* in the second volume, and on *Word-order in the Simple Sentence* in this. This order is also frequent in relative clauses.

"Then you really are coming?" said Queen Elizabeth.

"Yes, I really am," I sighed.

"What as?" ... "Which room is the Encyclopaedia in?" ... "I forget who you said you were going *as*."

Punch 24/2, 1909.

He began to throw off the moss and leaves that covered the chain, to see what it was for 2).

Sweet, *Spoken Engl. p. 62*.

1) The last two sentences are borrowed from Dr. Arvid Smith's article in *Moderna Språk*, Dec. 1929.

2) [tə sij whot it wəz fɔə].

It would puzzle an economist to discover where all these shillings came from.

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 1 p. 3.

She dared not to tell herself that such an impulse was love for the man whose honour she had played with.

Pemberton, *Woman of Kronstadt*.

Only after clearing it did they remember the rearward pedestrian, whose probable wants Chillon was urged by Carinthia to speak of to their host.

Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 6 p. 68.

He would not in the least mind our having a good look at the country which, owing to his foresight, we hadn't grown up in.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 1 p. 12.

I am well aware that some people now begin to doubt about witchcraft; or at any rate feign to do so, being desirous to disbelieve whatever they are afraid of.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 58 p. 430.

(I) shall merely have to pass through what the weakest have had to pass through before me.

Rutherford, *Autobiogr.* p. 2.

It all depended on what one was accustomed to.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 13 p. 147.

As an art, it was the one which he delighted in most, which he turned to at first and spent the last thirty years of his life in exercising.

Times Lit. 26/1, 1928 p. 49/2.

Whereon the Major gave in detail his impressions of the little incidents recorded above, which Sally had seen nothing in.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 6 p. 53.

The following sentence presents an extreme case of end-position of the preposition.

... the man who did not, could not, forgive her what seemed so atrocious a wrong, but whom she could forgive the unforgiveness of; ...

Somehow Good ch. 9 p. 82.

It may be observed that the construction is independent

of the function of the relative clause: it may be an object clause, an adverb clause, or an attributive clause; and if the *that*, it may be restrictive in meaning or not.

2370. Post-position of the preposition is necessary in clauses whose introductory word is a conjunction. Hence we regularly find it in attributive clauses with *that* and *as* (*a*) and in comparative clauses with *as* and *than* (*b*).

a. I gave John Fry the soundest threshing that ever a sheaf of good corn deserved, or a bundle of tares was blessed with.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 17 p. 108.

“For some reason that I am quite guiltless of”, says Mel, “the hotel people gave out that I was a Marquis in disguise.”

Meredith, *Harrington* p. 7.

And mind, I'm mud to the eyes, and over, carrying
Half of the country that I've passed through on me.

Gibson, *New Numbers I* p. 6.

Cannot most of us recall things unquestioned in our youth that we have marvelled at our passive acceptance of?

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 172.

... and her mouth that you can tell she's bad by.

Galsworthy, *Fraternity* p. 132.

b. I have tried, however, to make the book as intelligible and accurate as the nature of the subject admits of.

Chalmers, *Local Government* p. V.

The business is certainly very bad; worse than I thought, and much worse than my father has any idea of.

Gaskell, *Life* ch. 18 p. 314.

This is a singularly straightforward way of stating a view which silently influences a much greater number of men than it is pleasant to think of.

Morley, *Compromise* p. 88.

2371. Post-position is also necessary in attributive clauses (*a*) and attributive adjuncts (*b*) that have no introductory word.

a. The place they fixed on was Epping Forest.

Sweet, *Element.* no. 74.

I think Smith must have been rather unfortunate in the people he lodged with. *id.* *Spoken Engl.* p. 84.

The man in charge was one of those wooden-headed chaps you can't get a new idea into anyhow.

Wells, *Stolen Bacillus.*

And he had the mouth women put faith in for decision and fixedness.

Meredith, *Amazing Marriage* ch. 5 p. 52.

The schemes he planned and failed in.

Times Lit. 30/12, '15.

That was the bench they sat on—there's the board

They took the meal at—yonder garden-ground

They leant across the gate of.

Browning, *Ring and Book V* 1256 ff.

Do you know the forces you are up against?

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 22 p. 260.

"What's the system?"

"Well! The system Dr. Lasher was brought up in."

de Morgan, *Vance* ch. 15.

Molly would rock to and fro in an ecstasy of delight at the things Mary thought of to say.

E. Everett-Green, *Temptation of*

Mary Lister ch. 4 p. 71.

And its recovery (i. e. of a watch) from the pawn-broker's he could not remember leaving it at became an absurd dream.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 4 p. 40.

... or, worse still, one of those stories your informant really doesn't like to be responsible for the particulars of.

ib. ch. 7 p. 57.

b. The next people met with on the road to the Great Lakes are the Wa Kamba. *Patterson, Tsavo* p. 131.

Our guide showed us a wicket to enter in at.

Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 30.

An English teacher once gave the following rule: Never use a preposition to finish up a sentence with.

2372. When a word of the main clause is accompanied by a preposition that serves to make the whole subordinate clause into an adjunct (not a single word as in all the preceding cases), the clause can have front-position when it is introduced by a pronoun. This case is parallel to the front-position of nouns, mentioned in 2188. In the last two of the following quotations we have a clause of direct speech.

What I have commenced I am prepared to go on with. Oppenheim, *People's Man* ch. 13 p. 133.

Look here, Harrington. What happened to you to-day, I declare I think nothing of.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 32 p. 346.

"Do you want my toe on your plate?" Old Tom stopped him with. *ib.* ch. 26 p. 279.

"Well, old boy!" Mr. Fordyce greeted him with. "You should have been with me and had a good round of golf." E. Glyn, *The Man and the Moment* ch. 3 p. 36.

2373. When a clause introduced by a conjunction is similarly put at the beginning, the preposition *must* follow in the main clause.

That his treatment of Old Tom was sound, he presently had proof of. Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 41 p. 427.

2374. End-position of the preposition is sometimes obligatory, although there is a pronoun to introduce the sentence.

Both Hume and Robertson in fact have fallen irrevocably into the category of books which no gentleman's library can be without ¹). *Times Lit.* 15/10 '14.

They flourished together, they have rocked together in a war, which we, in spite of our enormous contributions and sacrifices, economically stood outside.

Keynes, *Economic Consequences of the Peace* p. 3.

1) The implication is, of course, that they are not read.

The quotation upon the title-page will give a hint of what Mr. de Sélincourt is at. *Times Lit.* 28/10, '15.

I expect that's what you're after.

Van Doorn, *Dramatic Conversations* p. 49.

Lord Hubert Dacey whom she ran across on the Casino steps . . . Wharton, *House of Mirth*.

For that is a limitation a man can't get beyond — to be of his time, completely.

Michael Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 3 p. 21.

Honor, the secretary, showed me the plan of the tables yesterday, and asked me whom I'd like to sit next. S. S. van Dine, *The Benson Murder Case*

ch. 18 p. 281.

The Ophelia was the boat Mrs. Grew was aboard.

W. le Queux, *The Forbidden Word* ch. 14 p. 64.

The cause of the necessity of this word-order is evidently that the preposition is necessary to complete the meaning of the verb. Indeed, it may be questioned whether *without*, *outside*, etc. should not be looked upon as adverbs, for they serve to modify the meaning of the verb, and do not make the noun into an adjunct.

2375. Sometimes the end-position is necessary to express a shade of meaning that depends upon connecting the preposition with the verb. The noun must be looked upon as a prepositional object.

His nieces used to try and count up how many beds he slept in during the year. *Life of Ainger*.

End-position of the preposition is naturally necessary when the pronoun also serves as the object of a verb without a preposition, or of verbs with different prepositions.

Christmas is the Festival of Birth which we can all understand and rejoice in. *Times Lit.* 23/12, '15.

And a person you can laugh at and with is inexhaustible. Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 24 p. 248.

a sub-clause is formed by the clauses of various types with *as*, which have already been discussed (2358 ff.). It is shown there that the exceptional place of *as* is only apparent, for in origin the clause begins with *as*, and this is still clear when we analyse the compound sentence from a logical point of view; the close relation of the nominal clauses of 2358 and the clauses of comparison is evident.

2380. When the main clause of a compound sentence is accompanied by a group of clauses, the conjunction sometimes stands alone, away from the clause it is connected with. An instance may be prefixed to the treatment of the reason for this order.

He never caught them in anything tangible but he knew *that*, when his back was turned, their eyes followed him.
Walpole, Fort. I ch. 7 p. 77.

In this sentence *that* serves to show that the *when*-clause has the following sub-clause for its leader, and is not dependent on the preceding main clause. It should be observed that an unconnected clause is impossible in such a case. It would have been possible if the *when*-clause came last; but this order would be undesirable because the *turning* preceded, indeed caused, the *following*.

The following sentences illustrate this word-order, both for clauses with *that* and with other conjunctions.

That evening about six o'clock Biscoe rang me up at my club. I remember *that*, when the page came into the billiard-room to say that I was being asked for on the telephone, I had just volunteered the pink ball.

Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea ch. 2 p. 24 f.

She was confident *that*, whatever he did, he would not return to the hotel with the car.

Priestley, Good Companions I ch. 5 § 2 p. 169.

On the evening under considération it would have

been noticed *that*, though the gloom had increased sufficiently to confuse the minor features of the heath, the white surface of the road remained almost as clear as ever.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 1 p. 8.

His lips were thin, and *though*, as it seemed, compressed by thought, there was a pleasant twitch at their corners now and then.

ib. I ch. 2 p. 10.

These general considerations may help us to see *why*, when medieval writers insisted upon the importance of lordship, and of kingship in particular, as the source of justice, they did not imply that they had any bias in favour of autocracy or absolute sovereignty.

Powicke, *Medieval Engl.* p. 200.

Order of Clauses

2381. With regard to the order of the clauses of a compound sentence it has already been remarked that subject clauses must precede their main clause. Also that predicate clauses follow their main clause. The apposition clauses and the attributive clauses follow the leading noun as nearly as possible.

Of the remaining clauses, the object and the adverb clauses, it may be said that if unconnected they are not free in their place: they must generally follow the main clause, except the adverb clauses of condition and concession with a special word-order, which always precede their main clause. For illustrations, see the sections on the structure of the compound sentence.

Object and adverb clauses with an introductory conjunction or pronoun are free in their place with respect to the main clause.

2382. Connected object clauses generally follow the main clause, but the opposite order is quite usual too. Front-position of the object clause makes it emphatic, as in the case of the objects of a simple sentence.

That he has done it I fully believe.

That he has done it I am fully convinced.

That he was dead, there could be no doubt.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 1 p. 2.

Where Van Hepworth is now, who knows?

Waugh, Loom of Youth III ch. 8 p. 246.

What we have we have only from manuscripts.

Observer 30/10, '21.

How different was the attitude of France, in spite of her troubled politics, there is no need to explain.

Times Lit. 19/10, '16.

What the harrows missed the others grubbed up with their fingers, advancing in a long, slow, straggling line behind them.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 1 p. 2.

What were his thoughts he uttered no word which might discover.

Hawthorne, Twice-Told Tales p. 7.

We had the best influences, and even in Minnebiac were never allowed to play with interesting children or in the street, *though* how we longed to on big, light, empty spring evenings after tea words can never tell.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 6.

Whether Eustacia was to add one other to the list of those who love too hotly to love long and well, the forthcoming event was certainly a ready way of proving.

Hardy, Native III ch. 5 p. 257.

Whether he were wise to trust so much to Northington and to Egmont, the reader by careful perusal of their letters may form his own judgment.

Correspondence of George III ed. Fortescue
(1927) I p. IV.

A special case of *that* being separated from its clause is shown by the following quotation.

It was evident *that* let who will fail, England will not.

Quoted by Karpf in Lit. blatt 1928 p. 416.

2383. The following sentence appears to be contrary to the statement that predicate clauses do not open a

compound sentence. Observe, however, that the main clause repeats the predicate, which causes the introductory clause to be somewhat like an apposition to the following sentence.

What Eastbourne is to the Duke of Devonshire, that
Tynemouth is to his Grace of Northumberland.

Escott, England I 53.

2384. Adverb clauses, like adverbs in a simple sentence, are very free in their place. Some must naturally precede, or follow, their main clause on account of their meaning. Thus, adverb clauses of manner will naturally follow (*Do as you are told*), because they depend upon a single element in the main clause; the same applies to clauses of comparison.

Clauses of reason will mostly precede, just as those of cause will generally follow; this explains why *as*-clauses of this type precede, those with *because* follow. Of course, this is not a law, as is shown by the following example.

Hilda hated domestic work, and because she hated it
she often did it passionately and thoroughly.

Bennett, Hilda Lessways I ch. 11 p. 7.

2385. Front-position of comparative adjuncts with *than* is quite exceptional, and purely literary ¹).

Than James Forsyte, notwithstanding all his
'Jonah-isms', there was no saner man.

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 6 p. 85.

2386. Adverb clauses may separate subject and predicate of the main clause, but only if the subject is a noun or a strong-stressed pronoun (*a*). The same applies to longer adjuncts not containing a predicative verb (*b*).

¹) This section should probably have been inserted in the chapter on the simple sentence, but compare 2408.

a. When he died, in 1870, Dickens was still at the height of his fame. The public idolized him, and critical readers, though they had a good deal to say against him, did not question his greatness. Bradley, *Reaction* p. 3.

Mr. Utterson, though he took charge of it now that it was made, had refused to lend the least assistance in the making of it. Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 15 f.

b. Indeed, extremists go the length of maintaining that attendance at a university tends to disqualify for work in the more rudimentary and utilitarian branches of school work, because it, in the colloquial phrase, "puts ideas into their heads." *Times* Ed. S. 21/8, '19.

Benjamin Haydon, in one of his too rare intervals of forgetfulness of his mission to surpass Michael Angelo, had a happy idea. *Times* Lit. 12/2, '20.

2387. An adverb clause can also separate the elements of a predicative verb group (*a*) or a verb and its object (*b*).

a. He would never, until his own end had come, forget that evening. Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 8 § 4 p. 95.

b. We neither admire, as we should, those who can make it its richest music, nor hate as we should those who debase and defile it. *Times* Lit. 23/9, '15.

LOOSE SENTENCE-GROUPS

2388. In the chapter on *Syntactic Groups* it has been shown that words are sometimes grouped in such a way that no element of the group can be considered as the leading member; such groups have been called *loose* groups. This grouping is also possible in the case of two or more sentences or clauses; we call them loose sentence-groups, or clause-groups.

The traditional name for this kind of grouping is *coordination*; there is little objection to this term as long as it is understood that the logical relation of the members of the group does not form the foundation of the distinction. It sometimes occurs, indeed, that we have loose grouping although there is logical subordination; these cases will be treated in the chapter on *Form and Function of Sentences*.

The classification of the loose word-groups can also be applied to the sentence-groups; we thus speak of *linked* and *unlinked* sentences (or clauses), and of *double*, *triple*, and *multiple* sentences (clauses). See 2026 ff.

And 2389. By far the commonest conjunction in loose groups is *and*, both in groups of sentences (*a*) and of clauses (*b*). The quotations show the use of *and* in double groups.

a. A month passed *and* the November gloom deepened: the skies were greyer than ever, the bare elm trees on distant landscapes grew blacker and colder *and* the grass became colourless and sodden.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 13 p. 112

Great winds blow over miles and miles of ling and bog and black rock, *and* the curlews still go crying in that empty air as they did before the Romans came.

Priestley, *Good Companions* p. 1.

Her husband was risking his life, so she was absolutely convinced, *and* she could do nothing.

Bennett, *Old W T.* II ch. 5 § 3 p. 227.

No, sir; I can make no hand of it; I can't describe him. *And* it's not want of memory; for I declare I can see him this moment.

Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 13.

The history of England in the middle ages has been written many times, *and* in this little book upon mediaeval England I do not intend to write it again.

Powicke, *Med. Engl.* p. 1.

b. That Portus Adurni is not Arundel, *and* that the name Adur for the river there is an eighteenth century antiquarian invention, have (*sic*) been conclusively shown by Professor Haverfield.

Oman, *Conquest* p. 169 (footnote).

It was plain that Mr. Oakroyd had very little to say *and* that it was not a subject that inspired him.

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 1 § 2 p. 17.

Miss Trant could have clapped her hands, just as she used to do when she was a little girl *and* as she had never thought of doing for years.

ib. I ch. 5 § 4 p. 197.

And to a boy of twelve years a beating is forgotten with amazing quickness, especially if it is a week of holiday *and* there have been other beatings not so very long before.

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 3 p. 26.

I am so glad you are finding things so much better *and* that Gerald has got the extra land he wanted.

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. 7 § 8 p. 455.

2390. *And* is further used in triple and multiple groups, both when they are full-linked (*a*), and when they are end-linked (*b*).

a. He goes to his club, *and* he goes to private views, *and* he sometimes goes out to tea, *and* he sometimes gets asked to a City dinner.

Squire Grub Street p. 3.

On the wharf, men in caps lent a hand with ropes and a gangway, contrived to spit ironically, as if they knew what all this fuss was worth, and then retired to group themselves in the background, like a shabby and faintly derisive chorus, *and* men in bowler hats arrived from nowhere, carrying dispatch cases, notebooks, bundles of papers, to exchange mysterious jokes with the ship's officers above; *and* two men in blue helmets, large and solid men, took their stand in the very middle of the scene and appeared to tell the ship, with a glance or two, that she could stay where she was for the time being because nothing against her was known so far to the police. Priestley, *Angel Pavement* p. 1.

b. (He) used sometimes in the middle of the morning's work to ask Peter how much he weighed, whether he'd ever considered taking up prize-fighting as a profession, *and* how much he measured across the chest.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 7 § 2 p. 78.

This cargo was so mixed that it included the man who now emerged from the saloon, came yawning on to the deck, *and* looked down upon Hay's Wharf.

Priestley, *Angel Pavement* p. ii.

Dusk was falling; the river rippled darkly; *and* the fleet of barges across the way was almost shapeless.

ib. p. vi.

Some of the street maps of the district omit it altogether; taxi-drivers often do not even pretend to know it; policemen are frequently not sure; *and* only postmen who are caught within half a dozen streets of it are triumphantly positive. *ib.* p. 1.

He had been her sweetheart, he was her husband; he had given her innumerable pleasures, had looked after her, had been patient with her, had always been fond of her; *and* she loved him and was proud of what seemed to her his cleverness. *ib.* ch. 2 § 2 p. 62.

2391. With regard to the meaning of *and* it is usually said to be 'copulative.' Perhaps it would be more instructive to call it *associative*; for it associates the two sen-

tences, without expressing the nature of the association. The meaning of *and* is cumulative in the first two examples of 2389. In the two that follow a contrast is thought of. The last quotation under *a* shows that it can also express a relation of result. All this depends upon the context or, in spoken English, on the situation.

With regard to the structure of the sentences linked by *and* it may be noted that in clause-groups the second must generally have a connective word, because this is the only formal means of showing that it is a clause, and not an independent sentence; see the last two quotations of 2389 under *b*.

2392. We sometimes find *and* at the beginning of a sentence so that it appears to be used in a different way.

"I wouldn't go on with that, Hilary. It's no use."
 Hilary said, "How do you mean, no use?"
And Peter told him.

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 10 p. 137.

Offering a strong, shapely hand, she looked at her visitor with a smile which betrayed some mixture of pain in the hearty welcome.

"*And* how long have you been in London?"

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

In the first sentence the associative character is quite plain. In the second quotation there are no words with which *and* connects what follows, for the words are spoken by way of greeting to a visitor; but *and* serves to express that the speaker picks up the thread of intercourse that had been interrupted for a couple of years. The effect of *and* in the last case is best proved by the attempt to read the sentence without *and*: it would change a friendly remark into a rude one, as if it were made by a policeman making inquiries.

But 2393. The use of *but* in double sentences and clauses is identical with its use in word-groups.

She affected to sew, but her eyes never left the street.

Hardy, *Ironies* p. 14.

He had come from the Baltic to the Thames, but it might just as well have been from any place to any other place.

Priestley, *Angel Pavement* p. ii.

The young man laughed, not because he thought this last remark very witty *but* because this passenger suddenly reminded him of a comedian he had once seen at the Finsbury Park Empire.

ib. p. v.

She did not actually tell lies, *but* she created an atmosphere in which every little occurrence was instantly distorted and magnified, like objects dropped into a glass tank full of water.

ib. p. 111.

Or 2394. *Or* is found in groups of sentences and clauses, in the same way as in word-groups, to express a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. It has the same function when it expresses an alternative by way of explaining or correcting a statement; see 2032 *b*.

He felt he must cling to his self-control *or* he would go mad.

Maugham, *Trembling of a Leaf* ch. 2 p. 16.

2395. The use of *nor* in sentence- and clause-groups is unusual in spoken English, just as in syntactic word-groups. The first member may be negative (*a*) or not (*b*).

a. Probably no two men of sound intelligence would dispute these truths. Nor perhaps can they be reiterated.

Times Lit. 21/9, 1917.

I could not do it then nor can I do it now.

Hardy, *Native IV* ch. 4 p. 340.

As to Bertie, one would have imagined from the sound of his voice and the gleam of his eye that he had not a sorrow or care in the world. Nor had he.

Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 19.

b. Such are the rocks that beset the course chosen by Professor Macneile Dixon for his Leslie Stephen Lecture. Nor does he altogether escape them.

Times Lit. 23/9, 1915.

His manner is both terse and distinguished, its dry humour is attractive, and it ranges both events and characters in perspective. Nor is its familiarity ever slipshod.

Times Lit. 4/11, 1915.

It was not likely or desirable that our educational system would escape the all-embracing spirit of criticism and transformation. Nor has it. Times Lit. 28/7, '21.

2396. We also find the conjunctive group *and nor*. It is too frequent to justify us in calling it a mistake, but it is no doubt the result of the artificial character of *nor*.

No, you don't, *and nor* do I.

R. Keable, *Recompence* ch. 10 p. 241.

He recked nothing of such a death, and nor would she.

Vachell, *The Triumph of Tim* p. 314.

What's the best, what's the worst? I don't know, and nor do you.

Rose Macaulay, *Told by an Idiot* (T) p. 6.

Gone — where I haven't the least idea, and nor do I care. Pamela Wynne, *Concealed Turnings* ch. 48 p. 243.

Neither **2397.** Two sentences (not clauses), if both negative, can be connected by *neither* (*a*). We also find *and neither, but neither*; in these groups *neither* should probably be interpreted as an adverb (*b*).

a. "But I don't want to seem eager." — "Neither do I," said Bessie with a little laugh.

H. James, *Daisy Miller* p. 185.

b. Mrs. Dersingham did not look a thorough mess, but neither did she look as attractive as she hoped she did. Priestley, *Angel Pavement* ch. 3 § 2 p. 110.

When Marcelle returned to the house she did not, as was usual, avoid her grandmother, but neither did she allude to her recent visitor. Peard, *Madame* p. 61.

I know nothing about it, and neither do you.

H. James, *Daisy Miller* p. 138.

Both . . . looked as if they had no money care in the world. And neither had they.

Belloc-Lowndes, *Mary Pechell* ch. 1.

For **2398.** The conjunction *for* is used to connect two sentences or clauses only. The reason is that *for* does not serve to connect two ideas but two thoughts, i. e. what is grammatically expressed by a combination of a subject and a predicate.

A little farther along, where there was more room, he was able to give them tongue, *for* he jostled an acquaintance, who turned round and recognised him.

Priestley, *Good Companions* I ch. 1 § 2 p. 6.

Some of them were interviewing the captain. Others were interested in Mr. Golspie, *for* they had to decide whether he was fit to land in the island of his birth.

id. *Angel Pavement* p. iv.

2399. The various conjunctions that have been mentioned may be found in the same sentence. It seems unnecessary to elaborate this point, and the following examples will suffice.

Turgis knew this, *or* perhaps only a hunter's instinct led him to where the game were thickest; *but* he did not visualise them, luckily for him, *for* the tantalising image would have driven him nearly to madness.

Priestley, *Angel Pavement* ch. 4 § 3 p. 170.

She gently removed it; *but* he placed it there again, *and* she yielded the point. Hardy, *Ironies* p. 7.

Conjunctive Adverbs **2400.** When a word refers back to what is expressed in a preceding sentence, it is necessarily in some degree a connective between the two sentences. This applies to all anaphoric pronouns and pronominal adverbs; it has been shown in the second volume in dealing with the special uses of *so* when opening

the sentence; see 1149. A number of adverbs are also used in this way, as has been pointed out in 1478. The conjunctive character of these words is clearest when they open the sentence, and this position seriously affects the meaning of many of the adverbs. Thus, *now* at the beginning of a second sentence, when used in a group, is not an adverb of time, but an explanatory connective, as in the following sentences.

A Demon possessed her. Now demons, whatever else they may be, are full of interest.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 115.

... Now I had no sooner cast my hat on the bed than the bell rang. Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. I § 1 p. 4.

It should be noted that the conjunctive adverbs with front-position are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by a clear pause. Two adverbs that have not been mentioned in 1478 may be added here.

Of course, she was badly frightened. *However*, she heard the king coming along the passage.

Kooistra and Schutt, *Reader II* p. 10.

And the sky was' a mere self-coloured sky... and wanted to make everything else as grey as itself. *Also* there came drifts of fine rain that wetted you through, and your umbrella wasn't any good.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 39 p. 418.

2401. A very important conjunctive group of the same character is *no more*. It is used in a sentence confirming a preceding negative statement (*a*), or to apply a negative statement to a new subject (*b*). Compare 434 and 439.

a. "They always set an English waiter at me. I suppose they think I can't speak French." — "No more you can." Henry James, *Daisy Miller* p. 115.

b. "... And I never saw a miserabler." — "No more did I," said Mr. Oakroyd.

Priestley, *Good Companions II* ch. 6 § 2 p. 413.

2402. Conjunctive adverbs are also used in the body of the second sentence; they are separated from the rest of the sentence by a clear pause (*a*). A peculiar place is occupied by *though*. It has been illustrated as a conjunction in sub-clauses in the preceding chapter. When it is used parenthetically, or at the end of a sentence, it connects two independent sentences (*b*.)

a. She seemed, *however*, pleased to see Stephen.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 6 p. 202.

Her innate respect and capacity for business, and perhaps *too*, the memory of Albert's scrupulous avoidance of extreme courses, prevented her from ever entering an impasse. Lytton Strachey, *Eminent Vict.* p. 301.

b. Some witch-doctors, *though*, are rascals.

Graphic 10/3, 1928.

It was in a note, but I've lost it. She told me what was inside *though*. Anstey, *Tinted Venus* (NED.).

"... I'm not pretending for one moment to be in love with her." — "She may be with you, *though*."

Beresford, *The Next Generation* (1932) p. 21.

"I've been in the study," said Holmes.

"Have you, *though*? You haven't been slow on the job if you only started this morning..."

Conan Doyle, *Strand Mag.* Febr. 1925 p. 116/2.

Unlinked Sentences **2403.** Sentences and clauses can also be completely unconnected in any formal way, and yet form a loose group. This use is again parallel to the unlinked loose word-groups, but unlinked sentences are not so common as the parallel syntactic groups. See below on unlinked groups of subjects, predicates, etc.

Manchester Road after a match had never seemed so narrow and airless; a chap could hardly breathe in such a crowd of folk. Priestley, *Good Companions* p. 5.

But as you look down on Bruddersford, you feel that it will do something about it, that it is only biding its time, that it will hump its way through somehow: the place wears a grim and resolute look. *ib.* p. 3.

The defence that she did not really want to see him, that his presence might bring on some bad attack, might excite her, was no real defence.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 7 § 2 p. 79.

She broke into tears. "I didn't like to show it to you before, John; you've disliked me writing so; I thought you might have stopped me from trying to get it published at all."

Squire, *Grub Street* p. 36.

A low laugh escaped her — the third utterance which the girl had indulged in to-night. The first, when she stood upon Rainbarrow, had expressed anxiety; the second, on the ridge, had expressed impatience; the present was one of triumphant pleasure.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 6 p. 71.

2404. Unlinked sentence-groups are often repetition-groups; see 2046 ff.

The sea changed, the fields changed, the rivers, the villages, and the people changed, yet Egdon remained.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 1 p. 7.

It would be foolish to claim a superiority for either of the two styles; it would be still more foolish to suppose that the effects of one might be produced by means of the other.

Lytton Strachey, *Books and Char.* p. 39.

Mixed Sentence-Groups **2405.** It is naturally possible for linked and unlinked sentence-groups to be combined.

His physical condition may have had something to do with it, for he was hot, dusty and tired; there had been a full morning's hard work for him at the mill; he had hurried through his dinner; walked to the ground, and had been on his feet ever since.

Priestley, *Good Companions* p. 5.

Broken and Continuous Groups

2406. In dealing with the loose syntactic groups we have seen that the double groups, especially those linked by *and*, frequently have the members of the group separated by

a pause, and that the unlinked groups are generally broken. Broken order is still more frequent in the case of sentence-groups; indeed, we can say that unlinked sentence-groups are always broken, and that of the linked ones it is only those with *and* that are sometimes continuous. English punctuation, though naturally not absolutely reliable, is on the whole a true guide to the relation of the members of the groups.

Structure of Clause-groups 2407. In a clause-group the first clause may be unconnected; the second member, however, must have a conjunction, because this is the only way to indicate its character, English making no difference between an independent sentence or a clause by means of word-order or similar grammatical means. Examples have been given in the preceding sections. See also 2258. On groups with *and*, see 2391.

Double Subjects, etc. 2408. In the preceding sections cases have been quoted of complete sentences forming groups. But it happens far more frequently that we have sentences with a double, triple, or multiple, subject, verbal predicate, object. It is often difficult in such cases to decide whether we have a syntactic word-group or should rather look upon the combination as a sentence-group. It is especially when a single word serves as a subject to various verbal predicates (with adjuncts or without) that the distinction between word-groups and sentence-groups is one of a purely formal nature.

Double (multiple) Predicative Verbs

We are told that they *had believed* that the sailing of the troops had been postponed owing to the mutiny, and *were caught* unprepared by the sudden arrival of the Romans. Oman, Conquest p. 62.

... (the robin's) bright, intelligent eyes were looking full at the other one, just beneath her, which she *had grown* in her body and *had hatched* with her warmth, and *was* her very own.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 22.

She munched chocolates, drank tea, ate little cakes, and coughed her way through two cigarettes; she laughed when the screen told her to laugh, stared mournfully when all was lost save love and the *vox humana* stop, shuddered and gasped and clutched at Inigo at all appropriate crises; and filled the duller intervals in the programme by flirting with him.

Priestley, Good Companions I ch. 6 § 3 p. 229.

He's the Duchess's doctor, has been for years.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrexhe ch. 1 § 4.

Parliament was, and from the reign of William III, had been to an ever greater degree, given up to place-hunting and intrigue.

Times Lit. 12/2, '20.

The Dynasts on the stage might, but probably will not, be a lesson to those who divide works of art into classes.

ib. 19/2, '20.

Strafford, the strong minister of a weak king, tried to govern without parliament, and failed. The long parliament tried to govern without a king, and failed.

Ilbert, Parliament p. 29.

Trade in Tewborough had nearly disappeared altogether, and it was quite obvious that it would never come back again, would always prefer other and pleasanter places. Priestley, Good Companions II ch. 6 § 1 p. 410.

Compare further the following sentences.

The Teutonic invader has left us no inscriptions earlier than the year 600: his British enemies hardly any, and those of the shortest.

Oman, Conquest p. 188.

Missionaries do not pass for a very agreeable class, nor martyrs for a very sensible class.

Morley, Compromise p. III.

Correlatives 2409. When two parts of a sentence (not two complete sentences) form a loose group, they can be linked by correlative groups, of which the first element may be looked upon as an adverb, the second as a conjunction. Such correlative groups are *both ... and, alike ... and, at once ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also), what with ... what with, what with ... and.*

The cowardly assailant was never discovered; but Mel was both gallant and had, in his military career, the reputation of being a martinet.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 2 p. 15.

No one knew better than Charles alike the patient's dominance and that secretive nature of his ...

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 6 p. 34.

The Polish question is at once one of the most urgent and the most difficult of those which will have to be settled at the end of the war. Times Lit. 23/2, 1917.

The local feuds and mutual recrimination to which this state of things gives rise are at once unfortunate and humiliating.

Escott, England I p. 122.

She had given up Auntie Hamps's house (of which the furniture had been either appropriated or sold) and gone to live with the Benbows.

Bennett, These Twain III ch. 10 § 7 (vol. 2 p. 280).

He neither explains away vices nor undersizes the virtues.

Times Lit. 4/11, '15.

Lucas neither spoke nor understood French — he had been at a great public school.

Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 8 § 1.

Neither Liberal leader nor Conservative could think of forming a Government unless he had a majority in the House of Commons.

Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

Mr. Pyke in this admirable volume not only describes the origin and growth of the law, but also endeavours to keep abreast of the recent authorities.

Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

Neither kings nor bishops nor the English at large wished for the bureaucratic episcopacy of the Roman Empire 1).
 Watson, Eng. Church p. 23.

... while he drifts to a bourne which he can neither choose nor escape nor foresee. Times Lit. 8/3, '23.

Richard was neither to go to school nor to college.
 Meredith, FEVEREL ch. 1.

And altogether, what with the caps and jackets of the men, the pretty coloured dresses of the women, the excited dogs, the moving boats, the white sails, the pleasant landscape, and the sparkling water, it is one of the gayest sights I know of near this dull old London town.
 Jerome, Boat ch. 7.

2410. As such words as *both* and *either* are also used as independent pronouns, it occasionally depends upon the context whether we must interpret them as members of correlative groups or not. In the following passage the interpretation of *both* in the last sentence would be impossible apart from the preceding sentence.

These M.P.'s and Peers (i.e. members of a Cabinet) are also Privy Councillors, and technically, therefore, the king's sworn "advisers"; but in fact they are selected by the parliamentary majority, and hold their offices only so long as they retain its confidence. They are both party leaders and high officers of state.

Low, British Const. p. 51.

2411. It has already been pointed out that it is difficult sometimes to classify combinations of parts of a sentence or of sentences that are linked by *as* or *than* (1479). In the sections on relative clauses and on clauses with *as* (2265 ff. and 2325) we have distinguished the continuative clauses for similar reasons. This explains why it may be

1) Note that *three* words are negated. Compare also: *It's neither fish nor flesh nor good red herring.*

uncertain in some contexts whether a group with *as* or *than* is to be looked upon as a subject or as an object; for it must be borne in mind that these elements of a sentence are not formally distinguished in English as they are distinguished in many of the better-known languages. An example may be the readiest way of explaining the difficulty. In a sentence like *I disliked John as much as my cousins*, there is nothing in the form of the sentence to indicate whether *my cousins* is a subject or an object. Now it may happen that the situation does not make all doubt in this respect impossible; in such cases a full sentence in the second part of the group prevents all ambiguity: *I disliked John as much as my cousins did*, or *I disliked John as much as I did my cousins*.

The fuller construction is naturally used very often without any thought of preventing a misunderstanding, or even of expressing oneself as exactly as possible.

The use of the auxiliary in the following quotations makes it clear that the noun in the second member of the comparison is a subject (*a*) or an object (*b*).

a. But this hard-headed and honest moralist . . . was at bottom as much a defender of the existing state of things as was Blackstone.

Dacey, *Law and Opinion* p. 73.

In matter and manner, if not in metrical form, his poetry has as little kinship with that of his immediate English predecessors as has the verse of Burns.

Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII, 1.

Paley sees far more clearly into the true nature of the then existing constitution than did Blackstone.

Dacey, *Law of the Const.* p. 9 footnote.

There is hardly anything that shows the shortsightedness or capriciousness of the imagination more than travelling does. Hazlitt, *Selected Essays* ed. Peacock p. 270.

b. Few agents have ever more thoroughly earned their

hire, or have served more niggardly masters than was
Harley. Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. IX, 12.

An example of the shorter construction may be added;
no reasonable doubt can exist as to its interpretation.

The surly cloak-room clerk handled the picture crates
as tenderly as a child.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 1 p. 31.

SPECIAL TYPES OF SENTENCE-STRUCTURE

2412. In the preceding chapters the most frequent types of sentence-structure in English have been treated: simple sentences, compound sentences, and loose sentence- or clause-groups. This classification of the actually existing types of sentence-structure is not exhaustive; there are a good many kinds of sentences, especially in conversational English, that do not conform to these types. A full discussion of these types might be linguistically instructive; there is no room for it in a handbook that aims at giving an insight into the whole of English words and sentences within what may perhaps still be called a 'reasonable' compass. A short treatment of the appended and the parenthetical sentences must therefore suffice; but a few specimens of the rarer types may be prefixed.

The following type is used when a speaker wishes to prevent a misunderstanding of his words.

Where is he staying now? Not that I care.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 9.

And consequently both the poetry and the prose of the time are restricted in their scope and temper to the artificial and romantic, to high-flown eloquence, to the celebration of love and devotion, or to the inculcation of those courtly virtues and accomplishments which composed the perfect pattern of a gentleman. *Not that* there was not both poetry and prose written outside this charmed circle. Mair, *Modern Engl. Lit.* p. 30.

The types in the quotations that follow are also quite current.

"Aye," said the old lady, "and it were good Mr. Tenement were the rector in those days, I remember, and he gave us a roaring discourse *many's the Sunday*."

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 § 2 p. 31.

"I should say *now*," she says after thinking it over, "that — only I never noticed it at the time, you know —"
 "That what?"

"That mamma knows Mr. Fenwick is spooney, . . ."
 de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 9 p. 79.

Come to think of it, this was not the only queer passenger he had had during the day.

N. Royde—Smith, *Incredible Tale* (1932) p. 35.

In the following sentence the clause with *whether* must be classified as an adverb clause, but it is not clear to which class it must be supposed to belong.

Cleopatra had threatened to murder the messenger, whether he spoke truth or falsehood.

Robbins, *The Press* p. 12.

Sometimes a sentence, though resembling a compound sentence, can hardly be so classed, because the second clause in the group is too independent of what precedes, and cannot be identified with an object clause.

Needless to say, many of them were slack, inefficient, or tyrannical. Powicke, *Med. England* p. 213.

2413. It sometimes happens that a speaker interrupts himself, whether in the course of a sentence, or of a series of sentences, to make a statement or an observation that may serve to make the situation, whether with regard to the subject or to the predicate of the sentence, clearer, or to add a comment that the speaker neglected to make beforehand, or wishes to make before he has completed his sentence. Such

Parenthetic Sentences

sentences have the structure of a simple or a compound sentence (often a shortened one) but are spoken with a different intonation from the rest; in print they are denoted by parentheses, whence their name *parenthetic* sentences.

I hold — and I am glad to say that he agrees with me — that it is better for Mr. Paradene to devote his money to the rearing and training of such a boy than to spend it on relatives who — may I say — have little future and from whom he can expect — pardon me — but small returns.

P. G. Wodehouse, *Bill the Conqueror* II ch. 4 p. 44.

Kitty's beauty (it goes without saying) dazzled him.

A. Bennett, *The Loot of Cities* (T.) p. 196.

The road (so called) led across the Biskra River (so called), and then in a straight line eastwards.

Bennett, *ib.* p. 200.

Now that money is coming in regularly again, not missing a week here and a week there, with rooms and meals to pay for all the time, it makes such a difference, gives you *Confidence* again — so that — touch wood ¹⁾ — things look altogether brighter.

Priestley, *Good Companions* II ch. 7 § 2 p. 445.

Yet now she was condemned — she sincerely believed through no fault of her own — to lead an existence full of sordid shifts.

Mrs. Belloc Lowndes, *Story of Ivy* ch. 2 p. 39.

His path had been marked out for him almost, it may be said, before his birth. *ib.* ch. 3 p. 43.

The parenthetic sentence is sometimes used to correct or excuse a word used or going to be used.

The last thing that would have occurred to his mind was that this lovely young fribble of a woman — for such was his oldfashioned expression — could be a secret poisoner. *ib.* ch. 13 p. 187.

1) An allusion to the belief that one can prevent a turn in one's favourable circumstances (by way of punishment of the gods for overconfidence) by touching wood.

There was yet another point which made this judicial drama appear, to use a phrase sometimes used in such a connection, "a full-dress trial." *ib.* ch. 15 p. 220.

She said something, I did not catch what, and I went downstairs . . . Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 3 p. 40.

2414. It sometimes occurs that a whole paragraph, occasionally of considerable length, is inserted parenthetically. An example will be found in Priestley's *Good Companions* II ch. 4 § 4 p. 368; it does not seem necessary to copy it, as the student will be able to find other examples in the course of his reading.

2415. Closely related to the parenthetic sentences are such as are added at the end; they are called *appended* clauses.

Appended
Clauses

It's past ten, I think.

I think just the reverse, you know.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 12 p. 145.

Self-sacrifice may be quite wrong, I'm afraid.

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

Take account of that, it is said, and you will at once see why Shakespeare and his contemporaries wrote a particular kind of verse, a special form of prose.

Edinb. Rev., April 1908.

And he's a dear himself, don't you think?

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 14.

2416. Such groups of sentences differ very little from compound sentences with an object clause when there is no connecting word: *I think it's past ten*, etc. The chief difference is that in the case of the appended clause there is a clear break between the two clauses, whereas the non-connected object clauses show none. It should also be observed that the order of the two clauses is different in the two cases, and that this affects the meaning of the whole sentence.

We have a different type of sentence when a subject

is repeated with an emphatic auxiliary to emphasize the speaker's conviction of the truth of his statement.

He liked brandy, Barty did.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 14.

See Volume 1 on these appended statements: 430.

2417. There are also sentences with an appended subject. As a rule the complete sentence precedes with a personal pronoun for its subject, and an appended noun-subject follows (*a*). The construction is really identical with the one in which the subject is added parenthetically (*b*).

a. He knew what he was talking of, that rugged old master of common sense. Gissing, Ryecroft.

She had really been rather wonderful, that strange Sylvia. Sinister Street, p. 1021.

"They've gone away, the demons," was what she said. ib. p. 1024.

It was a wonderful invention, the Universal Thrift Club. Bennett, Card ch. 7 § 1.

And sweet he'll look, that nice little Billy. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

"She's a nice girl — Barbara," said Graham thoughtfully. Cotes, ib. ch. 11.

She's such a decided character, dear Jane. Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

b. For it has a spirit, this brilliant palace, a spirit definite and single. Pilot 9/4, 1904.

They had all done so well for themselves, these Forstyes, that they were all what is called 'of a certain position'. Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

They were all there, the stout earls, each in his humour as he was painted, and many of the kings their masters. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 18 p. 205.

It will be noted that the appended nouns often have a demonstrative pronoun or a definite article to qualify them, except in the case of proper names. See 1113 ff.

2418. We have a different construction when a subject-pronoun is emphatically repeated. This may be compared with the appended statements at the end of 2416.

He was not going to be a snuffy schoolmaster, he.
Eliot, *Mill on the Floss* II ch. 1.

A similar construction is used as an expedient to express an emphatic negative. The sentence is frequently independent.

"Are you going to tell him?" "Not I."

2419. The appended subject may also be a verbal ing or a verb stem.

She said you were out. So it does not seem so very wonderful, meeting you here. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 23.

It must have been very pleasant, staying at the Hall.
Gaskell, *Wives* II p. 19.

It gets more and more uphill work, cheering these two women. Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 4 § 2.

It was unfortunate, her choosing of that phrase.
Temple Thurston, *City* III ch. 10.

2420. When a noun-subject is added without any break, the construction is different in so far as the sentence is undoubtedly simple.

He was a curious creature this husband of hers.

Mackenzie, *Sylvia Scarlett* ch. 7 p. 201.

It was a great nuisance this war.

Id., *Sylvia and Michael* p. 61.

It was a hard, cruel place this world — and all the little ditches and hollows of the wood were sunning with brown, stealthy water.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 7 § 2 p. 81.

It was too agitating the sight of it just then.

D. C. Jones, *Everlasting Search* II ch. 7 p. 193.

I thought the English were stiff; but it's wonderful the way you ~~make me~~ feel at home.

Galsworthy, *Silver Spoon* I ch. 4 p. 30.

He said it was very funny the way in which the penguins used to waddle right through him.

Wells, *Country* p. 94.

You can talk, you can say a lot. But it's artificial the whole of it. Walpole, *Duchess of Wrexhe* ch. 1 § 4.

2421. With the verbal ing this construction without a break is more common than with a break (*It's no use asking John*); with the verb stem (*It's no use to ask John*) there is never a break.

It is usual to call *it* a *provisional* pronoun in this construction, and thus to separate it from the sentences with an appended subject. The 'provisional' *it* is also used when a clause follows: *It is quite likely that he will refuse*. A conjunctive *that* is frequently used, but it is also often absent. See 1003 ff.

If this system of analysis were applied more generally we should say that the subject of a sentence with a group-passive for its predicate is its logical object, etc. There is some reason in this, no doubt; it seems quite certain, however, that the method would not contribute to clearness of grammatical discussion. The interpretation, moreover, tends to suggest that the construction with a formal *it* and a verb stem, an ing, or a clause to qualify the predicate, is identical in meaning with the use of these verbal forms, or of a clause, as the grammatical subject of the sentence; it must be shown that this conclusion is a mistake.

2422. If the interpretation mentioned were exact, we should expect the reversion of the elements of a sentence with provisional *it* to make no difference except one of emphasis. But this is not the case; in many sentences such a change is even quite impossible. It will be most convenient to take some examples.

1. It is a commonplace to say that the British are a people of mixed blood. Trevelyan, *Hist. of Engl.* p. 1.

2. *To invade Britain* was singularly easy before the Norman Conquest, singularly difficult afterwards. ib.

In both of these cases it would be grammatically possible to substitute the alternative construction: *To say, etc. is a commonplace; It was singularly easy, etc.* But in both cases the alternative would fail to convey the meaning intended: in the first sentence of the original text the introductory part is a sort of excuse for saying what has already been said so often. If *to say* were made the grammatical object, the sentence would make us expect a sentence with a different statement about the British by way of contrast. In the second sentence the structure of the sentence is necessary to bring out the contrast.

The alternative construction would hardly be admissible in the following sentence.

It is not my purpose to describe pre-insular Britain and the great geological changes . . .

Trevelyan, l. c. p. 2.

The reason is that the verb stem is rather an adjunct of purpose than a 'logical' subject here. Similarly in the following sentences.

It needs no great sagacity to see that the writer is a novice at his task. Times Lit. 9/2, 1928.

As I replenished the fire with wood, of which I always gathered in an abundance before darkness came, it puzzled me much to account for this.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 14 p. 108 f.

It may also happen that the alternative is in no way possible.

For he was so tired that he had never known before what it was to be tired at all.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 8 § 2 p. 224.

It was not in Stanley to appreciate the peculiar flavour of the Moretons, etc. Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 4.

2423. An examination of provisional *it* with a verbal ing will lead us to the same conclusion. The ing is often clearly an adjunct to the predicate, as in the following two sentences.

I only meant that if Lady Doleford seemed to like me better it would be pleasanter meeting her in society.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 22 p. 237.

"Is it bad for you talking to me?" at last he said, gruffly, "ought I to go away?"
Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 8 § 3 p. 94.

The appositional character is sometimes quite evident although there is no break.

"I must go now. It has been bad for you this talking, but it had to be..."
ib. p. 94.

The following case may finally be quoted.

The vinery was of their own designing, and of extraordinary interest. In contemplation of its lofty glass and aluminium-cased pipes the feeling of soreness left her. It was very pleasant, standing with Gerald, looking at what they had planned together.

Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 12 p. 145.

In this quotation *it* might be interpreted as an anaphoric pronoun, and the ing as an adverb adjunct expressing attendant circumstances, but it must be granted that the ing has no proper 'subject' in that case.

2424. What has been said of the construction with a verb stem or an ing applies also to the provisional *it* with a sub-clause in the predicate. In many cases the clause is an object to a group-passive as in these cases.

Well, it's our hope that they may be able to.
Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 8.

It was ascertained beyond doubt that the new dress had not suffered. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 1 § 2.

It may have been observed that there is no regular

path for getting out of love as there is for getting in.

Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 5.

It is usually assumed that our megalithic pioneers dwelt upon this hilly country for the twin purposes of avoiding the forested lowlands and swamps and of securing good pasturage for their crops.

Massingham, *Pre-Roman Britain* p. 7.

The use of the auxiliary in clauses dependent upon such sentences as *it is absurd*, etc. as instanced in 709 f. seems to require the interpretation that is proposed here.

2425. Cases such as those quoted in 2422 above make it clear how the verb stem when used as an adverb adjunct came to be used as a subject (with a 'provisional' *it*, or not). It is also well-known how slight a shifting of the verbal idea is sufficient for the final verb stem to turn into an object (298 f.). This explains why some verbs may have the *ing* as well as the verb stem.

He did not intend to tell her that he was going to ride in a race. Garvice, *Staunch as a Woman* p. 241.

The summer was well advanced and most people who intended going out of Town had already left. *ib.* p. 211.

The adverbial origin of the stem as a subject or object is also the reason why it always has *to*, and why it differs from the *ing* in not being used when a break separates the non-predicative verb from the predicate¹).

It is also worth noting that the subject of the *ing* with provisional *it* can be expressed by the indefinite case of a noun or by a personal as well as a possessive pronoun, whereas the *ing* as a subject at the beginning of the sentence requires a genitive and a possessive (not a personal) pronoun.

¹) It may be pointed out that in colloquial Dutch the infinitive with the subject *het* generally takes *om te* instead of *te*: *Het is moeilik om dat te begrijpen* (It is difficult to understand that).

2426. An appended noun- or pronoun-object is not so common as the construction with an appended subject.

She's a real little fool. I have it from good authority,
that. Emily Brontë, *Wuthering Heights* ch. 12.

There is nothing I could not afford to forget in the
past, no one thing the loss of which could alter her in
the least, that little monkey of a daughter of mine!
de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 10 p. 94.

The constructions with a 'provisional' *it* and a verbal
ing, a verb stem, or a clause have been treated in the
first volume; they are parallel to provisional *it* as a subject.

2427. Both subjects and objects may be put at the
head of the sentence, and be referred to by an anaphoric
personal pronoun; they do not form part of the structure
of the sentence, and may be said to be prefixed to it.

To have impressed Mr. Enwright — by Jove, it was
something! Bennett, *Roll-Call* I ch. 8 § 4.

This masked figure that you saw, did you recognise it?
Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*.

"That car . . . I suppose it will be all right there?"
Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 8.

2428. We have a very different type of sentence when
the subject is immediately followed by a personal pronoun
repeating it: The construction is common in familiar Eng-
lish; in poetry it emphasizes the popular character of the
narrative poem.

Dr. MacColl he's been 'phoned for.
de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 46 p. 498.

The pebbles, they were smooth and round
And warm upon my hands
Frances Cornford, in *Poems of To-Day* I p. 2.

In summertime on Bredon
The bells they sound so clear;
Housman, *Shropshire Lad* 21.

Direct Style **2429.** Parenthetic and appended clauses are very frequent in sentences serving to repeat a person's words or thoughts directly. Inversion of the subject and the verbal predicate is usual when the clause contains a noun-subject and a simple verb expressing a general meaning, such as *to say*, *to write* (*a*). When the verb has more meaning and weight, such as *to murmur*, *to stammer*, or is compound: *to put in*, *to go on*, the subject generally precedes (*b*), although inversion is not infrequently found (*c*). Inversion is also less common with pronoun-subjects (*d*).

a. "I have no words," writes Macaulay, "to tell you how I pine for England."

"So long as I have lived," wrote Alfred in later days, "I have striven to live worthily." Green, Short Hist.

"But I thought you said they were twins," said the Queen.

b. "There's virtue somewhere, I see, Thompson!" Sir Austin murmured. Meredith, Feverel.

c. They are putting out a boat; but it is no use in such a sea. And then they don't know the rocks and the danger in landing, went on the old man.

"Everybody looks through their own particular tint of glasses. Some see life bright and rosy, to others it appears grey or black," put in mother.

A. Kenealy, Thus Saith Mrs. Grundy p. 26.

d. "That's your point of view," said she calmly, indicating that there might be another.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 22 p. 239.

The parenthetic character of the clause accompanying the quotation is sometimes shown by the form of the verb, thus weak [s d] in Sweet's transcriptions: [ai nou, sɪd ned; . . .] *Pr. of Spoken English* p. 51. See *ib.* p. 55.

2430. The inverted order is invariable with the archaic past tense *quoth*, often preceding the quotation; also with *to say* in facetious use, both in prose and poetry.

Quoth the King: My ships are chosen each one,
But I'll not say nay to Stephen's son.

Rossetti, *The White Ship*.

2431. The normal order is almost invariable when the subject is a personal pronoun (*a*). It is usual when the subject is a noun and the predicate contains a group-verb, or has an object (*b*).

a. "But here," I added hastily as Towse (the servant) loomed in the doorway, "is the tea-cake, and here — that's splendid — is Graham." Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 12.

b. "Stop boy!" the baker called out. "It's not enough."
"Oh, you women, you make such a fuss over everything,"
Uncle Podger would reply. Jerome.

"I shall be pleased to come," Dick answered him pleasantly.

2432. When a personal pronoun is stressed owing to contrast or some other cause, it may naturally have end-position.

"Davidson!" cried I. "What's the matter with you?"
He turned round. "Waves," he said.

"What's up, man?" said I.

"Bellows ¹⁾ again!" said he. Wells, *Country* p. 88.

2433. The continuative clauses that have been treated in the sections on the attributive and the adverb clauses are sometimes closely related to, indeed, hardly distinguishable from parenthetical or appended clauses.

At the end of the walk, *which was Wimbledon Common*,
I sat on the grass in the sun . . .

Mackenzie, *Men of the Sea* ch. 2 p. 24.

So if I ask you, *as I do*, to make that journey, I

1) the other speaker's name.

hope you may accomplish it in a moment and yet not arrive too much out of breath.

John Bailey, Question of Taste p. 5.

An index has been added, the pagination, *as will be seen*, being continuous throughout. In Praise of Oxford II Preface.

The languid dulness of their mamma did not, *as it may be supposed*, awake much affection in her little daughter.

Thackeray, Vanity Fair.

The following quotations also illustrate what may be called parenthetical clauses.

Even in morning dress he unconsciously contrived, *born actor as he was*, to have something unusual about him.

Ward, Dickens p. 87.

A few months after Andersen — *poor little forlorn adventurer that he was* — left that city.

Gosse, Northern Studies.

FORM AND FUNCTION OF SENTENCES

2434. In analysing sentences it is usual, and proper, to consider *form* first, *function* in the second place. Sometimes form and function disagree so completely that both must be considered. We have already seen (1485 ff.) that the leading noun of what looks like an attributive clause sometimes forms part of the subordinate clause, so that it may be looked upon as part of a conjunctive group. In a similar way we may interpret the following sentence as containing an object clause introduced by *all that*, rather than an attributive clause depending upon *all*¹).

It is difficult to realize all that publishers like Aldus Manutius, in Erasmus's earlier literary career, and John Froben, in his later life must have meant to him.

Times Lit. 23/11, '22.

Besides these cases we can distinguish the following groups of sentences showing disagreement between form and function:

1. apparent simple sentences, which are double or compound in function.
2. apparent compound sentences which are simple or double sentences in their function.
3. apparent coordinate sentences or parts of sentences.
4. apparent sub-clauses which have the function of independent sentences.

1) Compare *alwie*, *alwat* in Dutch.

Apparent Simple Sentences

2435. Sentences with free adjuncts have been treated as simple sentences. But the absence of a-predicative verb is not really a final test in deciding whether we have a real sentence (2120 ff.), and as far as function goes the free adjuncts may very well be considered to be parts of a double or compound sentence. When the relation between a free adjunct and the rest of the sentence is one of attendant circumstances, the whole may be considered a double sentence; a very good instance is the following: *But Mr. W. did not come, the explanation doubtless being that he was mad* (Bennett, *Card* ch. 8 § 3). In other cases it is rather a compound sentence; see 2090 ff.

2436. We have a similar case in sentences with some adverbs. In the sentence *Unfortunately he could not speak a word of German* the adverb *unfortunately* does not qualify any part of the sentence, nor does it qualify the sentence as a whole, but it expresses an independent thought: *It was unfortunate*. These adverbs have been called *sentence-adverbs*.

It is impossible to say whether sentences with such adverbs are double or compound sentences. When they are connected by *and* the effect may be that of a parenthetical sentence.

He has protested, and rightly, against the inability of biographers, notoriously Macaulay, "to conceive of conduct except as either right or wrong". *Times Lit.* 10/2, '21.

2437. Another type of what is formally a simple sentence, because there is only a single predicative verbal form, is instanced by the following quotations.

There was a fellow in the Park just broken his wife's head in. *Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 6 § 2 p. 303.*

I don't suppose there's any girl in London been so wrapped in cotton wool all her life.

ib. III ch. 7 p. 307.

Apparent Compound Sentences

2438. Among the sentences that are compound in form but contain two independent sentences as far as function is concerned, the continuative attributive and adverb clauses have already been discussed. The following examples need no comment.

The children would have been juster, as they were kinder.

Times Lit., 12/4, '18.

This difficulty is only increased if, as does Professor Moore, we date the composition of the Homeric poems as late as 800—750 B. C. History IV no. 14, p. 62.

As every man was a judge, so every man was a soldier.

Gardiner and M., Introd. p. 18.

But let it not for an instant be doubted that they were nice kind-hearted, well-behaved, and delightful girls! Because they were. They were not angels¹).

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 2.

If he strengthened the king's hand, his relation to the king gave him strength.

Gardiner and M., Introd. p. 33.

The next day George Featherly went with me to the station, where I took a ticket for Dresden.

Hope, Zenda ch. 2.

Then she surged swishing along the corridor and went into the showroom, whither she had been called.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 3.

"Well!" cried Constance. "Did you ever see such a thing?"

While Sophia, short of adequate words, flushed and bit her lip.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 2.

1) The coordinate function of *because* is also shown by the fact that it can be used as an adverb.

Why Peetickay? I am afraid the only answer is Because. Because it cannot be anything else. W. Perrett, Peetickay p. 45.

The rapid growth of an unlimited reading public in India, while it encourages indigenous talent, also provides an ample circle of readers and buyers of good works by European or American authors.

History IV no. 14 p. 73.

It is in style the most perfect, as it was in respect of influence the most effective of Mill's writings.

Dacey, Law and Opinion p. 423.

If in this matter Mr. Belloc's book is disappointing, it is equally unsatisfactory in regard to another and even more important matter. Times Lit. 30/3, 22.

I must have stared upon it for near half a minute, sunk as I was in the mere stupidity of wonder.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

2439. The interpunction, as well as the meaning, in the following passage shows that in the first sentence *because* is a coordinating, in the last a subordinating conjunction. Note also that in the first case we have semi-indirect style.

The day sanctioned by custom in the Five Towns for the making of pastry is Saturday. But Mrs. Baines made her pastry on Friday, because Saturday afternoon was of course a busy time in the shop. It is true that Mrs. Baines made her pastry in the morning, and that Saturday morning in the shop was scarcely different from any other morning. Nevertheless, Mrs. Baines made her pastry on Friday morning instead of Saturday morning because Saturday afternoon was a busy time in the shop.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 1.

The character of *because* as a coordinating conjunction is clear in the following sentences.

The world was very silent, and the snow lay on the round cobbles of the steep street with a bright shining whiteness against the black houses and the dark night sky. Treliss' principal street was deserted; all down the hill red lights showed in the windows and voices could be heard, singing and laughing, because on Christmas Eve there would be parties and merrymakings.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 2 p. 15.

... and she woke up and talked incessantly, because she was garrulous by Nature and didn't care in the least to whom she talked. ib. I ch. 3 p. 31.

Miss Trant said nothing because there did not seem to be anything suitable to say.

Priestley, *Good Comp.* I ch. 5 § 2 p. 171.

"I got the flat one, with the elbows, in a quiet corner," said Sally, "and told him Jeremiah was only step. Because they all shouted at once, so it was impossible to make them hear in a lump."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 196.

The use of *so* in the last quotation makes it necessary to interpret *because* as coordinating; other examples of coordinating *because* are frequent *ib. e. g.* ch. 1 p. 1 (*Because his remark*); ch. 7 p. 56 (bottom); ch. 12 p. 106; ch. 36 p. 390.

Another case of coordination by a conjunction that is generally, and correctly, classed as subordinating is shown in the following sentence.

Her supercilious attitude attracted while it infuriated him. E. Ph. Oppenheim, *A People's Man* ch. 24 p. 162.

It is perhaps hardly necessary to observe that the distinction between coordination and subordination is a relative one, allowing of intermediate cases. The following quotation may be added, showing as it does an example where the interpretation of *because* as a coordinating conjunction would change the sentence into an absurd statement.

Dogs like fighting; old Isaac says they 'delight' in it, and for the best of all reasons; and boys are not cruel because they like to see the fight.

Brown, in *Sel. Short Stories* I p. 414.

2440. Sentences like *Hardly did he see me when he ran out of the room* or *No sooner did he see me than he ran out of the room* are, no doubt, compound sentences. But what is formally the sub-clause (because introduced

by a conjunction) is not a part of the rest of the sentence (the main clause). On the contrary, the opening clauses of both sentences, although not containing the conjunction, are in function adverb clauses of time. In these cases, too, we have a contrast between form and function. The contrast is clear in these sentences:

But Providence is nothing if not coquettish; and no sooner had Eustacia formed this resolve than the opportunity came which, while sought, had been entirely withholden. Hardy, *Native II* ch. 3 p. 144.

It is scarcely light in the morning before the small wren pours out his sharp bright lyric outside my window. Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 1 p. 3.

Clauses with *as*, too, are sometimes rather to be interpreted as the main clause as far as function goes, whereas the apparent main clause is subordinate. See 2438.

As Mr. Rhys truly says, it is unnecessary to go profoundly into the history and origin of the essay. Times Lit. 30/11, 22.

2441. It may also happen that a sentence that has completely the appearance of a compound sentence serves to make a simple statement or wish. This is shown by the following instances.

And after a minute I'm blest if she didn't lift her hand and stroke the old woman's cheek.

Royde-Smith, *Incredible Tale* (1932) p. 36.

Suppose we went to one of the Non-Conformist churches. Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 68.

A very important type of this class of sentences are some of those that are introduced by *It is* (*was*, etc.). But sentences opening with this phrase may very well be genuinely compound, so that it will be necessary to deal with them somewhat more fully.

2442. The first point to be considered is whether *it* expresses a meaning or not. It may be used anaphorically; in such cases there is no contrast between the form of the sentence and the functions of the two clauses. A single example may be considered more than sufficient, both of *it* referring back (*a*), and of *it* referring to what follows (*b*).

a. A sound came of footsteps on the stairs — footsteps without voices. It was Fenwick and Sally, who had passed through the street-door . . .

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 24 p. 262.

b. It may have been that the porter at York railway station was irritated by Sunday duty, or it may have been that the outward signs of wealth in his client were not conspicuous; whatever the cause, he spoke rudely to her.

Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives I* p. 7.

It also seems unnecessary, after the discussion on provisional *it* in 2421 ff., to explain that these sentence-types must be excluded from the present discussion.

2443. When *it* is a formal subject, it may occur that the predicative form of *to be* expresses a meaning or not. When an adjunct (or clause) of time or place is given front-position, the verb may often be said to express 'to happen,' as has been shown in dealing with the verb in the first volume. Examples of this type of *it-is*-clauses are the following.

It was not, however, for a generation after the first landing that the Saxons advanced from the Itchen and the Test to the capture of the hill fortress of Old Sarum.

Mackinder, *Britain and the British Seas* p. 201.

Also how Gerry had then told eagerly how he was nearly drowned once, and Arthur fished him up from the bottom of Abingdon lock. The latter went on: It was after that we tattooed each other, his name on my arm, my name on his, so as not to quarrel . . .

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 12 p. 120.

She woke next day fairly at ease in her mind, but feeling as one does after any near-run escape. And then it was she said to herself that she was a good actress.
ib. ch. 9 p. 88.

I went to bed. And it was after I was deeply submerged in dreams that I awoke with a start, for someone seemed to be telling me to get up and dress.

Ernest Raymond, *Tell England* II ch. 2 § 2 p. 264.

It is not often we have snow in the middle of May.
Sweet, *Element.* no. 62.

The landlord regarded her with surprise and scorn. It was the first time that his daughter had ventured to express herself so unmistakably.

Gissing, *The Pig and Whistle* p. 292.

2444. Again another type, with an *it* that is not formal but refers to a person, is found in the following quotations that illustrate what may be called the descriptive type. What is formally the main clause might be a nominal predicate in the usual sentence type.

If so, we may be sure that they will be very unlike the shibboleths of nineteenth century Liberalism, but it would be a very bold prophet who would venture to guess what they will be.

Inge, *Edinb. Rev.* Oct. 1926 p. 342.

(compare: A man who would venture, etc.
would be a very bold prophet).

It was no mean gathering of souls that Mrs. Brockett's dingy gas illuminated.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 1 § 2 p. 155.

It would be an inhuman boy who kept a diary without confiding to it some disparaging references to the masters; but these the reader must reconcile himself to dispense with.

Times Lit. 16/6, 27 p. 423/2.

It is a very devoted, rather simple-minded young woman who is writing: of that there is no doubt at all.

Times Lit. 20/12, 28 p. 997/4.

An excellent chapter in volume V is Mr. Tod's on

the economic background. It was a luminous choice which put him in charge of this section, for he has the first two qualifications for the task . . .

Engl. Hist. Rev. Jan. 1929 p. 119.

It may be observed here that English also uses the pronoun *he* in these descriptive sentences; there does not seem to be any difference of meaning between the two constructions, but the type illustrated in the sentences that follow is hardly so current and genuine as the one with *it*. See 1565.

Nowadays the line is clearly drawn: it is easy to tell which appointments are political and which administrative. Perhaps such a line may always have existed; he would be a bold man who tried to draw it before the reign of Edward II. Engl. Hist. Rev. Jan. 1929 p. 130.

. . . and the best that we find in our travels is an honest friend. He is a fortunate voyager who finds many. Stevenson, Donkey p. IX.

He must be a stiff, ungodly, Protestant who can take anything but pleasure in this kind and hopeful story. *ib.* p. 68.

2445. We have a very different construction when the introductory *it is* (*was*) is completely without any meaning and serves to give front-position to some part of the sentence that can easily be interpreted as a simple one, and can easily be replaced by a simple sentence conveying the same meaning. A sentence like: *It is thus that young men occasionally design to burst from the circle of the passions* (Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 18 p. 184) does not really differ in sense from *Thus young men occasionally*, etc. The following quotations illustrate this type of sentence-structure. They may be arranged according as the sub-clause takes *that* (*a*), or *where* (*b*), or has no connective (*c*). In the last quotation the type gives front-position to a sub-clause (*d*).

a. It was from a monastery that sounded forth the voice which, when all others had been hushed, still continued that tale of our national history in our old national speech. Gardiner and M., Introd. p. 51.

She said that it was not every day that she could write. Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 15 p. 243.

It is when he looks to the future that we find him least satisfactory. Times Lit. 4/10, 18.

b. Yet it was in Venner's office where Michael found the perfect fruit of time's infinitely fastidious preservation, the survival not so much of the fittest as of the most expressive. Sinister Street, p. 636.

Where she, Kitty, loses by comparison is in simplicity of nature. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 11 p. 126.

Where the French were really important was in their ideas and in the forms of their poetry.

Ker, Engl. Lit. p. 16.

c. Dearest Lucy, what is it makes your head ache so often now? Trollope, Framley ch. 26.

It was a priest told me to come here.

Sinister Street, p. 257.

d. It was only when Oswald was within two days' journey of Luba Fort upon Lake Victoria Nyanza that his letters reached him.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 6 § 1 p. 126.

2446. When the word that is given front-position by *it is*, is a noun, the clause resembles an attributive clause. Hence we often find a relative pronoun in this case. See 1052*b* and 1076*b*:

In all their walks it had been Michael who flashed the questions, she who let slip her answers.

Sinister Street, p. 457.

"It's not usually the wife who decides where to live", said he. Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 4 p. 41.

Of a similar kind are the sentences with an introductory *there is*; see 2293.

2447. It is usually explained that the introductory *it is* serves to emphasize some element of the sentence. But it must be considered that the same result could often be obtained by giving front-position to the wordgroup without any *it is*. And the two constructions are not identical in their functions¹).

When we try to define the effect of the introductory phrase, the best way to distinguish it from simple front-position of a sentence-element is to consider it as serving to *identify* as well as emphasize. This identifying function of *it is* is sometimes very apparent; it also explains why the construction can be conveniently used when a contrast must be expressed. The following quotations seem to instance this *contrasting* function.

But it was by day that our lane attained to any real interest for a student of such things.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 p. 1.

And it was not only nests, but everything in Nature that seemed to catch his eye.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 1.

... and it is not always the most faithful believer who makes the cunningest apostle.

Stevenson, Donkey p. 90.

Mr. Trevelyan's "deliberately" contradicts Hazlitt's "involuntarily," but it is Hazlitt who is the better psychologist.

Times Lit. 10/9, 1925.

The following sentences show that the introductory phrase can be negated.

It was not of the books that Peter was thinking this morning.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 2 p. 162.

'Owever it isn't out of doors you ought to be sitting, chucky.

ib. II ch. 8 § 2 p. 225.

1) Compare the following sentence with the same with *it is* prefixed.
Padlock's omnibus they came in.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 29 p. 310.

The construction can also occur in a sub-clause.

I forget whether it is next Monday, or Monday week
the holidays begin. Sweet, Element no. 43.

See 2188.

2448. The character of these sentences as essentially simple seems to be the reason why we must use the personal pronoun in a case like the following, where the nominative ought to be possible if the introductory element were a real sentence functionally.

Leave him alone. It's me you must punish.

Dane, Bill of Div., in Brit. Pl. p. 689.

That child in the next room — it's her I want to
talk about. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 24 p. 245.

On the other hand *I* is used when it serves as the subject of the sub-clause (*a*), although in familiar English *me* is also possible (*b*); see 966 ff.

a. You would probably make a very poor choice. It
is I who should be consulted, not you.

Wilde, Ideal Husband Act iii.

It's I who have failed.

J. Erskine, Galahad ch. 10 p. 69.

b. I think it's me that should ask instead of you
asking me. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 3 § 1 p. 50.

We must similarly account for *rarely*, as an adjunct to the verb in the sub-clause, in the following.

... and that where publishers and booksellers are
legion it is so rarely that we *hear* of one of them going
bankrupt. Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 6.

A man succeeds, in four cases out of five, because of
what is in him, by unflagging adhesion to his plan of
life, and not by reason of outside help or luck. It is
rarely that he *need* be afraid of shouldering an extra
burden to help either himself or a neighbour.

Haldane, Addresses p. 112.

2449. It has already been shown that the clause dependent upon *it is* may be unconnected (2445c, and in the last sentence from Walpole in 2447). The construction is freely used in familiar English.

It was then Christina had told him how she had inherited a small legacy, sufficient for him to purchase a mill. Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. p. 39.

And it was then Sally went upstairs and indicted her friend for sitting on that sofa after calling him a shop-boy. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 12 p. 121.

It was young Benjamin's father said these words to the veteran in charge of the pier-turnstile.

ib. ch. 44 p. 488.

It was not till three or four nights later the thought came to Livvy that perhaps some misfortune had overtaken Luke in the wood. A. St. John Adcock,

The Judas Tree ch. 8 p. 86.

It was to the market town of Buckingham she went, six or seven miles away. ib. III ch. 1 p. 199.

In the following case the front-clause ends in the strong-stressed demonstrative *that*.

"Now, Gerry, was it that made you so glum on Monday when you came back? I recollect quite well. So would Sally."

"Oh no; it was uncomfortable at first, but I soon forgot all about it. I recollect what it was put me in the dumps quite well. It was a long time after the cabby." de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 25 p. 267.

2450. The following sentences show closely related constructions, which do not seem to require any comment.

a. And as that ring may fall, Iris, so you may fall, for *that's* the sort of woman you are.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 3 p. 38.

"Men are beasts, beasts," she said, scowling at a gap in the side of one of her boots, "beasts, *that's* what they are." Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 8 § 2 p. 225.

Whom was that you were speaking with, Sir Ector?

John Erskine, *Galahad* ch. 7 p. 51¹⁾.

b. I s'pose you've made your will. I s'pose you've left your money to the family; you've nobody else to leave it to. There was Danson died the other day, and left his money to a hospital. Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 1.

c. After all, funny wasn't what it really was.

Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. 7 p. 93.

Apparent Coordination

2451. It is not always possible to decide whether we have a double sentence or a simple sentence with a double subject or predicate (2408). The following two sentences show how gradually one construction passes into the other.

He is a nice man, Tom Granger.

He is a nice man, is Tom Granger.

The second sentence may be formally considered to be a double sentence, although in function it is as much a simple sentence as the first. The same applies to the cases of repetition of the auxiliary (425 f.) as instanced by these two sentences:

John can do it, cannot he?

I've been kind to you, have I?

2452. In the chapter on *Loose Syntactic Groups* it has already been shown that there may be a contrast between the form and the function of these groups; they sometimes contain a dominant member, like the close groups, see 2060—3. We have also seen, in the chapter on *Loose Sentence-Groups*, that the line between loose groups of sentences and word-groups cannot strictly be drawn. In the following sections, therefore, some cases will be quoted that might, or should rather, be classed as syntactic word-groups.

1) On *whom*, see 1048.

2453. Parallel to the word-groups of 2060 f. we find sentences connected by *and* which form what might be called a compound sentence. It must be observed, however, that it would be a special type of compound sentence; for the conjunction precedes what would correspond to the main clause of an ordinary compound sentence.

Not for a moment did it seem at all strange to Peter that Urquhart should have had this knowledge and given no sign till now. Rose Macaulay, *Lee Shore* ch. I p. 11.

Mark Robarts' mistake had been mainly this, — he had thought to touch pitch and not be defiled.

Trollope, *Framley* ch. 42.

It was a perfect wilderness, as wild a bit of desert as one could wish to be in, where a man could spy all day upon its inhabitants, *and* no one would come and spy upon him. Hudson, *Hampshire* ch. 4 p. 79.

... his lower extremities being encased in leather leggings and boots emphatically large, affording to each foot a roomy apartment so constructed that any wearer might stand in a river all day long *and* know nothing about it ¹). Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 1 p. 2.

She thought that it was strange that he did not turn *and* look at her. Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 10 § 3 p. 120.

2454. The construction with an apparently coordinating *and* is very common with an imperative stem (*a*). The second may be negative (*b*); on its interpretation compare what has been said about the quotation from Elizabeth in 2061.

a. Let a girl talk with her own heart an hour, and she is almost a woman. Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 18.

Let England be imperilled, and Englishmen will fight; in such extremity there is no choice.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* XIX.

1) These sentences illustrate what might be called clauses of negative attendant circumstances, equivalent in function to the clauses with *ohne dass*, etc. discussed in 2092.

Bar one or two, they all want to make the omelette without breaking eggs. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 8.

b. You think me very cruel. Try and not judge me for a year. E. Ph. Oppenheim, *The Mystery Road I* ch. 21 p. 185.

Well, dear chick, do try and not call them Goody. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 191.

The subordinate character of the first sentence is not only shown by its rising intonation at the end but sometimes by an adverb in the second, as by *yet* in this passage:

For call it lovers' quarrels, yet I know
 Tho' men may bicker with the things they love,
 They would not make them laughable in all eyes.
 Tennyson, *Geraint and Enid*.

2455. The following cases illustrate groups of a verb of motion with another verb, in which the first verb serves to modify the meaning of the second, expressing what may sometimes be looked upon as a variety of aspect; or the second expresses purpose or result. The chief verbs that may be said to express aspect in this way are *come*, *go*, *be*, *lie*, *sit*, *stand*. The chief verbs of the second group are *mind* and *try*.

In fact poor Boxer (a dog), as Mrs. Carnaby exclaimed, was bleeding like a pig; and the grateful animal acknowledged her kind notice by going and rubbing his shot side against her shot silk.

Sweet, *Element.* no. 76.

He grew resolute. On the day of the party at the Benbows he had been and carefully inspected the plot of land at Shawport, and yesterday he had made a very low offer for it. Bennett, *These Twain I* ch. 9.

There is practically only one kind of play that we care to go and see; and this is what we may describe as the comedy of drawing-room manners.

Pilot 25/3, 1905.

The man whom she wanted to see came and stood before her.

Mary Connor Leighton,

The Mystery of the Three Fingers ch. 8 p. 65.

'... If you had gone *and* married him without saying a word to me, I could hardly have been angry — simply because, poor girl, you can't do a better thing.'

'Don't say that *and* dishearten me.'

Hardy, Native II ch. 8 p. 192 f.

It would have been unfeeling to wake her, so Dr. Vereker went and sat a good deal nearer to Sally, not to make more noise than was necessary.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 25 p. 276.

What a nuisance, I've been and put on my socks wrong side out!

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 38.

I've been and dropped my pencil on the floor and broken the point.

ib. p. 26.

... rather than to be admitted into that house of bondage, and to sit and speak with its inscrutable recluse.

Stevenson, Jekyll.

I would rather you sat and talked to me, and told me all about yourself.

Leighton, l. c. II ch. 2 p. 31.

Held by his look, Liva Grove stood and gazed back at him.

ib. ch. 3 p. 42.

b. Mind and put in those wraps and waterproofs.

Garvice, Lorrie p. 58.

Try and write the letter to-night.

He was writing a short story — a very tricky thing to try and do.

Temple Thurston, City I ch. 5.

You must mind and not lower the church in people's eyes

Sylvia felt keenly interested. She could have stopped and watched the scene for hours without wanting to play herself.

Belloc Lowndes, Chink ch. 5.

I wanted to get out and walk.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 17.

A traveller who should walk and observe any of these visitants as Venn observed them now could feel himself to be in direct communication with regions unknown to man.

Hardy, Native I ch. 10 p. 104 f.

Fears still lurked in the background, such fears as he did not dare to turn and contemplate.

Ethel M. Dell, *Greatheart* ch. 30 p. 218

Its chief use seems to be to serve as a prop for the village idlers — something to lean against and gossip all day long.

Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 72.

She should learn and indulge his habits.

He never said he hoped you would come round and see it.

Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 79.

2456. The first of two formally coordinated sentences may have the function of a concessive clause.

Progress might be slow, but it was sure.

Strachey, *Eminent Victorians* p. 132.

2457. Sometimes it is impossible to decide whether we have coordination or subordination.

To seize her husband at home, therefore, might be no impossible task; though here, in the heart of the village, a troop of horse might make the attempt and fail.

Stanley Weyman, *Red Robe*.

The Government could never yield and survive.

Times W. 23/5, '13.

It imposed a problem which we either solve or perish.

Times Lit. 24/17, '19.

2458. The subordination of the first of two parts of a sentence connected by *and* is often shown by the stress.

ə lot əv smæt futmən -keim ən stæd -æt əs.

Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 64.

ən wɪj -went ən :stud sam -wei əf. ib. p. 56.

Apparent Sub-Clauses

2459. Some sentences have the form of a sub-clause, because they are introduced by a conjunction, but there is no main clause. Such are the sentences expressing an

idle wish (*Oh that we too might stand*, etc.: 1527), and such as are introduced by *if*. Also the exclamatory sentences with front-position of some part of the predicate, and the sentences opening with *not but that*, *not but what*.

If he had only told me!

Our ancestors had suffered from isolation; they had a literature in their own tongue such as no other nation could boast, but on the religious side they had little else. Not but that they were below the general level in regard to faith or life, but that they had been in a back-water, unaffected by modern currents of progress.

Watson, Church of England p. 36.

But I rather wished that she might choose not to sit in Tom's company, though she might be introduced to him. Not but what he could behave quite as well as I could, and much better as regarded elegance and assurance, only that his honesty had not been as one might desire.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 46 p. 321.

(ib. ch. 31 p. 207 and ch. 36 p. 239).

She cried aloud, 'O that I had seen his face!'

Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 142.

"Here's a go!" says Sally, who gets at the label-side of the trunk first. "It isn't Tishy!"

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 29 p. 311.

We might also mention the relative clauses such as the following, which, of course, are essentially continuative clauses (2266).

The General looked at the window and asked a bystander what he thought, sir? Who felt bound to testify that he thought the prospect hopeless.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 23 p. 241.

MEANING OF SENTENCES

2460. In the preceding chapters the forms and functions of sentences and their relations to each other have been treated. When we consider the meanings expressed by the various forms, it appears that difference of form is not by any means invariably accompanied by a corresponding difference of meaning. In other words, the same thought may be expressed by different kinds of sentences. It makes no difference in meaning whether we say *Mr. Healy was Parnell's discovery* (*Observer* 10/12, '22), or *Mr. Healy was discovered by Parnell*: the distinction between a verbal or a nominal sentence is purely formal.

The reason is that *discovery* is a distinctly verbal noun, differing little in its verbal character from a verbal form like *discovered*, which, indeed, may be looked upon as nominal as well; for it is only by way of submission to tradition that the syntactic group of a 'copula' with a participle in a verbal meaning is called, or miscalled, 'passive.' Both sentences are in reality verbal, but the verbal character is due to the semantically meaningless verb *was*.

There is no difference of meaning between *I believe he has done it, though I am not certain of it* (compound sentence) and *I believe he has done it; I am not certain of it, though* (loose group of two sentences).

2461. When we say that there is no difference of meaning between the first pair of sentences quoted in the preceding section we mean to say that the actual facts mentioned in them are the same. But the difference of

form here, as nearly in every other case, causes a difference: the facts are presented in a different way. By saying: *Mr. H. was Parnell's discovery*, the two men are more intimately connected than in the alternative sentence; the genitive also tends to present the fact as a merit of the discoverer's, which is in no way implied by the second sentence.

Similarly the coordinate sentence at the end of 2460 represents the second idea as little more than an afterthought.

We may say, therefore, that English sentences, though verbal in the great majority of cases, often contain a verb that, far from expressing activity or occurrence, frequently has no meaning at all, so that the nominal forms of the predicate really convey the meaning. This is sometimes expressed by saying that the English sentence is often nominal in character.

The following passage seems to present a good example of the nominal character of English sentence-structure, nominal being taken both in its usual sense and in the sense defined above.

The *employment* of this population was almost wholly in agriculture. There was indeed some rudimentary *trade* along the coasts, and overseas with Ireland, France, and the Low Countries. There must also have been some *fishing*. But in the main the Saxons were *tillers* of the soil. Virtually nothing is *known* of the towns, if any existed worthy of the name. The *record* even of London is a blank in the early Saxon period. All that we can tell is that there was a very slow *emergence* of a new town life, but that by the time of Egbert it had not become *prominent*. This is a fact worth *noting* in view of events that were shortly *to take place*. Naval defence was not *required* until the onset of the Dānes, for all the *fighting* was in civil wars. For military defence every free man was *bound* to serve in the fyrd or national levy, and in addition the thegns and their retainers

formed a smaller but more efficient band of troops. Such was the England, free, semi-civilized, agricultural, not *organised* for determined *fighting*, upon which the Danish war-clouds were about *to burst*.

Williamson, *Evolution of England* p. 45.

In the whole of this passage there is not a single predicate with a verb expressing activity or occurrence as its leading member.

2462. Sometimes there seems to be no difference at all; thus we might use a compound sentence opening with *It seems (to me)* instead of the personal construction in the two following sentences.

I seem to see something, she said.

Bennett, *Anna* p. 162.

I seem to know these fields again; I am sure I have seen that elm before.

Sweet, *Element.* no. 65.

He was good-looking enough, I now again saw, but not such a model of it as I had seemed to remember.

H. James, *Sacred Fount* ch. 1 p. 3.

Similarly we can say *It happened that he came* or *He happened to come*; *He is confident that he will be successful* or *He is confident of success*.

A personal construction often takes the form of what we call the passive, i. e. a group of a verb of little or no independent meaning, such as *be*, *get*, *become*, with a participle. Another very similar method, both in its form and in its effect, is the group of *have* with an object and verbal ing or participle. All these constructions have been fully treated in the first volume.

2463. Although in grammar we classify sentences according to their formal character, it is necessary, if only by way of supplementing the deficiencies of a purely formal classification, to consider sentences from a purely

semantic point of view. In this way we obtain the following classification, which has sometimes been assumed in the preceding sections, and is so natural that it does not require detailed comment:

- (1) declarative;
- (2) interrogative;
- (3) exclamatory;
- (4) optative;
- (5) imperative.

2464. What is meant by a declarative sentence need not be explained; but it may be pointed out that what is presented as a declarative sentence may express a very different meaning from what an analysis of the elements may seem to denote. Irony is an element of human speech, and explains why *I like that* in the following dialogue means its opposite.

“You look like a big fat turkey,” said she.

“Fat. I like that,” said Stanley. “I haven’t a square inch of fat on me. Feel that.”

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 21.

2465. Interrogative sentences either open with an interrogative word, or they have a rising intonation. On repeated questions, see 2347.

Interrogative sentences opening with an interrogative word are called *pronominal*. The others are called *disjunctive*, because the answer required is either *yes* or *no*.

Disjunctive sentences may have the introductory *is it*:
Is it your father who wants you to do that?

Among the disjunctive interrogative sentences we include the alternative sentences (*Is he right or wrong? — Are you going out or do you prefer to stay at home?*).

2466. An interrogative sentence primarily means a sentence expressing a desire for information or the solution

of a doubt. But it may at the same time express a suggestion by the speaker how he thinks the matter stands; such questions may be called *suggestive*. The suggestive questions are often closely allied to exclamations, as is shown in the following sentences. All of them have the word-order that is usual in a declarative sentence, which helps to suggest the affirmative answer that is expected.

“By Heaven!” he cried, “you’re of the Burlesdons?”
Hope, Zenda ch. 3.

“Then you have not left the old firm?”

“Rather not.”

“And there is nothing wrong?”

“I hope not. I’ve just been made a partner.”

Sidgwick, Severins ch. I p. 13.

“You got my wire from Marseilles, Mrs. Charmian?”

“Oh, yes, I was expecting you! But I did not know when.”
Hichens, Ambition ch. 27.

“You take James for a fool?”

“Not me.”
Vachell, Quinneys’ p. 196.

Another type of suggestive question, the appended confirmative clauses, has been illustrated in the first volume, 425 (*He isn’t ill, is he?*).

A third type are the appended sympathetic questions of 426 (*John can do it, can he?*).

An interrogative sentence may also express a communication, which is ‘properly’ the domain of the declarative sentence.

Do you know that Sunday is not the best day for making calls in England?

2467. Exclamatory sentences are closely related to the interrogative ones, both in form and in meaning. They express astonishment or the indignant repudiation of an idea.

What a hard winter that was! It froze straight on for two months.
Sweet, Element no. 65.

"However could I explain such an arrangement to Jack Carton!" she protested.

Oppenheim, *A People's Man* ch. 11.

The schemings to obtain and to hide Gerald's letters at the shop, and to reply to them! etc.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* III ch. 1 § 1.

Peter stopped still, his mouth open with excitement. Of all the amazing things! What doesn't life give you if you trust to it!

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 5 p. 53.

"Incredible ass that I am," she thought.

Mackenzie, *Sylvia and Michael* p. 225.

"Old Lord Doleford and his father broke the entail, and it's twenty years since the last possible penny was put on it in mortgages. Isn't it wicked? One of the loveliest places in England." Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 11.

She said: "Oo, isn't it dark!"

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 1 § 2 p. 9.

... and then indeed I saw the house, but no trace of Graham. I felt as if the house had swallowed him up, as indeed it had. What lives and hearts and fortunes had it not already devoured, that exquisite stone house!

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 18.

Also in sub-clauses.

Goodness knows what tricks they didn't play to get your aunt's money — every penny of it!

Bennett, *These Twain* III ch. 20 § 4.

He had a notion that living with a woman was comparable to living with a volcano — you never knew when a dangerous eruption might not occur.

ib. III ch. 20 § 2.

2468. Exclamatory sentences may have an introductory conjunction so that they resemble a subordinate clause in form. Sometimes, in this case, the sentence expresses a wish.

"What have you done to it?"

"Done! how could I do anything to it? As if you didn't know that!"

Anstey, *Vice Versa* ch. 2.

That he should turn against us after all his professions of friendship!
NED.

If I had only known in time!

But that Westcott, a new boy and in the bottom form, should challenge Comber!

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 5 § 3 p. 57.

2469. Sentences of command may have the form of a declarative sentence, especially with a group-future in the predicate. But the most direct way of expressing a command is with a verb stem as the leading member of the predicate. When there is a subject-pronoun, there is nothing in the form of the sentence to distinguish it from a sentence of statement, except in the case of *be*

You do your own work, and leave others alone.

Now, Joey, you be a good boy and 'and me out the tea-things.
de Morgan, *Vance* ch. 4 p. 41.

2470. Object clauses do not show their different meanings by their word-order, but the same classification is possible:

(1) dependent statements.

I hope that he will come.

He told me that he could not come.

Peter's failure was only partial. There was no question that 1) *The Stone House* was a remarkable book.

Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 8 p. 315.

(2) dependent desires (commands, requests, entreaties, wishes).

He demanded that it should be done immediately.

I wish I had never said a word about it.

(3) dependent questions, which may be pronominal (*a*) or disjunctive (*b*).

1) Observe that the clause is shown to be a dependent statement, not a dependent question, by the use of the conjunction *that* (instead of *if*).

- a.* I wonder what he will say.
I asked him how he liked it.
- b.* I wonder if he heard it.

(4) dependent exclamations.

Other clauses can also be distinguished in the same or a similar way, but there is generally no cause for it; except perhaps in the case of subject clauses that may be called dependent questions on account of their form as well as their meaning.

Which of the two deserved best of his country is not open to doubt. Judge Stephen in *Introd. to Cobbet's Grammar* p. XVII.

Whether or no to tell her of the kick-up at Joyfield's exercised his mind.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 25 p. 306.

2471. We sometimes find dependent statements introduced by an interrogative word.

It is plain from this account how the severity of the struggle was not in all respects anticipated.

Times Lit. 16/9, '15.

2472. As in the case of indirect style (2344) we also have a mixture of independent and dependent word-order in these cases, in spoken English.

"I wonder," said she — "I wonder does the man exist who can bear disappointment without becoming like that?"

Temple Thurston, City II ch. 2.

He asked would I go and post it for him?

The rising intonation at the end of the main clause shows the following clause to be subordinate. In the last quotation the character is also shown by the concord of tense.

2473. Adverb clauses have been distinguished according to their meaning (2300), because the use of the verbal forms and of the auxiliaries depends upon it. In a similar way

relative clauses might be classified; they not only restrict or define the meaning of the antecedent, but often express a relation of cause, purpose, or condition. This often causes auxiliaries to be used; see the first volume.

2474. In the preceding classification of sub-clauses according to their meaning it should be remembered that the term *dependent* is not synonymous with *subordinate*. The latter is a purely grammatical term, as has been defined in the chapter on the compound sentence. Thus, a subject clause is a sub-clause, but it is not dependent upon the rest of the sentence. The same applies to predicate clauses. This explains why the other kinds of clauses only have been mentioned here.

2475. After considering in what way thoughts are expressed in sentences, we may examine the ways in which ideas are expressed that modify or colour elements of a sentence.

We may ask, with reference to present-day English, what are its means:

- (1) of distinguishing facts, thoughts, wishes, commands (*modality*).
- (2) of expressing negation.
- (3) of emphasizing a statement, wish, question, command, or negation.
- (4) of putting questions, with the corresponding methods of answering.

2476. When we say *I hope you will get there in time*, we do, indeed, express a wish, but we state it as a fact; each of the two verbs, *hope* and *get* retains its independent meaning. Similarly, a command is expressed in *I told him to come at eight*, again as a fact.

It sometimes happens, however, that such verbs serve

to modify another, and do not express an independent meaning. This is the case when the verb is added parenthetically, as in *He will get there in time, I hope*; also in *He is quite trustworthy, I think*.

It may also happen that a verb of full mean, in is thus subordinated to the accompanying verb in a declarative simple sentence or compound sentence, as in the following.

A commentary of the kind here attempted involves the expression of opinions, and few opinions can *hope to please* everybody. Williamson, *Ev. of Engl.* p. v.

The close grouping of such verbs with the accompanying stem (with *to*) or clause is sometimes shown grammatically: the auxiliary precedes the whole group although it might logically be said to modify the stem or the verb in the clause.

We shall hope to show that herein lie elements of such a general and special educational value that . . .

H. C. Wyld, *Place of the Mother Tongue*, p. I.

We think that the Philharmonic Society are to be congratulated on having included this work in their programme, and we shall hope to hear more of Mr. Holbrooke at this class of concert.

Academy, March 12, 1910 p. 245/1.

If the conception is large, and the treatment practical, we shall hope that the series will attain its object.

Editors' Advertisement to the *Helps for Students of History* no. 1.

I'm grieved, my boy; but, there, it can't be helped. You mustn't let this trouble you too deeply. We shall hope to see you sometimes.

Pickthall, *Larkmeadow* ch. 29 p. 185.

b. I have hoped, in the following pages, to prepare the way for the beginner.

Wyld, *Historical Study*, Preface.

It won't take us a minute, and we will promise not to disturb her.

Dale Reader, Bk. II p. 7.

"It is very late," said Eleanor, "it will be a shame to disturb your mother again at such an hour."

Trollope, *Barchester Towers* p. 155.

The people most richly endowed with these aptitudes and with the opportunities for using them are the Jews. Hence we shall expect to find that, in the moulding of modern forms of industrial and commercial capitalism, they have been chief agents.

Nation, July 12, 1913 p. 558/1.

Childish it was. It made me feel quite queer to see it. I can't seem to forget it.

Royde-Smith, *Incredible Tale* (1932) p. 36.

Another case of subordination of the syntactically leading verb is shown in the following sentence.

I should have been proud to be an American if it had happened that way; but as it didn't *happen* to happen, I am prouder to be what I am.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 2.

2477. Adverbs may also lack an independent meaning, serving to modify the accompanying verb or the whole sentence. English does not use these kind of adverbs so frequently as some other languages of the Indo-Germanic group. Thus it has no equivalents of Dutch *wel, ook*; German *wohl, nur, doch*; Greek *men, an, ken*; French *donc* (*Qui donc l'affligeait?*), *ça* (*Qui ça, Antoine?*); on the latter, see Brunot, *La Pensée et la Langue* p. 499.

Among the most important of such particles in English are *actually* and *surely*. *Actually* suggests surprise; *surely* suggests doubt, and is often used to invite the agreement of the person addressed, so that the sentence becomes more or less clearly interrogative ¹).

(The Earl) actually began to find himself entertained.
Burnett, *Little Lord* ch. 8.

Surely the modern "resplend" is not a revival, but

1) This explains why there is frequently a note of interrogation.

intended to be taken as a facetious back-formation from "resplendent." Athenaeum 8/8, 1908.

The *schöne aussicht* was indisputable, but to choose the loveliest spot and blot its beauty with a coloured glass restaurant so close to a place full of restaurants is surely unusually profane. Elizabeth in Rügen p. 127.

Surely a place that inspired such a mingling of the lofty and the homely in its guide-books must be well worth seeing? ib. p. 9.

Leaders of American Society, *The Daily Telegraph* tells us, are protesting against the extravagance of diamond studded shoes. But surely it is better to be brilliant at the wrong end than at neither end? Punch 20/3, 12.

Modality 2478. When the modification of the verbal meaning is expressed by purely grammatical means we call it modality. Among these English makes use of the following:

- (1) auxiliaries;
- (2) verbal forms;
- (3) word-order;
- (4) intonation.

The modal auxiliaries have been treated in the first volume. The only verbal form that can be considered a modal form is the one in *id*, which has been called a preterite. It is clear from the treatment of the form in the first volume that the *id*, as far as it is used as a predicative form, is as much a mood as a tense, in other words: it is neither.

The facts of word-order have been dealt with in the present volume; for intonation, the best treatment will be found in Sweet's *Syntax*.

Negation 2479. Among the adverbs of modality the most important are those of negation. A negative adverb may serve:

(1) to make the combination of subject and predicate negative: *sentence-negation*;

(2) to make one part of a sentence negative: *word-negation*.

We have sentence-negation in *It isn't true*; word-negation in *He sits not a dozen yards away*.

It may be noted that the sentence-negative *not* is generally [nt]; the word-negative is [nɒt]. Accordingly we can distinguish *It wasn't unpleasant* from *It was not [nɒt] unpleasant*. See also 616 f.

We clearly have word-negation in the following sentence.

"It's so nice and oily. It's not from Cattley's?" —
 "Yes, it is." de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 3 p. 25.

On *no, none, nothing, (n)either, naught*, see *Indefinite Pronouns*.

2480. A sentence may be made negative by making another part of it negative than the predicative verb (or copula). Thus we have a negative sentence when we say that there is no time or place in which the predicate can be applied to the subject: *He never comes in time; It is nowhere to be found*. This explains how *I never said so* comes to mean: *I did not say so at all*. *Never* can thus be combined with *now*: *Never mind that now* (de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 13 p. 123). Some further cases of word-negation serving to make the sentence negative may be added.

I have been trying to remember things, and I find that I can remember *almost nothing*.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 3 p. 27.

The doctor fairly gasps; his breath is taken away; *never* perhaps was a young man freer from thought and influence of money than he. ib. ch. 36 p. 385.

Which must have been entirely brain-wave or thought-reading, as Rosalind had said *never a word* of her anxiety so far. ib. ch. 36 p. 374.

“You never mean to say you’ve been in the water?”
 — It was quite clear, from the bluish finger-tips of the
 gloveless merpussy ... that she has been in, and has
 only just come out. ib. ch. 37 p. 388.

You see *never a tramp*, with its friendly smoke, no
 stately bark or trim schooner, *not a fishing boat* even:
 it is an empty desert.

Maugham, Trembling of a Leaf ch. 1 p. 14.

... and through the trees he had a glimpse of the
 wide sea, empty, with *never a sail* to disturb the lone-
 liness. ib. ch. 2 p. 26.

(They) had always quite spontaneously practised what
 I had preached — pet nothing and persecute nothing.
Hudson, Hampshire Days p. 4.

The use of *neither* in the following quotation shows that
 the preceding sentence is negative; for if it was not, *nor*
 would have been used; see 1908.

Mr. Mais is nowhere formidable, he is no root-and-
 branch reformer; neither has he, apparently, any fads.
Times Ed. S. 6/6, '16.

A sentence may also be negative because its subject is
 negative: *nobody will agree with that.*

2481. It has been stated in 616f. that the auxiliary
do is used when *not* is a sentence-negative. But when a
 predicative verb is qualified by a stem, or a clause, with
 a negative meaning the predicative verb itself is often
 made negative instead. This construction is very frequent
 in colloquial English; *not* does not serve to make the
 leading verb negative, but the whole group of verb with
 stem or clause, compare 2476.

a. I don't seem to be able to do it.

He can't seem to shake off his cold.

And everything says 'It's all happened before,' but I

don't know where, and I am waiting, waiting for nothing,
and I don't seem to care very much for any one.

Romer Wilson, *Death of Society*
(quoted *Observer* 1/5, '21).

And yet I never seem to know them any better.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 52.

He had not seemed to depend upon her so much
when he was in London. ib. p. 384.

"Oh, but it's so unlucky!" was her hasty reply.
"Don't let us think of it."

Mrs. H. Ward, *William Ashe* p. 285.

Do not let us misjudge him

Magnus, *Primer* p. 14.

And another thing I can't seem to get used to is
having the fish after the meat. Mackenzie, *Sylvia* p. 349.

He did not seem to have changed.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale IV* ch. 2 § 1.

It has been like falling out of a prison from which
one never hoped to escape.

Wells, *Harman* ch. 12 § 5 p. 454.

b. She did not feel that it was anything more than
a partial remedy for a special evil.

ib. ch. 10 § 3 p. 310.

Clara did not think that it mattered.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 8 p. 85.

She did not suppose that she should ever see again
this companion of a few hours.

Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives I* p. 32.

2482. In the following case we have the opposite:
word-negation where the whole sentence is meant to be
negative.

Of hydraulic pressure and the differential calculus
Tudor knew nothing, and pretended to know nothing.

Trollope, *Three Clerks* p. 6.

He knew nothing of their history, and wished to
know nothing. Bennett, *Clayhanger II* ch. 10 § 1.

I, personally, have entirely believed in none of Miss

Wilson's book as yet, though in their details truth has confronted me on every page.

J. C. Squire in *Observer* 1/5, 21.

Stormed by an attack of *cacoethes scribendi*, after those few blank days at Becket, Felix saw nothing amiss with his young daughter. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 14.

Sometimes he was moody for days together and wanted to see no one.

Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 3 p. 263.

It is possible to do no more here than very briefly indicate some other interesting conclusions at which Mr. Collingwood arrives.

Times Lit. 28/7, 1927 p. 519/2.

2483. We also have negative sentence-modifiers in *hardly*, *scarcely*, *little*. They are often used to give a mild form to the negation.

I hardly know what the word is derived from, but it might possibly mean

Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 47.

There is no disputing the fact that the reading market — we can hardly say the literary market — is flooded in the twentieth century. *Athenaeum* 16/10, '15.

"I am scarcely in a position to form an opinion."

"Why not?"

de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 11 p. 314.

2484. The negative meaning of *hardly* and *scarcely* allows these words in combination with *any* (and its compounds) to be an equivalent of *almost* with a negative. The latter, indeed, is far less common, although it does occur.

I have seen hardly (scarcely) anything.

It can hardly be doubted.

To our eternal disgrace as a polite nation, we are content to know almost nothing at all of Middle English.

Times Lit. 16/3, 22.

Beyond these semi-public entertainments there was almost nothing, in the evening, save card-parties.

Bennett, *These Twain III* ch. 20 § 6.

I have begun the season (of angling) in many places and many ways on all sorts of water, and I have come to the conclusion that there is something fatal about the fact of beginning. You will almost never do anything worthy of triumph-songs on that first day.

An Angler's Dozen, in *Oxf. and Camb. Rev.*
no. 10 (1910) p. 122.

Her mother certainly told her nothing at this time about her last conversation with the Colonel, or almost nothing. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 25 p. 265.

2485. We also find *also not* instead of the usual *neither, not . . . either*.

Speculative markets have also not been idle.

Pilot 30/4, 1904.

It is, indeed, not ordinary conversational speech; but it is also not declamatory. Ripman, *Specimens*.

His identification with George of Cappadocia . . . is no longer possible. It is also not quite easy to identify the unnamed Christian . . . with St. George.

Lit. World 1907.

2486. The negative meaning of *hardly, scarcely, only*, and *little* is the explanation of the inverted word-order when these words open a sentence (2182 ff.); also of the place of *little* before the predicative verb (2234). It also explains the use of *no* in confirming a question containing these words, as shown in 1253; and the absence of *not* in the appended question in the two last examples of 425

2487. *Not* in exclamatory sentences does not serve to express negation; see 2168*b*.

On the other hand, negation may be expressed indirectly, as in the question "*Am I my brother's keeper?*" Also in

questions with a pronominal word: *Why should I do that?*

The negative prefix *un-* is also used to express denial (*unpaid, unprepared*), as well as what is the opposite (*uneasy*).

Negative command is used in English to express prohibition; see volume 1 on the auxiliary *do*.

The junction of negative word-groups has been treated in 2033 ff. For sentences, see 2395 ff.

For the junction of negative sub-clauses, see the chapter on the *Compound Sentence*.

The expression of emphatic negation will be treated in the following sections on *Emphasis*.

Emphasis 2488. The most general way of emphasizing a statement, or wish, or question, is to stress the most important word.

The use of strong-stressed auxiliaries to emphasize has been discussed in the first volume. It is hardly necessary to mention such adverbs as *certainly, undoubtedly*.

Negative words are frequently emphasized: *I haven't understood a word of it; I haven't done a stroke of work*. Such words often lose their original meaning: *I don't care a bit (a snap, a damn)*¹.

The adjective *no* is often emphasized by *sort of, kind of*. Also with *any*.

Not unpleasant reading certainly, but equally certainly of no sort of importance. Times Lit. 22/1, 20.

When they absolutely haven't got it and finally can't get it, there's no sort of way for them to live — they become extinguished. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

"As a matter of fact," said Mr. Short confidentially, "personally nobody has any sort of fault to find with them." ib. ch. 21 p. 230.

1) An interesting collection of such words has been made by H. Willert, Herrigs Archiv 105, pp. 37—47.

But it (*viz.* the new book) was amazingly unequal. There were places in it that had no kind of life at all.
Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 8 p. 315.

She would take no kind of interest in Michael's engagement. Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 353.

2489. A preceding sentence may be negated by *not a bit of it*.

I gave in the cheque myself, and said I had every reason to believe it was a forgery. Not a bit of it. The cheque was genuine. Stevenson, *Jekyll* p. 10.

"Surely," remonstrated our host, "that's very intolerant, and from you of all men; for if Mr. Gladstone hadn't broken up the Liberal party you would have." — "Not a bit of it," came the answer, "that is exactly the mistake which you all made...."

Spender, in *Engl.* 19th Cent. II p. 130.

Sentences may end in *not* with a personal pronoun to confirm a preceding negative statement.

She wasn't going to conceal that she had talked of it to Tishy Wilson — not she!

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 171.

"But it'll perhaps rain cats and dogs to-morrow, as it did yesterday, and then you can't go," said Godfrey....

"Not it," said Dunstan, "I'm always lucky in my weather."
Eliot, *Silas Marner* I ch. 3.

See also 970.

Both *either* and *neither* can emphasize a preceding negative; the use of *either* has already been illustrated in 1232, where it has also been remarked that *neither* is colloquial only. An example may be added here.

Rosalind talks absently, as if they didn't matter. All her thoughts are on her husband. But she doesn't fancy catechising him about his experiences in the night, neither. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 36 p. 373.

2490. It has been shown (2445 ff.) that any part of a sentence can be made emphatic by prefixing *it is* (*was*, etc.). We have a similar construction with the relative *what*.

What he loved was Minnebiac, where he built himself a kind of workshop, for composing and carving things out of wood. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 1.

2491. A similar way of expressing a statement emphatically is by means of a conditional clause as in the following, with the emphatic and identifying *it is*.

If any one knew the heath well, it was Clym.
Hardy, *Return of the Native* III ch. 2.

It is evident that the *it* in this case is anaphoric, not formal as in the case of 2490.

2492. It has been pointed out that questions and answers may be expressed by means of a pronominal sentence with inverted word-order (2465). Also by a sentence with declarative word-order, but rising intonation (2166 and 2466).

It has also been mentioned that sentences with inverted order may be exclamatory in meaning (2467). The confirmative and sympathetic questions discussed in 425 f. are enclitic; the sympathetic questions do not really express a question, but an invitation to express agreement.

The particle *now* is sometimes used to bring out the appeal to the person addressed to confirm the statement.

But with Graham the situation was quite different —
now wasn't it? Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 13.

2493. The answers to pronominal questions do not differ from other declarative sentences.

Disjunctive questions can be answered by *yes* or *no*. Negative questions can be confirmed by *no* (see 2486), but the answer is often clear only if *no* is followed by a

except the ordinals which are formed from the cardinals by means of derivative suffixes, and give rise to adverbs in *-ly* (*firstly, secondly, etc.*) which are used in enumerations.

Numerals may be indefinite, such as *many, some, several, etc.* Those that show some grammatical peculiarity are generally classed with the indefinite pronouns.

It is not unusual for the definite numerals, both the cardinals and the ordinals, to be used in an indefinite sense, as in the following sentences.

For the ninety-ninth time Mary had been tackling her uncle about his lack of occupation.

Squire, Grub Street p. 3.

In a thousand and one ways, Mr. Wigglesworth had perceived the indications of a growing interest and prestige.

ib. p. 9.

English also has multiplicative adjectives: *single, double, treble (triple), quadruple, etc.*; the higher numbers of this kind are exceptional.

Another formation are the compounds with *-fold*: *twofold, threefold, etc.* The multiplicative adverbs are few in number, the only current forms being *once* and *twice*; *thrice* is obsolete.

Derivatives with *-some* form collective nouns; they are chiefly Scotch, and are restricted to the forms *twosome, and threesome*.

"What are you doing?" — "Only just dining."

"Then I don't see why we shouldn't make a threesome. Dorothy and I are quite good friends."

Alec Waugh, *Look before you Leap* III ch. 5 p. 92.

Other collectives are *couple* and *pair*; their meaning is treated in the dictionary. Collectives for other numbers are not in general use, such nouns as *trio, quartette, quintette, sextette*, being chiefly restricted to technical uses. On *pair* as a numerative, see 818 ff. *Dozen* and *score* are traditional remains of pre-decimal systems of counting.

On *both* as a collective adjective, see *Indefinite Pronouns*.

Among the special collective nouns may be mentioned *twin* and *triplet*.

English has no distributive numerals, using repetition of cardinals instead. *They came single, they came in twos and threes* (Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 20 p. 166); *one by one; by twos and by threes*. Also with other than numerals; *day by day*, etc. We may also include *either* and *neither*, *each* and *every*, which are classed with the indefinite pronouns.

2496. English has hardly any grammatical means of expressing number. In the verb the only case is the suffix *iz* in the third person of the present. The nouns use the same suffix to denote the opposite number, but it is at the same time used as a genitive suffix. The concord of number, which is carried further in English than in most of the related languages, has been treated in this volume. The various uses of the plural of nouns as well as the stem form have been treated in the second volume.

With regard to measures it seems sufficient to remark that the English retention of old systems has kept alive many words that have disappeared, or are disappearing, in the languages of the other European nations who have adopted the metrical system. Such words are *inch*, *yard*, *pole*, *rod*, etc.

2497. The idea of time is predicated of actions, occurrences, and states. But these may also be thought of without any reference to a distinct time. The time of actions and occurrences is naturally more frequently indicated than of states; this is why verbs have mostly more indications of time than nouns and adjectives; in most languages, probably, the latter have no *grammatical* indications of time at all.

The time of an action or occurrence may be considered as a point in space: *It happened at eight o'clock*. It may also be looked upon as a period: *It happened on Sunday*. A period of time may be defined by denoting its beginning (*since Sunday*) or its end (*until Sunday*). When the extent of a period of time is thought of, English uses the plain stem without a preposition (*to work all day*); the preposition *during* refers to an action or occurrence that took place in the course of the period. See the chapter on the *Simple Sentence*.

When nouns express an action or occurrence they take the same indications of time: *an accident at night, the defeat on Monday of the Surrey cricketers*, etc. But nouns frequently take *of*: *the battle of last Friday*. This preposition is still commoner with nouns expressing a state: *the England of 1688*.

Adjectives can also take a characterization of time: *Her hair which was still perfectly black at this time*.

With nouns the present time can be expressed by the adjective *present*; the past or future is occasionally indicated by attributive *then*.

The present disturbances; the present proposal.

If megalithic man had to that extent been the pawn of his geographical surroundings, it is doubtful whether he could ever have reached England at all in the frail craft at his *then* disposal.

Massingham, Pre-Roman Engl. p. 7.

With persons the past can be indicated by adding *late*, which may apply to a function of the person or to his life: *the late Rector of Lincoln College; the late Mr. Williams*.

As in the case of verbs the time is often not indicated in nouns and adjectives.

Not that she worried, exactly. The *defeat* of her country and France never entered her head.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 166.

Such adjectives as *prospective* may also be considered adjectives of time.

They might have got more out of me, if Yellowley had not rehearsed the scene so often with other prospective settlers that . . .

Mackenzie, *Old Men of the Sea* ch. 5 p. 70.

The verb is the only class of words that has in some respects what may be called grammatical means of indicating time. The form in *id*, as far as it is used predicatively, may be said to express time. It must be considered, however, that the form is also used modally, without any reference to time, in sub-clauses, so that it is generally necessary to conclude the idea of past time from express indications of time accompanying the verb or from the context.

Future time is expressed by the grouping of the stem with the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*; see 696 and 731 ff. It is a more real indication of time than the form in *id*.

Future time is also indicated by other groups, such as *to be going* with the stem with *to*, *to be about to*, or the simple *to be to*, *to have to*.

It seems as if it were going to rain.

Chambers' Journal 14/6, 1890.

He was about to say something more, and then checked himself.

Wells, *Country of the Blind*.

They were about to start for the rocks below the condor's eyrie when a neighbour galloped up.

Vachell, *Spragge* p. 160.

High-spirited works have been produced by men known to be about to die, such as Smollett and Fielding.

Times Lit. 5/6, 1919.

At the close of the war, Lysander was the greatest man in Greece, and all his ambitions seemed about to be fulfilled.

Goodspeed, *Hist.* p. 178.

It is shortly to be published with a critical commentary.

Times Lit. 16/9, 1920.

Logical Syntax **2498.** It would be possible in this way to enumerate and illustrate the various ways in which ideas are expressed in English. Thus we might usefully enumerate the means of expressing place, cause and effect, circumstances attending actions or occurrences, distinctions of sex and their absence (use of *friend, cousin*), repetition (see vol. 1 on the auxiliaries *will* and *used*). It would be instructive, too, to study the way in which the agent of an action is indicated, as in these sentences.

It was a happy inspiration *on the part of Mr. Wilson* to produce this volume. Times Lit. 27/5, '16.

The sketches are not, it is hardly necessary to say, profound; but it is rather more remarkable that they so seldom, if ever, show *any design on the writer's part* to make them so. Hawthorne, *Twice-Told Tales*,
Everyman Pref. p. XV.

It was a *habit with Scrooge* . . . to put his hands in his breeches' pockets. (see Poutsma ch. 24 p. 82).

When any dispute arises as to the election of a guardian, it is the *province of* the Local Government Board to decide the matter. Chalmers, *Local Government* p. 57.

The indication of the agent in passive groups is generally mentioned in formal grammar when the verbal forms are dealt with. English has some traces of the old indication with *of* (*beloved of*), but the living form is with the preposition *by*. See also 838 ff.

An attempt at a more or less complete logical syntax of French has been made by Ferdinand Brunot *La Pensée et la Langue* (1922). The experiment is instructive and suggestive of the weaknesses of formal syntax. It should not be supposed, however, that logical syntax can supplant formal syntax: it should supplement it rather, and gather up the many threads that formal grammar is compelled to separate.

EPILOGUE

2499. In the preceding volumes it has been shown that English cannot properly be included among the inflectional languages. In connection with this we have also seen that English does not class its words into such definite groups as inflectional languages do. But it cannot truly be said that there is no distinction of parts of speech at all; for many words, at any rate, are used as verbs only, or as nouns only, or as adjectives only.

With regard to sentence-structure we have seen that the English sentence is almost invariably verbal in its form. But the leading element of the verbal predicate is very frequently a word of little or no meaning. Consequently we can say that the actions or occurrences are chiefly expressed by nouns and adjectives, and in this sense English may be called nominal in its sentence-structure.

The absence of any means of formally characterizing a word makes word-order very important for English sentence-structure. It has already been shown that word-order is not always sufficient to prevent sentences from being liable to misinterpretation, although it is the written form chiefly that suffers these disadvantages. It is characteristic of the present state of English society that the written language does not essentially differ from its spoken form. Specially 'literary' constructions, such as have been described in the final chapter of the second volume, and as were quite current in the nineteenth century, are disappearing very fast, indeed, many are practically gone. It seems impossible not

to recognize in this a result of the current tendencies of English social life which is fast shedding its respect for tradition, and for the distinctions of class, as far as these are based on the same foundation, without, however, giving up the idea of class-distinction completely. But the modern class-distinctions are more entirely based upon personal capacity.

2500. The undoubted connection between a language and the society that speaks it has often led students of language to look for a means of connecting the two more systematically. Although the prevailing interest of linguists of the nineteenth century was in the history of language, there have always been outsiders who refused to join the majority, and have ploughed a lonely furrow. The most important were Wilhelm von Humboldt, and the scholars who were inspired by him, such as Steinthal and Finck. The latter, in his little book, *Der deutsche sprachbau als ausdruck deutscher weltanschauung* (1899), made a systematic attempt to carry out the idea. He recognized, however, that the great difficulty which must be surmounted before any attempt to show the language of any nation as the result of its national character can be successful, was: how to define the national character at a given point of time, secondly its modifications in the course of time (*Aufgabe und gliederung der sprachwissenschaft* p. 20 f.). Finck's more recent followers seem to have preferred to assume that the primary difficulty has been surmounted, and the result is that their studies are frequently no more than a somewhat haphazard collection of more or less acceptable parallelisms between a language and what is supposed to be the nation's character. No attempt of this sort has been made in this book; it is the writer's conviction that progress is more likely to be made, first by the most

systematic attempt that is possible to find all the threads that connect the various constructions of any given system, and secondly to compare such systems as wholes with each other, with such as are related, whether genealogically or in their character, or not related at all, but as different as two languages can be. Such purely linguistic studies seem to be necessary as a preliminary before we can hope to connect language and nationality. But it must also be acknowledged, in fairness to the scholars who have not had the patience to wait for these results, that an attempt, even if premature and not yielding final solutions, may be useful because it is suggestive. In this respect the best studies with regard to English are those of Max Deutschein, especially his *System der englischen Syntax* (1917).

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