HIGH SCHOOL
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

THE SENTENCE.

1. When we speak or write we use words. We generally use these words in groups; as,
   Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.
   A group of words like this, which makes complete sense, is called a Sentence.

Kinds of Sentences.

2. Sentences are of four kinds:—
   (1) Those which make statements or assertions; as,
       Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
   (2) Those which ask questions; as,
       Where do you live?
   (3) Those which express commands, requests, or entreaties; as,
       Be quiet.
       Have mercy upon us.
   (4) Those which express strong feelings; as,
       How very cold the night is!
       What a shame!

A sentence that makes a statement or assertion is called a Declarative or Assertive sentence.
A sentence that asks a question is called an Interrogative sentence.
A sentence that expresses a command or an entreaty is called an Imperative sentence.
A sentence that expresses strong feeling is called an Exclamatory sentence.
CHAPTER II.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

3. When we make a sentence—
   (1) We name some person or thing; and
   (2) say something about that person or thing.
   In other words, we must have a subject to speak about and we must say or predicate something about that subject.
   Hence every sentence has two parts—
   (1) The part which names the person or thing we are speaking about. This is called the Subject of the sentence
   (2) The part which tells something about the Subject. This is called the Predicate of the sentence.

4. The Subject of a sentence usually comes first, but occasionally it is put after the Predicate; as,
   Down went the Royal George.
   Sweet are the uses of adversity.

5. In Imperative sentences the Subject is left out; as,
   Sit down. [Here the Subject You is understood.]
   Thank you. [Here the Subject I is understood.]

Exercise in Grammar. 1.

In the following sentences separate the Subject and the Predicate:

1. The cackling of geese saved Rome.
2. The boy stood on the burning deck.
3. Tubal Cain was a man of might.
4. Stone walls do not a prison make.
5. The singing of the birds delights us.
6. Miss Kitty was rude at the table one day.
7. He has a good memory.
8. Bad habits grow unconsciously.
9. The earth revolves round the sun.
11. Edison invented the phonograph.
12. The sea hath many thousand sands.
13. We cannot pump the ocean dry.
14. Borrowed garments never fit well.
15. The early bird catches the worm.
16. All matter is indestructible.
17. Ascham taught Latin to Queen Elizabeth.
18. We should profit by experience.
19. All roads lead to Rome.
20. A guilty conscience needs no excuse.
21. The beautiful rainbow soon faded away.
22. No man can serve two masters.
23. A sick room should be well aired.
24. The dewdrops glitter in the sunshine.
25. I shot an arrow into the air.
26. A barking sound the shepherd hears.
27. The naked every day he clad.

CHAPTER III.

THE PHRASE AND THE CLAUSE.

6. Examine the group of words "in a corner". It makes sense, but not complete sense. Such a group of words, which makes sense, but not complete sense, is called a Phrase.

In the following sentences, the groups of words in italics are Phrases:—

The sun rises in the east.
Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
There came a giant to my door.
It was a sunset of great beauty.
The tops of the mountains were covered with snow.
Show me how to do it.

7. Examine the groups of words in italics in the following sentences:—
He has a chain of gold.
He has a chain which is made of gold.

We recognize the first group of words as a Phrase. The second group of words, unlike the Phrase of gold, contains a Subject (which) and a Predicate (is made of gold).

Such a group of words which forms part of a sentence, and contains a Subject and a Predicate, is called a Clause.

In the following sentences, the groups of words in italics are Clauses:—
People who pay their debts are trusted.
We cannot start while it is raining.
I think that you have made a mistake.
CHAPTER IV.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

8. Words are divided into different kinds or classes, called Parts of Speech, according to their use; that is, according to the work they do in a sentence. The Parts of Speech are eight in number:—


9. A Noun is a word used as the name of a person, place, or thing; as,
   Akbar was a great king.
   Calcutta is on the Hooghly.
   The rose smells sweet.
   The sun shines bright.
   His courage won him honour.

Note.—The word thing includes (i) all objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell; (ii) something that we can think of, but cannot perceive by the senses.

10. An Adjective is a word used to add something to the meaning of a noun; as,
    He is a brave boy.
    There are twenty boys in this class.

11. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as,
    John is absent, because he is ill.
    The books are where you left them.

12. A Verb is a word used to say something about some person, place, or thing; as,
    The girl wrote a letter to her cousin.
    Calcutta is a big town.
    Iron and copper are useful metals.

13. An Adverb is a word used to add something to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,
    He worked the sum quickly.
    This flower is very beautiful.
    She pronounced the word quite correctly.

14. A Preposition is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to show how the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else; as,
There is a cow in the garden.
The girl is fond of music.
A fair little girl sat under a tree.

15. **A Conjunction** is a word used to join words or sentences; as,
   Rama and Hari are cousins.
   Two and two make four.
   I ran fast, but missed the train.

16. **An Interjection** is a word which expresses some sudden feeling; as,
   Hurrah! we have won the game.
   Alas! she is dead.

17. As words are divided into different classes according to the work they do in sentences, it is clear that we cannot say to which part of speech a word belongs unless we see it used in a sentence.

   Notice how the word *after* is used in the following sentences:
   They arrived soon *after.* (Adverb.)
   They arrived *after* us. (Preposition.)
   They arrived *after* we had left. (Conjunction.)

   From the above examples we see that the same word can be used as different parts of speech.

**Exercise in Grammar. 2.**

Name the part of speech of each italicized word in the following sentences, giving in each case your reason for the classification:

1. Still waters run deep.
2. He *still* lives in that house.
3. *After* the storm comes the calm.
4. The *after* effects of this drug are bad.
5. The *up* train is late.
6. It weighs *about* a pound.
7. He told us all *about* the battle.
8. He was only a *yard* off me.
9. Suddenly one of the wheels came *off*.
10. Mahomedans *fast* in the month of Ramzan.
11. He kept the *fast* for a week.
12. He is *on* the committee.
13. Let us move *on*.
14. Sit down and rest a *while*.
15. I will watch *while* you sleep.
16. They *while* away their evenings with books and games.
CHAPTER V.

THE NOUN: KINDS OF NOUNS.

18. A Noun is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing.
   Note.—The word thing is used to mean anything that we can think of.

19. Look at the following sentence:—
   Asoka was a wise king.

The noun Asoka refers to a particular king, but the noun king might be applied to any other king as well as to Asoka. We call Asoka a Proper Noun, and king a Common Noun.

Similarly:—

Sita is a Proper Noun, while girl is a Common Noun.
Hari " " " boy " "
Calcutta " " " town " "
India " " " country " "

The word girl is a Common Noun, because it is a name common to all girls, while Sita is a Proper Noun because it is the name of a particular girl.

Def.—A Common Noun is a name given in common to every person or thing of the same class or kind.
   [Common here means shared by all.]

Def.—A Proper Noun is the name of some particular person or place.
   [Proper means one's own. Hence a Proper Name is a person's own name.]

Note 1.—Proper Nouns are always written with a capital letter at the beginning.
Note 2.—Proper Nouns are sometimes used as Common Nouns; as,
   1. He was the Lukman (= the wisest man) of his age.
   2. Kalidas is often called the Shakespeare (= the greatest dramatist) of India.

Common Nouns include what are called Collective Nouns and Abstract Nouns.

20. A Collective Noun is the name of a number (or collection) of persons or things taken together and spoken of as one whole; as,
   Crowd, mob, team, flock, herd, army, fleet, jury, family, nation, parliament, committee.
KINDS OF NOUNS.

A fleet = a collection of ships or vessels.
An army = a collection of soldiers.
A crowd = a collection of people.
The police dispersed the crowd.
The French army was defeated at Waterloo.
The jury found the prisoner guilty.
A herd of cattle is passing.

21. An Abstract Noun is usually the name of a quality, action, or state considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as,
Quality.—Goodness, kindness, whiteness, darkness, hardness, brightness, honesty, wisdom, bravery.
Action.—Laughter, theft, movement, judgment, hatred.
State.—Childhood, boyhood, youth, slavery, sleep, sickness, death, poverty.

The names of the Arts and Sciences (e.g., grammar, music, chemistry, etc.) are also Abstract Nouns.
[We can speak of a brave soldier, a strong man, a beautiful flower. But we can also think of these qualities apart from any particular person or thing, and speak of bravery, strength, beauty by themselves. So also we can speak of what persons do or feel apart from the persons themselves, and give it a name. The word abstract means drawn off.]

22. Abstract Nouns are formed—
(1) From Adjectives; as,
   Kindness from kind; honesty from honest.
   [Most abstract nouns are formed thus.]
(2) From Verbs; as,
   Obedience from obey; growth from grow.
(3) From Common Nouns; as,
   Childhood from child; slavery from slave.

Exercise in Grammar. 3.

Point out the Nouns in the following sentences, and say whether they are Common, Proper, Collective or Abstract:

1. The crowd was very big.
2. Always speak the truth.
3. We all love honesty.
4. Our class consists of twenty pupils.
5. The elephant has great strength.
6. Solomon was famous for his wisdom.
7. Cleanliness is next to godliness.
8. We saw a fleet of ships in the harbour.
9. The class is studying grammar.
10. The Nile overflows its bank every year.
11. A committee of five was appointed.
12. Nelson is famous for his victory at Trafalgar.
13. The soldiers were rewarded for their bravery.
14. Without health there is no happiness.
15. He gave me a bunch of grapes.
16. I recognized your voice at once.
17. Our team is better than theirs.
18. Never tell a lie.
19. Wisdom is better than strength.
20. He sets a high value on his time.
21. I believe in his innocence.
22. This room is thirty feet in length.
23. I often think of the happy days of childhood.
24. The streets of some of our cities are noted for their crookedness.
25. What is your verdict, gentlemen of the jury?

Exercise in Composition. 4.

Write the Collective Nouns used to describe a number of

(1) Cattle; (2) Soldiers; (3) Sailors.

Write the qualities that belong to boys who are

(1) Lazy; (2) Cruel; (3) Brave; (4) Foolish.

Exercise in Composition. 5.

Form Abstract Nouns from the following Adjectives:

- Long, strong, wide, broad, high,
- young, true, wise, free, poor,
- humble, short, good, proud, just,
- decent, prudent, vacant, brave, vain,
- cruel, dark, sweet, novel, sane,
- bitter, deep, human, quick, ignorant.

Form Abstract Nouns from the following Verbs:

- Laugh, obey, live, expect, excel, know, steal,
- believe, serve, hate, please, act, starve,
- choose, move, conceal, seize, flatter, depart,
- defend, think, protect, advise, punish, die,
- free, see, judge, relieve, pursue, converse,
- succeed, discover.
Form Abstract Nouns from the following Common Nouns:

- King, infant, mother, priest, friend,
- man, owner, agent, boy, captain,
- thief, rogue, hero, bond, rascal,
- woman, regent, beggar, pirate, patriot,
- bankrupt, author, coward, pilgrim, glutton.

CHAPTER VI.

THE NOUN ; GENDER.

23. You know that living beings are of either the male or the female sex. Now compare the words in the following pairs:

- Boy.  { Lion.
- Hero.  { Cock-sparrow.
- Girl.  { Lioness.  { Heroine.  { Hen-sparrow.

What do you notice?

The first word of each pair is the name of a male animal.
The second word of each pair is the name of a female animal.

A noun that denotes a male animal is said to be of the Masculine Gender.

[Gender comes from Latin genus, kind or sort.]

A noun that denotes a female animal is said to be of the Feminine Gender.

24. A noun that denotes either a male or a female is said to be of the Common Gender; as,

- Parent, child, friend, pupil, servant, thief, relation, enemy, cousin, person, orphan, student, baby, monarch, neighbour, infant.

25. A noun that denotes a thing that is neither male nor female (i.e., a thing without life) is said to be of the Neuter Gender; as,

- Book, pen, room, tree.

[Neuter means neither, that is, neither male nor female.]

It will be thus seen that in Modern English the Gender of a noun is entirely a matter of sex or the absence of sex. It has nothing to do with the form of a noun, which determines its gender in many other languages, e.g., in Urdu where bagiche is masculine and lakri is feminine.
Note.—Collective nouns, even when they denote living beings, are considered of the neuter gender. Young children and the lower animals are also referred to as of the neuter gender.

26. Objects without life are often personified, that is, spoken of as if they were living beings. We then regard them as males or females.

The Masculine Gender is often applied to objects remarkable for strength and violence; as,

- The Sun, Summer, Winter, Time, Death.
- The sun sheds his beams on rich and poor alike.

The Feminine Gender is often applied to objects remarkable for beauty, gentleness, and gracefulness; as,

- The Moon, the Earth, Spring, Autumn, Nature, Liberty, Justice, Mercy, Peace, Hope, Charity.
- The moon has hid her face behind a cloud.
- Spring has spread her mantle of green over the earth.
- Peace hath her victories no less renowned than war.

This use is most common in poetry but certain nouns are personified in prose too. A ship is always spoken of as *she*; as,

- The ship lost all *her* boats in the storm.

### Ways of Forming the Feminine of Nouns.

27. There are three ways of forming the Feminine of Nouns:—

1. **By using an entirely different word**; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>maid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck</td>
<td>doe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bull (or ox)</td>
<td>cow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullock</td>
<td>heifer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock</td>
<td>hen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colt</td>
<td>filly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog</td>
<td>bitch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake</td>
<td>duck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drone</td>
<td>bee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earl</td>
<td>countess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gander</td>
<td>goose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gentleman</td>
<td>lady</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hart</td>
<td>roe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse</td>
<td>mare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>queen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lord</td>
<td>lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monk (or friar)</td>
<td>nun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nephew</td>
<td>niece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papa</td>
<td>mamma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ram</td>
<td>ewe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sir</td>
<td>madam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Son</td>
<td>daughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stag</td>
<td>hind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncle</td>
<td>aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wizard</td>
<td>witch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(2) By adding a syllable (-ess, -ine, -trix, -a, etc.); as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>authoress</td>
<td>Mayor</td>
<td>mayoress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baron</td>
<td>baroness</td>
<td>Patron</td>
<td>patroness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>countess</td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>peeress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giant</td>
<td>giantess</td>
<td>Poet</td>
<td>poetess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heir</td>
<td>heiress</td>
<td>Priest</td>
<td>priestess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host</td>
<td>hostess</td>
<td>Prophet</td>
<td>prophetess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jew</td>
<td>Jewess</td>
<td>Shepherd</td>
<td>shepherdess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lion</td>
<td>lioness</td>
<td>Steward</td>
<td>stewardess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>manageress</td>
<td>Viscount</td>
<td>viscountess</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note that in the following -ess is added after dropping the vowel of the masculine ending.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>actress</td>
<td>Preceptor</td>
<td>preceptress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefactor</td>
<td>benefactress</td>
<td>Prince</td>
<td>princess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conductor</td>
<td>conductress</td>
<td>Songster</td>
<td>songstress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enchanter</td>
<td>enchantress</td>
<td>Tempter</td>
<td>temptress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founder</td>
<td>foundress</td>
<td>Seamster</td>
<td>seamstress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunter</td>
<td>huntress</td>
<td>Tiger</td>
<td>tigress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>instructress</td>
<td>Traitor</td>
<td>traitress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>negress</td>
<td>Waiter</td>
<td>waitress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbot</td>
<td>abbess</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke</td>
<td>duchess</td>
<td>Murderer</td>
<td>murderess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emperor</td>
<td>empress</td>
<td>Sorcerer</td>
<td>sorceress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marquis</td>
<td>marquioness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The suffix -ess is the commonest suffix used to form feminine nouns, from the masculine, and is the only one which we now use in forming a new feminine noun.

(3) By placing a word before or after; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hero</td>
<td>heroine</td>
<td>Czar</td>
<td>czarina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>administratrix</td>
<td>Sultan</td>
<td>sultana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executor</td>
<td>executrix</td>
<td>Signor</td>
<td>signora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testator</td>
<td>testatrix</td>
<td>Fox</td>
<td>vixen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bull-calf</td>
<td>cow-calf</td>
<td>Grand-father</td>
<td>grand-mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock-sparrow</td>
<td>hen-sparrow</td>
<td>Great-uncle</td>
<td>great-aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He-goat</td>
<td>she-goat</td>
<td>Land-lord</td>
<td>land-lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He-bear</td>
<td>she-bear</td>
<td>Milk-man</td>
<td>milk-maid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack-ass</td>
<td>jenny-ass</td>
<td>Pea-cock</td>
<td>pea-hen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man-servant</td>
<td>maid-servant</td>
<td>Washer-man</td>
<td>washer-woman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER VII.

THE NOUN: NUMBER.

28. Notice the change of form in the second word of each pair:—

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Tree.} & \quad \text{Box.} & \quad \text{Ox.} & \quad \text{Man.} \\
\text{Trees.} & \quad \text{Boxes.} & \quad \text{Oxen.} & \quad \text{Men.}
\end{align*}
\]

The first word of each pair denotes one thing, the second word of each pair denotes more than one.

A Noun that denotes one person or thing, is said to be in the **Singular Number**; as,

Boy, girl, cow, bird, tree, book, pen.

A Noun that denotes more than one person or thing, is said to be in the **Plural Number**; as,

Boys, girls, cows, birds, trees, books, pens.

Thus there are two Numbers in English—the Singular and the Plural.

How Plurals are Formed.

29. (i) The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding -s to the singular; as,

Boy, boys; girl, girls; book, books;
pen, pens; desk, desks; cow, cows.

(ii) But Nouns ending in -s, -sh, -ch (soft), or -x form the plural by adding -es to the singular; as,

Class, classes; kiss, kisses; dish, dishes;
brush, brushes; match, matches; watch, watches;
branch, branches; tax, taxes; box, boxes.

Most Nouns ending in -o, also form the plural by adding -es to the singular; as,

Buffalo, buffaloes; mango, mangoes; hero, heroes;
potato, potatoes; cargo, cargoes; echo, echoes;
negro, negroes; volcano, volcanoes;

**Exceptions:**

- Piano, pianos; canto, cantos;
- Dynamo, dynamos; memento, mementos;
- Bamboo, bamboos; quarto, quartos.

(iii) Nouns ending in -y, preceded by a consonant, form their plural by changing -y into -i and adding -es; as,

Baby, babies; lady, ladies; city, cities;
army, armies; story, stories; pony, ponies.
(iv) Several nouns ending in -f or -fe form their plural by changing -f or -fe into v and adding -es; as,

Thief, thieves;  
life, lives;  
loaf, loaves;  
Chief, chiefs;  
roof, roofs;  
gulf, gulfs;  
wife, wives;  
calf, calves;  
knife, knives;  
dwarf, dwarfs;  
safe, safes;  
serf, serfs;  
wolf, wolves;  
leaf, leaves;  
shelf, shelves;  
hoof, hoofs;  
proof, proofs;  
strife, strifes.

EXCEPTIONS:—

30. A few nouns form their plural by changing the inside vowel of the singular; as,

Man, men;  
woman, women;  
goose, geese;  
man, men;  
woman, women;  
foot, feet;  
tooth, teeth;  
mouse, mice;  
ounce, ounces.

31. There are a few nouns that form their plural by adding -en to the singular; as,

Ox, oxen;  
child, children.

32. Some nouns have the singular and the plural alike; as,

Swine, sheep, decr;  
Pare, dozen, score, gross, hundred, thousand (when used after numerals).

I bought three dozen oranges.

Some people reach the age of three score and ten.

The car cost me five thousand rupees.

Stone, hundredweight.

He weighs above nine stone.

Twenty hundredweight make one ton.

33. Some nouns are used only in the plural.

(1) Names of instruments which have two parts forming a kind of pair; as,

Bellows, scissors, tongs, pincers, spectacles.

(2) Names of certain articles of dress; as,

Trousers, drawers, breeches.

(3) Names of diseases; as,

Measles, mumps.

(4) Names of games; as,

Billiards, draughts.

(5) Certain other nouns; as,

Annals, thanks, proceeds (of a sale), tidings, environs, nuptials, obsequies, assets, chattels.
34. Some nouns originally singular are now generally used in the plural; as,
   Alms, riches, eaves.
   Riches do many things.

35. The following plural forms are commonly used in singular:—
   Mathematics, physics, mechanics, politics, news, innings
   Mathematics is his favourite study.
   No news is good news.
   "The Hindus won by an innings and three runs.
   'Means' is used either as singular or plural. But when it has the meaning of 'wealth' it is always plural; as,
   He succeeded by this means (or, by these means) in passing the examination.
   His means are small, but he has incurred no debt.

36. Certain Collective Nouns, though singular in form, are always used as plurals; as,
   Poultry, cattle, vermin, people, gentry.
   These poultry are mine.
   Whose are these cattle?
   Vermin destroy our property and carry disease.
   Who are those people (= persons)?
   There are few gentry in this town.

   Note.—As a Common Noun 'people' means 'a nation' and is used in both singular and plural; as,
   The French are a hard-working and brave people.
   There are many different peoples in Europe.

37. A Compound Noun generally forms its plural by adding -s to the principal word; as,

   Singular.                                     Plural.
   Commander-in-chief                         commanders-in-chief
   Coat-of-mail                               coats-of-mail
   Son-in-law                                 sons-in-law
   Daughter-in-law                            daughters-in-law
   Step-son                                  step-sons
   Step-daughter                             step-daughters
   Maid-servant                              maid-servants
   (but man-servant,
   plural men-servants.)
   Passer-by                                 passers-by
   Looker-on                                 lookers-on
   Man-of-war                                men-of-war.
We say spoonfuls and handfuls, because spoonful and handful are regarded as one word.

Note that the Proper Nouns Brahman and Mussulman are not compounds of man, therefore their plurals are Brahmans, Mussulmans.

38. Many nouns taken from foreign languages keep their original plural form; as,

From Latin—
Erratum, errata; formula, formulæ (or formulas);
index, indices; memorandum, memoranda;
radius, radii; terminus, termini (or terminuses).

From Greek—
Axis, axes; parenthesis, parentheses;
crisis, crises; hypothesis, hypotheses;
basis, bases; phenomenon, phenomena;
analysis, analyses; criterion, criteria.

From Italian—
Bandit, banditti (or bandits).

From French—
Madame (madam), mesdames; monsieur, messieurs.

From Hebrew—
Cherub, cherubim (or cherubs); seraph, seraphim (or seraphs).

39. Some nouns have two forms for the plural, each with a somewhat different meaning.

**Singular.**

**Plural.**

| Brother | { brothers, sons of the same parent. brethren, members of a society or a community. |
| Cloth | { cloths, kinds or pieces of cloth. clothes, garments. |
| Die | { dies, stamps for coining. dice, small cubes used in games. |
| Fish | { fishes, taken separately. fish, collectively. |
| Genius | { geniuses, persons of great talent. genii, spirits. |
| Index | { indexes, tables of contents to books. indices, signs used in algebra. |
| Penny | { pennies, number of coins. pence, amount in value. |
40. Some nouns have two meanings in the singular but only one in the plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Light:</td>
<td>Lights:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) radiance;</td>
<td>(1) lamps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) a lamp.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People:</td>
<td>Peoples:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) nation;</td>
<td>(1) nations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) men and women.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powder:</td>
<td>Powders:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) dust;</td>
<td>(2) doses of medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) a dose of medicine</td>
<td>in fine grains like dust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice:</td>
<td>Practices:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) habit;</td>
<td>(1) habits;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) exercise of a profession.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41. Some nouns have one meaning in the singular two in the plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colour:</td>
<td>Colours:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hue.</td>
<td>(1) hues;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) the flag of a regiment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Custom:</td>
<td>Customs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habit.</td>
<td>(1) habits;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) duties levied on import.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect:</td>
<td>Effects:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>result.</td>
<td>(1) results;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) property.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner:</td>
<td>Manners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>method.</td>
<td>(1) methods;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) correct behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral:</td>
<td>Morals:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a moral lesson.</td>
<td>(1) moral lessons;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) conduct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number:</td>
<td>Numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a quantity.</td>
<td>(1) quantities;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) verses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pain:</td>
<td>Pains:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffering.</td>
<td>(1) sufferings;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) care, exertion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premise:</td>
<td>Premises:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proposition.</td>
<td>(1) propositions;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) buildings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarter:</td>
<td>Quarters:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fourth part.</td>
<td>(1) fourth parts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) lodgings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spectacle:</td>
<td>Spectacles:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a sight.</td>
<td>(1) sights;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) eye-glasses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter:</td>
<td>Letters:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) letter of the alphabet;</td>
<td>(1) letters of the alphabet;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) epistle.</td>
<td>(2) epistles;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground:</td>
<td>Grounds:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) earth;</td>
<td>(1) enclosed land attached to house;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) reason.</td>
<td>(2) reasons;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) dregs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
42. Some nouns have different meanings in the singular and the plural.

*Singular.*

Advice: counsel.
Air: atmosphere.
Good: benefit, well-being.
Compass: extent, range.
Respect: regard.
Physic: medicine.
Iron: a kind of metal.
Force: strength.

*Plural.*

Advices: information.
Airs: affected manners.
Goods: merchandise.
Compasses: an instrument for drawing circles.
Respects: compliments.
Physics: natural science.
Irons: fetters.
Forces: troops.

43. Letters, figures and other symbols are made plural by adding an apostrophe and s; as,
There are more e's than a's in this page.
Dot your i's and cross your t's.
Add two 5's and four 2's.

44. It is usual to say—
The Miss Smiths. (Singular, Miss Smith.)
But we also say—
The Misses Smith.

45. Abstract Nouns have no plural.
Hope, charity, love, kindness.

When such words do appear in the plural, they are used as Common nouns; as,
Provocations = instances or cases of provocation.
Kindnesses = acts of kindness.

Names of substances or materials, called Material Nouns, are also not used in the plural.
Copper, iron, tin, wood.

When such words are used in the plural, they become Common nouns with changed meanings; as,
Coppers = copper coins; irons = fetters;
tins = cans made of tin; woods = forests.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NOUN: CASE.

46. Examine these sentences:—
1. John threw a stone.
2. The horse kicked the boy.
In sentence 1, the noun John is the Subject. It is the answer to the question, ‘Who threw a stone?’

The group of words threw a stone is the Predicate.
The Predicate contains the verb threw.

What did John throw?—A stone. Stone is the object which John threw. The noun stone is therefore called the Object.

In sentence 2, the noun horse is the Subject. It is the answer to the question, ‘Who kicked the boy?’
The noun boy is the Object. It is the answer to the question, ‘Whom did the horse kick?’

47. When a noun (or pronoun) is used as a Subject of a verb, it is said to be in the Nominative Case.

When a noun (or pronoun) is used as the Object of a verb, it is said to be in the Objective (or Accusative) Case.

Note.—To find the Nominative put Who? or What? before the verb.

To find the Accusative put Whom? or What? before the verb and its subject.

48. A noun which comes after a preposition is also said to be in the Accusative Case; as,

The book is in the desk.
The noun desk is in the Accusative Case, governed by the preposition in.

49. Read the following sentences:—

Hari broke the window. (Object.)
The window was broken. (Subject.)

It will be seen that Nouns in English have the same form for the Nominative and the Accusative.

The Nominative generally comes before the verb, and the Accusative after the verb. Hence they are distinguished by the order of words, or by the sense.

50. Examine the sentence:—

This is Rama’s umbrella.

Rama’s umbrella = the umbrella belonging to Rama.
The form of the noun Rama is changed to Rama’s to show ownership or possession. The Noun Rama’s is therefore said to be in the Possessive (or Genitive) Case.

The Possessive answers the question, ‘Whose?’

Whose umbrella?—Rama’s.
51. The Possessive Case does not always denote possession. It is used to denote authorship, origin, kind, etc.; as,

- Shakespeare's plays = the plays written by Shakespeare.
- A mother's love = the love felt by a mother.
- Sir Surendranath's speech = the speech delivered by Sir Surendranath.
- The court's decree = the decree passed by the court.
- Wellington's victories = the victories gained by Wellington.
- Rama's temple = the temple dedicated to Rama.
- Solomon's temple = the temple built by Solomon.

**Formation of the Possessive Case.**

52. (1) When the noun is Singular, the Possessive Case is formed by adding 's to the noun; as,

- The boy's book; the king's crown.

Note.—The letter s is omitted in a few words where too many hissing sounds would come together; as,

- For conscience' sake; for goodness' sake;
- For justice' sake; for Jesus' sake; Moses' laws.

(2) When the noun is Plural, and ends in s, the Possessive Case is formed by adding only an apostrophe; as,

- Boys' school; girls' school; horses' tails.

(3) When the noun is Plural, but does not end in s, the Possessive is formed by adding 's; as,

- Men's club; children's books.

53. When a noun or a title consists of several words, the Possessive sign is attached only to the last word; as,

- The Nawab of Rampur's library.
- I saw it at Asquith and Lord's.

54. When two nouns are in apposition, the Possessive sign is put to the latter only; as,

- That is Tagore the poet's house.

55. Also when two nouns are closely connected, the Possessive sign is put to the latter; as,

- Huntley and Palmer's biscuits.
- William and Mary's reign.

56. Each of two or more connected nouns implying separate possession must take the possessive sign; as,

- Gardiner's and Green's histories.
- Goldsmith's and Cowper's poems.
Use of the Possessive Case.

57. The Possessive Case is now used chiefly with the names of living things; as,
    The Governor's bodyguard; the lion's mane.

So we must say:
    The leg of the table [not, the table's leg].
    The cover of the book [not, the book's cover].
    The roof of the house [not, the house's roof].

58. But the Possessive is used with the names of personified* objects; as,
    India's heroes; Nature's laws; Fortune's favourite;
    at duty's call; at death's door.

59. The Possessive is also used with nouns denoting time, space or weight; as,
    A day's march; a week's holiday; in a year's time;
    a stone's throw; a foot's length; a pound's weight.

60. The following phrases are also in common use:—
    At his fingers' ends; for mercy's sake; to his heart's content;
    at his wit's end; a boat's crew.

61. The words cathedral, house, school, shop are often omitted after a Possessive Case; as,
    The memorial service for Lord Kitchener was held at St. Paul's.
    To-night I dine at my uncle's.
    I attend the Town High School but my cousin attends St. Xavier's.
    You can get this at Kemp's or Treacher's.

62. When you are in doubt whether to use a noun in the possessive case or with the preposition of, remember that, as a general rule, the possessive case is used to denote possession or ownership. Thus it is better to say 'the defeat of the enemy' than 'the enemy's defeat', even though no doubt as to the meaning would arise.

Sometimes, however, a noun in the possessive case has a different meaning from a noun used with the preposition of; as,

* When an inanimate thing has ascribed to it the attributes of a person, it is said to be personified. (See § 26.)
The King's reception in London means a reception or levee held by the King in London.

The reception of the King in London means the manner in which the people welcomed him when he entered London.

The phrase 'the love of a father' may mean either 'a father's love of his child' or 'a child's love of his father'.

Declension of Nouns.

63. When we give in order the various cases of a noun (or pronoun) in the two numbers, we are said to decline it or to give its Declension. Thus the full declensions of the nouns girl and man are as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative Case</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive Case</td>
<td>girl's</td>
<td>girls'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative Case</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominative Case</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive Case</td>
<td>man's</td>
<td>men's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative Case</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nominative of Address.

64. Read the following sentence:—

Come here, Rama.

In the above sentence Rama is the name of the person spoken to or addressed. We call its case the Nominative of Address (or the Vocative Case).

Other examples:—

Come on, boys.
Come into the garden, Maud.
Drink, pretty creature, drink.
O Death, where is thy sting?
Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.

A Noun used to name a person or thing addressed is in the Vocative Case.

Dative Case.

65. Compare:—

1. Rama gave a ball.
2. Rama gave Hari a ball.
In each of these sentences the noun ball is the Object of gave.
In the second sentence we are told that Hari was the person to whom Rama gave a ball.
The noun Hari is called the Indirect Object of the verb gave, and is said to be in the Dative Case.
The noun ball, the ordinary Object, is called the Direct Object, and is in the Accusative Case.
It will be noticed that the position of the Indirect Object is immediately after the verb and before the Direct Object.

[ Dative means 'of or belonging to giving', because the verb with which Indirect Objects are used may generally be classed as verbs of giving.]

Note.
Rama gave Hari a ball = Rama gave a ball to Hari.
Will you do me a favour? = Will you do a favour to me?
I bought Rama a ball = I bought a ball for Rama.
Fetch the boy a book = Fetch a book for the boy.
She made Ruth a new dress = She made a new dress for Ruth.
Get me a taxi = Get a taxi for me.

We see that the Indirect Object of a verb denotes the person to whom something is given, or for whom something is done.

Nouns in Apposition.

66. Read the following sentence:—
Rama, our captain, made fifty runs.

We see that Rama and our captain are one and the same person. The noun captain follows the noun Rama simply to explain which Rama is referred to.

When one noun follows another to describe it, the noun which follows is said to be in apposition to the noun which comes before it.

[ Apposition means a placing near. ]

A noun in apposition is in the same case as the noun which it explains.

In the above sentence the noun captain is in apposition to the noun Rama, and is in the Nominative Case (because Rama is in the Nominative Case).
Further examples:—
1. Kabir, the great reformer, was a weaver.
2. Yesterday I met your uncle, the doctor.
3. Have you seen Ganguli, the artist's drawings?

In sentence 1, the noun in apposition is in the Nominative Case.
In sentence 2, the noun in apposition is in the Accusative Case. [Why?]
In sentence 3, the noun in apposition is in the Genitive Case. [Why?]

Parsing of Nouns.

67. To Parse a word is to show—

(1) What part of speech it is,

• (2) how it is inflected or changed in form (if at all), and

(3) how it is related to other words in the sentence.

68. To parse a Noun we must give—

(1) Its Kind: whether Proper, Common, Collective, or Abstract.
(2) Its Gender: whether Masculine, Feminine, Common, or Neuter.
(3) Its Number: whether Singular or Plural.
(4) Its Case: whether Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Vocative, or Dative.
(5) Its Relation to other words.

Parsing Models.

(1) The woman shook her head.
woman—Common noun, feminine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject of the verb shook.

head—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, accusative case, object of the verb shook.

(2) Hari's books are in the desk.
Hari's—Proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, genitive case, governed by the noun books.
books—Common noun, neuter gender, plural number, nominative case, subject of the verb are.
desk—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, accusative case, governed by the preposition in.

(3) I teach the girls music.
girls—Common noun, feminine gender, plural number, dative case, indirect object of the verb teach.
music—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, accusative case, direct object of the verb teach.
(4) The crowd applauded him.

*crowd*—Collective noun, neuter gender, singular number, nominative case, subject of the verb *applauded*.

**Exercise in Grammar. 6.**

*Parse the Nouns in the following sentences:*—
1. Calcutta stands on the Hooghli.
2. The people rang the bells for joy.
3. Every dog has his day.
4. Birds have wonderfully keen eyes.
5. The Queen bravely faced the mob.
6. Lend me your ears.
7. For mercy’s sake be quiet.
8. The Spanish fleet was entirely destroyed.
9. Please give your brother this letter.
10. Man’s unhappiness comes of his ambition.

**CHAPTER IX.**

**THE ADJECTIVE.**

69. Read the following sentences:—
1. Sita is a *clever* girl. (*Girl of what kind?*)
2. I don’t like that boy. (*Which boy?*)
3. He gave me *five* mangoes. (*How many mangoes?*)
4. There is *little* time for preparation. (*How much time?*)

In sentence 1, ‘clever’ shows *what kind* of a girl Sita is; or, in other words, ‘clever’ *describes* the girl Sita.

In sentence 2, ‘that’ points out which boy is meant.

In sentence 3, ‘five’ shows *how many* mangoes he gave me.

In sentence 4, ‘little’ shows *how much* time there is for preparation.

A word used with a noun to describe, or point out, the person, animal, place or thing which the noun names, or to tell the number or quantity, is called an Adjective.

So we may define an Adjective as a word used with a noun to *add something to its meaning.*

[Adjective means added to.]
THE ADJECTIVE.

70. Look at the following sentences:—

1. The lazy boy was punished.
2. The boy is lazy.

In sentence 1, the Adjective lazy is used along with the noun boy as an epithet or attribute. It is therefore said to be used **Attributively**.

In sentence 2, the Adjective lazy is used along with the verb is, and forms part of the Predicate. It is therefore said to be used **Predicatively**.

Some Adjectives can be used only Predicatively; as,

She is afraid of ghosts.
I am quite well.

**Kinds of Adjectives.**

Adjectives may be divided into the following classes:—

71. **Adjectives of Quality** (or **Descriptive Adjectives**) show the kind or quality of a person or thing; as,

Calcutta is a large city.
He is an honest man.
The foolish old crow tried to sing.
This is a Grammar of the English* language.

[*Adjectives formed from Proper Nouns (e.g., French wines, Turkish tobacco, Indian tea, etc.) are sometimes called **Proper Adjectives**. They are generally classed with Adjectives of Quality.]

Adjectives of Quality answer the question: **Of what kind?**

72. **Adjectives of Quantity** show how much of a thing is meant; as,

I ate some rice.
He showed much patience.
He has little intelligence.
We have had enough exercise.
He has lost all his wealth.
You have no sense.
He did not eat any rice.
Take great care of your health.
He claimed his half share of the booty.
There has not been sufficient rain this year.
The whole sum was expended.

Adjectives of Quantity answer the question: **How much?**
73. **Adjectives of Number** (or **Numeral Adjectives**) show *how many* persons or things are meant, or *in what order* a person or thing stands; as,

The hand has *five* fingers.
Few cats like cold water.
There are *no* pictures in this book.
I have taught you *many* things.
All men must die.
Here are *some* ripe mangoes.

* Most boys like cricket.
There are *several* mistakes in your exercise.
Sunday is the *first* day of the week.

**Adjectives of Number** answer the question: *How many?*

74. **Adjectives of Number** (or **Numeral Adjectives**) are of three kinds:—

(i) **Definite Numeral Adjectives**, which denote an *exact* number; as,

*One, two, three,* etc. These are called **Cardinals**.

*First, second, third,* etc. These are called **Ordinals**.

[A Cardinal denotes *how many,* and an Ordinal the *order* of things in a series. It will be seen that Ordinals really do the work of Demonstrative Adjectives. See § 76.]

(ii) **Indefinite Numeral Adjectives**, which do not denote an exact number; as,

*All, no; many, few; some, any; certain, several, sundry.*

(iii) **Distributive Numeral Adjectives**, which refer to each one of a number; as,

*Each* boy must take his turn.
England expects *every* man to do his duty.
*Every* word of it is false.
*Either* pen will do.
On *either* side is a narrow lane.
*Neither* accusation is true.

75. The same Adjective may be classed as of **Quantity** or Number, according to its use.

**Adjectives of Quantity.**  **Adjectives of Number.**

I ate *some* rice.  *Some* boys are clever.
He has lost *all* his wealth. *All* men must die.
You have *no* sense.  *There are no* pictures in

this book.
He did not eat any rice. Are there any mango-trees in this garden?

I have enough sugar. There are not enough spoons.

76. **Demonstrative Adjectives** point out which person or thing is meant; as,

*This* boy is stronger than Hari.
*That* boy is industrious.
*These* mangoes are sour.
*Those* rascals must be punished.
*Yonder* fort once belonged to Sivaji.
Don't be in *such* a hurry.
I hate *such* things.

Demonstrative Adjectives answer the question: *Which?*

[It will be noticed that *this* and *that* are used with Singular nouns; *these* and *those* with Plural nouns.]

77. *What, which,* and *whose* when they are used with nouns to ask questions are called **Interrogative Adjectives**; as,

*What* manner of man is he?
*Which* way shall we go?
*Whose* book is this?

[It will be seen that *what* is used in a general sense, and *which* in a selective sense.]

**Exercise in Grammar. 7.**

*Pick out all the Adjectives in the following sentences, and say to which class each of them belongs:*

1. The ship sustained heavy damage.
2. I have called several times.
3. Every dog has his day.
4. A live ass is better than a dead lion.
5. Every man has his duties.
6. Say the same thing twice over.
7. Several persons were present at the time.
8. He is a man of few words.
9. Neither party is quite in the right.
10. What time is it?
11. Which pen do you prefer?
12. I like the little pedlar who has a crooked nose.
13. King Francis was a hearty King, and loved a royal sport.
14. In the furrowed land the toilsome and patient oxen stand.
15. The way was long, the wind was cold, the minstrel was infirm and old.
16. He comes here every day.
17. I have not seen him for several days.
18. There should not be much talk and little work.
19. Abdul won the second prize.
20. The child fell down from a great height.
21. He was absent last week.
22. He died a glorious death.
23. A small leak may sink a great ship.
24. Good wine needs no bush.
25. My uncle lives in the next house.
26. Some dreams are like reality.
27. A cross child is not liked.
28. It is an ill wind that blows nobody any good.

78. In the following sentences the words own and very are used as **Emphasizing Adjectives**:

I saw it with my own eyes.
He was beaten at his own game.
Mind your own business.
He is his own master.
That is the very thing we want.
   "When all else left my cause,
   My very adversary took my part."

79. The word what is sometimes used as an **Exclamatory Adjective**; as,

*What* genius!
*What* folly!
*What* an idea!
*What* a blessing!
*What* a piece of work is man!

80. As already pointed out (§ 76) *this* and *that* are the only Adjectives which are inflected or changed in form to show number.

*This* girl sings.  
*These* girls sing.
*That* boy plays.  
*Those* boys play.

*This, these* indicate something near to the speaker.  
*That, those* indicate more distant objects.
THE ADJECTIVE.

Formation of Adjectives.

81. (i) Many Adjectives are formed from Nouns.

\[\begin{array}{lll}
\text{Noun} & \text{Adjective} & \text{Noun} & \text{Adjective} \\
\text{Boy} & \text{boyish} & \text{Dirt} & \text{dirty} \\
\text{Fool} & \text{foolish} & \text{Storm} & \text{stormy} \\
\text{Care} & \text{careful} & \text{Pardon} & \text{pardonable} \\
\text{Play} & \text{playful} & \text{Laugh} & \text{laughable} \\
\text{Hope} & \text{hopeful} & \text{Outrage} & \text{outrageous} \\
\text{Venture} & \text{venturesome} & \text{Courage} & \text{courageous} \\
\text{Trouble} & \text{troublesome} & \text{Glory} & \text{glorious} \\
\text{Shame} & \text{shameless} & \text{Envy} & \text{envious} \\
\text{Sense} & \text{senseless} & \text{Man} & \text{manly} \\
\text{Silk} & \text{silken} & \text{King} & \text{kingly} \\
\text{Gold} & \text{golden} & \text{Gift} & \text{gifted} \\
\end{array}\]

(ii) Some Adjectives are formed from Verbs.

\[\begin{array}{lll}
\text{Verb} & \text{Adjective} & \text{Verb} & \text{Adjective} \\
\text{Tire} & \text{tireless} & \text{Cease} & \text{ceaseless} \\
\text{Talk} & \text{talkative} & \text{Move} & \text{moveable} \\
\end{array}\]

(iii) Some Adjectives are formed from other Adjectives.

\[\begin{array}{lll}
\text{Tragic} & \text{tragic} & \text{Black} & \text{blackish} \\
\text{Whole} & \text{wholesome} & \text{White} & \text{whitish} \\
\text{Three} & \text{threelfold} & \text{Sick} & \text{sickly} \\
\end{array}\]

Exercise in Composition. 8.

Supply suitable Adjectives:

1. The town stood a —— siege.
2. The —— prize was won by a Hindu.
3. The —— woman lives in a wretched hut.
4. This is a very —— matter.
5. The battle of Waterloo ended in a —— victory.
6. Suddenly there arose a —— storm.
7. It is a —— lie.
8. The —— tidings were a heavy blow to the old man.
9. Here is a rupee; pay the fare and keep the money.
10. His reading is of a very —— range.
11. The injured man wants —— advice.
12. You cannot have it —— ways.
14. The —— bird catches the worm.
15. Have you any —— reason to give?
16. —— anxiety has undermined his health.
17. There were riots in —— places.
18. An —— man will not reason calmly.
19. He stands —— feet in his stockings.
21. I have no —— cash.
22. He always walks with a —— step.
23. —— errors are not easily corrected.
24. Every cloud has a —— lining.
25. He was a man of —— ambition.
26. He was listened to in —— silence.

Exercise in Composition. 9.

Form Adjectives from the following Nouns:—
[Attach each Adjective to a suitable noun.]
Ease, pity, time, heaven, health, wealth, love, hill, need,
green, room, cost, pain, doubt, wonder, peace, child,
prince, mountain, ridicule, picture, labour, wood, pomp,
artist, progress, slave, contempt, tempest, sense,
quarrel, thought, hope, friend.

Exercise in Composition. 10.

Use each of the following Adjectives in a sentence:—
[Models.—A soft answer turneth away wrath.
His polite manners have endeared him to all.
Swimming is a healthy exercise.
A certain man fell among thieves.]
Happy, sad, industrious, lazy, big, small, soft, harsh, hard,
polite, rude, wise, foolish, rich, poor, young, new, old,
long, short, quick, slow, strong, weak, handsome, ugly,
clever, dull, kind, cruel, healthy, dutiful, distant,
certain.

Exercise in Composition. 11.

Use a suitable Adjective with each of the following Nouns:—
[Models.—A violent storm.
A long siege.
A decisive victory.
A populous city.
A devoted husband.]
Storm, siege, sleep, victory, advice, blow, silence, hands,
water, servant, flower, city, artist, dealer, voice, husband,
subject, child, king, dog.
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Exercise in Composition. 12.

Use as many suitable Adjectives as you can with each of the following Nouns:—
[Models.—A narrow street, a wide street, a crooked street,
a dirty street, a clean street.
A deliberate lie, a black lie, a white lie.]
Fortune, man, news, storm, health, novel, progress, room, incident.

Exercise in Composition. 13.

Write down the Adjectives opposite in meaning to the following:—
Courageous, many, wild, hot, lean, heavy, costly, barren,
beautiful, patient, honest, civilized, careful, strong, experienced, slow, friendly, cruel, soft.

CHAPTER X.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

82. Read these sentences:—
1. Rama’s mango is sweet.
2. Hari’s mango is sweeter than Rama’s.
3. Govind’s mango is the sweetest of all.

In sentence 1, the adjective sweet merely tells us that Rama’s mango has the quality of sweetness, without saying how much of this quality it has.

In sentence 2, the adjective sweeter tells us that Hari’s mango, compared with Rama’s, has more of the quality of sweetness.

In sentence 3, the adjective sweetest tells us that of all these mangoes Govind’s mango has the greatest amount or highest degree of the quality of sweetness.

We thus see that Adjectives change in form (sweet, sweeter, sweetest) to show comparison. They are called the three Degrees of Comparison.
The Adjective sweet is said to be in the Positive Degree.
The Adjective sweeter is said to be in the Comparative Degree.
The Adjective sweetest is said to be in the Superlative Degree.
The Positive Degree of an Adjective is the Adjective
in its simple form. It is used to denote the mere
existence of some quality of what we speak about.
It is used when no comparison is made.

The Comparative Degree of an Adjective denotes a
higher degree of the quality than the Positive, and is
used when two things (or sets of things) are com-
pared; as,

This boy is stronger than that.
Which of these two pens is the better?
The Marathas are stronger than the Madrasis.

The Superlative Degree of an Adjective denotes the
highest degree of the quality, and is used when more
than two things (or sets of things) are compared; as,
This boy is the strongest in the class.

Note 1.—There is another way in which we can
compare things. Instead of saying 'Rama is stronger
than Balu,' we can say 'Balu is less strong than Rama.'
Instead of saying 'Hari is the laziest boy in the class,'
we can say 'Hari is the least industrious boy in the
class.'

Note 2.—The Superlative with most is sometimes
used where there is no idea of comparison, but merely
a desire to indicate the possession of a quality in a
very high degree; as,
This is most unfortunate.
It was a most eloquent speech.
Truly, a most ingenious device!

This usage has been called the Superlative of Emi-
nence, or the Absolute Superlative.

Formation of Comparative and Superlative.

83. Most Adjectives of one syllable, and some of
more than one, form the Comparative by adding er
and the Superlative by adding est to the Positive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweet</td>
<td>sweeter</td>
<td>sweetest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>smaller</td>
<td>smallest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tall</td>
<td>taller</td>
<td>tallest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bold</td>
<td>bolder</td>
<td>boldest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clever</td>
<td>cleverer</td>
<td>cleverest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kind</td>
<td>kinder</td>
<td>kindest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young</td>
<td>younger</td>
<td>youngest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great</td>
<td>greater</td>
<td>greatest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
COMPARED OF ADJECTIVES.

When the Positive ends in e, only r and st are added.

Brave  braver  bravest
Fine   finer   finest
White  whiter  whitest
Large  larger  largest
Able   abler   ablest
Noble  nobler  noblest
Wise   wiser   wisest

When the Positive ends in y, preceded by a consonant, the y is changed into i before adding er and est.

Happy  happier  happiest
Easy   easier  easiest
Heavy  heavier  heaviest
Merry  merrier  merriest
Wealthy wealthier  wealthiest

When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, this consonant is doubled before adding er and est.

Red   redder  reddest
Big   bigger  biggest
Hot   hotter  hottest
Thin  thinner  thinnest
Sad   sadder  saddest
Fat   fatter  fattest

84. Adjectives of more than two syllables, and many of those with two, form the Comparative by using the adverb more with the Positive, and the Superlative by using the adverb most with the Positive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Splendid</td>
<td>more splendid</td>
<td>most splendid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>more beautiful</td>
<td>most beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>more difficult</td>
<td>most difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrious</td>
<td>more industrious</td>
<td>most industrious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courageous</td>
<td>more courageous</td>
<td>most courageous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learned</td>
<td>more learned</td>
<td>most learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper</td>
<td>more proper</td>
<td>most proper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The new palace is more splendid than the old one.
Which do you consider his most splendid victory?
Abdul is more courageous than Karim.
Rahim is the most courageous boy in the village.

85. The Comparative in er is not used when we compare two qualities in the same person or thing.
If we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than the courage of Balu, we say,
   Rama is *braver* than Balu.
But if we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than his prudence, we must say,
   Rama is *more brave* than prudent.

86. When two objects are compared with each other, the latter term of comparison must exclude the former; as,
   Iron is more useful than any other metal.
If we say,
   Iron is more useful than any metal,
that is the same thing as saying ‘Iron is more useful than iron’, since iron is itself a metal.

**Irregular Comparison.**

87. The following Adjectives are compared *irregularly*, that is, their Comparative and Superlative are not formed from the Positive:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good, well</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad, evil, ill</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>less, lesser</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most (quantity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most (number)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late</td>
<td>later, latter</td>
<td>latest, last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old</td>
<td>older, elder</td>
<td>oldest, eldest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
<td>farther</td>
<td>farthest (distance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigh</td>
<td>higher</td>
<td>highest, next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fore</td>
<td>former</td>
<td>foremost, first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Fore)</td>
<td>further</td>
<td>furthest (movement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(In)</td>
<td>inner</td>
<td>inmost, innermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Up)</td>
<td>upper</td>
<td>upmost, uppermost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Out)</td>
<td>outer, utter</td>
<td>utmost, uttermost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The forms enclosed in parentheses are not used as Adjectives; they are Adverbs.

**Exercise in Grammar. 14.**

*Compare the following Adjectives:—*

Black, excellent, ill, gloomy, mad, safe, bad, unjust, gay, able, dry, timid, ugly, true, severe, exact, agreeable, difficult, little, few, numerous, merry.
88. The double forms of the Comparative and Superlative of the Adjectives given in § 87 are used in different ways.

**Later, latter; latest, last.**—Later and latest refer to time; latter and last refer to position.

- He is later than I expected.
- I have not heard the latest news.
- The latter chapters are lacking in interest.
- The last chapter is carelessly written.
- Ours is the last house in the street.

**Elder, older; eldest, oldest.**—Elder and eldest are used only of persons, not of animals or things; and are now confined to members of the same family. Elder is not used with than following. Older and oldest are used of both persons and things.

- John is my elder brother.
- Tom is my eldest son.
- He is older than his sister.
- Rama is the oldest boy in the eleven.
- This is the oldest temple in Calcutta.

**Farther, further.**—Farther means more distant or advanced; further means additional.

- Calcutta is farther from the equator than Colombo.
- After this he made no further remarks.
- I must have a reply without further delay.

Note.—The forms farther and further are not always differentiated by writers.

**Nearest, next.**—Nearest denotes distance; next denotes position.

- Bombay is the seaport nearest to Europe.
- Osler’s shop is next to the Post Office.
- My uncle lives in the next house.

**Exercise in Composition. 15.**

(a) **Fill the blank spaces with ‘later’ or ‘latter’:—**

1. The majority accepted the —— proposal.
2. The —— part of the book shows signs of hurry.
3. At a —— date, he was placed in charge of the whole taluka.
4. I prefer the —— proposition to the former.
5. Is there no —— news than last week’s?

(b) **Fill the blank spaces with ‘older’ or ‘elder’:—**

1. I have an —— sister.
2. Rama is —— than Hari by two years.
3. His — brother is in the Indian Civil Service.
4. She is the — of the two sisters.
5. The nephew is — than his uncle.

(c) Fill the blank spaces with ‘oldest’ or ‘eldest’:
1. Rustam is the — of my uncle’s five sons.
2. He is the — member of the School Committee.
3. That is Antonio, the duke’s — son.
4. The — mosque in the town is near the railway station.
5. Mr. Smith is the — European resident of Jamshedpur.

(d) Fill the blank spaces with ‘farther’ or ‘further’:
1. Broach is — from Bombay than Surat.
2. No — reasons were given.
3. He walked off without — ceremony.
4. Until — orders Mr. K. S. Dave will act as Headmaster of Nira High School.
5. To let, a bungalow at Ridge Road. For — particulars apply to Box No. 65.

(e) Fill the blank spaces with ‘latest’ or ‘last’:
1. The — news from China is very disquieting.
2. The — time I saw him, he was in high spirits.
3. To-day is the — day for receiving tenders.
4. We expect to get the — news in a few hours.
5. The — Moghul Emperor came to an ignominious end.

(f) Fill the blank spaces with ‘nearest’ or ‘next’:
1. This is the — post-office to my house.
2. The pillar-box is — to my house.
3. The burglar was taken to the — police station.
4. His house is — to mine.
5. The — railway station is two miles from here.

89. Certain English Comparatives have lost their comparative meaning and are used as Positives. They cannot be followed by than. These are:

Former, latter, elder, hinder, upper, nether, inner, outer, utter.

Both the tiger and the leopard are cats; the former animal is much larger than the latter.

The inner meaning of this letter is not clear.
The soldiers ran to defend the outer wall.

My elder brother is an engineer.

This man is an utter fool.
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

90. Certain Comparatives borrowed from Latin have no Positive or Superlative degree. They all end in or, not er. They are twelve in all. Five of them have lost their Comparative meaning, and are used as Positive Adjectives. These are:—

*Interior, exterior, ulterior, major, minor.*

The *exterior* wall of the house is made of stone; the *interior* walls are of wood.

His age is a matter of *minor* importance.

I have no *ulterior* motive in offering you help.

The other seven are used as Comparative Adjectives but are followed by to instead of than. (See § 91.)

91. The Comparative degree is generally followed by than; but Comparative Adjectives ending in -or are followed by the preposition to; as,

*Inferior, superior, prior, anterior, posterior, senior, junior.*

Hari is *inferior* to Rama in intelligence.

Rama’s intelligence is *superior* to Hari’s.

The death of King Edward was *prior* to the Great War.

He is *junior* to all his colleagues.

All his colleagues are *senior* to him.

92. Adjectives expressing qualities that do not admit of different degrees cannot, strictly speaking, be compared; as,

*Square, round, perfect, eternal, universal, unique.*

Strictly speaking, a thing cannot be more square, more round, more perfect. But we still say, for instance,

This is the *most perfect* specimen I have seen.

Exercise in Grammar. 16.

*Point out the Adjectives and name the Degree of Comparison of each:—*

1. The poor woman had seen happier days.
2. Do not talk such nonsense.
3. Make less noise.
4. That child has a slight cold.
5. A live ass is stronger than a dead lion.
6. Say the same thing twice over.
7. Solomon was one of the wisest men.
8. Hunger is the best sauce.
9. His simple word is as good as an oath.
10. There was not the slightest excuse for it.
11. My knife is sharper than yours.
12. Small people love to talk of great.
13. Of two evils choose the less.
14. I hope the matter will be cleared up some day.
15. Your son makes no progress in his studies.
16. Open rebuke is better than secret love.
17. We never had such sport.
18. I have other things to attend to.
19. Hari is the idlest boy in the class.
20. I promise you a fair hearing.
21. There is much to be said on both sides.
22. He gave the boys much wholesome advice.
23. He thinks he is wiser than his father.
24. No news is good news.
25. England has the largest fleet in the world.
26. Lead is heavier than any other metal.
27. I congratulated him on his good fortune.
28. He has many powerful friends.
29. The longest lane has a turning.

Exercise in Grammar. 17.

Make three columns, and write the following Adjectives in the Positive, Comparative and Superlative Degree:

[Be careful to use the form of comparison that is pleasing to the ear.]

Shameful, clever, pretty, interesting, hopeful, honest, important, patient, rude, delightful, stupid, attractive, heavy, beautiful, fortunate, pleasant.

Exercise in Composition. 18.

Supply the proper form (Comparative or Superlative) of the Adjective:

[Note.—The Comparative and not the Superlative should be used to compare two things.]

1. Good.— How is your brother to-day? Is he ——?
2. Hot.— May is —— here than any other month.
3. Pretty.— Her doll is —— than yours.
4. Idle.— Hari is the —— boy in the class.
5. Sharp.— Your knife is sharp, but mine is ——.
6. Dear.— Honour is —— to him than life.
7. Rich.— He is the —— man in our town.
8. Old.— Mani is two years —— than Rati.
9. Large.— Name the —— city in the world.
10. Good.— He is the —— friend I have.
11. Bad.— He is the —— boy of the two.
12. **Bad.**— Rama's work is bad, Hari's is —, but Govind's is the —.

13. **Ferocious.**— There is no animal — than the tiger.

14. **Bad.**— The trade is in a — condition to-day than it was a year ago.

15. **Tall.**— He is the — of the two.

16. **Dry.**— Sind is the — part of India.

17. **Useful.**— Iron is — than any other metal.

18. — Iron is the — of all metals.

19. **Great.**— Who is the — living poet?

20. **Nutritious.**— I think he requires a — diet.

21. **Proud.**— It was the — moment of his life.

22. **Good.**— The public is the — judge.

23. **Little.**— That is the — price I can take.

24. **Light.**— Silver is — than gold.

**Exercise in Composition. 19.**

*Supply appropriate Comparatives or Superlatives to each of the following:—*

1. Prevention is — than cure.
2. Akbar had a — reign than Babar.
3. London is the — city in the world.
4. The pen is — than the sword.
5. The — buildings are found in America.
6. *The Mail* has a — circulation than any other paper.
7. Which of the two girls has the — dress?
8. Honour is — to him than life.
9. This pen is — than the other.
10. Who is the — boy in the class?
11. The Eiffel Tower is — than Kutb Minar.
12. My uncle is — than my father.
13. The multi-millionaire Mr. Sen is the — man in this town.
14. Wordsworth is a — poet than Cowper.
15. Balu is the — bowler in our eleven.
16. The streets of Bombay are — than those of Ahmedabad.
17. Mahableshwar is — than Matheran.
18. The piano was knocked down to the — bidder.
19. Mount Everest is the — peak of the Himalayas.
20. He writes a — hand than his brother.
21. He writes the — hand in his class.
22. He is one of the — speakers in the Punjab.
23. Who was the — general, Alexander or Cæsar?
24. The — fables are those attributed to Æsop.
25. The Arabian Nights is perhaps the — story-book.
26. Shakespeare is — than any other English poet.
27. Of all countries, China has the —— population in the world.
28. Clouds float in the sky because they are —— than the air.
29. There are two ways of doing the sum, but this one is the ——.
30. It is good to be clever, but it is —— to be industrious.
31. This is the —— of my two sons.
32. This is the —— that I can do.

Exercise in Composition. 20.

Change the following sentences by using ‘less’ or ‘least’ without changing the meaning:—
1. The mango is sweeter than the pine-apple.
2. Silver is more plentiful than gold.
3. This is the most useless of all my books.
4. Wolfram is one of the rarest minerals.
5. The wild-apple is the sourest of all fruits.
6. Iron is more useful than copper.

Interchange of the Degrees of Comparison.

93. As the following examples show, it is possible to change the Degree of Comparison of an Adjective in a sentence, without changing the meaning of the sentence:—

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Superlative.} & \quad \text{—Lead is the heaviest of all metals.} \\
\text{Comparative.} & \quad \text{—Lead is heavier than all other metals.} \\
\text{Comparative.} & \quad \text{—Mahableshwar is cooler than Panchgani.} \\
\text{Positive.} & \quad \text{—Panchgani is not so cool as Mahableshwar.} \\
\text{Positive.} & \quad \text{—He is as wise as Solomon.} \\
\text{Comparative.} & \quad \text{—Solomon was not wiser than he is.} \\
\text{Superlative.} & \quad \text{—Sakuntala is the best drama in Sanskrit.} \\
\text{Comparative.} & \quad \text{—Sakuntala is better than any other drama in Sanskrit.} \\
\text{Positive.} & \quad \text{—No other drama in Sanskrit is so good as Sakuntala.} \\
\text{Superlative.} & \quad \text{—Madras is one of the biggest of Indian towns.} \\
\text{Comparative.} & \quad \text{—Madras is bigger than most other Indian towns.} \\
\text{Positive.} & \quad \text{—Very few Indian towns are so big as Madras.} \\
\text{Positive.} & \quad \text{—Some poets are at least as great as Tennyson.} \\
& \quad \text{Tennyson is not greater than some other poets.} \\
\text{Comparative.} & \quad \text{—Some poets are not less great than Tennyson.} \\
\text{Superlative.} & \quad \text{—Tennyson is not the greatest of all poets.}
\end{align*}
\]
Exercise in Composition. 21.

Change the Degree of Comparison, without changing the meaning:

1. The Times is the most powerful newspaper in England.
2. Some beans are at least as nutritious as meat.
3. In India, no other exercise is so healthy as swimming.
4. Very few boys are so industrious as Latif.
5. He would sooner die than tell a lie.
6. Bombay mango is the best in India.
7. Shakespeare is greater than any other English poet.
8. Samudra Gupta was one of the greatest of Indian kings.
9. The tiger is the most ferocious of all animals.
10. Australia is the largest island in the world.
11. Lead is heavier than any other metal.
12. Some people have more money than brains.
13. A wise enemy is better than a foolish friend.
14. The Marwaries are not less enterprising than any other community in India.
15. I know him quite as well as you do.
16. You do not know him better than I do.
17. No man was as strong as Bhim.
18. Some Pathans are at least as faithful as the Sikhs.
19. Mount Everest is the highest peak of the Himalayas.
20. Very few countries are as rich as England.
21. America is the richest country in the world.
22. It is easier to preach than to practise.
23. Iron is more useful than all the other metals.
24. Open rebuke is better than secret love.
25. England has the largest fleet in the world.
26. Sir Surendranath was at least as great an orator as any other Indian.
27. Ooty is as healthy as any hill-sanitarium in India.
28. The pen is mightier than the sword.

CHAPTER XI.

PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.

94. To Parse an Adjective, we must give—

(1) Its Kind.
(2) Its Degree of Comparison (if the adjective can be compared): Positive, Comparative, Superlative.
(3) Its Relation. Qualifying a noun or pronoun, or used predicatively after a verb.
Parsing Models.

(1) He is a better speaker than writer.

*better*—Adjective of quality, comparative degree, qualifying *speaker.*

(2) He is the richest man in his village.

*richest*—Adjective of quality, superlative degree, qualifying *man.*

(3) The way was long.

*long*—Adjective of quality, positive degree. Used predicatively after the verb *was,* and qualifying *way.*

(4) Look at that bird.

*that*—Demonstrative adjective, defining the noun *bird.*

(5) Three girls are absent to-day.

*Three*—Cardinal numeral adjective, limiting the noun *girls.*

(6) January is the first month of the year.

*first*—Ordinal numeral adjective, qualifying *month.*

(7) There was much delay.

*much*—Adjective of quantity, positive degree, qualifying *delay.*

Exercise in Grammar. 22.

Parse the Adjectives in the following sentences:—

1. Birds have wonderfully keen eyes.
2. America is a larger continent than Europe.
3. The attempt to scale the fort was an utter failure.
4. The fifth chapter is uninteresting.
5. Kind words are more than coronets.
6. The darkest cloud has a silver lining.
7. Many hands make lighter work.
8. We play cricket on level ground.
9. Given fair play, he is sure to win.

CHAPTER XII.

ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

95. Adjectives are often used as Nouns.

(1) As Plural Nouns denoting a class of persons; as,

*The cautious* (= cautious persons) are not always cowards.
ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

The rich (= rich people) know not how the poor (= poor people) live.
The wicked (= wicked people) flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous (= righteous people) are bold as a lion.
Blessed are the meek.

(2) As Singular Nouns denoting some abstract quality; as,
The future (= futurity) is unknown to us.
He is a lover of the beautiful (= beauty in general).

(3) Some Adjectives actually become Nouns, and are hence used in both numbers:—

(a) Those derived from Proper Nouns; as, Australians, Canadians, Italians.
(b) Some denoting persons; as, juniors, seniors, mortals, inferiors, superiors, nobles, criminals, savages, elders, minors.
(c) A few denoting things generally; as, secrets, totals, liquids, solids, valuables.

[Some Adjectives are used as Nouns only in the plural; as, sweets, bitters, valuables, eatables.]

(4) In certain phrases; as,
In general; in future; in short; in secret; before long; at present; for good; at best; through thick and thin; for better; for worse; in black and white; right or wrong; from bad to worse; the long and short.

In future I shall charge you for medical advice.
In short, we know nothing.
The negotiations were carried on in secret.
I shall see you before long.
Before long, he will be appointed to a higher post.
At present, he is in pecuniary difficulties.
I do not want any more at present.
He has left India for good.
At best we shall get no more dividend than an anna in a rupee.
At best he is a clever versifier: but a poet he is certainly not.
It must be said to his credit that he stood by his friend through thick and thin.
I must have your terms down in black and white.
Right or wrong, my country.
I am afraid the young man is going from bad to worse.
The long and short of it is that I distrust you.
Nouns used as Adjectives.

96. The use of Nouns as Adjectives is very common in English; as,
    I met a little cottage girl.
The Rajah lives in a marble palace.

CHAPTER XIII.

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POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

97. A single Adjective used attributively is generally placed immediately before the noun; as,
    King Francis was a hearty king, and loved a royal sport.
    Where are you going, my pretty maid, with your rosy cheeks and golden hair?
    O Captain! my Captain! our fearful trip is done.
    Observe the difference in meaning between—
    (i) a great nobleman's son,
    and (ii) a nobleman's great son.

98. In poetry, however, the Adjective is frequently placed after the noun; as,
    Children dear, was it yesterday?
    We heard the sweet bells over the bay.
    O man with sisters dear!

99. When several Adjectives are attached to one noun they are generally placed after it for emphasis; as,
    There dwelt a miller hale and bold.
    The King, fearless and resolute, at once advanced.
    Franklin had a great genius, original, sagacious, and inventive.

100. When some word or phrase is joined to the Adjective to explain its meaning, the Adjective is placed after its noun; as,
    He was a man fertile in resource.
    A Sikh, taller than any of his comrades, rushed forward.

101. In certain phrases the Adjective always comes after the noun; as,
    Heir apparent, time immemorial, lord paramount,
    viceroy elect, letters patent, knights temporal,
    notary public, body politic, God Almighty.
CHAPTER XIV.

THE CORRECT USE OF SOME ADJECTIVES.

102. Some, any.—To express quantity or degree some is used in affirmative sentences, any in negative or interrogative sentences.

I shall buy some mangoes.
I shall not buy any mangoes.
Have you bought any mangoes?

But some is correctly used in questions which are really commands or requests; as,

Will you please lend me some money?

103. Each, every.—Each and every are similar in meaning, but every is a stronger word than each; it means, 'each without exception'. Each is used in speaking of two or more things; every is used only in speaking of more than two. Each directs attention to the individuals forming any group, every to the total group. Each is used only when the number in the group is limited and definite; every when the number is indefinite.

Each seat was taken.
Five boys were seated on each bench.
Every one of these chairs is broken.
Leap year falls in every fourth year.
He came to see us every three days [i.e., once in every period of three days].
It rained every day during my holidays.
I was away ten days and it rained each day.

104. Little, a little, the little.—Note carefully the use of—

(1) little, (2) a little, (3) the little.

Little=not much (i.e., hardly any). Thus, the adjective little has a negative meaning.

There is little hope of his recovery, i.e., he is not likely to recover.
He showed little concern for his nephew.
He has little influence with his old followers.
He showed little mercy to the vanquished.
He has little appreciation of good poetry.

A little=some, though not much. ‘A little’ has a positive meaning.
There is a little hope of his recovery, i.e., he may possibly recover.
A little tact would have saved the situation.
A little knowledge is a dangerous thing.

The little—not much, but all that is.
The little information he had was not quite reliable.
The little knowledge of carpentry that he possessed stood him in good stead.

[ The sentence means—
The knowledge of carpentry he possessed was not much; but all that knowledge stood him in good stead. ]

Exercise in Composition. 23.

Insert ‘a little’ or ‘the little’, whichever is suitable:—
1. —— grain they had was damaged by sea-water. ’
2. —— precaution is necessary in handling that machine.
3. —— care could have prevented the catastrophe. [age.
4. —— influence that he has, he uses to the best advant-
5. —— knowledge of French that he has is likely to be very useful to him on the Continent.

105. Few, a few, the few.—Note carefully the use of—

(1) few,  (2) a few,  (3) the few.

Few=not many, hardly any. ‘Few’ has a negative meaning.

Few persons can keep a secret.
Few people are so hopeless as drunkards.
Few towns in India have public libraries.
Few works of reference are so valuable as the Encyclopædia Britannica.
Few men are free from faults.
Few men reach the age of one hundred years.
Few Parsees write Gujrati correctly.

A few=some. ‘A few’ has a positive meaning, and is opposed to ‘none’.

A few words spoken in earnest will convince him.
A few Parsees write Gujrati correctly.

The few=not many, but all there are.
The few remarks that he made were very suggestive.

[ The sentence means—
The remarks he made were not many; but all those remarks were very suggestive. ]

The few friends he has are all very poor.
‘The few clothes they had were all tattered and torn.'
Exercise in Composition. 24.

Insert ‘a few’ or ‘the few’, whichever is suitable:—

1. —— public libraries that we have are not well equipped.
2. —— days that are left to him he spends in solitude and meditation.
3. Many Hindus study Sanskrit, but only —— Parsees study Avesta.
4. —— days’ rest is all that is needed.
5. —— Japanese that are in Bombay are law-abiding citizens.
6. It is a question of spending —— rupees.
7. —— hints on essay-writing are quite to the point.
8. —— months that he spent in Ooty did him a lot of good.
9. When I met him —— years after, he looked old and haggard.
10. —— short poems in the volume show signs of genius.
11. In —— words he expressed his gratitude to his friends.
12. —— Americans have their offices in Calcutta.
13. —— trinkets she has are not worth much.
14. —— poems he has written are all of great excellence.

CHAPTER XV.

ADJECTIVE PHRASES.

106. Compare:—

He is a wealthy man.
He is a man of wealth.

It will be noticed that the group of words ‘of wealth’ does the work of an Adjective, because it tells us what sort of man he is. Hence such a group of words is called an Adjective Phrase.

Def.—An Adjective Phrase is a phrase (or group of words) that does the work of an Adjective.

Further examples:—

That was a cowardly act. (Adjective.)
That was an act of cowardice. (Adjective Phrase.)
Brutus is an honourable man. (Adjective.)
Brutus is a man of honour. (Adjective Phrase.)
He is well. (Adjective.)
He is in good health. (Adjective Phrase.)
The Rajah lives in his ancestral palace.
The Rajah lives in the palace of his ancestors.
He occupies a very important position.
He occupies a position of great importance.

107. From the above examples the student should not conclude that it is always possible to substitute an Adjective for an Adjective Phrase. Let him examine the phrases in italics.

The wages of sin is death.
The love of praise reigns in every heart.
He never felt the witchery of the soft blue sky.

Each phrase does the work of an Adjective, and is therefore an Adjective Phrase, but it clearly cannot be replaced by an Adjective.

Exercise in Composition. 25.

Replace the Adjectives in the following sentences by Adjective Phrases:

1. The rose is a very beautiful flower.
2. A courageous man does not fear danger.
3. A very valuable ring was found yesterday.
4. Heroic deeds deserve our admiration.
5. He is a bad-tempered fellow.
6. Much has been said about the Swiss scenery.
7. Numerical superiority is a great advantage.
8. I will tell you an interesting anecdote.
9. He is a strictly honest man.
10. We visited the royal palace.
11. The Rajputs were passionately fond of martial glory.
12. I have passed a sleepless night.
13. A homeless child is to be pitied.
14. Suddenly, a violent storm arose.
15. He is a professional cricketer.
17. Some parts of Ceylon are very fertile.
18. On that occasion John Bright delivered a forcible speech.
19. Tamerlane was a merciless man.
20. She wants medical advice.

Exercise in Composition. 26.

Replace the Adjective Phrases in the following sentences by Adjectives:

1. Some of the buildings in New York are of great height.
2. Nelson was a boy without fear.
3. It was a sunset of great beauty.
4. Nobody likes a person with a bad temper.
5. It was a position of great danger.
6. I admit that he is a man of sense.
7. Isn't this a matter of importance?
8. It was one by the clock of the tower.
9. The tops of the mountains were covered with snow.
10. He is a man of great energy.
11. The doors of the prison closed upon him.
12. He is an author of great versatility.
13. Old Tubal Cain was a man of might.
14. The continent of America was probably discovered by Cabot.
15. He is a gambler by profession.
16. It is of no use.

Exercise in Composition. 27.
Frame sentences containing the following Adjectival Phrases:
- made of gold; with blue eyes; with no writing on it;
- of great weight; of purple colour; without any inhabitants; through the jungle; of great strength; of adventure; of the ancients; belonging to us; of brick.

CHAPTER XVI.
ARTICLES.

108. The Adjectives a or an and the are usually called Articles. They are really Demonstrative Adjectives.

109. There are two Articles—a (or an) and the.

110. A or an is called the Indefinite Article, because it leaves indefinite the person or thing spoken of; as,
    a doctor; that is, any doctor.

111. The is called the Definite Article, because it points out some particular person or thing; as,
    He saw the doctor; meaning some particular doctor.
112. As a general rule, an Article is used before a common noun, singular number; as,
   This is a mango.
   Fight like a hero.
   Here is an elephant.
   I like the novel you gave me.
But Common nouns in the singular, used in a general sense, do not require an Article; as,
   Man is mortal.

A or An.

113. The choice between a and an is determined by sound.
   Before a word beginning with a vowel sound an is used; as,
   An ass, an enemy, an inkstand, an orange, an umbrella, an hour, an honest man, an heir.
   It will be noticed that the words hour, honest, heir, begin with a vowel sound, as the initial consonant h is not pronounced.

114. Before a word beginning with a consonant sound a is used; as,
   A boy, a reindeer, a woman, a yard, a horse, a hole;
   also a university, a union, a European, a ewe, a unicorn, a useful article,
because these words (university, union, etc.) begin with a consonant sound, that of yu.
   Similarly we say,
   a one-rupee note, such a one, a one-eyed man,
because one begins with the consonant sound of w.

115. Before words beginning with h and not accented on the first syllable, an is often used; as,
   An historical novel, an hotel.

Use of the Definite Article.

116. The Definite Article the is used—
   (1) When we speak of a particular person or thing, or one already referred to; as,
   The book you want is out of print.
   I dislike the fellow.
   Let us go to the club.
(2) When a singular noun is meant to represent a whole class; as,

_The_ cow is a useful animal.
[Or we may say, "Cows are useful animals." ]
_The_ horse is a noble animal.
_The_ cat loves comfort.
_The_ rose is the sweetest of all flowers.
_The_ banyan is a kind of fig tree.
[Do not say, "a kind of a fig tree." This is a common error. ]

Note that the two nouns _man_ and _woman_ used in the general sense to denote the whole class never have either article.

Man is the only animal that uses fire.
Woman is man’s mate. [See § 118. ]

(3) With names of gulfs, rivers, seas, oceans, groups of islands, and mountain-ranges; as,

_The_ Persian Gulf.
_The_ Ganges is considered holy by the Hindus.
London is on _the_ Thames.
_The_ Red Sea. _The_ Indian Ocean.
_The_ British Isles. _The_ Laccadive islands.
_The_ Himalayas lie to the North of India.
_The_ Alps.

We also say—
_The_ Punjab, _the_ United Provinces, _the_ Deccan, _the_ Carnatic.

(4) Before the names of books; as,
_The_ Vedas, _the_ Puranas, _the_ Iliad, _the_ Ramayana.

But we say—
Homer’s Iliad, Valmiki’s Ramayana.

(5) Before common nouns which are names of things unique of their kind; as,
_The_ sun, _the_ sky, _the_ ocean, _the_ sea, _the_ earth.

[Note.—Sometimes _the_ is placed before a Common noun to give it the meaning of an Abstract noun; as, At last _the_ warrior (the warlike or martial spirit) in him was thoroughly aroused. ]

(6) Before a Proper noun only when it is qualified by an adjective or a defining adjectival clause; as,
_The_ great Cæsar; _the_ immortal Shakespeare.
_The_ Mr. Roy _whom_ you met last night is my uncle.

(7) With Superlatives; as,
_The_ darkest cloud has a silver lining.
This is _the_ best book of elementary chemistry.
(8) Before an adjective when the noun is understood; as,
    The poor are always with us.
(9) Before a noun (with emphasis), to give the force of a Superlative; as,
    The Verb is the word (= the chief word) in a sentence.
(10) As an Adverb with Comparatives; as,
    The more the merrier.
    (= By how much more, by so much merrier.)
    The more they get the more they want.

Use of the Indefinite Article.

117. The Indefinite Article is used—
(1) In its original numerical sense of one; as,
    Twelve inches make a foot.
    Not a word was said.
    A word to the wise is sufficient.
    A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
(2) In the vague sense of a certain; as,
    A Ranchod Pitamber (= a certain person named Ranchod Pitamber) is suspected by the police.
    One evening a beggar came to my door.
(3) In the sense of any, to single out an individual as the representative of a class; as,
    A pupil should obey his teacher.
    A cow is a useful animal.
(4) To make a common noun of a proper noun; as,
    A Daniel come to judgment. (A Daniel = a very wise man.)

Omission of the Article.

118. The Article is omitted—
(1) Before a common noun used in its widest sense; as,
    Man is mortal.
    What kind of flower is it?
(2) Before names of materials; as,
    Gold is a precious metal.
    Cotton grows in India, America and Egypt.
(3) Before Proper nouns; as,
    Delhi is the capital of India.
    Bombay is a big city.
    Newton was a great philosopher.
ARTICLES.

Note.—When the Article is used before Proper nouns, they become Common nouns; as,

This man is a second Newton [i.e., a philosopher as great as Newton]. See § 117 (4).
He was the Napoleon of his age [i.e., the greatest general of his time.]
Bombay is the Manchester of India [i.e., a great manufacturing city.]
The Earl of Derby is a Stanley [i.e., a member of the Stanley family.]

(4) Before Abstract nouns used in a general sense; as,

Wisdom is the gift of heaven.
Falsehood is odious.
Honesty is the best policy.
Virtue is its own reward.

Note.—An Abstract noun, when it is qualified by an adjective or an adjectival phrase or clause, may have the article; as,

The wisdom of Solomon is famous.
He showed a courage worthy of an older man.
I cannot forget the kindness with which he treated me.

(5) Before titles used in apposition to a proper name or as the complement of a sentence; as,

Alfonso, king of Spain.
His brother was duke of Lancaster.
He became king.

(6) In certain phrases consisting of a transitive verb followed by its object; as,

to catch fire, to take breath, to give battle, to cast anchor, to send word, to bring word, to give ear, to leave school, to lay siege, to set sail, to lose heart, to set foot, to leave home, to strike root, to take offence.

(7) In certain phrases consisting of a preposition followed by its object; as,

at home, in hand, in debt, in bed, at school, to school, by day, by night, at daybreak, at sunrise, at noon, at sunset, at night, at anchor, at sight, on demand, at interest, on earth, by land, by water, by river, by train, by steamer, by name, on horseback, on foot, on deck, to prison, in jail, in jest, in town, to market, at dinner, at table, at ease, under ground, above ground.
Exercise in Composition. 28.

Complete the following sentences by filling in ‘a’ or ‘an’ or ‘the’ as may be suitable:—

1. Copper is —— useful metal.
2. He is not —— honourable man.
3. —— able man has not always a distinguished look.
4. —— reindeer is a native of Norway.
5. Honest men speak —— truth.
6. Rustum is —— young Parsee.
7. Do you see —— blue sky?
8. Benares is —— holy city.
9. Aladdin had —— wonderful lamp.
10. The world is —— happy place.
11. Lie returned after —— hour.
12. —— school will shortly close for the Puja holidays.
13. —— sun shines brightly.
15. Yesterday —— European called at my office.
16. The guide knows —— way.
17. Ceylon is —— island.
18. Let us discuss —— matter seriously.
20. Sanskrit is —— difficult language.
21. —— Ganges is —— sacred river.
22. —— lion is —— king of beasts.
23. You are —— fool to say that.
24. French is —— easy language.
25. —— French defeated the Germans.
26. Which is —— longest river in India?
27. Rama has come without —— umbrella.
28. Bombay is —— very dear place to live in.
29. She is —— untidy girl.
30. The children found —— egg in the nest.
31. I bought —— horse, —— ox, and —— buffalo.
32. If you see him, give him —— message.
34. Man, thou art —— wonderful animal!
35. —— Bosphorus and —— Hellespont are —— two gates of Constantinople.
36. He looks as stupid as —— owl.
37. He is —— honour to his profession.

Exercise in Composition. 29.

Insert Articles where necessary:—

1. While there is life there is hope.
2. Her knowledge of medicine had been acquired under — aged Jewess.
3. Sun rises in east.
4. The brave soldier lost arm in battle.
5. The doctor says it is hopeless case.
6. I like to live in open air.
7. Get pound of sugar from nearest grocer.
8. Set back clock; it is hour too fast.
9. The poor woman has not anna.
10. You must take care.
11. Eskimos make houses of snow and ice.
12. Where did you buy umbrella?
13. Have you never seen elephant?
14. Draw map of India.
15. Do not look gift horse in mouth.
16. Have you told him about accident?
17. Livingstone was great explorer.
18. How blue sky looks!
19. Who wishes to take walk with me?
20. What beautiful scene this is!
21. The musician was old Mussalman.
22. The river was spanned by iron bridge.
23. Moon did not rise till after ten.
24. Like true sportsmen they would give enemy fair play.
25. They never fail who die in great cause.
26. There is nothing like staying at home for comfort.
27. He likes to picture himself original thinker.
28. It is never thankful office to offer advice.
29. Umbrella is of no avail against thunderstorm.
30. I have not seen him since he was child.
31. For Brutus is honourable man.
32. Shamrock is national emblem of Ireland.
33. Man has no more right to say uncivil thing than to act one.
34. We started late in afternoon.
35. It is a strange thing how little, in general, people know about sky.
36. Scheme failed for want of support.
37. Tiger, animal equal to lion in size, is native of Asia.
38. Time makes worst enemies friends.
39. My favourite flower is rose.
40. Time we live ought not to be computed by number of years, but by use that has been made of them.
41. John Bright once said that safest place in England was first class carriage in express train.
42. Men are too often led astray by prejudice.
43. Only best quality is sold by us.
44. What kind of bird is that?
45. Wild animals suffer when kept in captivity.
46. May we have pleasure of your company?
47. It was proudest moment of my life.
48. Andamans are a group of islands in Bay of Bengal.

Repetition of the Article.

119. If I say—
   I have a black and white dog,
I mean a dog that is partly black and partly white.
   But if I say—
   I have a black and a white dog,
I mean two dogs, one black and the other white.
Hence when two or more adjectives qualify the same noun, the Article is used before the first adjective only; but when they qualify different nouns, expressed or understood, the Article is used before each adjective.

120. Compare:
   1. The Secretary and Treasurer is absent.
   2. The Secretary and the Treasurer are absent.

The first sentence clearly indicates that the posts of Secretary and Treasurer are held by one person.

The repetition of the article in the second sentence indicates that the two posts are held by two different persons.

Hence we see that when two or more connected nouns refer to the same person or thing, the Article is ordinarily used before the first only; but when two or more connected nouns refer to different persons or things, the Article is used before each.

Also examine the following sentences:
Sir Surendranath was a great orator and statesman.
There are on the committee among others a great economist and a great lawyer.

121. We may either say—
The third and the fourth chapter.
[ Or ] The third and fourth chapters.

122. In expressing a comparison, if two nouns refer to the same person or thing, the Article is used before the first noun only; as,
   He is a better mechanic than clerk.
   He is a better poet than novelist.
   He is a better thinker than debater.
   He would make a better engineer than lawyer.
But if they refer to different persons or things, the Article must be used with each noun; as,
He is a better mechanic than a clerk (would make).
He would make a better statesman than a philosopher (would make).

CHAPTER XVII.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

123. We may say—
Hari is absent, because Hari is ill.
But it is better to avoid the repetition of the Noun Hari, and say—
• Hari is absent, because he is ill.
A word that is thus used instead of a noun is called a Pronoun. [Pronoun means for-a-noun.]
Def.—A Pronoun is a word used instead of a Noun.

124. Read the following sentences:—
I am young. We are young.
Thou art young. You are young.
He (she, it) is young. They are young.
I, we, thou, you, he (she, it), they are called Personal Pronouns because they stand for the three persons,
(i) the person speaking,
(ii) the person spoken to,
and (iii) the person spoken of.
The Pronouns I and we which denote the person speaking are said to be Personal Pronouns of the First Person.
The Pronouns thou and you which denote the person or persons spoken to, are said to be Personal Pronouns of the Second Person.
[Note.—You is now used both in the singular and plural.]
The Pronouns he (she) and they which denote the person or persons spoken of, are said to be Personal Pronouns of the Third Person. It, although it denotes the thing spoken of, is also called a Personal Pronoun of the Third Person. [The Personal Pronouns of the Third Person are strictly speaking Demonstrative Pronouns.]
Forms of the Personal Pronouns.

125. The following are the different forms of the Personal Pronouns:—

**FIRST PERSON (Masculine or Feminine).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nominative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Possessive</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my, mine</td>
<td>our, ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accusative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me</td>
<td>us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECOND PERSON (Masculine or Feminine).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nominative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Possessive</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thy, thine</td>
<td>your, yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accusative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thee</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note.—As already pointed out the second person singular has gone out of common use.]

**THIRD PERSON.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masc.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>she</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Femin.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neuter. All Genders.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his</td>
<td>her, hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accusative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—It will be seen that the Possessive Cases of most of the Personal Pronouns have two forms. Of these the forms my, our, thy, your, her, their, are called **Possessive Adjectives** because they are used with nouns and do the work of Adjectives; as,

- This is my book.
- Those are your books.
- That is her book.

Possessive Adjectives are sometimes called **Pronominal Adjectives**, as they are formed from Pronouns.

Note 2.—The word his is used both as an Adjective and as a Pronoun; as,

- This is his book.  (Possessive Adjective.)
- This book is his.  (Possessive Pronoun.)

In the following sentences the words in italics are Possessive Pronouns:—

- This book is mine.
- Those books are yours.
- That book is hers.
- That idea of yours is excellent.
PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

126. The Pronoun of the Third Person has three Genders:

- Masculine:  
  - he
- Feminine:  
  - she
- Neuter:  
  - it

127. It.—The Pronoun it is used—

1. For things without life; as,
   - Here is your book; take it away.

2. For animals, unless we clearly wish to speak of them as male or female; as,
   - He loves his dog and cannot do without it.
   - The horse fell and broke its leg.

3. For a young child, unless we clearly wish to refer to the sex; as,
   - When I saw the child it was crying.
   - That baby has torn its clothes.

4. To refer to some statement going before; as,
   - He is telling what is not true; and he knows it.
   - He deserved his punishment; and he knew it.

5. As a provisional or temporary subject before the verb to be when the real subject follows; as,
   - It is easy to find fault. [To find fault is easy.]
   - It is doubtful whether he will come.
   - It is certain that you are wrong.

6. To give emphasis to the noun or pronoun following; as,
   - It was you who began the quarrel.
   - It was I who first protested.
   - It was at Versailles that the treaty was made.
   - It is a silly fish that is caught twice with the same bait.
   - It is an ill wind that blows nobody good.

7. As an indefinite nominative of an impersonal verb; as,
   - It rains. It snows. It thunders.

   The Pronoun it here seems to stand for no noun whatever, though this can be readily supplied from the verb. Thus, 'It rains' means 'The rain rains'.

   It so used is called an Impersonal Pronoun. So also the verb rains is here called an Impersonal Verb.

8. In speaking of the weather or the time; as,
   - It is fine.
   - It is winter.
   - It is ten o'clock.
128. Since a Personal Pronoun is used instead of a Noun, it must be of the same number, gender, and person as the Noun for which it stands; as,
Rama is a kind boy. He has lent his bicycle to Govind.
Sita helps her mother in household work. She also
does her lesson.
Those beggars are idle. They refuse to work for their living.

129. When a Pronoun* stands for a Collective Noun, it must be in the Singular Number (and Neuter Gender) if the Collective Noun is viewed as a whole; as,
The army had to suffer terrible privations in its march.
The fleet will reach its destination in a week.
The crew mutinied and murdered its officers.
After a few minutes the jury gave its verdict.

If the Collective Noun conveys the idea of separate individuals comprising the whole, the Pronoun standing for it must be of the Plural Number; as,
The jury were divided in their opinions.
The committee decided the matter without leaving their seats.

130. When two or more Singular Nouns are joined by and, the Pronoun used for them must be Plural; as,
Rama and Hari work hard. They are praised by their teacher.
Both Sita and Savitri are tired; they have gone home.

But when two Singular Nouns joined by and refer to the same person or thing, the Pronoun used must of course be Singular; as,
The Secretary and Treasurer is negligent of his duty.

131. When two Singular Nouns joined by and are preceded by each or every, the Pronoun must be Singular; as,
Every soldier and every sailor was in his place.

132. When two or more Singular Nouns are joined by or or either...or, neither...nor, the Pronoun is generally Singular; as,

*It will be noticed that we use the word ‘Pronoun’ in § 129-134 without observing the distinction pointed out in § 125 between the forms my, thy, her, our, your, their (which are called Possessive Adjectives), and the forms mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs (which are called Possessive Pronouns).
PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Rama or Hari must lend his hand.
Either Sita or Amina forgot to take her parasol.
Neither Abdul nor Karim has done his lesson.

133. When a Plural Noun and a Singular Noun are joined by or or nor, the Pronoun must be in the Plural; as,
Either the manager or his assistants failed in their duty.

134. When a Pronoun refers to more than one noun or pronoun of different persons, it must be of the first person plural in preference to the second, and of the second person plural in preference to the third; as,
You and I have done our duty.
You and Hari have idled away your time.

135. Good manners require that we should say—
‘You and I’ not ‘I and you’.
‘You and he’ not ‘he and you’.
‘Hari and I’ not ‘I and Hari’.
‘He and I’ not ‘I and he’.
You and I must work together.
You and he must mend your ways.
Hari and I are old school friends.
He and I can never pull on together.

136. Each of the personal pronouns I, thou, he, she, we, they, has a different form for the accusative case, namely, me, thee, him, her, us, them. It is a common mistake to use I for me, when the pronoun is connected by a conjunction (and, or) with some other word in the accusative case.

Study the following correct sentences:—
These presents are for you and me. (Not, I.)
My uncle asked my brother and me to dinner.

Some persons, uncertain which form to use, avoid the difficulty by using myself.
These presents are for you and myself. (Wrong.)
My uncle asked my brother and myself to dinner.
(Wrong.)
My brother and myself are going to Delhi. (Wrong.
Say, “My brother and I”.)

But, as pointed out, this is a wrong use of myself.

137. The two words than and but are the cause of many errors.
Than is a conjunction joining clauses, and the case of the pronouns following it may be found by writing the clauses in full. E.g.

He is taller than I [am].
He loves you more than I [love you].
He loves you more than [he loves] me.

But is a preposition in such sentences as—
Nobody will help you but me. (Not, I.)

**Exercise in Grammar. 30.**

*In the following sentences point out the Pronouns and say for what each stands:—*

1. Alice was not a bit hurt, and she jumped up on to her feet in a moment.
2. There were doors all round the hall, but they were all locked.
3. Alice opened the door and found that it led into a small passage.
4. "I wish I hadn't cried so much," said Alice.
5. "You are not attending," said the Mouse to Alice severely. "What are you thinking of?"
6. "Come back!" the Caterpillar called after her. Alice turned and came back again.
8. Karim has lost his dog and cannot find it.
9. Suresh is at the head of his class, for he studies hard.
10. Rama, you are a lazy boy.
11. The camel is a beast of burden. It is used to carry goods across the desert.
12. The female lion is called a lioness. She has no mane.
13. The horse fell down and broke its leg.
15. If the thief is caught, he will be punished.
16. Train up a child in the way he should go.
17. And Nathan said to David, Thou art the man.

**Exercise in Composition. 31.**

*In the following sentences use Pronouns in place of nouns wherever you can:—*

1. Rama had taken his watch out of his pocket, and was looking at the watch uneasily, shaking the watch every now and then, and holding the watch to his ear. [snake.
2. The boys went into the garden, where the boys saw a
PERSONAL PRONOUNS. 63

3. Very soon the Rabbit noticed Alice as Alice went hunting about, and called out to Alice in an angry tone.

Exercise in Composition. 32.
Supply a Pronoun of the correct form in the following:

1. You are a better bowler than ——.
2. We shall see who is the faster runner, you or ——.
3. You are as good a batsman as ——.
4. He is older than ——. He is as old as ——.
5. I believe that it was ——.
6. My brother did as well as ——.
7. Who is there? It is ——.
8. Who broke the window? It wasn’t ——.
9. Is that Sita? Yes, it is ——.

Exercise in Composition. 33.
Write the correct form of Pronoun in the following:

1. We scored as many goals as ——. (They, them.)
2. Rama and —— were present. (I, me.)
3. It was ——. (I, me.)
4. You are smaller than ——. (He, him.)
5. Can you sing as well as ——? (They, them.)
6. I know that it was ——. (She, her.)
7. He is taller than ——. (I, me.)
8. Let you and —— try what we can do. (I, me.)
9. Wait for Hari and ——. (I, me.)
10. You know that as well as ——. (I, me.)
11. He knew that it was ——. (I, me.)
12. It was —— that gave you the alarm. (I, me.)
13. Between you and ——, I do not believe him. (I, me.)
14. We are not so poor as ——. (They, them.)
15. Rama is as old as ——. (I, me.)
16. He is known to my brother and ——. (I, me.)
17. It might have been ——. (He, him.)
18. He is as good as ——. (I, me.)
19. Nobody but —— was present. (He, him.)
20. They are far better singers than ——. (We, us.)
21. He and —— were great friends. (I, me.)
22. If I were ——, I wouldn’t go. (He, him.)
23. Whom can I trust, if not ——? (He, him.)
24. Let —— who can answer this question. (He, him.)
25. There isn’t much difference between you and ——.
(He, him.)
26. None so blind as —— that will not see. (They, them.)
27. It isn’t for such as —— to dictate to us. (They, them.)
CHAPTER XVIII.

REFLEXIVE AND EMPHATIC PRONOUNS.

138. When *-self* is added to *my, your, him, her, it,* and *-selves to our, your, them,* we get what are called Compound Personal Pronouns.

They are called Reflexive Pronouns when the action done by the subject turns back (*reflects*) upon the subject; as,

I hurt *myself.* We hurt *ourselves.*
You will hurt *yourself.* You will hurt *yourselves.*
He hurt *himself.*
She hurt *herself.* They hurt *themselves.*
The horse hurt *itself.*

It will be noticed that each of these Reflexive Pronouns is used as the *Object* of a verb, and refers to the same person or thing as that denoted by the Subject of the verb.

139. Sometimes, especially in poetry, a simple pronoun is used reflexively; as,

Now I lay *me* down to sleep.

140. The word *self* is sometimes used as a Noun; as,

To thine own *self* be true.
He cares for nothing but *self.*
He thinks much of *self.*

Emphatic Pronouns.

141. Now look at the following sentences:—

I will do it *myself.*
I *myself* saw him do it.
We will see to it *ourselves.*
You *yourself* can best explain.
He *himself* said so.
She *herself* says so.
I was told so by the teacher *himself.*
We saw the King *himself.*
The town *itself* is not very large.
They *themselves* admitted their guilt.

It will be seen that here Compound Personal Pronouns are used for the sake of *emphasis,* and are therefore called Emphatic Pronouns.
EMPHATIC PRONOUNS.

Note that Emphatic Pronouns cannot stand alone as subjects. It is therefore incorrect to say—

*Myself saw him do it.*

Mr. James and *myself* think so.

**Exercise in Grammar. 34.**

Tell which Pronouns in the following sentences are Reflexive and which Emphatic:—

[Emphatic Pronouns are also called Emphasizing Pronouns.]

1. I will go myself.
2. Rama has hurt himself.
3. You express yourself very imperfectly.
4. I wash myself when I get up.
5. The boys hid themselves.
6. They have got themselves into a mess.
8. They loved themselves so much that they thought of no one else.
9. The prisoner hanged himself.
10. The poor widow poisoned herself.
11. They enjoyed themselves.
12. Don’t you deceive yourself.
13. I myself will speak to him.
14. He set himself a hard task.
15. We exerted ourselves.
16. The dog choked itself.
17. They gave themselves a lot of trouble.
18. We often deceive ourselves.
19. I myself heard the remark.
20. We seldom see ourselves as others see us.
22. He that wrongs his friend wrongs himself more.
23. Some people are always talking about themselves.
24. Xerxes himself was the last to cross the Hellespont.
25. He has landed himself in difficulties.
26. Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.
27. Quit yourselves like men.
28. Whosoever shall exalt himself shall be abased.
29. Sinai itself trembled at the presence of God.
30. I cannot bring myself to do it.
31. Pray do not inconvenience yourself.
32. I was sitting by myself.
33. And sometimes I myself do hate myself.
CHAPTER XIX.

DEMONSTRATIVE, INDEFINITE AND DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

142. Consider the following sentences:—

This is a present from my uncle.
These are merely excuses.
Both cars are good: but this is better than that.

... Bombay mangoes are better than those of Bangalore.
Make haste, that’s a good boy.

[ Here that = one who makes haste. ]
There is no period in ancient Indian history so glorious as that of the Guptas. [ Do not write, “as the Guptas”.
My views are quite in accordance with those of the University Commission.
I may have offended, but such was not my intention.
He is the representative of the King, and as such (= the representative of the King) we are bound to honour him.
The stranger is welcomed as such.
Yonder is the fort of Partabgarh.

It will be noticed that the Pronouns in italics are used to point out the objects to which they refer, and are therefore called Demonstrative Pronouns. (Latin demonstrare, to show clearly.)

143. This, that, etc. are (Demonstrative) Adjectives when they are used with nouns; as,

This book is mine.
That pen is yours.
These books are mine.
Those pens are yours.
What was that noise?
This horse is better than that horse.
All such people ought to be avoided.

144. This refers to what is close at hand, and nearest to the thought or person of the speaker; that refers to what is ‘over there’, farther away, and more remote.

This is better than that.

145. That, with its plural those, is used to avoid the repetition of a preceding Noun; as,
INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

The climate of Belgaum is like that of Poona.
The streets of Ahmedabad are worse than those of Bombay.
Our soldiers were better drilled than those of the enemies.
The rivers of America are larger than those of Europe.

146. When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, this refers to the thing last mentioned, that to the thing first mentioned; as,
Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice: this (i.e. vice) leads to misery, that (i.e. virtue) to happiness.
Alcohol and tobacco are both injurious; this, perhaps, less than that.

Indefinite Pronouns.

147. Consider the following sentences:—
One hardly knows what to do.
One does not like to say so, but it is only too true.
One cannot be too careful of one's (not, his) good name.
One must not boast of one's own success.
One must use one's best efforts if one wishes to succeed.
One must not praise one's self.
None of his poems are well known.
None but fools have ever believed it.
[None is a shortened form of not one; yet it is commonly used with plural verbs.]
They (=people in general) say he has lost heavily.
They say that one of the local banks has stopped payment. [They say = it is said by some persons.]
All were drowned.
Some are born great.
Some say he is a sharper.
Somebody has stolen my watch.
Nobody was there to rescue the child.
Few escaped unhurt.
Many of them were Gurkhas.
We did not see any of them again.
One or other of us will be there.
Do good to others.
Did you ask anybody to come?
What is everybody's business is nobody's business.
His words are in everyone's mouth.
All these Pronouns in italics refer to persons or things in a general way, but do not refer to any person or thing in particular. They are therefore called **Indefinite Pronouns**.

148. Most of these words may also be used as Adjectives. [See § 74 (ii).]
   I will take you there *one* day.
   *Any* fool can do that.
   He is a man of *few* words.
   *Some* milk was spilt.

149. In referring to *anybody*, *everybody*, *everyone*, *anyone*, *each*, etc., the pronoun *he* or *she* is used according to the context; as,
   I shall be glad to help *everyone* of my boys in *his* studies.

But when the sex is not determined, we use the pronoun of the *masculine* gender, as there is no singular pronoun of the third person to represent both male and female.

   *Everyone* likes to have *his* way.
   *Each* must do *his* best.
   *Everybody* is discontented with *his* lot in life.
   *Everybody* has *his* own ideas which *he* hates to change.
   If *anybody* knows the truth, let *him* tell it.
   Let *each* esteem other better than *himself*.
   *Anyone* can do this if *he* tries.

   **Note.**—Many good English authors disregard the rule, and use the pronoun of the third person *plural*; as,

   Let *each* esteem other better than *themselves*.
   *Everybody* is discontented with *their* lot in life.
   *Everybody* has *their* own ideas which *they* hate to change.

**Distributive Pronouns.**

150. Consider the following sentences:—
   *Each* of the boys gets a prize.
   *Each* took it in turn.
   *Either* of these roads leads to the railway-station.
   *Either* of you can go.
   *Neither* of the accusations is true.

   *Each*, *either*, *neither* are called **Distributive Pronouns** because they refer to persons or things *one at a time*. For this reason they are always *singular* and as such followed by the verb in the *singular*. 
Note.—*Each* is used to denote every one of a number of persons or things taken singly. *Either* means the one or the other of two. *Neither* means not the one nor the other of two. It is the negative of *either*.

Hence *either* and *neither* should be used only in speaking of two persons or things. When *more than two* are spoken of, *any, no one, none* should be used.

151. The position of the pronoun *each* should be noticed. It may have three positions.

1. *Each* of the men received a reward.
   *Each* of these horses cost five hundred rupees.
   I bought *each* of these mangoes for one anna.

2. These men received *each* a reward.
   These horses cost *each* five hundred rupees.

3. These horses cost five hundred rupees *each*.
   I bought these mangoes for one anna *each*.

The third order is usual after a numeral. We do not say, ‘The men received *a reward each’; but we say ‘The men received five hundred rupees each’.

152. In the following sentences, *each, either* and *neither* are used as Adjectives (see § 74); they are followed by nouns of the singular number:

   *Each* boy took his turn. *Neither* accusation is true.
   At *either* end was a marble statue. (Here *either* = *each or both.*)

153. Study the following sentences:

1. The two men hate *each other*.
2. They cheated *one another*.

If we analyse them, they mean—

1. The two men hate, *each* hates the *other*.
2. They cheated, *one* cheated *another*.

*Each* and *one* really belong to the subject, *other* and *another* are objects. But *each other* and *one another* have become in practice compound pronouns (called *Reciprocal Pronouns*) and are rarely separated even by a preposition. Thus we say:

   The two brothers quarrelled *with each other*.
   They all gave evidence *against one another*.

Note.—*Each other* should be used in speaking of two persons or things, *one another* in speaking of more than two; but the rule is not strictly observed even by the best writers.
CHAPTER XX.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

154. Read the following pairs of sentences:—
1. I met Hari. Hari had just returned.
2. I have found the pen. I had lost the pen.
3. Here is the book. You lent me the book.

Let us now combine each of the above pairs into one sentence. Thus:—
1. I met Hari who had just returned.
2. I have found the pen which I had lost.
3. Here is the book that you lent me.

Now let us examine the work done by each of the words who, which and that.

The word who is used instead of the noun Hari. It therefore does the work of a Pronoun.

The word who joins or connects two statements. It therefore does the work of a Conjunction.

The word who therefore does double work—the work of a Pronoun and also the work of a Conjunction.

We might therefore call it a Conjunctive Pronoun.

It is, however, called a Relative Pronoun because it refers or relates (i.e., carries us back) to some noun going before (here, the noun Hari), which is called its Antecedent.

Let the pupil show why which and that are also Relative Pronouns in the second and third sentences.

What is the Antecedent of which in the second sentence?
What is the Antecedent of that in the third sentence?

Forms of the Relative Pronouns.

155. The Relative Pronoun who has different forms for Accusative and Genitive:—

Singular and Plural.

Nominative:  who.
Genitive:  whose.
Accusative:  whom.

This is the boy (or girl) who works hard.
This is the boy (or girl) whose exercise is done well.
This is the boy (or girl) whom all praise.
These are the boys (or girls) who work hard.
These are the boys (or girls) whose exercises are done well.
These are the boys (or girls) whom all praise.
It will be noticed that the forms are the same for singular and plural, masculine and feminine.

156. The Relative Pronoun which has the same form for the Nominative and Accusative Cases.
This is the house which belongs to my uncle.
The house which my uncle built cost him Rs. 50,000.
The Relative Pronoun which has no Genitive Case, but whose is sometimes used as a substitute for ‘of which’; as,
A triangle whose three sides are equal is called an equilateral triangle.

157. The Relative Pronoun that has the same form in the Singular and Plural, and in the Nominative and Accusative. It has no Genitive Case.
He that is content is rich.
They that touch pitch will be defiled.
Take anything that you like.

158. The Relative Pronoun what is used only in the Singular, and has the same form in the Nominative and Accusative.
What has happened is not clear.
I say what I mean.
He failed in what he attempted.

Use of the Relative Pronouns.

159. As a general rule, who is used for persons only. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural Noun.
The man who is honest is trusted.
Blessed is he who has found his work.
He prayeth best who loveth best.
He who hesitates is lost.
They never fail who die in a great cause.
They are slaves who dare not be
In the right with two or three.

Who is sometimes used in referring to animals.
Whose (the Genitive form of who) is used in speaking of persons, but sometimes of things without life (see § 156); as,
The sun, whose rays give life to the earth, was regarded by the ancients as a god.
This is the question whose solution has baffled philosophers of all ages.
[More properly, 'This is the question the solution of which has baffled philosophers of all ages'.]

160. Which is used for things without life and for animals. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural Noun.
The moment which is lost is lost for ever.
The books which help you most are those which make you think most.
The horse which I recently bought is an Arab.
[Which was formerly used to refer to persons; as, Our Father, which art in heaven.]
Which may also refer to a sentence; as,
The man was said to be drunk, which was not the case.
He said he saw me there, which was a lie.
He is here, which is fortunate.

Note.—The relative pronouns who and which can be used—
(i) To restrict, limit, or define more clearly the antecedent; that is, where the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is restrictive or subordinating; as,
The man who had cheated me was yesterday arrested by the police.
The book which you see on the table cost me two rupees.

(ii) To give some additional information about the antecedent; that is, where the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is continuative or co-ordinating; as,
The teacher sent for the boy who (＝ and he) came at once.
I gave him a rupee, which (＝ and it) was all I had with me.

161. That is used for persons and things. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural Noun. (See § 157.)
That has no genitive case and it is never used with a preposition preceding.
This is the boy that I told you of.
I know the house that he lives in.
Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
I have lost the watch that you gave me.
Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.
A city that is set on a hill cannot be hid.
He that is not with me is against me.
Happy is the man that findeth wisdom.
He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty.
The crowd that gathered cheered him to the echo.
Who that has met him can escape his influence?
All that I said had no effect on him.
He was the most eloquent speaker that I ever heard.

It will be noticed that the relative pronoun that is used only in relative clauses that restrict, limit, or define the antecedent; in other words the relative pronoun that has a restrictive force.

162. That may be used as an adverbial accusative = on which, in which, at which; as,
I remember the day that he came.
• On the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die.

163. As the Relative Pronoun that has a restrictive force it sometimes becomes unsuitable as the substitute for who or which. Thus I cannot say—
My father that is a schoolmaster is fifty years old.
I must say—
My father who is a schoolmaster is fifty years old.
But if I happen to have more than one sister, I can say—
My sister, that has been adopted by my uncle, is ill.

164. The Relative Pronoun that is used in preference to who or which—
(1) After Adjectives in the Superlative Degree; as,
He was the most eloquent speaker that I ever heard.
The wisest man that ever lived made mistakes.
This is the best that we can do.

(2) After the words, all, same, any, none, nothing, (the) only; as,
All is not gold that glitters.
He is the same man that he has been.
It is only donkeys that bray.
It was not for nothing that he studied philosophy.
Man is the only animal that can talk.

(3) After the Interrogative Pronouns who, what; as,
Who that saw her did not pity her?
Who am I that I should object?
What is it that troubles you so much?
What is there that I do not know?
(4) After two antecedents, one denoting a person and the other denoting an animal or a thing; as,
   The boy and his dog that had trespassed on the club premises were turned out.

165. What refers to things only. It is used without an antecedent expressed, and is equivalent to that which (or the thing which).
   What (= that which) cannot be cured must be endured.
   I say what (= that which) I mean.
   I mean what I say.
   What is done cannot be undone.
   What man has done man can do.
   What is one man's meat is another man's poison.
   Give careful heed to what I say.
   What I have written, I have written.
   He found what he was looking for.

   It will be noticed that what is used in the Nominative and Accusative singular only.

166. The word as is used as a Relative Pronoun after such and sometimes after the same; as,
   Tears such as angels weep burst forth.
   These mangoes are not such as I bought yesterday.
   He is such a man as I honour.
   We have never had such a time as the present.
   His answer was such as I expected him to give.
   My trouble is the same as yours [is].
   This is not the same as that [is].
   But I played with the same bat that you did.
   'The same as' usually means 'of the same kind'.
   'The same......that' means 'one and the same'.
   The word as is also used as a Relative Pronoun after as followed by an adjective; as,
   I collected as many specimens as I could find.
   [Note.—The first as is here an Adverb.]

167. The word but after a negative, often has the force of a Relative Pronoun; as,
   There is none but will agree with me. (but will agree = who will not agree).
   There is no Hindu but knows the story of the Rama-yana. (That is, there is no Hindu who does not know, etc.)
   There is no man but wishes to live.
   There is no rose but has some thorn. (but = which ...not.)
RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

There is scarcely a child but likes candy.
There is no man but knows these things. (but =
who does not.)

It will be seen that the pronoun but is here equivalent to who......not, which......not.

Omission of the Relative Pronoun.

168. The Relative Pronoun is generally omitted when it would be in the accusative case; as,

Few and short were the prayers 
A contented mind is the greatest blessing
I am monarch of all
Men must reap the things

"That is used preferably with reference to persons. Thus we tend to say 'the meeting which I attended yesterday,' rather than 'the meeting that I attended yesterday.' But more frequently still do we say 'the meeting I attended yesterday,' the Accusative Relative being as a rule omitted altogether."—Onions.

This tendency to omit the Accusative Relative is more marked in the spoken language. In the written language its omission is often felt to be undignified.

169. In the following examples from poetry a Relative Pronoun in the nominative case is omitted:—

"'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view."
"I have a brother is condemned to die."

Note.—The omission of a Relative Pronoun in the nominative case is now quite exceptional except in colloquial speech.

There's somebody at the door wants to see you.

Omission of the Antecedent.

170. Sometimes the Antecedent of a Relative Pronoun is left out; as,

Who works not shall not eat.
=(He) who works not shall not eat.
Whom the gods love, die young.
=(Those) whom the gods love die young.
Who steals my purse, steals trash.
Who laughs last laughs best.
Who has lost all hope has also lost all fear.
Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever.
Agreement of the Relative Pronoun and its Antecedent.

171. As the Relative Pronoun refers to a Noun or Pronoun (called its Antecedent) it must be of the same number and person as its Antecedent. [Remember that the verb shows the number and person of the Relative Pronoun.]

- The boy who was lazy was punished.
- The boys who were lazy were punished.
- I, who am your king, will lead you.
- I am the person that is to blame.
- We who seek your protection, are strangers here.
- O thou that leadest Israel!
- You who are mighty, should be merciful.
- You who seek wisdom, should be humble.
- He that is not with me is against me.
- He that is down, needs fear no fall.
- He that eats till he is sick must fast till he is well.
- They who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
- They who seek only for faults see nothing else.
- The flowers which grow in our gardens are not for sale.

This is the only one of his poems that is worth reading. [== Of his poems this is the only one that is worth reading.]

But the case of the Relative Pronoun depends upon its relation to the verb in the clause in which it occurs.
- Rama is the boy who did it.
- Rama is the boy whom I want.
- Rama is the boy whose pencil I have.
- Rama is the boy to whom I spoke.
- He whom we worship, by whose gift we live, is the Lord.

Position of the Relative Pronoun.

172. To prevent ambiguity, the Relative Pronoun should be placed as near as possible to its Antecedent; as,

The boy who won the first prize in English is the son of my friend Mr. Joshi.

It would mean something quite different if we separate the Relative Pronoun from its Antecedent and say—

The boy is the son of my friend Mr. Joshi who won the first prize.
Again such a sentence as "I have read Gokhale's speeches, who was a disciple of Ranade" would be improved if changed to "I have read the speeches of Gokhale, who was a disciple of Ranade."

So also the following sentence requires to be rearranged:—

I with my family reside in a village near Poona which consists of my wife and three children.

Compound Relative Pronouns.

173. Pronouns formed by adding ever, so, or so-ever to who, which, and what are called Compound Relative Pronouns. They are:—

Whoever, whoso, whosoever; whichever, whichsoever; whatever, whatsoever.

These Relatives have no antecedent expressed.

Whosoever (== any and every person who) exal'teth himself shall be abased.

Whoso diggeth a pit shall fall therein.

Whatever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.

174. The forms whoever, whichever, and whatever are now ordinarily used; as,

Whoever (i.e., any person who) comes is welcome.
Take whichever (i.e., any which) you like.
I will take with me whomsoever you choose.
Whatever (i.e., anything which) he does he does well.

Exercise in Grammar. 35.

Name the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences, tell the case of each, and mention its antecedent:—

1. The pen that you gave me is a very good one.
2. The answer which you gave is not right.
3. I know the woman whose child was hurt.
4. Bring me the letters which the postman left.
5. This is the house that Jack built.
6. Hari saw the man who had been hurt.
7. We met the sailors whose ship was wrecked.
8. Here are the books which I found.
9. The cat killed the rat that ate the corn.
10. Bring me the books which lie on the table.
11. Here is the book that you lent me.
12. I hate children who are cruel.
13. Show me the knife that you have bought.
14. He has not brought the knife that I asked for.
15. Dogs soon know the persons by whom they are kindly treated.
16. This is the juggler whom we saw yesterday.
17. They that seek wisdom will be wise.

**Exercise in Composition. 36.**

*Fill the blanks with suitable Relative Pronouns:—*

1. We always like boys — speak the truth.
2. We saw the dog — worried the cat.
3. He — does his best shall be praised.
4. I know — you mean.
5. She has gone to Madras — is her birthplace.
6. I have seen the bird — you describe.
7. I do not know the man — hit the boy.
8. He gave away — he did not need.
9. There is no one — has not lost a friend.
10. Here is the pen — you lost.
11. Most people get — they deserve.
12. Time — is lost is never found again.
13. I did not know the person — called.
14. He is a man — you can trust.
15. Where is the book — I gave you?
16. Is this the street — leads to the station?
17. The letter — you wrote never arrived.
18. Listen to — I say.
19. He — is merciful shall meet mercy.
20. Did you receive the letter — I sent yesterday?
21. — I have said, I have said.
22. — he was I could never find out.
23. — do you believe him to be?
24. Do you know — has happened?
25. — is done cannot be undone.
26. Do the same — I do.
27. For my purpose I need such a man — he is.
28. God helps those — help themselves.
29. No man can lose — he never had.
30. You should not imitate such a boy — he.

**Exercise in Composition. 37.**

*Fill the blanks with suitable Relative Pronouns:—*

1. That man — will not work must starve.
2. Such a man — he should be honoured.
3. These mangoes are not such — I bought yesterday.
4. It is not such a pretty place — I had expected.
5. We have need of more such men — he.
6. He plays the game — he likes best.
7. I do not believe — you say.
8. My uncle, — I loved, is dead.
9. The farmer is cutting the corn — has ripened.
10. — you say is not true.
11. A lady — I know nursed the child.
12. He says — he means, and means — he says.
13. — pleases you will please me.
14. I gave it to the man — I saw there.
15. I know — you are seeking.
16. They — touch pitch will be defiled.
17. You have not brought the book — I asked for.
18. Only he — bears the burden knows its weight.
19. Such books — you read are not worth reading.
20. When you speak to him remember to — you are speaking.
21. I regard that man as lost — has lost his sense of shame.
22. Wealth is not his — has it, but his — enjoys it.
23. People — are too sharp cut their own fingers.
24. Truth provokes those — it does not convert.
25. We do not know — he intends to do.
26. It is an ill wind — blows nobody good.
27. Is this a dagger — I see before me?
28. I know to — you are alluding.
29. — the gods would destroy they first make mad.
30. He is the very man — we want.
31. Please recite — you have learned.
32. They always talk — never think.
33. Such — have pure hearts shall inherit the kingdom of heaven.

**Exercise in Composition. 38.**

Join together each of the following pairs of sentences by means of a Relative:—

1. I know a man. The man has been to Iceland.
2. The thief stole the watch. The thief was punished.
3. Show the road. The road leads to Delhi.
4. Here is the doctor. The doctor cured me of malaria.
5. I met a boy. He was very cruel.
6. He does his best. He should be praised.
7. The man is honest. The man is trusted.
8. My father is dead. I loved my father.
9. The teacher sent for the boy. The boy came at once.
10. Wellington was a great general. He defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo.
11. The dog bit the burglar. The burglar had broken into the house.
12. Once upon a time there lived a giant. The giant was very powerful and cruel.
13. We met a girl. The girl had lost her way.
14. Kalidas is famous. He wrote some fine dramas.
15. He is a rogue. No one trusts him.
16. The child is dead. The child came here yesterday.
17. The child is dead. I saw the child yesterday.
18. I know the man. He stole the bicycle.
19. The man stole the bicycle. He has been arrested.
20. I have found the umbrella. I had lost it.
21. I saw a soldier. He had lost an arm.
22. This is the path. He came by this path.
23. The horse was lame. We saw the horse.
24. Those boys were kept in. They had been very lazy.
25. I saw a girl. She was singing.
26. That boy bowls very well. You see him there.
27. Here is the book. You were asking for the book.
28. Here is the pencil. You lost it yesterday.
29. The man is deaf. You spoke to the man.
30. Coal is found in Bengal. It is a very useful mineral.

Exercise in Composition. 39.

Join together each of the following pairs of sentences by means of a Relative:—

1. This is the building. It was built in a single month.
2. The letter reached me this morning. You sent the letter.
3. Karim is always idle. He was punished.
4. I met my uncle. He had just arrived.
5. This is the house. Jack built it.
6. The boy is my cousin. You see him there.
7. The ladies have arrived. I was speaking of them.
8. The boys clapped heartily. They were watching the match.
9. The boy tells lies. He deserves to be punished.
10. I heard a song. The song pleased me.
11. I heard some news. The news astonished me.
12. I know a man. The man has a wooden leg.
14. Give me the ruler. The ruler is on the desk.
15. The bicycle is a new one. Hari rode it.
16. We got into a tram. It was full of people.
17. He has a friend. He is a clever artist.
18. He is a well-known man. His generosity is the talk of the town.