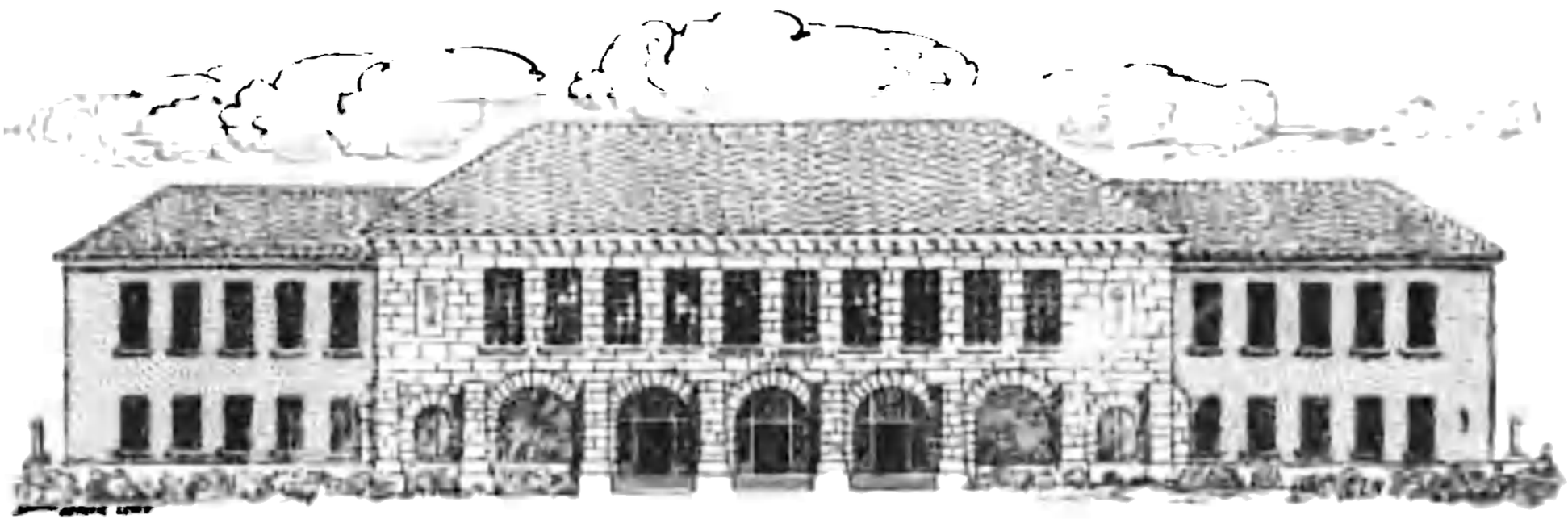


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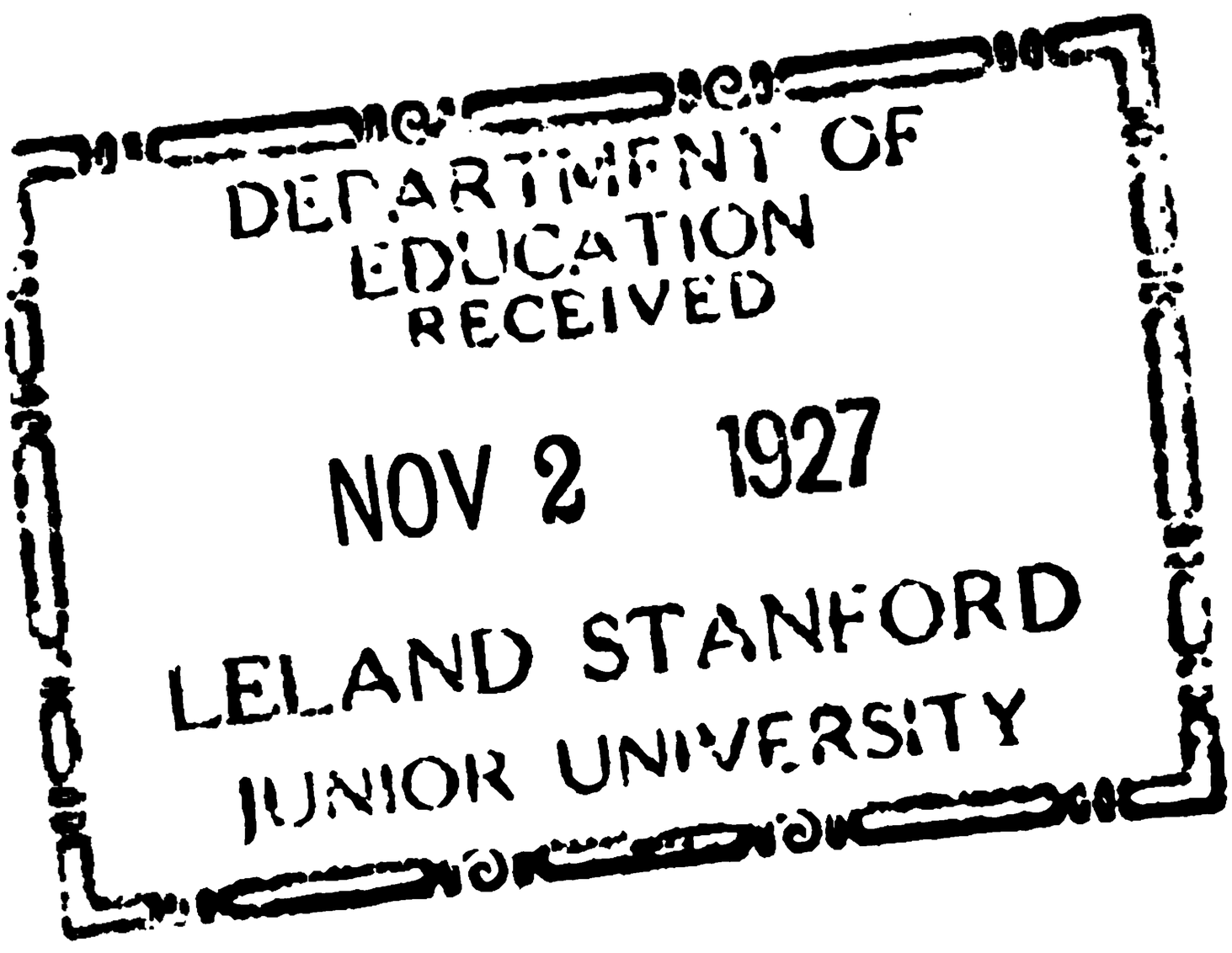
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WORDS AND SENTENCES

BY

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PREFACE

Although correct English is traditionally not a subject that appeals irresistibly to students, and although the general tendency now-a-days is to reduce rules to a minimum, this book must be in part a book of rules,—a book of nurture. Perhaps the section on words, in the opportunity it offers for definition and discrimination of concepts, may relieve the immense *ennui* that is inseparable from a system of rhetorical discipline. At any rate it is here and possibly in the section on grammar that the teacher will find the specific difference that distinguishes this manual from others of the sort.

Among books which I have consulted with profit I should mention particularly A. S. Hill's *Foundations of Rhetoric*, Kittredge and Farley's *Advanced English Grammar*, Onions' *Advanced English Syntax*, Wendt's *Syntax, des heutigen Englisch* and Poutsma's *Grammar of Late Modern English*. I have found particularly useful the *collectanea* in the last two books.

Professor Franklin W. Scott, whose happy instinct has now for many years directed one of the largest departments of rhetoric in the country, has given me the benefit of his criticism; and Dr. H. L. Creek has read the manuscript of the book to my advantage.

H. S. V. J.

CONTENTS

WORDS

Chapter		Page
I.	Derivations	3
II.	The Meanings of Words	13
III.	The Standing of Words	32
IV.	Spelling	52
V.	Pronunciation	59

SENTENCES

	Section One. Grammar	63
VI.	The Noun	66
VII.	The Adjective	72
VIII.	The Adverb	76
IX.	Pronouns	85
X.	The Verb	90
XI.	The Preposition	99
XII.	The Conjunction	101
	Section Two. The Rhetoric of the Sentence	106
XIII.	Clearness	108
XIV.	Emphasis	114
XV.	Ease	122

APPENDIX

A.	The Conjugation of the Verb	133
B.	Punctuation	138
C.	Capitalization	147

WORDS AND SENTENCES

WORDS

CHAPTER I

DERIVATIONS

It is of the first importance that we should have an accurate knowledge of the words that make our phrases and clauses if we are to use the larger units of expression effectively. What is perhaps not quite so clear is the best means of enriching and refining our vocabularies. Writing is to be sure an art, a very fine art, which cannot be learned like a science. As in other arts one learns to walk by walking; as in other arts too one should watch one's step. It is important, moreover, to have before us good models for imitation and inspiration. But this is not sufficient. What we need further is the sort of linguistic knowledge that shows us the individual word not as a mere utility or convenience but as a living thing, the product of living forces, something that points to the long perspective of history and that can tell a story of human enterprise and human thought. As we grow in knowledge we become increasingly thankful that English is the language not only of the morning paper but of Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Milton.

It is worth while then for the student to have some glimpse of language in its historical development, to learn something about the growth of words. Our use of a word is often apt and discriminating because as we use it we are conscious of its derivation or its earlier meanings. For example, the slovenly use of *aggravating* and *provoking* should be checked

by a knowledge of their derivations; and no one who knew its origin would employ the word *endorse* as in the following sentence: *You should have endorsed the document at the bottom of the first page.* Furthermore, some knowledge of etymology, leading to an association of words of similar origin, should help us to enlarge our vocabularies.

The languages which have made the largest contributions to English are Latin and its descendant French. The explanation for this fact will be found in the history of Europe. For many centuries of the modern era Latin was not a dead language. It was, on the contrary, throughout the Middle Ages very much alive as the language of a large body of literature and of the more formal modes of human intercourse. It was the language of the church, of the schools, and of the courts of law. To be ignorant of it was to be illiterate. With the revival of classical learning in the period called the Renaissance (fifteenth and sixteenth centuries), a new impetus was given to the study and use of the ancient tongue. Every school-boy knows that when the Turks captured Constantinople in 1453, many scholars went to Italy with precious manuscripts of Greek and Latin authors. Of the two literatures Latin claimed the wider attention. The student was now not so much interested in making Latin literature a handmaid to theology as in reading it as it might have been read by those who lived when Cicero and Vergil wrote. He approached the great classics not with a priest at his elbow to tell him what they meant, but as one person might go directly to another to learn something new of the troubled lives of men. Because the interest of such a student was so largely human, we call him a humanist, and he turned particularly to the classical authors because he believed that they had read the human heart with more understanding and wisdom than the writers of any other period.

The immediate influence of Latin upon English is of the greatest importance. Otherwise it has affected our language chiefly through the medium of French. The significance of the Norman Conquest (1066) in this connection, though of course great, has sometimes been exaggerated. Norman French was indeed spoken at court; so that many terms suggestive of court life, such as *castle*, *court*, *emperor*, inevitably found their way into the native speech. There was at first, however, no real effort to supplant English with French. It is interesting to note that the first official document in French was not issued until a century and a half after the coming of William of Normandy. Undoubtedly there would have been a strong French influence upon the English language, even if the Normans had never come to England. During the Middle Ages France was preëminent in both literature and learning. Scholars from every quarter of the civilized world repaired to the University of Paris, and the effect of French poetry and romance was felt throughout Europe. Chaucer (1340–1400), the author of the "Canterbury Tales" and the greatest English poet before Shakespeare, came early under the influence of French literature and felt its appeal to the end of his life. In his vocabulary we find a large proportion of French words, by far the greater number of which have continued to form a part of the language. It is not that Chaucer made the language, but that the distinction of his work gave prestige and influence to the literary medium of his day. At a later time political and literary circumstances favored again the importation of French words into English. During the sixteenth century much Italian and other literature came to England in French translations; and when in 1660 Charles II returned as king of England from his exile on the Continent, foreign words and phrases, such as *cravat*, *ballet*, *coquette*, were brought in with foreign poetry and foreign fashions.

Of the many other languages besides Latin and French that have made their contribution to the English vocabulary we may here mention Greek, which has been used extensively in the terminology of science, Italian, and Spanish. It should not be understood that these contributions were always made directly. A very large number of Italian and Spanish words, for example, came into English by way of French. Italian words that may be mentioned particularly are musical terms, such as *piano*, *soprano*, *concerto*, *allegro*, *andante*, etc. Belonging to other arts are *cameo*, *campanile*, *torso*. Other words from the same language are *dilettante* and *extravaganza*. As examples of Spanish words in English we may cite *mosquito*, *punctilio*, *flotilla*. It should be emphasized that neither Greek, Italian, nor Spanish has exerted upon our language an influence in any way comparable to that of Latin or of French.

Scattered borrowings from languages other than those mentioned may be noted as illustrative of the variety of the English vocabulary: *cherub* and *seraph* come from Hebrew; *algebra*, *cipher* from Arabic; *bazaar* from Persian; *tomahawk* from the speech of North American Indians; *knapsack* from Dutch; and *tea* from Chinese.

The study of words like the study of sentences deals in part with analysis. By this means we distinguish roots, stems, prefixes, and suffixes. Suffixes are further divided into stem-suffixes, derivative suffixes, and inflectional suffixes. Hypothetically the root is the earliest form of the word, and in the last analysis it is the source of words in a whole family of languages. English words, for example, may be carried back to Indo-Germanic roots, our language being a member of the Germanic group of the Indo-Germanic family. Cognate with the Germanic group are the following: Indian (Sanskrit, etc.), Iranian (Old Persian, etc.),

Armenian, Greek, Italic (Latin, etc. From Latin are descended the so-called Romance languages,—Italian, French, Spanish, etc.), Celtic (Irish, Welsh, etc.), Slavonic (Russian, etc.), Baltic (Lithuanian, etc.).

Roots in the course of time were extended by the addition of simple elements, called stem suffixes, to form stems. The stem suffixes, having grown by accretion into derivative endings, such as *ness*, were freely employed in the making of new words. These processes, to which may be added the comparatively late addition of prefixes, are stages in word composition. A further stage is what is called inflection.

Words are inflected to bring out their syntactical relations to one another. By inflections we distinguish case, number, mood, voice, gender, etc. For example, the *o* of *bello*, the dative of *bellum*, is an inflectional ending; as is *en* in *oxen*, and *eth* in *loveth*. This phenomenon of inflection appears in the oldest records of the Indo-Germanic family of languages. The tendency of a civilized language is in the main to simplify rather than to complicate its inflectional system.

The stages in the growth of a word as described above may be illustrated as follows:—

1. Root:—**steig** = *pricking, stinging, sticking.*
2. Root + Derivative Suffix:—*stigma;* (extended) *stimulus, stimulate;* (extended further) *stimulation.*
3. Prefix + Root + Derivative Suffix:—*instigate;* (extended) *instigator, instigation.*
4. Prefix + Root + Derivative Suffix + Inflection: *instigating.*

LATIN PREFIXES

A-, ab-, abs-. "Off, away, from." *Avocation* is that which calls one away from his regular business. *Abstain* is to hold oneself away from, the object of avoidance being usually considered as harmful. *Abolish* is to do away with something completely, literally so that it can grow or flourish no longer. *Abnegate* is to deny,

in the sense of putting away, laying aside. *Abrade* is to rub off, to wear away by friction.

Ad-, a-, ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-. "To, in addition to." *Advocate* (vb.) (*Cf. advocacy* and the noun *advocate*) is to support as an advocate, that is as one called to the support of a cause. Compare the use of the noun in the sense of counselor. The verb, then, implies open and public support. *Advert* is to turn the mind or attention to. Compare *adversary, adversative, adverse, adversity*, in which "turning to" means "turning against"; *adversity* therefore meaning that which is opposed to one's happiness or well-being. *Advertise* means to give notice, *i. e.*, to turn the attention to. See, too, *animadversion*. *Allot* is to give lots or shares to, that is, to distribute by lot. *Affix:* to fasten or add to. Compare the noun of the same form. *Aggression:* going to in a hostile sense. *Announce:* to relate to in the manner of a messenger.

Amb-, am-. "Around, about." *Ambiguous:* wandering about, that is, uncertain in meaning; what can be understood in more than one sense. Compare the noun *ambiguity*. *Amputate:* to cut around, that is, to lop off. Note the corresponding Greek prefix *amphi-* in *amphibious* and *amphitheater*.

Ante-, anti-. "Before." *Antecedent:* that which goes before. *Anticipate:* to take hold of before, *i. e.*, to get ahead of with. Be careful to distinguish *anti-* as a form of the prefix *ante-* from *anti-* meaning *against*.

Bene-. "Well." *Beneficent:* that which does well to, that which accomplishes good.

Bi-. "Two, twice, doubly." Compare the prefix *bis-* in *biscuit*. *Bisect:* to cut in two. Compare *bisection* and *bisector*. There is some confusion in the use of this prefix, which is due to its being employed in the sense of once in two, and again with the meaning twice in one. For example, *biweekly* may mean occurring twice a week or once in every two weeks. This confusion is best avoided by using the prefix *semi-* to express the former meaning; *e. g.*, *semiweekly* and *semiannual*.

Circum-, circu-. "Around, about." *Circumspect:* looking about; that is, careful, cautious. *Circuitous:* that which goes around.

Com-, con-, cog-, col-, cor-, co-. "With, together." The prefix sometimes only intensifies the meaning of the word to which it is attached. *Compose:* to form by placing together, and so to construct or fashion a piece of music, a piece of literature, etc. To compose oneself is to settle one's feelings. *Correlate:* to bring into connection in a way to show mutual relationship. *Coeval:* of the same age, contemporary. *Cognate:* united by birth, that is, derived from the same stock, and, in a weakened sense, of the same or similar nature. Compare *cognation*. *Collect:* literally to bind together, Latin *colligere;* then to assemble. *Confederate* (adj.): in a compact with.

Contra-, contro-, counter-. "Against." *Contravene:* to proceed contrary to and so to transgress. Compare *contravention*. *Controvert:* to turn against in debate, to oppose. *Countervail:* to avail against, to counterbalance. Compare *contre* the French form of the preposition, as in *contre-temps*, an untoward occurrence.

De-. "Down, off, away." *Descend:* to come down. *Decapitate:* to remove the head. Compare *decapitation*. *Deter:* literally to frighten away, *i. e.*, to discourage from. *De-* is also used intensively, *e. g.*, *denuded*.

Demi-. Literally "half"; then, vaguely, falling short of the usual or normal. *Demigod*, one of divine nature but less than a god.

Dis-, di-, dif- (before f). "Away, asunder, off, free from." *Disaffect:* to alienate, to estrange the feelings of. *Distract:* literally to draw asunder, *i. e.*, to agitate. Compare *distraction*, *distractive*. Sometimes the prefix is equivalent to a negative, *e. g.*, *dispassionate*, without feeling, *diffident*, without confidence. Again it is intensive, *e. g.*, *dissever* as compared with *sever*.

Ex-, e-, ef-. "Out, away from, off." *Exculpate:* to take the blame from. *Educe:* to bring from out of, to elicit. *Effusive:* pouring forth, "gushing," that is, expressing feeling too freely. Compare the corresponding Greek prefix *éc-*, as in *ecstasy*, being outside of or beside oneself.

Extra-. "Beyond, outside of." *Extravagant:* to wander beyond

proper bounds. Note that the adjective does not pertain only to the excessive expenditure of money.

In-, il-, im-, ir-. "In, into, on, within." *Inspire:* literally to breathe into, then to infuse, to animate with. *Illuminate:* to enlighten. *Impress:* to press, to fix upon. *Irruption:* a bursting into, a violent inroad. Compare *irruptive.* See the corresponding French prefix *em-*, *en-*, as in *endue* and *embody.*

In-. "Not." *Inactive*, etc.

Inter-, intel-. "Between, among." *Interaction:* action back and forth from one to another. Compare *interact.* *Intellect:* literally the faculty of choosing among a number of objects of choice.

Intra-. "Within." *Intramural:* within the walls.

Intro-. *Introspection:* looking within; that is, self-analysis, self-examination.

Juxta-. "Near." *Juxtaposition:* placing or being placed near together.

Mal-, male-. "Ill, badly." *Malcontent:* discontented (adjective and noun). *Malediction:* a proclamation of evil, a curse.

Non-. "Not." *Nonjuring:* not swearing allegiance to.

Ob-, oc-, of-, op-. "Against, toward, facing." *Object* (vb.): to advance in opposition to. *Occur:* to present itself, that is, to happen. *Offend:* to dash against; then, to transgress. *Oppose:* to set against. *Ob-* is also used intensively, as in *obdurate.*

Per-. "Through." *Pervasive:* that which goes through, which passes into all parts of. Note the form of the prefix in *pellucid*, where it has intensive force. The corresponding French prefix is *par*, used intensively in *parboil;* confusion has arisen here, however, with *part*, so that *parboil* has taken the meaning to boil partly. Compare, *purblind.*

Post-. "After, behind." *Postpone:* to place at a later time. Compare such Latin phrases as *post-mortem*, *ex post facto.*

Pre-. "Before." *Premonition:* that which comes beforehand as a warning.

Preter-. "Beyond." *Pretermit:* literally to send beyond, *i. e.*, to pass by, to disregard.

Pro-. "Before, forward." *Protest:* literally to come forward as a

witness, *i. e.*, to bear witness against, to affirm openly against. The French form of the prefix is *por* as in *portray*.

Re-, red-. "Back, again." *Recommit;* to commit again. *Redeem:* literally to buy back, that is, to recover, to deliver.

Retro-. "Backward." *Retroactive:* that which acts upon what is behind; for example, something in past time.

Se-. "Away, aside." *Secede:* to withdraw from union. Compare the form *sed* in *sedition*, literally a going apart.

Semi-. "Half." *Semivowel:* a sound between a vowel and a consonant.

Sub-, suc-, suf-, sug-, sup-, sur-, sus-. "Under, down, near." *Subterranean:* under the earth. Compare *subterraneous*. *Succumb:* to put oneself under, *i. e.*, to yield, to give way. *Sustain:* to hold from below. Compare *sustainable*, *sustainer*, *sustenance*, *sustentation*, *sustention*. Similarly, *support*. Note *suf-* as in *suffice*, *sug-* as in *suggest*, *sur-* as in *surreptitious*.

Subter-. "Under." *Subterfuge:* a scheme to escape. As in the case of the prefix *sur-* in *surreptitious*, *subter-* here implies secrecy.

Super-. "Over, above, in addition to." *Supernumerary:* exceeding a specified or usual number. The French form of the prefix is *sur-*, as in *surmount*.

Trans-. "Across, over." *Transliterate:* to transfer from one alphabet to another. Notice that the prefix usually becomes *tran-* when the following stem begins with an *s*, *e. g.*, *transudation*, *transubstantiation*. In *trespass*, to pass across into forbidden territory, we have a French form of the prefix; as in *traverse*, *travesty*, etc.

Ultra-. "Beyond." *Ultraconservative:* unduly conservative.

GREEK PREFIXES

Amphi-. "Around, double." *Amphibious:* having two lives, that is, living on land and water. *Amphitheater:* a theater of circular form. Compare the cognate Latin prefix *amb*, *am*.

An-, a-. Negative prefix, equivalent to Latin *un-*. *Anomalous:* irregular, literally uneven. Compare *anomaly*, *anomalistic*, *anomalousness*. *Atheist:* one who believes that there is no God.

Ana-. "Up, back, again, anew." *Analysis:* making free again, that

is, resolving into its elements. Compare *analyze*, *analyzable*, *analyst*, *analytic*. *Anabaptist:* one who believes in re-baptism.

Anti-. "Against." *Antipodes:* regions diametrically opposite to our own.

Apo-. "Out, forth, away." *Apostle:* one sent forth.

Cata-, cat-, cath-. "Down, away, wrongly, entirely." *Catastrophe:* literally a turning downward, an overthrowing, a disaster, ruin.

Di-. "Twice, two, double." *Digraph:* a written symbol consisting of two letters but representing only a single sound.

Dia-, di-. "Through." *Diameter:* the line that, passing through the center, measures the distance from one point on the circumference to another.

En-, em-, el-. "In." *Endemic:* prevailing among a specified people.

Endo-. "Within." *Endogamous:* pertaining to marriage within the limits of the tribe.

Epi-, ep-, eph-. "Upon." *Epitaph:* that which is written upon a tomb in commemoration of the dead.

Ex-, ec-. "Away, out of." *Exorcise:* to expel an evil spirit by means of invocation. *Ecstasy:* a state of being beside oneself, beyond the realm of normal experience.

Exo-. "Outside." *Exopathic:* of disease originating outside of the body.

Hyper-. "Over, excessive." *Hypertrophy:* enlargement due to overnutrition.

Hypo-, hyp-, hyph-. "Under." *Hypodermic:* pertaining to the body beneath the skin.

Meta-, met-, meth-. "With, after," often implying change. *Metamorphosis:* a change of form.

Para-, par-, parti-. "Beside, beyond, wrong." *Paradox:* an expression of thought contrary to what is generally held to be true; a seeming absurdity.

Pro-. "Before." *Prologue:* a preliminary speech; particularly the speech that precedes the opening of the play proper.

Pros-. "Toward, in addition." *Proselyte:* to cause to come over to; that is, to convert, particularly to a new creed.

Syn-, sy-, syl-. *Synchronize:* to occur at the same time.

CHAPTER II

THE MEANINGS OF WORDS

Complementary to etymology is the science of word meanings.[1] Here we study the different senses in which words have been understood, under what influences they have altered their meanings, and the typical changes which in this way the vocabularies of many languages have undergone.

The processes by which words change their meanings we may classify as Generalization, Specialization, Deterioration, Exaltation, Shifting of Meaning, Radiation.

Disaster, once a special astrological term derived from the Latin *aster* a star, now means in general misfortune or calamity. *Picture* is no longer limited to its original sense, painting. On the other hand, *deer* has been specialized in modern usage from the general meaning, animal; compare Shakespeare's "rats and mice and such small deer" and the German *Thier*. *Ghost* in ordinary use no longer means spirit, but an apparition from the spirit world; the original sense is retained in Holy Ghost. Sometimes a word will in the course of its history be alternately generalized and specialized. *Livery*, for example, at first signified the act of delivering; by one of several specializations it developed the sense, the delivery of food to horses; then the general care of horses with a view to hiring them.

Apart from generalization and specialization, singly or in alternation, words, by more or less chance associations, may assume meanings far removed from those which originally

[1] The science is called semantics or semasiology.

attached to them. "A capital example of the shifting process," writes Professor Kittredge, "is seen in *handkerchief*. A small piece of cloth to cover the head was naturally enough called a *coverchief* (O. Fr. *couvre-chief*; *chef* from Latin *caput*) or *kerchief* (*cf.* curfew). When fashion decreed that a somewhat similar piece should be carried in the hand, *handkerchief* was coined with no thought of the literal sense of *kerchief*. The next step was *pocket-handkerchief*, which is literally, it will be observed, a thing to cover the head, to be carried in the hand, to be put in the pocket."

The unwillingness to call a spade a spade, which has led us to give neutral or pleasant names to unpleasant realities (Euphemism), or the less excusable disposition to cast a slur upon what is good by bringing its name into bad repute, has resulted in the deterioration of many words. In this manner *knave*, which originally meant boy (compare the German word, *Knabe*), developed its current derogatory sense. An examination of the word *imp* will show that it was once a dignified term, meaning offspring or scion; and *hussy* was at first equivalent to house-wife, or the woman who keeps the house. On the other hand, terms of reproach have developed into words of praise. *Nice*, which once meant foolish (Latin *ne*+*scius*), is now a laudatory word of all work.

It will appear from what has been said above that the etymology of a word often fails to explain its current signification; to understand this we should familiarize ourselves with the processes by which words have changed their meanings. The science of word meanings, moreover, helps us to relate to one another the various senses in which a word is at present used. A new development, of course, need not do away with an old one; so that the many definitions which dictionaries give for a single term, though all in present use, may mark several stages in its history. Let

us turn, for example, to the word *faculty* in any of the larger dictionaries. We shall find listed there such particular meanings as (a) "a special mental endowment" or "characteristic knack," as, *He had the faculty of conversing in a way that was both instructive and entertaining;* (b) the psychological powers (such as reason, will, etc.) recognized by the older psychologists; (c) a power, prerogative, or authority, conferred by law; (d) a department in a university; (e) a body of men enjoying certain professional privileges (*e. g.*, the legal faculty); and, a sense familiar in the United States, (f) a body of men in a college or university, some of whom assume in addition to their teaching certain administrative functions. If one thinks of these more or less general and special meanings as occupying points on a circle of thought the center of which is the concept of action (Latin, *facere*), one might designate the process described as Radiation. Through varied associations,—psychological, legal, and educational—our word has assumed a variety of meanings, specialization having been carried in some cases much farther than in others.

To illustrate further the development of word meanings we might note the current uses of the adjective *sharp* with its original sense of "having a keen edge or point." (Compare the various senses of *keen*.) The word may be applied now to mental faculties as in the phrases *sharp of wit, a sharp youngster*, etc. In this sense it suffered in certain cases deterioration; for example, *He is a sharp one;* and compare *sharper* in the sense of *trickster*. Again, it has reference to the senses of sight and hearing as well as to that of touch; as, *His sight* (or *hearing*) *is sharp, He has sharp ears*. It may be applied to some activity carried on energetically and eagerly, as, *a sharp argument, a sharp run*. It may describe the weather, *a sharp morning;* a person's disposition or manner, *a sharp temper, a sharp look, a sharp*

rebuke (compare *sharp punishment*). Furthermore, it may denote intensity of feeling, pungency or acidity of taste: *sharp suffering, sharp on one's tongue.* It is also the name for a note of music of relatively high pitch.

Similarly the original sense of the word *capital* has radiated and been generalized into many meanings. At first the word meant pertaining to the head; then, as in *capital crime*, concerning or affecting life. A *capital letter*, at first one standing at the head of a page or at the beginning of a line or chapter, now means a letter of the form used in those places, wherever it may appear. Then a *capital* is a chief city (note that *chief* is also derived, through the French, from Latin *caput*); or the head of a pillar; or, in the financial sense, the principal or chief resources of a man or an organization of men.

Synonyms. The careful writer deriving what aid he can from etymology and the science of word meanings, chooses his words with regard to their suggestiveness. For words like places have atmosphere, and like people they have individuality. They have or they lack dignity; they are weak or strong, intellectual or emotional, playful or serious. One should try to be sensitive to the implications or undertones of language. Otherwise, when he would be impressive he will be stilted; when his manner should be easy and informal, it will be trivial; or he will impair the effect of a strong and dignified passage by the unhappy use of a weak word. Good writing demands a cultivated sense of propriety, similar to that which guides us in social intercourse with our fellow-men.

It is sometimes on account of its stronger emotional connotation that one word is differentiated from another. *Faith*, for example, suggests more the feeling of trust and assurance and less the idea of the mind's assent than does *belief*; and *adverse to* has more to do with one's judgment and less with

one's emotions than has *averse to*. A similar distinction on the score of emphasis may be made between *avoid* and *shun*, *antipathy* and *aversion*, *ambition* and *aspiration*, *brag* and *vaunt*, *concern* and *solicitude*.

Sometimes one word carries more weight than another because it is more formal, dignified, or exalted. So *reside in* should be distinguished from *live in*, *commence* from *begin*, *command* from *order*, *acknowledge* or *avow* from *own*, *entertain* from *amuse*, *edifice* from *building*, *serene* from *tranquil*, etc.

A difference in the emphasis of words is further due to more or less suggestion of action. *Malice*, for instance, means ill will that seeks realization in deeds, whereas *resentment* is only an aroused feeling of opposition. Similarly *anger* suggests less than *rage* and *fury* the expression of intense indignation. *Accede* carries more the idea of positive assent than *acquiesce*, and *friendly* as contrasted with *amicable* means active good-will. *Bad* frequently means no more than the absence of good qualities, *wicked* or *evil* applying rather to what is positively or actively wrong. So, too, we may distinguish between *admiration* and *approbation*. *Stop*, it might be added, applies to what has been in action, whereas *cease* may mean the discontinuance of a state.

We may compare the distinction between active and passive, positive and negative words with that which holds for terms relating respectively to mind and body. Here, however, it is usually possible to shift the connotation of a word so as to give it other than its primary application. *Deft* ordinarily denotes skill of hand; *cleverness*, readiness of mind. *Active* is used indifferently of mental or physical movements, *agile*, like *awkward* and *ungainly*, having primary reference to movements of the body. With these pairs of words we may associate those which connote on the one hand the material, on the other the abstract. For example, we are *bereaved* of friends, but *bereft* of hope.

Besides distinctions of the kinds already noted, we should recognize more or less favorable or derogatory connotations. *Allure* is in this way contrasted with *lure*, *devoted* with *addicted*, and *blunt* with *bluff*. *Careful*, unlike *cautious* and *wary*, does not suggest an unwelcome or untoward possibility; and whereas *desert* implies action contrary to obligation, *forsake* may or may not carry this implication. Compare *ascribe* with *impute*.

EXERCISE A

I. Define the following words with special reference to their prefixes:—

aberrant
abhor
abjure
abnormal
abolish
aborigines
abrade
abrogate
abrupt
abstain
abstruse
abuse
accelerate
accost
accretion
acquire
address
adjure
adjutant
adumbrate
affable
affiance
affiliate
affix
affront
alluvial
amenable
apparatus
apposite
approximate
arrogate
astringent
ambidextrous
ambient
ambition
ambit
amphora
amplectant
amputate
antediluvian
antemeridian
antemundane
antenatal
antepenult
bicephalous
bicameral
bicentenary
circumambient
circumjacent
circumvallate
circumscribe
colloquy
collusion
college
commiseration
concatenation
contraband
contrariwise
contradistinction
counter
countermand
counterpoise
decay
defalcate
deflate
demise
demoralize
depilate
deplete

derelict
desuetude
detect
deter
devolve
demi-tasse
demiwolf
disburse
disease
disgust
dishevel
disparage
dispense
disseminate
dissimulation
dissolute
divest
divulge
exasperate
excavate
excommunicate
excoriate
excrescent
exculpate
execrate
exempt
exhaust
exorbitant
expatriate
expedite
expletive
extort
extricate
extrude
exude
ejaculate
elect
elude
emanate
emancipate
erosion
effluvium
extramundane
extraneous
extrajudicial
immure
immolate
impinge
implicate
implicit
incarnate
incinerate
inculcate
incur
inflict
initial
inhibit
inherent
inoculate
inquisitive
insidious
insinuate
inveigh
invest
intercalate
interest
interject
internecine
interstice
intramundane
malapert
malapropos
maladroit
objurgate
obloquy
oppugn
perambulate
percolate
perforate
permeate
peroration
persecute
perspire
pertinacious
precentor
preclude
precocious
predilection
preëmpt
prelude
presume
preterite
preternatural
procrastinate
progenitor
promulgate
protrude
rebate
rebut
recalcitrant
recapitulate
recondite
recreation
recrudescence
refluent
refrain
relax
reluctant
replenish
repugnant
resurrection

retrieve
semitone
suborn
suburb
succumb
superstition
transfiguration
transient
transitive
translucent
transmute
transpire
ultramarine
ultramontane
ultramundane

II. Use your knowledge of prefixes to make the proper distinctions in the case of the following pairs of words:—

apprehend, comprehend
intrusive, obtrusive
allocution, circumlocution
imprecate, deprecate
absolve, dissolve
adjacent, circumjacent
deponent, component
affluent, confluent
abstract, distract
extravagance, divagation
dismiss, remiss
deflection, reflection
monologue, dialogue
express, impress
postscript, transcript
imputation, deputation
aggregate, segregate
confusion, transfusion
induction, seduction
recede, secede
conversion, retroversion
revision, prevision
seclude, include
respiration, inspiration
vocation, avocation
negation, abnegation
adhere, cohere
apathy, sympathy
relate, correlate

III. Show how the prefixes make clear the contrast in the case of each pair of words:—

sympathy, antipathy
euphony, cacophony
benevolent, malevolent
analysis, synthesis
homogeneous, heterogeneous
associate, dissociate
allow, disallow
disparity, parity
persuade, dissuade
prove, disprove
proceed, recede
accord, discord
discredit, credit (accredit)
affected, disaffected
gusto, disgust
merit, demerit
arrange, disarrange
insist, desist

confidence, diffidence
ingress, egress
avow, disavow
converge, diverge
merge, emerge
implicit, explicit
eject, inject
emigrate, immigrate
establish, disestablish
dyspeptic, eupeptic
inflated, deflated
exculpate, inculpate
extensive, intensive
prospect, retrospect
magnanimous, pusillanimous
adroit, maladroit
benediction, malediction
trust, distrust
objective, subjective
philanthropy, misanthropy
simulation, dissimulation
uniform, multiform
segregation, congregation
compose, decompose
service, disservice
orthodox, heterodox

IV. Supply the omissions in the following sentences, getting what help you can from the prefixes explained above:

1. He considers studying a mere ——, while he makes of athletics the real business of his college life. 2. Each one of you is requested to —— from whatever is likely to —— his efficiency as a student. 3. I took occasion to —— to the more conspicuous fallacies in his argument. 4. A true stoic will accept without complaint whatever fortune has —— him. 5. I did not have to ask for anything, because he —— my every wish. 6. Although an absolute monarch he wished his people well; his government may be described as a —— despotism. 7. The successful diplomat knows when to keep silent, and he is always ——. 8. From this point we can reach home only by a —— route. 9. —— with the period of the Norman kings there appeared in England a large amount of poetry written in French. 10. The English *knave* and the German *Knabe* are —— terms. 11. The criminal admitted that he had been helped by several ——. 12. Senator Brown's speech was not well received by the voters of his state; its immediate result was to —— a large proportion of his constituency. 13. It is strange that he can write in such a —— way about matters which concern him deeply. 14. The noise of the city streets —— me beyond endurance. 15. He is not a person to ——confidence. 16. It appears to me that he gives

—— attention to dress. 17. After he had held his tongue for the greater part of the evening he made an —— into our smoothly conducted discourse. 18. Did you ever hear such "gush"? I find it hard to place any confidence in such an ——. 19. It is possible to forgive but not to —— a person who has acted like that. 20. In spite of all my questions, I failed to —— any information from him. 21. You are too much given to self-analysis; the habit of —— sometimes paralyzes action. 22. We need less intercollegiate and more —— athletics. 23. Put these two objects in —— and note their points of similarity and difference. 24. It is irregular for you to attend classes before you have registered and paid your fees; it puts both you and your instructor in an —— situation. 25. Oriental civilization is in many ways —— to that of the West. 26. To test our knowledge of the Greek alphabet, our teacher would make us —— a long passage from Xenophon's Anabasis. 27. A purist is —— in matters of speech. 28. Of course you may escape detection in that way, but let us not avoid just censure by resorting to ——. 29. *Ex post facto* law is by definition ——. 30. It was thought that the committee should reconsider several recommendations it had made; its report was accordingly ——. 31. W and Y are not strictly consonants; they are called ——. 32. It is hard to —— a lost reputation. 33. The catacombs are —— places of burial. 34. This foundation will not —— the weight of the house. 35. In Shakespeare's time it was common for books to be published without the consent of the author; many of the quarto editions of Shakespeare's plays were published ——. 36. I should rather die a sudden death than to —— to disease. 37. Malaria is —— in many parts of the South. 38. There was recently an —— of infantile paralysis in New York. 39. What spell can we use to —— the evil spirits of which the body politic is now possessed? 40. In their —— the mystics seemed to experience a union with God. 41. She had nourished her sensibilities for so long a time with sentimental reading and sentimental experience that she suffered chronically with —— of the heart. 42. There were so many fraternities at our small college that the —— group was not large enough to organize a social life of its own. 43. Preceding a surgical operation, the patient is often given a —— injection of morphine. 44. The gods often experienced

——; for example, Jupiter became a bull. 45. His love of —— led him to contend that Shakespeare had only narrow sympathies and very little dramatic talent. 46. The unions had planned that the teamsters' strike should —— with that of the trainmen.

V. List all the words you can find which are derived from the following words either directly or indirectly and show how the sense of the foreign word is preserved in its English derivative:—

alius (alter, alienus)
amor (amicus, amare-amatum, *French* amour, ami)
annus (perennis, biennalis, etc.)
ante (antiquus, *French* ancien)
animus (anima)
ars-artis (artifex-artificis, artus: limb, arma: arms, *Greek* armos: shoulder, *Greek* armenos: fitted)
caput (capitulum, capitolium, capitellum, præceps-præcipitis, *French* chef)
casus (occasio-occasionis, cadere-casum, accidere, occidere, *French* chance)
corpus-corporis
cura (cavere-cautum)
finis
grex-gregis (*Greek* agora: assembly)
gravis (*French* grief)
levis (levare-levatum)
lux-lucis (lumen-luminis, luna, lucidus, *French* lustre)
pater-patris
modus (meditari, metior)
sors-sortis
terra (terrena, terrestris)
testis
unus
agere-actum (ager, *Greek* agein, agros, axios)
cædere-cæsum (scindere-scissum, *Greek* schizein)
creare-creatum (crescere-cretum, *French* accrue)

dicere-dictum (indicare, judicare, etc., dictare, *Greek* dike: justice)

dux-ducis (ducere-ductum)

inclinare-inclinatum (clivus: a hill, *Greek* kline: a bed, klinein: to recline, klimax: a ladder, klima: climate)

fundere-fusum (futis: a water vessel, futilis, refutare-refutatum)

docere-doctum (decet: it is fitting, decor, *Greek* dogma, *Greek* didaskein)

dare-datum (reddere, tradere, donum, dos-dotis, *French* douaire)

putare-putatum (purus, putus, *Greek* pur: fire)

rex-regis (regere-rectum, *French* roi)

tendere

tensum or tentum (tenere, tenuis, *Greek* teinein, tonos)

VI. List as many words as you can find which are derived from the following Greek words:—

polis: a city
onyma: a name
nomos: a law
(also nomos: a pasture
Greek nemein: to distribute)
autos: self
chronos: time
cosmos: the universe
morphe: form
archos: a chief
hydros: water
orthos: straight
anthropos: man
ode: song
ops: eye
polus: many
theos: god
ergon: work

VII. Show how etymology helps us to differentiate the following synonyms:—

address, dexterity
acquire, attain
acrimony, asperity
addicted, devoted
blemish, defect
cautious, provident
captious, caveling
conclude, finish
conscientious, scrupulous
social, convivial
discern, perceive
place, dispose
remark, observation
affix, subjoin

allude, refer
announce, proclaim
celebrate, commemorate
circumstantial, particular
eradicate, extirpate
animosity, hostility
ecstacy, transport
distress, perplexity
expeditious, prompt
diffuse, prolix
unnatural, factitious
conduce, contribute
consider, reflect
contentment, satisfaction
contumacious, rebellious
debate, deliberate
definite, positive
dejection, melancholy
derive, deduce
design, purpose
disparity, inequality
ecclesiastical, theological
ebullition, effervescence
eulogy, panegyric
exigency, emergency
explain, elucidate
extenuate, palliate
factious, seditious
severe, austere
comply, conform

conjecture, supposition
execute, achieve
affable, courteous
averse, reluctant
allure, inveigle
ambiguous, enigmatic
imprecation, malediction
gift, gratuity
turgid, bombastic
decry, deprecate
deny, controvert
embarrassment, confusion
transcript, facsimile
deceit, duplicity
cursory, desultory
slow, dilatory
dispel, disperse
dissolute, reprobate
assign, apportion
reveal, divulge
docile, tractable
vapid, insipid
eccentricity, idiosyncrasy
engage, promise
appreciate, value
elicit, extort
plentiful, abundant
finally, eventually
fluctuate, oscillate

VIII. Explain the force of the suffix (in some cases more properly called the combining element) in each of the following words:—

Regicide, theocracy, monogamous, cosmogony, kilogram, monolith, electrolysis, anthropophagy, Anglophobe, microphone, pro-

tozoa, animalcule, aureole, gosling, manikin, punster, poetaster, appendicitis, prudery, seamstress, Johnsonese, bookish, manhood, godhead, scholarship, contrariwise, piecemeal, baggage, particle, chatter, obsolescent, decisive.

EXERCISE B

I. Look up the history of each of the following words and explain the development of its several meanings:—

Draught, passion, buxom, ambition, simple, silly, treacle, extravagant, bachelor, investment, loyal.

II. Differentiate the following synonyms with reference to one or more of the principles of distinction explained above:—

to ornament, to adorn
curses, imprecations
formal, ceremonious
to clean, to cleanse
competition, emulation
intrigue, conspiracy
fight, conflict
nonchalant, cool
expensive, costly
dainty, exquisite
to dedicate, to devote
deference, reverence
pious, devout
squabble, quarrel
elated, elate
elocution, eloquence
emblem, symbol
celebrated, eminent
wages, salary
visit, visitation

visitor, visitant
enough, sufficient
to let, to permit
choice, election
arrival, advent
trick, artifice
to ask, to request
saying (as in "an old saying"), apothegm
to stand (as in "to stand pain"), to endure
under, below
to brag, to vaunt
building, edifice
busy, assiduous
calm, serene
care, anxiety
to stop, to cease
blame, censure
clear, lucid

close, near
color, hue
business, profession
to guess, to conjecture
death, demise
to declare, to proclaim
to want, to desire
digression, excursus
notch, indentation
scatter, disperse
earthly, terrestrial
praise (noun), eulogize
enemy, foe
enterprise, emprise
attack, assail
audacity, effrontery
mean, base
dull, blunt
flourish, brandish
bright, brilliant
cant, jargon
whim, caprice
to charm, to captivate
to cheat, to swindle
paltry, despicable
contention, strife
continual, continuous
corrupt, depraved
cowardly, dastardly
crude, crass
pessimistic, cynical
danger, peril
deface, disfigure
illusion, hallucination
destiny, doom
deterioration, degeneration
devoid of, destitute of
different, disparate
dirty, squalid
disaster, calamity
to dismay, to appall
envy, covet
to efface, to obliterate
mistake, blunder
wayward, perverse
to attest, to vouch
visionary, chimerical
vexation, chagrin
to alleviate, to assuage
to repel, to oppose
to agree, to concur
to ascend, to climb
to attach, to append
to expel, to banish
beautiful, comely
barbarian (adjective), barbaric
beneficial, advantageous
bent (inclination), bias
blessing, benediction
bodily, corporeal
characteristic, trait
circumstantial, minute
comparison, simile
agreement, contract
courage, intrepidity
malediction, execration
desultory, cursory
to decay, to decompose
to defer, to postpone
to destroy, to demolish
difficulty, impediment
doctrine, dogma
dry, arid
copy, facsimile

duty, obligation
education, breeding
exertion, effort
era, age
to whiten, to bleach
weak, feeble
to warn, to caution
watchful, vigilant
useless, ineffectual
utility, usefulness
to try, to essay
to trifle, to dally
fastidious, finical
affectation, mannerism
timorous, fearful
dilettante, amateur
apology, excuse
liable, likely
spurious, artificial
loot, booty
bravado, bravery
cautious, careful
to chatter, to chat
faction, party
adulation, compliment
curt, concise
to proselyte, to convert
clique, coterie
greed, avidity
prying, curious
tyrannical, despotic
theatrical, dramatic
puerile, juvenile
antipathy, repugnance
haughty, insolent
bloody, sanguinary
cheerfulness, mirth

connivance, collusion
concomitant, concurrent
cordial, hearty
mortal, deadly
to protect, to defend
definite, definitive
to deplore, to lament
despondency, desperation
to disengage, to extricate
disloyal, traitorous
vigorous, energetic
to arrogate, to usurp
adverse, averse
to affirm, to asseverate
presentiment, apprehension
to assent, to consent
repentance, penitence
to disturb, to perturb
wit, humor
acquisition, attainment
adhesion, adherence
admittance, admission
base (noun), basis
brittle, fragile
cohesion, coherence
ingredient, element
temperament, disposition
exultant, elated
stimulant, stimulus
ability, capacity
absolve, acquit
accident, casualty
accomplish, effect,
advantage, benefit
cogent, forcible
frugality, economy
leave, quit

opinion, sentiment
pardonable, venial
resign, relinquish
supersede, supplant
loquacious, garrulous
hypothesis, theory
encroach, infringe
dally, dawdle
vexation, chagrin
visionary, quixotic
wayward, perverse

III. Find as many synonyms as you can for each of the following words, making clear all distinctions in meaning:—

revenge
conduct
benignant
motive
accuse
complacency
faithfulness
depreciate
bearing
dishonor
characteristic
defend
defeat
content
controvert
effective
confuse
justify
victory
assume
reflect
duplicity
cloak (to hide)
distinguish
grave (adjective)
value
artisan
voluntary
eccentricity
velocity
usual
drunk
extract (verb)
fanatic
glutton
bombastic
civil
correct
ease
unbelief

IV. From the synonyms bracketed in the following sentences choose the word that seems to be most suitable to the context. If you have no preference, point out how the words differ in meaning:—

1. By their {clandestine / secret} methods, the members of the Black Hand have so far escaped detection.

2. A wreck just ahead of our train has {occasioned / caused} its delay.

3. In the conduct of such a complicated undertaking, you should be particularly {circumspect / cautious}.

4. His negrophobia is {the result / the effect} of a natural {prejudice / bias}.

5. Inherent in our President's character is the {attribute / quality} of patience.

6. Children's {questions / queries} often confound the wisest men.

7. Please {forgive / pardon} me if I have written you too long a letter.

8. I have {prohibited / forbidden} the children from playing on the street after dark.
   I have {prohibited / forbidden} the children to play on the street after dark.

9. Roosevelt {succeeded / followed} McKinley as President of the U. S.

10. I was growing somewhat {distrustful / suspicious} of myself.

11. I {trust / hope} I have not kept you waiting.

12. The {accident / casualty} was due to careless driving.

13. Pleasant meadow lands are {contiguous / adjacent} to the fine old house.

14. More than {humanitarianism / benevolence} we need now the power of accomplishing good.

15. There is nothing so delightful as the {openness / candor / sincerity} of a child's mind.

16. She bore up under her affliction with great {fortitude / courage}.

17. I will first explain the hypothesis and then { examine / discuss } its claims to be generally accepted.

18. He { disavowed / denied } responsibility before I had had time to bring my charge against him.

19. There will always be many { factions / parties } in Mexico until a truly great man becomes president of that unhappy republic.

20. There is no one so engagingly { facetious / funny / jocular } as the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.

CHAPTER III

THE STANDING OF WORDS

The derivation of a word will often help us, as we have seen, to understand its present meaning. We should remember, however, that in matters of language usage is frequently fortuitous and inconsistent. As in the changes of fashion, we have to reckon with human caprices as well as human needs. General words, as we have learned in the section on The Meanings of Words, are in time particularized, particular words are generalized, a word of dignity loses caste, a neutral word becomes a term of praise or reproach, and technical terms become the property of all men. For many reasons and in many ways words drift from their sources. Sometimes, passing out of current use, they become obsolete; again, they have failed to win the sanction of the literary language.

It is not always possible to decide whether a given word or phrase has the sanction of good usage. There will always be a considerable number of expressions that are on the frontier of literary English, with respect to whose standing even the dictionaries disagree. It is impossible and indeed undesirable that there should be general agreement in such matters. New words would seldom be adopted if they had to await the approval of a majority of the most eminent literary men. In fact they have often established themselves in spite of the opposition of critics and men of letters; and, on the contrary, the approval of the latter has sometimes failed to insure them a place in the language. Modern English prose, for example, would have suffered if

certain writers of the sixteenth century had not used a colloquial idiom which was far from pleasing to the purists of the time. Nevertheless, the safest course for most of us to-day is to enrich our vocabularies from the approved resources of the language.

Of course not every word in the dictionary is in equally good standing. One will find there suitably labeled, colloquialisms, provincialisms, and slang. There we shall find also those technical terms and foreign expressions that a writer should ordinarily avoid. We should remember, then, that it is not sufficient justification of word or phrase to say, "I found it in the dictionary."

To be acceptable in literary English a word should be in present use in the sense in which it is employed. If it is out of date, either the word itself or its meaning is said to be obsolete. *Whilom*, for example, is obsolete, and *nice* can no longer be used in the earlier sense of foolish. To be sure, poetry has a license in the matter of vocabulary that is denied to prose; and in certain kinds of prose, for example the essays of Lamb, obsolete or obsolescent words have given an agreeable flavor to an author's style. Ordinarily, however, to use an antiquated vocabulary is to indulge an affection at the cost of clear and natural expression.

Affectation appears also in the employment of words not in national use. Persons who have a smattering of French are sometimes tempted to season their writing with such gratuitous borrowings as *de trop* or *recherché*. It would not do of course to condemn out of hand all foreign words in English composition. This would imply a condemnation of much excellent prose. We may say, however, that whatever might have been the fashion of an earlier day, foreign words and phrases are now used sparingly. We should draw upon the foreign languages only when the native speech is inadequate to our needs.

Along with foreign words may be classed dialect words and provincialisms. In what are called stories of local color this element of our vocabulary is indispensable; and in the spoken language only an unintelligent purist would be offended by such a racy idiom as is to be found here and there in the speech of the Tennessee and North Carolina mountaineers, with its interesting reminiscences of the English Bible and Shakespeare. And yet, however expressive is the speech of peasant and mountaineer, it is not literary English. To study it and enjoy it is one thing; to use it inappropriately is another.

There are many expressions besides provincialisms and dialect words which pass current in the spoken language and in the less formal sorts of writing, but which are not in good literary usage. Among them are those that we ordinarily classify as slang. However objectionable slang might be, it is well to remember that it has much in common with reputable, idiomatic English. It is often expressively compact and piquant. Many an English idiom is indeed no more than accredited slang. Nor is all slang equally objectionable. And what holds in this respect for slang holds with greater force for colloquialisms. Many of these are waiting with reasonably good credentials at the portals of literary English, and some of them are all but across the threshold. In some cases there is room for doubt whether the word or phrase in question is literary or colloquial.

However difficult might be a decision in particular cases, we should, then, in general avoid words that are not in good use. In the second place, we should draw fully upon the accredited resources of the language. Remembering that words are long and short, abstract and concrete, literal and figurative, let us intelligently vary our vocabularies so that our compositions shall be neither pompous nor childish, vague nor unduly particularized, unimaginative nor "fine."

One should choose his words, of course, with reference to his subject: an abstract theme needs particularly an abstract vocabulary, and the imagination needs figures of speech. The problem is, however, one of emphasis, not of exclusive choice. In most compositions a considerable number of each class of words is needed. If you are dealing with an abstract subject, you need the concrete word to bring your discussion down to earth. If you are handling many specific details, you need the general term to further the organization and unification of your material. A composition which generalizes to the neglect of particulars is like a spacious house without furniture; it is full of cheerless compartments of thought. On the other hand, particulars of whatever kind should be composed with the aid of controlling generalizations; they should be set in a pattern of ideas.

To be abstract is not to be vague. From our study of synonyms we have learned that without abstract words we cannot make fine distinctions. Our expression is vague only if it fails to recognize and employ these distinctions. Take a passage almost at random from the prose of a writer like Walter Pater, and it will be found that his thought is given fullness and definition by the discriminating use of abstract terms. The following quotation in this manner differentiates the several arts:—

"Each art, therefore, having its own peculiar and incommunicable charm, has its own special mode of reaching the imagination, its own special responsibilities to its material. One of the functions of æsthetic criticism is to define these limitations; to estimate the degree in which a work of art fulfils its responsibilities to its material; to note in a picture that true pictorial charm, which is neither a mere poetical thought nor sentiment on the one hand, nor a mere result of communicable technical skill in colour or design, on the other; to define in a poem that true poetical quality, which is neither descriptive nor meditative merely, but comes from an inventive

handling of rhythmical language—the element of song in the singing; to note in music the musical charm—that essential music, which presents no words, no matter of sentiment or thought, separable from the special form in which it is conveyed to us."

Even in the development of an abstract theme it is not safe, however, to neglect the concrete term. In the main it is the word of this sort that can best give reality and suggestiveness to a passage of analytical thought, by bringing with it the associations that cluster about familiar objects. In his essay on Milton, Macaulay says of Milton's work on *Christian Doctrine:* "A few more days and this essay will follow the *Defensio Populi* to the dust and silence of the upper shelf." To emphasize the effectiveness of the concrete vocabulary here we might compare with Macaulay's sentence some such lifeless paraphrase as the following: "This essay like the *Defensio Populi* will soon be forgotten." A similarly telling use of the concrete word may be found in all the great prose writers. "Some who would sooner creep into a scabbard than draw a sword, boast of their robberies," writes Thomas Fuller; and Jeremy Taylor in an effectively detailed passage says, "Death meets us everywhere and is procured by every instrument and in all chances, and enters in at every door; by violence and secret influence, by the aspect of a star and the stink of a mist, by the emissaries of a cloud and the melting of a vapour, by the fall of a chariot and the stumbling at a stone, by a full meal or an empty stomach, by watching at the wine or by watching at prayers, by the sun or the moon; by a heat or a cold, by sleepless nights or sleeping days; by water frozen into the sharpness of a dagger; or water thawed into the floods of a river; by a hair or a raisin; by violent motion or by sitting still; by severity or dissolution; by God's mercy or God's anger; by everything in providence and everything in manners; by everything in nature and everything in chance."

It is to the concrete word, generally speaking, that figures of speech owe their effectiveness. "In life as in wine," writes Sir William Temple, "he that will drink it good, must not draw it to the dregs." "Surely mortal man is a Broomstick!" said Swift in an amusing meditation; and Emerson remarked in very different mood that "we are delicate machines and require nice treatment to get from us the maximum of power and pleasure." "A hundred sail" is a more suggestive and picturesque phrase than a hundred ships; and Solomon's "a lying tongue hateth those that are afflicted by it" is more expressive than "a liar hateth those who are afflicted by him."

The young writer ordinarily thinks of figurative language as artificial. He forgets to what an extent figures of speech are at home in everyday English. How readily one speaks of "working in harness," of "blowing one's own horn"; not to mention less obvious cases, such as the commercial figure "at any rate," or the musical figure, "harmonious relations." Figurative passages, however, should not be set and stilted. The most effective figures are often those which are unobtrusively suggested in the turn of a phrase or in some novel association of words. Here is large opportunity for originality and imagination. But one must ever be on his guard against associating the incongruous or incompatible. Successful employment of figurative language depends upon the constant exercise of judgment and taste.

The quotation above from the Book of Proverbs will remind us that figures of speech are often used in proverbs and epigrams. The student would do well to add to his stock of such expressions by glancing occasionally through a collection of proverbs and by noting the unfamiliar ones that he encounters in his reading. Consider the suggestive concrete and figurative words in the following proverbial and idiomatic locutions:—

within an ace of
act well one's part
advise with one's pillow
to fish in troubled waters
to get the whip hand
to have the ball at one's feet
to clear off old scores
to bring to book
to put one's best leg foremost
to look danger in the face
to sleep with one eye open
as different as chalk from cheese
to retire into the shade
a pretty kettle of fish
in the same breath
to have cut one's eye teeth
before the ink is dry
to borrow of Peter to pay Paul
to hang on the skirts of
true as the needle to the pole
to lead one a dance
to look a gift horse in the mouth
to set one's cap at
to know on which side one's bread is buttered
to hug a sin
three sheets in the wind
in best bib and tucker
to buy a pig in a poke
to wait to see how the cat jumps
to rest on one's oars
to take a leaf out of another's book
to kick the beam
all the fat in the fire
to have one foot in the grave
to cool (kick) one's heels
to keep the pot boiling
to put in an oar
to steal a march on
to lace one's jacket
to lay one's head on the block
to pick a hole in one's coat
to be at one's post
to look black as thunder

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF WORDS

Accept: Do not confuse this word with *except*.

Act: Distinguish between *act*, the thing which is done, and *action*, the process or state.

Affect, effect: The former means to influence or impress in some manner; the latter, to bring about.

Wrong: Your story has effected me greatly.

Wrong: His cure has been affected only by the most careful treatment.

Aggravate, annoy, vex, irritate: *Aggravate* means to make worse. One may speak of *aggravating* a disease or an offense. Such sentences as *He aggravated me* illustrate an improper use of the word.

Agreeable: Do not use *agreeable* in the sense of willing.

All-round: In literary English prefer *versatile* or *generally capable* to *all-round.*

Alternative: This word is properly used with reference to a choice between two things.

Attitude: Attitude means a consciously assumed point of view. Do not confuse the word with *spirit* or *feeling.*

Wrong: The good fellowship attitude of the student body is largely responsible for Home-Coming.

Balance, remainder: What is left after something has been deducted is properly a *remainder.* Do not use balance in this sense.

Wrong: Our subscription price for the balance of the year is $1.50.

Bank on: Prefer *rely on,* or *wager* (with a change of construction, if necessary).

Best (verb): For this incorrect use of *best* employ the phrase *get the better of.* Compare the use of *worst* as a verb.

Blank: Do not use *blank* as it is used in the following sentence: The Giants blanked the Cubs in the second inning.

Bleed: Do not prefer *bleed* to *extort money from.*

Can: Distinguish between *can,* denoting ability, and *may,* denoting permission.

Canine: Like *feline* for *cat, canine* is a feebly humorous equivalent for *dog.*

Chance: Do not use *chance* as a verb in the sense of *take chances on* or *risk;* as, I'll chance it.

Charter: The verb *charter,* meaning to rent for one's special use, is a colloquialism, *e. g.,* I chartered a train to take us to Chicago.

Choose: Do not use *choose* in the sense of *wish* or *desire.*

Wrong: You may go if you care to; but I do not choose to go.

Claim: One *claims* what is due him. Do not use the verb as equivalent to *contend* or *maintain.*

Combine: *Combine* is a verb not a noun. Avoid also the use of the following as nouns:—disappoint, invite, raise, electric.

Commence: Use *begin* except in the more formal context.

"Things never *began* with Mr. Borthrop Trumbull: they al-

ways *commenced*, both in private life and on his handbills."—Middlemarch.

Complected: *Complected* is a vulgarism for *complexioned*.

Consist of, last, be: *Consist of* should have for its object what may be recognized as constituent parts of its subject. Do not say, *The Christmas celebration consists of two weeks*, instead of *The Christmas celebration lasts two weeks;* or, *The officers of the Society consist of a president, vice-president, and secretary*, instead of, *The officers of the Society are, etc.*

Credit: Be careful not to confuse *credit* with *accredit*. The latter is the more special and formal word, meaning to invest with authority or to appoint with suitable credentials.

Deal: *Deal* is a colloquialism when used in the sense of *a great deal, e. g., a deal of trouble*. *Deal* in the sense of a *transaction* should be avoided.

Decided: What is *determined* is *decided*. That which *concludes* or *makes final* is *decisive*. Compare *definite* and *definitive; distinctly* and *distinctively*.

Demean: The word means *to conduct, to behave*. Look up the derivation of the word; it has nothing to do with *mean* or *low*. Confer, *demeanor*.

Destined: This is a solemn word. When you use it, have in mind the noun *destiny*. Wrong: *That day he was destined to lose his dinner*.

Do: *Do* in the sense of *suffice* or *serve* is a colloquialism, *e. g., That will do*.

Doctor: As a verb *doctor* is either a colloquialism or slang. Colloquially it means *to apply remedies to*. It is slang when it means *falsify*.

Wrong: The evidence presented by the defense had clearly been doctored.

Donate: This is a formal word. Do not use it loosely in the sense of *give*.

Eliminate, remove: To *eliminate* means to *remove by some process*, as *to eliminate a factor in an equation;* it should not be used as equivalent *to take away*.

Elegant: Use this word with discrimination. Its derivation will

help you to understand its meaning. It should not be used as vaguely synonymous with *nice*, *beautiful*, etc.; as, *He lived in an elegant house; We had an elegant time.*

Enthuse: This verb is a vulgarism for *become enthusiastic* or *arouse enthusiasm.*

Essential, necessary: *Essential* is a word of dignity and emphasis. Do not turn it to trivial uses. For example, High boots are not *essential* but *indispensable* or *necessary* in a camper's outfit.

Except: Distinguish from *accept.*

Expect: Distinguish from *suspect.*

Factor, part, element: *Factor*, meaning that which aids in effecting a given result, implies a process, and should not be used in the sense of *aspect*, *division*, or *constituent part.*

Fewer, less: *Fewer* implies number; *less*, quantity.

Wrong: There were less people in town than usual.

Figure (sometimes, *figure out*): This word or phrase is a cheap colloquialism for *calculate* or *reckon;* for example, *I figured that my college expenses would amount to $500 a year.*

Fix, mend, prepare, arrange, etc.: *Fix* should be used only in senses which in some way imply *making firm.* Wrong: *He fixed the punctured tire. I must fix the table for supper.*

Fixings: Do not use this word to mean *trimmings*, *arrangements*, etc.

Folks: Folk, the older uninflected plural, is still used to describe homogeneous conditions of communal life. The plural in s, meaning members of one's family, is a colloquialism.

Historic: Distinguish this word carefully from *historical.* The latter means simply *related to history;* the former suggests *something memorable.* Compare *economic* and *economical.*

Idea: This word is often used when *purpose* or *reason* would be more explicit.

Example: My idea in saying this is to bring the whole matter at once before you.

Illusive: Distinguish carefully from *elusive.*

Imply, suggest: That which is *implied* is *involved in*, not simply *associated with* what has been expressed.

Infer: Do not use *infer* in the sense of *guess.*

Inspired: This dignified word should not be used to describe a state of mere joyous feeling or lively interest.

Involve: Distinguish *involve* from *include*. The former implies a necessary connection.

Join: This word should not be used as equivalent to *adjoin*.

Just: *Just* in the sense of *exactly* or *certainly* is a colloquialism.

Locate: *Locate*, a transitive verb meaning *to find the place of, to determine* or *ascertain the location of*, should not be used reflexively in the sense of *to settle*, or make one's residence in; as, *I located in Chicago.*

Liable: *Liable to* implies an undesirable, untoward contingency. Do not use the word interchangeably with *likely*.

Mad: *Mad* in the sense of *angry* is a puerility.

Majority, plurality: A candidate is given a *majority* of votes when he polls more than the total given to all the other candidates; a plurality, when he gets more than the candidate just below him.

Manufacture, manufactory: The *process of making* or the *product made*, not the place of making, is correctly designated *manufacture.*

Materialize: Use this word with some regard to its primary meaning. Avoid such sentence as, *She did not materialize at the party this evening.*

Minus: *Minus* in the sense of *lacking, deprived of*, is a vulgarism, *e. g., After our party had taken the train, someone noticed that we were minus the picnic basket.*

Mortal: Do not use *mortal* indiscriminately as an intensive, *e. g., It's a mortal shame.*

Most, almost: Distinguish these words carefully.

Negotiate: This word implies some kind of business transaction. Do not employ it loosely as in, *He can negotiate a corner very neatly in driving his car.*

Nervy: Do not prefer *nervy* to *courageous, spirited.* The word is slang when used in the sense of *brazen self-assurance.*

Notice (verb): *Note* implies more careful observation than *notice.*

Part, aspect, stage: Distinguish these words carefully, using *part*

when you have in mind *a division of* and remembering that *a part of a process* is more particularly *a stage* or *step*.

Party: Do not write *party* when you mean *person*, *e. g.*, *A stout party sat down beside me*.

Perfect: *Perfect* in the sense of *utter*, *downright* is not literary English.

Post: Prefer *inform* to *post* in such sentences as, *Post yourself on the topics of the day*.

Plumb: *Plumb* is an emphatic but generally undesirably colloquial equivalent for *downright*.

Prescribe, proscribe: *Prescribe* is to give a rule or to offer a remedy; *proscribe* is to outlaw or to interdict.

Preventative: There is no such word. Use *preventive*.

Propose: Remember the derivation of propose, when you are tempted to use it in the sense of *intend* or *purpose;* as, *I don't propose to answer your question*.

Proposition: Loosely used for *suggestion*, *business*, etc.

Provoke, vex: *Provoke* in the sense of *annoy* or *vex* should be avoided even in colloquial English. Keep in mind the derivation of the word.

Railroad: *Railroad* is a colloquialism when used as a verb implying great and often improper haste.

Revelations, disclosures: Do not overlook the dignity of the former word as compared with the latter.

Sewerage: Distinguish between *sewerage*, the system of sewers, and *sewage*, that which is disposed of by the system.

Statement: A *statement* is a more or less set or formal utterance, not to be confused with *remark*, *observation*, *assertion*.

Stop: *Stop* (in or at a place) for *stay* is an undesirable colloquialism.

Student body: Do not use *student body* for *students* unless you have clearly in mind the students as a group rather than as individuals.

Transpire: The word means *to become known*, not *to happen*.

EXERCISES

I. Criticise the italicized words in the following sentences—:

1. When I suggested that we should go swimming, John's mother said she was *agreeable*. 2. He is an *all-round* man. 3. George Washington lived somewhere *around* the capital. 4. Everybody was *banking on* the *plucky* little half-back. 5. The Federal army *beat* the Confederates *hollow* at Gettysburg. 6. One may be a *dead beat* in college as well as in the world at large. 7. To confer favors upon his henchmen the political boss has to *bleed* the people. 8. It's a *botheration* to have a man like that *bossing* and *bulldozing* you all day long. 9. We have a *bumper* crop this year. 10. All the members of the fraternity *bunked* in the same room. 11. Mr. Williams has just received a *cable* from his London agent. 12. Going abroad now seems very *risky*, but I am willing to *chance* it. 13. Our Sunday School has *chartered* a launch for the picnic. 14. If *cheek* will take him through college, he is sure to graduate. 15. If all its members *chip in*, the class will be able to donate to the University a suitable memorial. 16. You may go if you care to, but I don't *choose* to go. 17. If you do go, you may be sure of a *deal* of trouble. 18. During my first year in college I made a disastrous *deal* with my *chum*. 19. Translate the first three pages; that, I think, will *do*. 20. My grandmother seemed to take a real pleasure in *doctoring* us children. 21. Each member of the Bible class *donated* fifty cents to the picnic fund. 22. I *figured* that my college expenses would amount to $300 a year. 23. Everybody likes him *first-rate*. 24. When I reached home, I found all the *folks* in a great *fix*. 25. Unfortunately our half-back is not in *form* for the game next Saturday. 26. He *has got* to go whether he wishes to or not. 27. This sociable little person often *happened* in at our house. 28. Although I don't know much about this matter, I *infer* that you are right. 29. *It says* in this newspaper that Wilson will surely be elected. 30. These *fresh fellows* are always *gabbing* about what they have done. 31. Well, thus far I have found nothing in college life but one long *grind*. 32. It was pretty *gritty* for Roosevelt to make a public address so soon after he had been shot. 33. After you have caught

the burglar, the next thing to do is to *heave* him out of the window. 34. An extensive orchard *joined* the playground. 35. Oh, *kid*, we had last night *just* the biggest *jollification*. 36. To *knife* a candidate seems to be a kind of diversion in American politics. 37. You can't get *mad* with such a *lump* as he; you certainly can't spare the time to *lick* him. 38. After the woman had been taken to the police station she confessed that she had *lifted* several handkerchiefs. 39. Think for a moment of the Elizabethan drama *minus* Shakespeare. 40. I was *mortal* tired when I reached home. 41. It's *perfect* nonsense. 42. He is a *plumb* failure. 43. Let me advise you to *post* yourself on current topics. 44. It was only by a *shave* that I passed the course. 45. Here is the *outside* limit of the property. 46. Only $3,000? That seems to me a *pile* of money. Well, I *planked* it down nevertheless. 47. I *plug* and *poke* along without making much headway. 48. What can one do with such a *precious* dunce? 49. Buying an automobile still seems to me a pretty *stiff proposition*. 50. How do you expect to succeed without either *pull* or *push*? 51. You are a *regular shark* when it comes to *railroading* a *proposition* through. 52. The Committee of Ten has made sensational *revelations*. 53. I was particularly *aggravated* at the concert this afternoon by the conversation of two people sitting just in front of me. 54. "You are *most* well, now," the doctor said to the convalescent. 55. Hundreds of Japanese have *emigrated* into the United States during the past month. 56. Dances are an important *factor* in the life of our little college. 57. The unruly member was unceremoniously *eliminated* from the Pacifists' Club. 58. In rainy weather, an umbrella is *essential*. 59. I am exceedingly glad that I, too, *neglected* to go. 60. Every conscientious mother devotes a great deal of time to *fixing* her children. 61. The *thing* which most men desire above all else is power. 62. The *tendency* to drink has brought much misery into the world. 63. He rather thinks he should not give *too* much time to mathematics. 64. My father's books were divided between my brother and myself; my brother took all the novels and I received the *balance*. 65. The *attitude* of the rooters throughout the game was truly sportsmanlike. 66. Everybody was *inspired* to cheer lustily, when the champions of the gridiron trotted out on the field. 67. There is

nothing more *vital* to a student than to acquire habits of concentration. 68. During my first year at the University of Illinois, I found much to admire in the *school*. 69. While I was still a mere boy, my father *located* in Kansas. 70. On my first visit to New York, I *stopped* for three weeks at one of the best hotels. 71. First of all we *secured* copies of the morning papers, for which there seemed to be no great demand. 72. The three witnesses *consisted of* the father, the mother, and the sister of the accused. 73. *The idea* of the poet's words seems to me perfectly clear. 74. The *question* of infant feeding came first on the program of the *Mothers' Club*. 75. In spite of his protestations of innocence, the prisoner's answers on cross-examination *implied* that he was guilty. 76. The *part* of his poem which I will first consider is its humor. 77. A fretting child is very *provoking*. 78. The *student body* came into the auditorium two by two. 79. I will speak plainly to all of you, men and *otherwise*. 80. His *capacity* to get work done was simply wonderful. 81. This *habit* of rising every morning at five, I find it very difficult to maintain.

II. Comment upon the vocabulary of the following specimens:—

A. She must be a blinking mole-owl.—I say nothing to hurt the poor woman; I back her against her imbecile of a husband. He brings a charge he can't support her; she punishes him by taking three years' lease of independence, and kicks up the grass all over the paddock, and then comes cuckoo, barking his name abroad to have her home again. You can win the shyest filly to corn at last! She goes, and he digests ruefully the hotch-potch of a dish the woman brings him. Only the world spies a sidehead at her, husbanded or not, though the main fault was his, and he had a right to insist that he should be sure of his charge before he smacked her in the face with it before the world. In dealing with a woman, a man commonly prudent—put aside chivalry, justice, and the rest—should bind himself to disbelieve what he can't prove. Otherwise, let him expect his whipping, with or without ornament. My opinion is, Lawrence Finchley had no solid foundation for his charge, except

his being an imbecile. She wasn't one of the adventurous women to jump the bars—the gate had to be pushed open, and he did it.—Meredith.

B. The future is, as a rule, much more pleasant to think of than the past. We always build our hopes upon what is to come, and let the past go as the best we could do at the time, and under the conditions. This view is the one we might take in looking upon our second semester. It is a prospect. We do not know what is coming, but like all prospectors we should be full of life and ambition, and ready to meet whatever may come. We hope, of course, that the future may be all pleasure, but at the same time we know that this would be impossible for poor freshmen taking chemistry and the other requirements. But it is human nature to hope for the best; so the second semester is a prospect.—Student's Theme.

C. "What good is a License unless you have your Prey already in the Stockade?" asked the Official.

"I want one with a Space left blank, so that I can use it in a quick Emergency," she replied. "I can't afford to take Chances. It is getting too late in the Afternoon. Eighteen Years ago I sent my Heart's Idol out for the Parchment that would legalize our Undying Love, but he happened to get on a Green Car instead of a Yellow one. He missed the Court House two miles and caught a train for Los Angeles. I had to sit up for two Nights picking the Initials out of my Trousseau. Another time I planked one in a Waiting-Room while I went after the Permit. A Girl came in to dust the Room and he had to move, so I haven't seen him since. Next time I get one in Chancery there will be immediate doings. I will simply say 'You're On' and flash the Document. And then if he runs away he will have to carry a lot of Weight."—George Ade.

D. Much have the dead people made of their advantages. What does it matter now that they have lain in state beds and nourished portly bodies upon cakes and cream! Here they all lie to be trodden in the mud; the large estate and the small, sounding virtue and adroit or powerful vice, in very much the same condition; and a

bishop not to be distinguished from a lamplighter with even the strongest spectacles. Such was Villon's cynical philosophy.—Stevenson.

To that gaudy tangle of what gardens, after all, are meant to produce, in the decay of time, as we may think at first sight, the systematic, logical gardener put his meddlesome hands and straight-way all ran to seed; to *genus* and *species* and differentia, into formal classes, under general notions, and with—yes! with written labels fluttering on the stalks, instead of blossoms—a botanic or physic garden, as they used to say, instead of our flower-garden and orchard. And yet (it must be confessed on the other hand) what we actually see, see and hear, is more interesting than ever; the nineteenth century as compared with the first, with Plato's days or Homer's; the faces, the persons behind those masks which yet express so much, the flowers, or whatever it may happen to be they carry or touch. The concrete, and that even as a visible thing, has gained immeasurably in richness and compass, in fine-ness, and interest toward us, by the process, of which these acts of generalization, of reduction to class and generic type, have certainly been a part. And holding still to the concrete, the particular, to the visible or sensuous, if you will, last as first, thinking of that as essentially the one vital and lively thing, really worth our while in a short life, we may recognize sincerely what generalization and abstraction have done or may do, are defensible as doing, just for that—for the particular gem or flower—what its proper service is to a mind in search, precisely, of a concrete and intuitive knowledge such as that.—Pater.

E. The most notable feature, worthy of observation, when one has a first glance at Starved Rock, is the massiveness and grandeur of that historic remnant. The rock consists of a combination of sandstone and limestone, whose origin dates back to the Pennsylvanian cycle in the development of our continent. Erosion has been at work for thousands of years, shaping that wonderful piece of natural architecture, forming ledges and crevices over this once probably smooth-faced ledge. Starved Rock may be considered

the Lorelei of the Illinois River. It stands as a guardian, overlooking the fertile valley which surrounds it.—Student's Theme.

F. In determining the intended meaning of any word the analysis can be more accurately determined when a person possesses knowledge of the circumstances under which it was used. Such attempts to express facts of experience, observation, or of an ideal, offer an appeal to the thoughts, sympathies, and conscientious considerations of the hearer or reader.—Student's Theme.

G. I claim, therefore, that we should shake this artificial coat of existence from our shoulders, and go to nature for peace and contentment. Vacations should be spent in the woods, far from the call of social activity, they should be spent in becoming acquainted with the birds and animals, with the trees and wild flowers, with the great beauty which the dawn of each day brings, and the wonder which its glowing departure leaves in the heart.—Student's Theme.

H. It was dawn and the whole world was awakening to the beauty of a new born day. The sun was announcing his joyful arrival by sending out dancing, shimmering rays of pink and gold. These playful messengers of light darted here and there happy in doing their Master's bidding. They fell thru the open window of the hard working peasant's cottage and called him to another day of toil. They fell thru the richly draped window of the idle prince of the business world and summoned him vainly to the day's problems which confronted him.—Student's Theme.

I. None who met him only in great assemblies would have been able to believe that he was the same man who had often kept a few friends listening and laughing round a table, from the time when the play ended, till the clock of St. Paul's in Covent Garden struck four.—Macaulay.

J. How much more genuine an education is that of the poor boy in the poem—a poem whether in conception or in execution,

one of the most touching in our language—who, not in the wide world, but ranging day by day around his widowed mother's home, "a dexterous gleaner" in a narrow field and with only such slender outfit

'As the village school and books a few supplied'

contrived from the beach, and the quay, and the tradesman's shop, and the shepherd's walk, and the smuggler's hut, and the mossy moor, and the screaming gulls, and the restless waves, to fashion for himself a philosophy and a poetry of his own.—Newman.

K. "Willard won't last forty minutes with me. As soon as I get the right over, there will be a new world's heavyweight champion and his name will be Fred Fulton."

An extra large party bearing the name mentioned above breezed into Chicago yesterday and spent most of the day describing the various things he will do to the aforementioned Jess Willard when the two climb into a New Orleans ring on March 4.—American Newspaper.

"'Ready, No. 1. 'Ead down, bayonet up. It's no use sticking out your neck to try to get a sight of Fritz in his 'ole. Why, if old Fritz was there 'e'd just down your point, and where'd you be? Why, a blinkin' casualty, and don't you forget it. Ready again. Bayonet up. Now you see 'em. Quick down with the point and at 'em. Tickle 'is gizzard! Not so bad, but I bet you wakened 'is nibs in the next 'ole. You see, when you pulled your bayonet out of this little Mary, you 'it the butt of your gun against the opposite side of the trench. That's fatal. Keep in mind you're fightin' for your life. Clean and quiet killin' is the word.'—American Newspaper.

III. Comment upon the standing in colloquial or literary English of each of the following words and phrases:—

De trop, ad libitum, à la mode, argumentum ad hominem, au fait, casus belli, comme il faut, con amore, de rigueur, dolce far niente, en

déshabillé, en famille, enfant terrible, en masse, en passant, entente cordiale, entre nous, ex libris, Kultur, gemütlichkeit, in extenso, in re, in toto, le tout ensemble, mirabile dictu, noblesse oblige, per se, pro forma, sub rosa, bête noire, pants, vest, gums (overshoes), reckon (think or expect), right smart (*smart* used as an adverb), some place (used as an adverb), calaboose, chump, chunk, bonanza, aroint, lift (elevator), goods-train, booking-clerk, chest of drawers, tram, of that ilk, he is through (he has finished), tuckered out, skedaddle, bug (meaning an insect of any kind), clever (good-natured), depot (railroad station), mugwump, carpet-bagger, cinch, jell, faze, carry (escort), aim (intend), you all, bib and tucker, cracker (as applied to a person), blatherskite, bob-sled, bulldoze, complected, dinky, dumpy (in the dumps), funk, gumption, jigger (noun), rubbers, rig (dress), pesky, coon's age, visit (to have a talk with), get to go, low down (very mean), slip one over.

CHAPTER IV

SPELLING

1. Words bearing the accent upon the final syllable and ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel as a rule double that consonant before suffixes beginning with a vowel, *e. g.*, ***plan, planned*** (compare, ***plane, planed***); ***begin, beginning.*** **On the other hand,** ***traveling, inference*** (but ***inferred***).

2. Note that *k* **is inserted after** *c* **in the derivative forms ending in** *-y, ing,* **or** *-ed* **of the following words:** frolic, frolicking; panic, panicky; physic, physicking; traffic, trafficking.

3. As a rule silent *e* **is retained before suffixes beginning with a consonant and omitted before suffixes beginning with a vowel;** compare ***hateful*** and ***lovable, movement*** and ***moving.*** **The** *e* **is, however, retained before a vowel when its omission might suggest the mispronunciation of such consonants as** *c* **and** *g.* **If, for example,** *e* **were omitted after** *c* **in** *noticeable,* **the consonant coming before a guttural vowel would appear to have the guttural (k) sound. We have a similar case in the word** *outrageous.*

4. Words ending in a double consonant, ordinarily retain both consonants before suffixes, whether the suffixes begin with a vowel or a consonant. *E. g.*, add, adding; odd, oddly.

5. Before *ing,* **final** *ie* **usually drops the** *e* **and changes the** *i* **to** *y.* *E. g.*, ***die, dying*** (compare with ***dyeing***).

6. Singular nouns ending in *y* **change the** *y* **to** *ie* **before the** *s* **of the plural, whenever the** *y* **is preceded by a consonant. The** *y* **is retained when it is preceded by a vowel.** Compare ***ladies*** and ***monkeys.***

7. *ei* **and** *ie.* **When the sound is that of the vowel** *e,* **the spelling is ordinarily** *ie* **except after** *c.* **Exceptions will be found in the list of words commonly misspelled. When the sound is**

not that of the vowel *e*, the spelling is ordinarily *ei*. Exceptions will be found in the list of words commonly misspelled.

EXERCISES

I. Spell the present participle of each of the following words:—

Prefer, interfere, lie, shoe, take, flee, dye.

II. Add the suffix *ly* to each of the following words:—

Willful, day, possible, full, gay, chaste, whole, due, dull, true.

III. Spell the past participles of the following verbs:—

Huzza, sway, play, lay, stay.

IV. Spell the plurals of the following:—

Hindu, canto, potato, gas, money, elf, pity, colloquy, s, it.

WORDS COMMONLY MISSPELLED

abundance
abstinence
accept } except
accessible
accommodate
achievement
acquaintance
acquiesce
adherence
advice } advise
adviser
affect } effect
aggravate
agreeable
altar } alter
aisle } isle
all together } altogether
all ready } already
alley } ally
angel } angle
arc } ark
arctic
artistically
ascent } assent
assistance
attendance
auger } augur
autumn
balance
beach } beech
believe

beneficent
beneficial
berth / birth
boar / bore
born / borne
bough / bow
brake / break
breadth
breath / breathe
bridal / bridle
Britain
buoy
business
busy
calendar / calender
candidate
canon / cannon
canvass / canvas
capital / capitol
carat / carrot
carburetor
carriage
ceiling
celebrate
cemetery
censor / censure
chiffonier
choir / quire
circuit
cite / site / sight
clothes
cloths
coalesce
coarse / course
collar
colonel
color
column
committee
comparison
compliment / complement
concede
conceive
condemn
confectionery
conferred
conscientious
contagious
convalescent
cord / chord
cordially
corps
corpse
council / counsel / consul
countenance
counterfeit
currant / current
cylinder
dealt
decent
descent / dissent
definite
dependence
descendant
despicable
desert / dessert
deterred
dew / due
die / dye
diphtheria
diphthong
disappoint
disapprove
discernible
dissipate
divisible
dose / doze
drought
dual / duel
eighth
eligible

eliminate
embarrass
especially
exaggerate
exceed
exhilaration
existence
faint / feint
fallacy
fallible
farcical
fascinate
feasible
February
fiend
forcible
fore / four
forehead
foretell
forfeit
formally / formerly
fort / forte
forty
fourteen
forth / fourth
frantically
friend
fulfill *or* fulfil
gallery
goddess
government
grammar
grievance
guarantee
guilt / gilt
gypsy
harass
haul
height
heinous
hindrance
hoard / horde
hole / whole
homily
homogeneous
hymn
hypocrisy
idle / idol / idyl
illegible
incidentally
independent
indict / indite
indictment
ingenious
ingenuous
intelligence
irresistible
its / it's
jealousy
jeopardy
languor
lead / led
leisure
lessen / lesson
liar / lyre
lightning
liquefy
loose / lose
maintenance
maneuver
mantel / mantle
marriage
marshal / martial
meant
medieval (*or* mediæval)
metal / mettle
millionaire
mischief
missal / missile
monastery
movable
muscle
mustache (*or* moustache)
naphtha
naught / nought
naval
niece

ninety
nymph
oar } ore
obstacle
occasionally
occurred
occurrence
omission
omniscient
onerous
optimist
ordinance
ostensible
oxidize
oxygen
parallel
parliament
participial
passable
pastime
peace } piece
pealing } peeling
perceive
perform
perhaps
permissible
persistence
persuade
phosphorus
physical
plain } plane
pneumatic
pneumonia
policy
politician
possession
practicable
practice } practise
prairie
precede
proceed
preferring
premier
principal } principle
privilege
procedure
proceed
promiscuous
pronounce
pronunciation
prophecy } prophesy
pseudonym
pulley
purchasable
pursue
quartz } quarts
quiet } quite
quit
rain } reign
rap } wrap
receive
recurring
redeem
referred
rehearsal
relieve
reminiscence
repairing
resemblance
resistance
respectfully } respectively
restaurant
reticence
retinue
reveal
rheumatism
rhythm
right } rite } write
rivet
road } rode
rough } ruff
sacrificial
scarcity
scream
screech
secede
seize
sensible
separate
sergeant
shear } sheer
shepherd
sheriff
shone

shriek
siege
slight / sleight
smooth / smoothe
solder / soldier
sophomore
specialty
stationary / stationery
statue / stature / statute
steal / steel
stopped
straight / strait
stratagem
strategy
subtract
sulphur
superintendent
supremacy
syllable
symmetry
symptom
synonym
synthesis
tariff
taught / taut
temperament
temperance
temperature
temporary
tenement
their / there / they're
through
thorough
thoroughly
till
too
track / tract
tragedy
tranquillity
treacherous
treasurer
treatise
trolley
typhoid
until
usually
valleys
vein / vain / vane
versatile
vice versa
view
village
villain
volley
volunteer
wether / weather / whether
week / weak
weird
whoop
wield
woolly
yield
wane / wain
which / witch
wintry
your / you're

PROPER NOUNS

Æneid
Æschylus
Allegheny
Antietam
Antony
Apennines
Appalachian
Appomattox
Bosporus
Britain
Briton
Buenos Aires
Carlyle
Chapultepec
Chickamauga

Cincinnati
Disraeli
Eliot (George)
Eurydice
Gettysburg
Hague
Hawaii
Hazlitt
Honolulu
Huguenots
Johnson } Jonson }
Macaulay
Manila
Marlborough
Massachusetts
Mediterranean
Mississippi
Niagara
Odyssey
Philippines
Poughkeepsie
Pyrenees
Psyche
Raleigh
Renaissance (*or* Renascence)
Rio de Janeiro
Roosevelt
Rossetti
Savannah
Schenectady
Shakespeare
Shelley
Sicily
Spenser } Spencer }
Tennessee
Thackeray
Ulysses

CHAPTER V

PRONUNCIATION

Correct English includes correct pronunciation. The careless speaker sacrifices expressiveness to slovenly habits of speech; his undisciplined mind is betrayed by his untrained voice. Sounds that require special effort to pronounce he omits, or he subsuitutes for them those with which he is more familiar or those which he finds it easier to articulate. The effect of this vocal laziness is in part to do away with distinctions. Three or four sounds are leveled to a single sound. On the other hand, the line of least resistance sometimes leads to the introduction of sounds where they do not belong, should these make an easy transition or help to bring the voice to a state of rest at the end of a word. The careful speaker is one who makes an effort to use the physical apparatus of speech as deftly as the skilful workman employs his hands.

The Accent.—English pronunciation, unlike that of French, tends to draw the accent away from the end of the word; it is thus characterized by what is known as the recessive accent. This general rule is not, however, a sufficient guide to correct accentuation. Indeed the accent of English words varies so widely that only unremitting attention will protect us from frequent error. In certain words like *climacteric* or *mischievous* one is sometimes tempted to place the accent on the penult (the last syllable but one), rather than the antepenult (the third syllable from the end); while in other words, like *mausoleum* or *museum*, the temptation is the reverse. More than one reason may be suggested for such errors in accentuation; but in many cases it will be

found that the right stress requires greater effort than the wrong one. Furthermore, care is necessary to distinguish the pronunciation of verb and noun that have identical form but different accent, *e. g. annex* and *affix*. *Ally*, on the other hand, bears the same accent, whether verb or noun. We have so far been considering the primary accent; if this is correctly placed, the secondary stress will ordinarily take care of itself. One needs, however, in several words to guard against using the secondary accent where it does not belong, *e. g.*, *interest*.

8. Sound Substitution.—The most common substitutions appear in unaccented syllables. The tendency is to change the vowel sounds of such syllables to the final sound in the word *China*. A moment's comparison of this sound with that of our letter *a* or with that of the letter *e* will show that relatively little effort is needed for its articulation. See that your pronunciation of *fellow* and *to-morrow* do not conclude with this sound, and that you have not substituted it for the first *o* in *preposition*, for *u* in *instrument*, or for *i* in *impediment*.

9. The inconsistencies of English spelling sometimes lead to errors of pronunciation. For example, *bear*, though spelled with *ea* like *appear* is pronounced with our *a*-sound whereas *appear* is pronounced with our *e*-sound; and the *ew* of *stew* and *new* is like the *ew* of *few*, not like the *ew* of *drew*.

10. Before *l*, *r*, and particularly before *m*, *n*, there is a tendency in careless speech to level various vowel sounds to that which we have in *but*. This, sometimes marked with the inverted *a* (ɐ) approximates in the speech of some persons the inverted *e*-sound (ə), described above. Take pains to give an accurate pronunciation to the vowels preceding liquids and nasals in such words as *student*, *yellow*, *figure*, *poem*.

11. Omitted Sounds.—Sounds frequently omitted are the *g*-sound in *-ing*, the *t*-sound in final *pt* or *st*, and the *d*-sound in *nd*, *e. g.*, *lovin'* for *loving*; *slep'* for *slept*; *les'* for *lest*; *han'* for *hand*.

12. Double consonants are not always pronounced as such;

for example, in the word *attitude*. In certain sections of the country the *r*-sound is often omitted. *Farther* should not be pronounced like *father*.

13. Intrusive Sounds.—The liquid *r* is not infrequently introduced at the end of a word, or where it facilitates the transition from one sound to another. We sometimes hear I saw-r-him, or I put my umbrella-r-up; and still more common is idea-r, particularly when a vowel follows, *e. g.*, the idea-r-of it.

WORDS COMMONLY MISPRONOUNCED

acumen	a priori	climacteric
aëroplane	aqueous	coadjutor
afflatus	archangel	conflict (vb.)
affix	archbishop	consternation
affluent	Archimedean	contemplate
aggrandize	archipelago	contemplative
alcoholism	Aryan	coyote
alias	Arian	culinary
alien	ascent	desideratum
aliment	aspirant	diphtheria
ally	august (adj.)	diphthong
ameliorate	automaton	disparate
amenable	aviation	duty
amenity	banal	encore
amicable	beaux	edible
amity	bestial	exigency
amphyctionic	brochure	extraordinary
anchovy	buoy	eyrie (aerie, eyry)
ancillary	cabal	fellow
anent	caisson	feline
annex	canalize	fetish
annex (noun)	canard	flaccid
antimony	canine	flagitious
appanage	carburetor	genie
appellate	cashier	gewgaw
appendicitis	chassis (pl. chassis)	gravamen
apperception	circumfluent	harass

hegira
illustrate
imbroglio
imprimatur
insidious
intercalate
innuendo
jejune
jocose
jugular
lese majesty
lest
let's
litigious
logia
logomachy
mausoleum
minatory
miniature
misanthrope
mischievous
misogony
naphtha
nature
no
occultism
oleomargarine
often
otiose
paladin
peer
periphrasis
peroration
pillar
pillow
precedence
proboscis
program
realize
recalcitrant
recondite
reconnaissance
recusancy
refluent
reparative
resilience
reveille
robust
rubaiyat
schism
sedentary
sequestrate
seraglio
serenity
seriatim
sesame
siesta
strategic
supple
to
treatise
vehemence
verdure
vicarious
vicinage
which
yes

Antietam
Beethoven
Björnson
Boccaccio
Brahms
Byzantine
Carducci
Cheyenne
Chihuahua
Chopin
Clough
Correggio
Cruikshank
Czech
Disraeli
Dostoevski
Euganean
Genghis Khan
Giotto
Guadeloupe
Gyges
Hesiod
Houyhnhnm
Louvain
Medici
Nietzsche
Pepys
Rabelais
Rhenish
Richelieu
Scheldt
Sienkiewicz
Terpsichore
Titian
Torricelli
Toulouse
Tschaikowsky
Turgenev
Virginia
Vosges
Watteau
Zwingli

SENTENCES

SECTION ONE

GRAMMAR

Students of English often need to be reminded that grammar is much more than a system of arbitrary regulations. It would, to be sure, require our attention, were it no more than this. If we are to use the language at all, we should use it according to the rules. Here as everywhere conventions which regulate the ways of civilized people not only deserve but demand our respect. Nevertheless, what will commend itself to young students of composition more than hard and fast grammatical rule, will be the knowledge that grammar gives us of the variety and resourcefulness of idiomatic English. The unpractised writer is likely to neglect the less obvious constructions, even though he may be able to explain them; for example, the nominative absolute, particular uses of the infinitive, or certain kinds of participial phrases. We should practise these constantly so that we might readily use them wherever they contribute to ease or precision. And we should remember that grammar is not always concerned with explicit logic; its natural and spontaneous expressions often leave logical relations to be inferred.

The units of expression which enter into a sentence are words, phrases, and clauses. A clause differs from a phrase in having, like a sentence, subject and predicate. But whether we are dealing with this comparatively complex word group, or with the simpler units of expression that we

have in word and phrase, we should remember that all three discharge similar functions. A phrase or a clause as well as a single word might be the subject or the object of a verb. There are accordingly noun phrases and noun clauses. And what holds for the function of the noun applies as well to that of adjective and of adverb; that is to say there are adjective and adverbial phrases and adjective and adverbial clauses. Of course it is impossible to write without employing these; but unhappily it is quite possible to neglect their varied usefulness.

We amplify our sentences, then, by the introduction of coördinate and subordinate elements, which may be words, phrases, or clauses. Coördinate words, phrases, or clauses are those which are presented as of equal rank in the sentence, being united by the coördinate conjunctions, *and*, *but*, *for*. A subordinate sentence element occupies a subsidiary position in the structure of the sentence; it may, for instance, be an adjective clause introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, etc.; or an adverbial clause, introduced by such conjunctions as *because*, *if*, *when*, etc. If the sentence contains but one clause it is a simple sentence (*e. g.*, *God is good* or *The heavens declare the glory of God*); if it contains two or more coördinate clauses, it is a compound sentence (*e. g.*, *The heavens declare the glory of God and the firmament showeth his handiwork*); and if it contains one or more subordinate clauses, it is a complex sentence (*e. g.*, *I shall fear no evil for Thou art with me*). In the speech of children and in the compositions of unpractised writers, coördination is used to excess, resulting in a string of unqualified statements that give equal prominence to principal and subsidiary details. It is to be remembered, however, that in earlier stages of the language the mere juxtaposition of words, phrases, and clauses, with logical relations implied or ignored, was much more common than it is to-day; and that modern English idiom in

proverbial expressions and in certain constructions to be noted later on, preserves something of the freedom of this earlier parataxis. Take such an expression as *Come see me.* If you try to make the relation of the verbs here fit some logical category (*e. g., Come in order that you might see me*), you employ a sentence which is not only less expressive but which conveys a meaning different from that of the simple sentence. Neglect such constructions as the one illustrated above and you will find that your English loses much of its idiomatic flexibility. Nevertheless it is necessary to remember that the secret of effective writing is in part intelligent subordination, as the secret of real thinking is the careful qualification of thought. The mind that has formed the habit of comparing, restricting, discriminating, excepting, and conceding will inevitably be driven to master the varied means of subordination. And all of this amounts to saying that we should recognize at one and the same time the flexibility of English idiom and the necessity of clear thought.

The relatively unfamiliar act of writing seems often to increase the difficulties of expression. A great many people speak more effectively than they write. And yet the writer has an opportunity for reconsideration and revision that the speaker usually misses. The trouble seems to be that the former, expressing himself with the embarrassment that attends conscious effort, loses the spontaneity of natural discourse. His words coming singly rather than in groups, the difficulties in the way of employing English idioms are correspondingly increased. Many phrases and clauses he should not stop to analyze; to all intents and purposes they are single words; and being read as they are written they contribute animation and rapidity to his style. It is important not only that we should recognize these larger units of expression but that we should accustom ourselves to thinking in terms of them.

CHAPTER VI

THE NOUN

The noun may be defined as the name of a person, place, or thing.

Common and Proper Nouns.—The common noun is a name used to designate what members of a class have in common, *e. g.*, *boy*. The proper noun is the name of an individual, *e. g.*, *John*. Proper nouns are capitalized.

Other classes of nouns are, with reference to form, compound nouns [1] (*e. g.*, *baseball*); and with reference to meaning, abstract nouns (*martyrdom*), concrete nouns (*martyr*), and collective nouns (*electorate*).

(*a*) *The Noun Phrase*

The noun phrase may be the infinitive with or without an object or modifiers, *e. g.*, *To hesitate is to be lost*, *To labor is to pray*, *To say that honesty is the best policy is to put moral conduct on a very low plane*. It may be a participial phrase, *e. g.*, *Cheating at examinations was effectually checked by the adoption of the Honor System*. For the verbal noun in *-ing* conceived of as an object of possession, *e. g.*, *The dean spoke about my going home*, see p. 87. A noun phrase might be the object of a preposition, *e. g.*, *There is nothing I can do except to express my regrets*.

[1] The compounding process is of course one of great antiquity, the elements of the compound being of many kinds. *Lovest*, for example, is compounded of verb and pronoun; *terrify* of noun and verb, etc. Note the variety of relations between the elements of the following compounds:—drawbridge, sleeping-car, fishing-rod, baseball, laughing-gas, bookworm, bookmark, sea-anemone, drawing-room.

(*b*) *The Noun Clause*

A clause is often the subject or the object of a verb:—

That Darwin's theory is very commonly misunderstood, goes without saying. I am disposed to think that much of our study of English composition is utterly futile.

Noun clauses are introduced by subordinate conjunctions, interrogative pronouns, and interrogative adverbs.

Conjunction: I told him that he was mistaken. I wonder if he is coming.

Interrogative Pronoun: I can not tell you who he is.

Interrogative Adverb: I wonder when he is coming.

When the verb of the noun clause is the infinitive, its subject is in the objective case. This construction is often introduced by *for*.

I wished him to go. My plan is for him to go ahead and make the camp ready for us.

A noun clause may be the object of a preposition.

What can I say except that I am sorry. From where we were standing we could see clearly the whole system of French and German trenches.

A noun complement is a noun that completes the meaning of the verb.

Wilson was elected President.

EXERCISES

I. Analyze each of the following compound nouns:—

Greengrocer, cupful, drawback, pickpocket, merry-go-rounds, overalls, passers-by, goings-on.

II. Give examples of the following constructions:—

An infinitive phrase as the subject of a verb; an infinitive phrase as the object of a verb; an infinitive phrase as the object of a preposition; a participial phrase as the subject of a verb; a participial phrase as the object of a verb; a participial phrase as the object of a preposition; a clause as the subject of a verb; a clause as the object of a verb; a clause as the object of a preposition; an infinitive clause as the subject of a verb; an infinitive clause as the object of a verb; a noun phrase preceded by a possessive pronoun.

III. Rewrite the following sentences so as to provide for the use in each of them of a noun phrase or a noun clause. Compare the rhetorical effectiveness of the revised sentence with that of the original:—

1. If I work hard, I shall succeed. 2. We are praying whenever we are working. 3. We have often lost because we have hesitated. 4. If you could only see her, I am sure you would love her. 5. When you have reached the cross-roads, turn to your right. 6. While you are doing this, you will encounter many difficulties. 7. Before you begin to write, you should know definitely what you are going to say. 8. After I had taken one dose of the patent medicine, I felt very ill. 9. He is going to war and he is such a young fellow; it's a pity. 10. Freedom is not a right but a privilege. 11. Standing here we get a fine view of the surrounding country. 12. Please go home; I will make no other request of you.

IV. Point out the noun phrases and noun clauses in the following sentences:—

1. They are disheartened from doing their best with the miserable reward which in some places they receive.—Fuller. 2. O noble pattern of a princely mind, not like to the kings of Persia, who in their progresses did nothing else but cut sticks to drive away the time.—Lyly. 3. Lords and Commons of England, consider what nation it is whereof ye are.—Milton. 4. There is no doubt but the Supreme authority of a nation has in itself a power, and a right to

that power, to execute the laws upon any part of that nation it governs.—Defoe. 5. I can't tell whether you like these journal letters.—Swift. 6. It is impossible for me to want means to entertain them, having besides the force of my own parts the power of divination.—Steele. 7. My valet, who was an Irishman, fell into so great rage at what he heard, that he drew his sword.—Addison. 8. His being unconfined to modes and forms, makes him but the readier and more capable to please and oblige all who know him.—Addison. 9. Nor can we wonder that they excelled so much in the graces of diction, when we consider how rarely they were employed in search of new thoughts.—Johnson. 10. The Ministry have put us to an enormous expense by the war in America and it is their interest to persuade us that we have got something for our money.—Boswell.

V. Write sentences in which the following noun phrases will appear (a) as subjects, (b) as objects:—

To work, going home, to have worked one's way through college, studying at night.

VI. Write sentences in which the following clauses will be used (a) as subjects, (b) as objects:—

I had failed, I was disappointed, he had been overworked, he had made contradictory replies to the questions of the state's attorney.

Special Rules for the Noun

14. Do not omit the apostrophe where it is needed as the sign of the possessive.

A. Singular nouns ending in s or the s-sound take the s of the possessive only where euphony does not forbid. *Dickens'* or *Dickens's; conscience'* not *conscience's; Empedocles'* not *Empedocles's; Essex'* or *Essex's.*

B. Plural nouns ending in s take the apostrophe only; other plurals take 's, except certain nouns uninflected in the

nominative plural, which add s' in the possessive plural, *e. g.*, *sheeps'* instead of *sheep's*.

C. The titles of books, the names of business firms, etc., in which two or more proper nouns appear, take only one sign of the possessive, at the end of the phrase. *Smith and Brown's Shoe Store* not *Smith's and Brown's Shoe Store.*

D. When there are two nouns in the possessive case, one in apposition to the other, use only one sign of the possessive. For example, *Here is my friend Jack's house;* not, *Here is my friend's Jack's house.* When an appositional phrase is so long as to make the possessive awkward, recast the sentence. For example, *Here is where our old college friend Jack lives;* not, *Here is Jack, our old college friend's, house.*

E. Do not use the sign of the possessive with personal pronouns; *hers* not *her's; theirs* not *their's; its* not *it's.*

F. The so-called possessive case has a variety of idomatic uses. Note how it is employed in each of the following phrases:—*the law's delay, the children's hour, for goodness' sake, last year's report, a moment's hesitation, Lincoln's Statue, Thackeray's novels, my Redeemer's praise.* These examples make it clear that our possessive case has preserved many uses of the older genitive. Apart from such special idioms as those cited, one should use the possessive case only to indicate possession. Otherwise, as usually with inanimate objects, employ the preposition *of.* The uses of this so-called sign of the genitive are of course many. Note the following typical examples:—*a friend of my husband's* (partitive); *the State of Illinois* (appositive; compare the poetic, *Britain's isle*); *a man of might, delay of a moment* (descriptive; compare *a moment's delay*).

15. Many foreign words that have become a part of the English language retain their foreign plural forms. There is, however, a strong tendency to inflect these words in the usual way;

in some cases either a foreign or an English inflection is permissible.

Examples: alumna, alumnae; alumnus, alumni; analysis, analyses; axis, axes; bacillus, bacilli; cherub, cherubim or cherubs; datum, data; formula, formulae or formulas; memorandum, memoranda or memorandums; trousseau, trousseaux.

16. A quoted clause without the introductory *that* may in certain cases be regularly used as subject, object, or predicate substantive.

"He spoke no slander," was said of King Arthur.
"Who steals my purse steals trash," was one of my father's favorite quotations.
I have said, there is no privilege without responsibility.

The justifiable omission of *that* in other cases gives to your sentence a tone of informality. Compare the two forms of the sentence in the following examples:—

I have been perfectly candid with you, is the best I can say for myself.
That I have been perfectly candid with you is the best I can say for myself.
***or* I have been perfectly candid with you; that is the best I can say for myself.**
My idea is we should go at once.
My idea is that we should go at once.

CHAPTER VII

THE ADJECTIVE

An adjective describes or limits a noun; *e. g., a blue house, two pencils.* Adjectives are attributive, *a red hat;* appositive, *the soldiers, weary and disheartened, began the long retreat;* or predicate, *the hat is red.* An adjective sometimes serves as a complementary object, *e. g., I find this answer unsatisfactory.*

(*a*) *The Adjective Phrase*

Adjective phrases are prepositional, *A man of might, A circumstance of rare occurrence* (note the opportunity for added emphasis offered by this construction); or participial, *Believing as I do, I cannot honestly join the church. Having finished the task assigned, he left the class-room. Once finished, the task will seem as nothing to you.* Do not neglect the construction illustrated in the last example. It makes for conciseness and often for an easy transition from the sentence that precedes.

Note that in many cases the participial adjective modifier is equivalent to an adverbial clause. The first example above might have been written,—*Since I believe as I do, I cannot honestly join the church.* What we classify conventionally as the participial adjective phrase not only helps us to vary the structure of our sentences, but is an expression more rapid and animated than the more explicitly logical construction.

(*b*) *The Adjective Clause*

The adjective clause is introduced by a relative pronoun or a relative adverb.

The person whom you have mentioned is an old friend of mine.
The spot where my house is situated commands a fine view of the surrounding country.

The relative clause is either restrictive or non-restrictive. The non-restrictive clause is set off by commas. Both of the examples above contain restrictive clauses, the restriction which each imposes being necessary to an understanding of the sentence. The following sentence presents an example of a non-restrictive relative clause; what the clause adds is not necessary to an understanding of the sentence:—

The President's house, which is one of the oldest buildings on the campus, is situated north of the library.

EXERCISES

I. Point out in the following passage the attributive and predicate adjectives, and also the adjective phrases and adjective clauses:—

These boys congregated every autumn about a certain easterly fisher-village, where they tasted in a high degree the glory of existence. The place was created seemingly on purpose for the diversion of young gentlemen. A street or two of houses, mostly red and many of them tiled; a number of fine trees clustered about the manse and the kirkyard, and turning the chief street into a shady alley; many little gardens more than usually bright with flowers; nets a-drying, and fisher-wives scolding in the backward parts; a smell of fish, a genial smell of sea-weed; whiffs of blowing sand at the street-corners; shops with golf-balls and bottled lollipops; another shop with penny pickwicks (that remarkable cigar) and the *London Journal*, dear to me for its startling pictures, and a few novels, dear for their suggestive names: such, as well as memory serves me, were the ingredients of the town.—Stevenson.

II. For the adjective clauses in the following sentences substitute adjectives (attributive or appositive) or adjective

phrases, and comment in each case upon the altered effect of the sentence:—

1. The student, who regularly does his work on time, is likely to succeed. 2. The student, who is in the habit of putting off to-day's work until to-morrow, is likely to fail. 3. The hotel which we like better than any other is situated on Wabash Avenue. 4. Youth is a period when people generally are very much disturbed about themselves. 5. The runner, who was faint and breathless, fell as soon as he had reached the goal. 6. He is a man who has great will power. 7. The man who loves his ease will never succeed. 8. The student who finds it difficult to remember what he has been told had better take careful notes.

III. Substitute for the simple or modified adjectives in the following phrases, (a) adjective phrases, (b) adjective clauses:—

An influential man, a worthy undertaking, a very interesting book, an uninterested spectator, an honorable peace.

Special Rules for the Adjective

17. The comparative degree of the adjective should be used when the reference is to two persons or things; the superlative, when the reference is to more than two. Wrong: *Of the two explanations, Mr. Brown's seems to me the best.* Right: *Of the two explanations, Mr. Brown's seems to me the better.*

18. Do not use in the comparative or superlative degree an adjective that is absolute in meaning. Wrong: *He seems to be more omniscient than his brother. It is the most unique spectacle you have ever seen.*

19. Do not omit *other* when the sense requires its use. Wrong: *I like her better than any of the girls.* Right: *I like her better than any of the other girls.*

20. Avoid particularly the use of the following words as adjectives: *Them, plenty, near-by.* Note, however, that certain words ordinarily used as adverbs may be used as adjectives:

Above (*The above quotation*), down (*the down train*), hither (*the hither side*), far (*the far East, a far cry*), near (*the near East;* compare the colloquial, *a near riot*), outside (*outside influence*), then (*the then president of the association*), extempore (*an extempore speech*). *Other* should be preferred to *otherwise* as an adjective.

21. English idiom permits the use of a predicate adjective (*e. g.*, after *feel, taste, smell, look*, etc.) **whenever the reference is to state or condition rather than to manner or degree.** Right: *She looked very pretty this evening. Cook the beef rare. He stands high in his class.*

22. English idiom in many cases permits the omission of the noun which the adjective modifies. The student should familiarize himself with the following examples:—

1. It was a brief fight and fierce.

2. For the moment the religious effect of the translation of the Bible was less than its social.

3. A greater than Johnson donned the suppliant's robe.

4. In this church the social has come into conflict with the religious life.

Modern English frequently uses *one* in place of the noun; *A good man and true* is not as easy in Modern English as *A good man and a true one.* Compare the omission of the noun after the possessive case: *Maggie's was a troublous life* (George Eliot). Remember the adjectives that are frequently used independently: *old, rich, poor, dead, pure, high and low, thick and thin, big and little, right and left*, etc. Compare the coupling of the past participle with the substantive in such pairs as *teacher and taught, employer and employed.*

23. Note the idiomatic uses of the adjectives in the following list of phrases:—*a parting kiss, the retired list, a retiring allowance, a lunatic asylum, on sick leave, a sick room, a return ticket, a moving van.* **What is the logical relation in each case between the adjective and the noun?**

CHAPTER VIII

THE ADVERB

An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs may be classified as adverbs of manner, of degree, of time, of place.

Note the uses of the italicized adverbs in the following sentences:—

I am speaking *seriously*. I meant that *half* seriously. I am *often* weary. We are *nearly* home.

(*a*) *The Adverbial Phrase*

Like adverbs, adverbial phrases modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Besides manner, degree, time and place, adverbial phrases may denote purpose, result, condition.

Note the uses of the italicized adverbial phrases in the following sentences:—

I speak *in all seriousness*. He is unselfish *to a fault*. I am too tired *for any use*. I have felt tired *since the beginning of the month*. I live *near the postoffice*. I give *in proportion to my means*. I have remained at home *to take care of my mother*. I am able *to perform the assigned task*. *To judge from the noise* I should say there were several thousand people on the athletic field.—Note that the adverbial infinitive of condition often helps us to make a sentence more compact.

(*b*) *The Adverbial Clause*

Adverbial clauses, like adverbs, modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

Note the uses of the italicized adverbial clauses in the following sentences:—

He arrived *as soon as I did.* *When he is inclined to talk*, he is delightful. There, *where you have both books and teachers*, you may study to your heart's content.

Adverbial clauses may be introduced by subordinate conjunctions, by relative or interrogative pronouns, or by relative adverbs.

Examples: I am uncertain which course I should take. I am uncertain who you are. There, where his father was born, he decided to pass the last years of his life. Let us go, if you say so.

We may make the following classification of adverbial clauses:—

Result—

But that: I am never so tired but that I can do a little more.

So that: Speak so that we can understand you.

Manner and Degree—

As: Do as you please.

How: Show me how you do it.

As—so: As I have done; so may you do.

As—even thus: As the night keeps hidden in its gloom the petition for life, even thus in the depth of my consciousness rings the cry—I want thee, only thee.—Tagore.

As: As we ascended the mountain, our breathing became more and more difficult.

Concession—

Although, though: Although we were tired, we continued studying.

As: (uniting the ideas of concession and degree): Tired as we were, we continued studying.

While: But while the habit of slang is universal, it has been

practised nowhere with greater assiduity and success than in England.

Albeit: You should try to do your best, albeit you never reach the goal. (Albeit suggests affectation. It should be used sparingly.)

However (uniting the ideas of manner and concession): However you might scheme to get that position, it will go to Brown.

If: Let us contradict him, if merely to test his courage.

Only that: Let them stand side by side, like a couple of good trees of the same stock, only that the husband has to take the windward side.

Even if (even though): Even if you fail to take your degree, you will have the satisfaction of having done your duty.

Purpose—

That: I give these directions at the outstart that you may understand what is expected of you.

Lest (negative): Take heed lest you fall. (Compare with this use of *lest*, its use after verbs of fearing where it is equivalent to *that*. *I feared lest the worst should happen.* In such sentences *that* should be ordinarily preferred.)

Cause—

As: As it was twelve o'clock, I decided to go to.bed.

Because: We stopped studying because we were too tired to go on.

For: We closed the debate, for there was no need of further argument.

Since: Since you are registered in the course, I advise you to continue in it.

Seeing (that), considering (that): Seeing that we are all here, I think the meeting had better begin.

Inasmuch as: I regret this the more, inasmuch as I may not yield to any dame the palm of my liege lady's beauty.—Bulwer.

A number of prepositional or participial phrases containing the words *the fact that*, *e. g.*, *because of the fact that*, *considering the fact that*, etc., introduce causal clauses. In many cases these may be simplified to advantage, *e. g.*, *considering that* (*instead of considering the fact that*), *because of my failure* (instead of, *because of the fact that I failed*), etc. In some sentences *that*, following such words as

sorry, surprised, ashamed, has something of the force of a causal conjunction:—*I am sorry that you came. I am surprised that you should speak of such a thing.*

In that: I gladly do him honor, in that he has done more for America than any other living man.

That: But the crime of Strafford was none the less a crime that it did not fall within the scope of the Statute of Treason.—Green.

Condition—

If: It was sensible for you to stop studying if you were too tired to go on.

Provided (that): You may follow what method you please in solving this problem, provided you get the answer.

So: So the work is done, I care very little how you do it.

Unless: You need not take this course unless you wish to. *Unless* frequently introduces improbable conditions: Unless all signs fail, we shall have a snowstorm before night.

In case (that), in the event that: What would this country do in the event that war were declared?

On condition that: I shall omit the fine, on condition that you leave the city at once.

Supposing [that]: An answer in the negative was sufficient to have diverted their thoughts from Mr. Scrooge, supposing they had ever had any tendency that way.—Dickens.

But that (negation): But that I had promised George beforehand, I should have been glad to give you the dance.

Provided (*that*) differs from *if* in suggesting a stipulation instead of a simple condition, the construction with *provided* (*that*) being originally an absolute phrase equivalent to *this provision having been made. So* is used with much the same implication as *provided that. As if* and *as though* introduce conditional clauses that are also clauses of manner.

As if (as though): You speak as though you were offended.

Note the following idioms in which the conditional clause has no introductory word, the logical relationship being more or less in solution. Paratactic sentences of the kind listed below are by no means to be avoided.

Were you going alone, I should be glad to go with you.

Sow the wind, and you will reap the whirlwind.

Pay attention in class, prepare your lessons from day to day, keep yourself well, and you will have no difficulty in passing the course.

Mind what I say, or you will come to grief.

Let your conscience direct you, you will not go far wrong.

Let the fashionable preacher try to reform his wordly flock, then you will be sure to see the congregation dwindling.

Did she forget your very existence, were you not in honor bound to protect her?

Was I discouraged, she never failed to cheer me up.

Note how closely the conditional clause of the following sentence approaches a causal clause:—

Our classical writers had already extended through a longer period than those of Greece or of Rome, and Newman did not think we ought to be disappointed if our own classical period were close upon its termination.

Time—

After: After I had left the house, I met a friend whom I had not seen for many years.

As: As I was walking down the street, I met a friend whom I had not seen for many years.

Before: I forgot to turn out the light before I went to bed.

Since: Since Johnson became president, the society has rapidly deteriorated.

Till, until: Please stay until your brother comes.

When: Be sure to turn out the light when you go to bed.

(*When* sometimes introduces a temporal condition, being equivalent to, *If at any time, e. g., When a student fails in two courses at the final examinations, he should be placed on probation.*)

Whenever: Whenever I go to the library, I see Professor Smith busily working there.

While: While I was talking, there occurred a great disturbance in the hallway.

A number of adverbs with or without a following *that* easily discharge the function of conjunctions:—

Now that the worst has happened, I hope you have learned your lesson.

Everybody declared that, *now* the ice had been broken, the old constraint would disappear.

Once you have gained confidence in yourself, you will have little difficulty learning how to swim.

Compare similar uses of *immediately* and *directly*.

Note the following idioms in which the conjunction has the function of an adverb:—

While waiting for a street-car, I entered into conversation with a newsboy.

Surely a phrase which is clear when written as well as when spoken is better than a phrase which is clear only when spoken.

Place—

Where: I met him just where I expected to find him.

Whither: Whither thou goest, I will go.

EXERCISE

I. Point out the adverbs, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses in the following passage and describe the function of each:—

Now to be properly enjoyed, a walking tour should be gone upon alone. If you go in company, or even in pairs, it is no longer a walking tour in anything but name; it is something else and more in the nature of a picnic. A walking tour should be gone upon alone, because freedom is of the essence; because you should be able to stop and go on, and follow this way or that, as the freak takes you; and because you must have your own pace, and neither trot alongside a champion walker, nor mince in time with a girl. And then you must be open to all impressions and let your thoughts take color from what you see. You should be as a pipe for any wind to

play upon. "I cannot see the wit," says Hazlitt, "of walking and talking at the same time. When I am in the country, I wish to vegetate like the country,"—which is the gist of all that can be said upon the matter. There should be no cackle of voices at your elbow to jar upon the meditative silence of the morning. And so long as man is reasoning, he cannot surrender himself to that fine intoxication that comes of much motion in the open air, that begins in a sort of dazzle and sluggishness of the brain, and ends in a peace that passes comprehension.—Stevenson.

II. Supply as many suitable conjunctions as you can in each of the following sentences. Do you prefer the sentences with or without the conjunctions?

1. There is no proof of it, all that I have been telling you goes for nothing in accounting for the origin of species.

2. He fought their perilous battle, he turned away with disdain from their insolent triumph.

3. The consciences of such men are awakened, their minds are not changed.

4. He and I went in, we found that dinner was nearly ready.

5. She endured some physical pain, all must who die in their prime.

6. The great summons came, it found her full of hope.

7. Minds are coarse, they require coarse stimuli.

8. We have descended four hundred years from Aristotle to St. Paul, let us ascend, not four hundred, not quite even one hundred years, from Thucydides to Pindar.

III. Classify the adverbial clauses in the following sentences and suggest as many substitutes as you can for the introductory words:—

1. As I was walking down Fifth Avenue this morning, I met a friend whom I had not seen for twenty years. 2. Do as I tell you. 3. As no one seems to be interested in this matter, I think we had better change the subject of conversation. 4. While I agree with you in the main, I must take exception to a few of your remarks. 5. I am going because he is coming. 6. I eat that I might live.

7. Whenever you adopt my view, I shall be glad to talk with you further. 8. So long as you grant this, I am not disposed to continue the argument. 9. What have I done that you should speak to me like this? 10. Be with us, lest we forget. 11. So you follow my directions, I don't care when you do your work. 12. Unless I am mistaken, you have been absent from class ten times this semester. 13. Proud as he is, he came to me very humbly to beg my pardon.

IV. Put the thought of each of the following sentences in as many forms as possible. Which form of the sentence do you prefer?

1. The sun having set, we decided to return home. 2. The passage interpreted carefully can have but one meaning. 3. The more, the better. 4. This being true, the inference is unavoidable. 5. You must be very wise,—you have so many degrees. 6. Talk long enough and you will be sure to get an audience.

V. Find as many substitutes as you can for the italicized words or phrases in the following sentences:—

1. *Now that* the game is won, let us be merry. 2. *Although* I admit my opponent's contention in regard to the tariff schedules, I am by no means convinced by his argument as a whole. 3. *So* you work faithfully, I do not worry about your grades. 4. I give you this advice *in order that* you might not lose one of the greatest opportunities of your life. 5. Conscientious *as* he is, he has not sense enough to pass the course. 6. *As* no such case has ever occurred, we need not waste our time discussing it. 7. *If* only he comes, I do not care what happens. 8. *If* you do not exercise your body, you cannot properly exercise your mind.

Rules for the Adverb

24. Do not use the following adjectives as adverbs: considerable, good, real, this, that. *Some* **in the sense of** *somewhat*, **should be avoided; in the sense of** *about*, **as** *some twenty feet* **it is idiomatic.**

25. Do not use the inflected forms *friendlily*, *kindlily*, *cowardlily*, *illy*. *Friendly* and *kindly* are both adverbs and adjectives. For *cowardlily* use an adverbial phrase. Note that in such time words as *daily*, *nightly*, *weekly* we have the same form for adjective and adverb.

26. An adverb should not be placed between the infinitive and the sign of the infinitive if the arrangement results in an awkward expression. There is no objection to placing in this position lightly stressed adverbs or those which are felt to be very closely connected with the verb.

EXERCISE

I. Correct the following sentences:—

1. Which is the best of these two? 2. This case seems to me more incurable than the other. 3. None of her novels is greater than Adam Bede. 4. I like Adam Bede better than any of the novels of George Eliot. 5. I have been busy all summer with matters literary and otherwise. 6. Near-by golf-links will give you an opportunity for daily exercise. 7. I was plenty tired when I reached home. 8. This rose smells sweetly. 9. I was some tired, I can tell you. 10. My finger hurts considerable. 11. How kindlily he addressed you. 12. I can go only this far with you.

II. In each of the following sentences which of the two words in parenthesis do you prefer? Explain your preference:—

1. Sit (quiet, quietly) for a while. 2. Speak (soft, softly), please. 3. Go (quick, quickly). 4. She looked (pleasant, pleasantly). 5. My car runs (smooth, smoothly). 6. The bell sounded (loud, loudly) in my ears.

III. Comment upon the following split infinitives:—

To with the lark and with the sun arise. To actually mention his name. To fully appreciate what he has done. To kindly and at their earliest convenience remove their headgear.

CHAPTER IX

PRONOUNS

A pronoun is a word which stands for a noun. Pronouns may be classified as personal (simple and compound), demonstrative, indefinite, relative, and interrogative.

The personal pronouns are: I, my or mine, me, we, our or ours, us; thou, thy or thine, thee, you or ye, your or yours, you or ye; he, his, him, she, her or hers, it, its, they, their or theirs, them.

The compound personal pronouns are: myself, ourselves, thyself or yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves.

The demonstrative pronouns are: this, these, that, those.

The indefinite pronouns are: all, any, aught (naught), both, certain, each, every, either (neither), every, few, little, many, much, none, one, other, several, some, sundry, who, what (*As who should say. I'll tell you what.*).

The relative pronouns are: who, whose, whom, which, that, as, what (*Tell me what you know*).

The interrogative pronouns are: who, whose, whom, what, which.

An antecedent of a pronoun is the substantive (noun or pronoun) to which it refers. A pronoun should agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

Special Rules for the Pronoun

27. After the copula verb (*to be*) the predicate pronoun agrees with the subject. It is accordingly nominative when the finite verb is used; objective when the verb is in the infinitive.

It is I (he, she, they); not, It is me (him, her, them).

He believed it to be me (*me* agreeing with *it*, subject of infinitive). He believed that it was I (*I* agreeing with *it*, subject of finite verb).

28. Repeat the possessive pronoun whenever clearness demands repetition. Distinguish between, *I have spent the whole day with my son and pupil*, and *I have spent the whole day with my son and my pupil.*

29. Be careful to use *who* (subject) and *whom* (object) accurately. An error is particularly likely to occur when an intervening verb is mistakenly considered as governing the relative, *e. g.*, *I approached the man whom I thought was an old friend of mine.* The pronoun is here felt to be the object of *thought* rather than the subject of *was*.

30. Besides this mistake in regard to the governing verb, there is often noted a tendency to consider a compound object as being governed *in toto* (as a whole) not in parts. No one would say, *She called I*, where the object immediately follows the verb. Even a careless speaker is not likely to say, *She called him and I*, since here the first pronoun has a distinctive form for the objective case, to which the second pronoun readily conforms. Where the pronoun that immediately follows the verb has no such distinctive form, a mistake is relatively easy; *e. g.*, *She called you and I;* or in cases in which the first member of the compound object is a noun,—*She called John and I.* The case is similar when the pronoun is the object of a preposition; as in the common error, *Between you and I.*

31. An error, in contrast to that accounted for under 30, occurs when one thinks of the first word of an object clause as being alone governed by the verb or preposition. Example:—*Go to whoever* (not *whomever*) *calls you* is right because the object of the preposition is the clause.

32. It is easy to lose consciousness of a verb omitted from speech or writing. In *You are better than me*, our mistake is due to the feeling that *than* is a preposition. An error is less likely when the pronoun following *than* is grammatically in the objective case. *He likes John better than I* for *He likes John better than me*, is a comparatively infrequent error.

Note. To what has been noted above, it should be added that the prepositions and conjunctions are only special forms of the adverb,—adverbs used for connecting parts of the sentence. In many cases, *e. g.*, *since*, the same word may be used either as a preposition or as a conjunction. In the idiomatic expression *than whom*, *than* is a preposition, and it is easily felt to be such in cases in which it is hard to consider it as a conjunction.

33. Of the relatives *who*, *which*, and *that*, *who* is used of persons or animals; *which*, of inanimate objects, of a group of persons regarded collectively, and of animals; *that*, of persons, animals, or inanimate objects. Within the above rules considerations of euphony often determine our choice of *who*, *which*, or *that*. Rules similar to the above apply to the use of *whose* and *of which*.

34. *Any one*, *anybody*, *each*, *either*, *every*, *every one*, *everybody*, *neither*, *nobody*, *no one*, *one*, *a person*, *somebody*, *some one*, are singular. Do not say, *Neither of us were there;* nor, *Everybody in the class gave me their name*. In the second example it is not necessary to write *his or her*, inasmuch as *his* may be a pronoun of common gender.

35. Pronouns in *-self* may be used reflexively or intensively. When intensifying the subject of a clause or sentence, the pronoun in *-self* may often be advantageously separated from its substantive, *e. g.*, *Mr. Roosevelt was himself the most fearless critic of the party that had elected him* is more emphatic than *Mr. Roosevelt himself was the most fearless critic of the party that had elected him.*

Ordinarily the pronoun in *-self* should not be used without the substantive that it intensifies. In the third person (less frequently in the first and second) it is, however, sometimes used without the substantive. The independent use of the intensive pronoun in *-self* is common in poetry.

36. The possessive case of the pronoun may be used before the verbal noun in *-ing* (the gerund). Ordinarily this construction is preferred to the alternative construction with the pronoun in the objective case. But the latter, besides being the older construction, is not without standing in current usage, and in certain cases is clearly preferable; as, for instance, *His*

premature death prevented anything (rather than *anything's*) *coming of the scheme* (See Onions' "Advanced English Syntax").

37. Do not confuse *all* with *each* or *every one*. Wrong: *All the members of the class will take their turn at the board.* Right: *Each member of the class will take his turn at the board.* Wrong: *Every one of the books is bound alike.* Right: *All of the books are bound alike.*

38. Do not use *the one* or *the ones* unless there is an implied contrast with *the other* or *the others*. The pronominal phrases are often used where personal or demonstrative pronouns would be preferable. *Suddenly I met the one whom I had been seeking*, is objectionable if by *one* the writer means only *person*.

39. The pronoun referring to singular substantives connected by *or* or *nor* should be singular. Wrong: *It is clear that the one or the other of them was mistaken in what they said.* Right: *It is clear that the one or the other of them was mistaken in what he said.*

40. Do not omit pronouns necessary to the grammar or the meaning of your sentences. A necessary demonstrative pronoun is often omitted. Wrong: *The requirements in History 1 are more exacting than any other course in the University.* Right: *The requirements in History 1 are more exacting than those of any other course in the University.*

EXERCISES

I. Choose in each of the following sentences one of the pronouns in parenthesis, and give the reason for the form that you have chosen:—

1. Do you like any one better than (I, me)? 2. He does not know who did it, but he thinks it is (I, me). 3. I believe it to be (he, him). 4. Oliver Cromwell was one of the characters in the play we acted, and I was supposed to be (he, him). 5. If I were (he, him), I should try to rent a costume. 6. Between you and (I, me), we have selected an unsuitable play. 7. He likes you better than (I, me). 8. The very man (who, whom) I had always believed was a friend of mine failed me when I needed him most. 9. It may possibly have been (I, me) (who, whom) you heard a moment ago suggest an answer to your question. 10. No one but (I, me)

should take the blame for this. 11. You should blame no one but (I, me) for this. 12. Do you not remember that he went for a walk with you and (I, me)? 13. Answer promptly (whoever, whomever) questions you. 14. Another great dramatic poet, (he, him) whom I mentioned a moment ago, I will speak of in my next lecture.

II. Correct the following sentences:—

1. When I mentioned the constitution, everybody said they were for amending it. 2. In this sentence neither the verb nor the pronoun agree with the noun. 3. As I call the roll, I wish all the members of the class to answer to their names. 4. Here come Mr. and Mrs. Johnson. They are the ones I wish you to meet. 5. The speed of this automobile is greater than any other manufactured. 6. Why did you object to me saying that? 7. Neither of your statements are correct.

III. What is the meaning or rhetorical effectiveness of the following idiomatic uses of the pronoun:—

1. There is more in heaven and earth than is dreamed of in *your* philosophy. 2. This idea of *yours* that the Germans are the best people in the world seems to me absurd. 3. There are *those* who say that entertainment is the most important means, if not the chief end, of education. 4. I am more interested in *what* is *what* than in *who* is *who*. 5. Honor to *whom* honor is due. 6. *What* of poetry he produced was of a singularly exquisite quality.—Hales. 7. *What* am I? What has my will done to make me *that* I am?—Emerson.

CHAPTER X

THE VERB

A verb is a word which is used to assert a state or an action. A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning. An intransitive verb does not take an object.

To inflect (*inflectere*, to bend) a verb is to give its various forms. This process for the verb is called more particularly its conjugation (*con*, together; *jugare*, to join). A verb is conjugated with reference to voice, mood, tense, number, and person. The voices of a verb are active and passive. The subject of the active voice is represented as acting; that of the passive voice, as acted upon or produced. The mood of a verb represents the manner in which the action of the verb is conceived. The indicative mood, for instance, conceives the action as real; the subjunctive mood, as doubtful; the imperative mood, as urged or commanded. The tenses (the word derived through the French from Latin *tempus*, time) of the verb enable us to express the time of the action. They are present, relating to present time; past or preterite, relating to simple past time; future, relating to future time; perfect, relating to action completed at the time of speaking; pluperfect, relating to action completed at some point in past time; future perfect, relating to action to be completed at some point in future time. The first three tenses are called simple; the latter three, compound. There are two numbers, singular and plural; and three persons: the first, the person speaking; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The parts of the verb which are limited by mood, number, and person are called finite

parts of the verb; the other forms, that is, the infinitives and the participles, non-finite parts. The non-finite forms, however, are modified with reference to voice and tense. The principal parts of a verb are the present indicative, first person singular; the past indicative, first person singular; and the past participle. Verbs that form the past tense by adding ed, d, or t to the present are called weak verbs (love, loved); those that form the past tense by changing the radical vowel of the present are called strong verbs (run, ran).[1]

Special Rules for the Verb

41. A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning; an intransitive verb does not take an object. In a good many cases the object of the verb, though not expressed, is present to the consciousness of the speaker or writer. Note the use of the italicized verbs in the following sentences:—

Come let us *kiss* and part.

I will give you the reins if you know how to *drive*.

The Lord will *provide*.

42. The object of a transitive verb may sometimes be used as the subject of the verb used intransitively. The intransitive verb then has the force of a passive.

Compare: *We are building a house*, with *Our house is building* (*being built*).

If circumstances should offer an opportunity, with *If an opportunity should offer* (*be offered*).

We are developing our plans, with *Our plans are developing* (*being developed*).

Comparable to the above are such examples as the following:— *The book reads well. The play acts well.*

An appreciation of the variety of idiomatic English depends in part upon a recognition of the various logical rela-

[1] For the full conjugation see Appendix A.

tions that underlie the syntactical relation of verb and object. This variety makes it possible to use many intransitive verbs, to all intents and purposes, transitively. Analyze the logical relation of verb and object in the following sentences:

1. He sits his horse well. 2. Can you swim the river? 3. To die the death. 4. Did you think he looked the part? 5. He looked me in the face. 6. This will stand you in good stead.

43. The verb should agree with its subject in number and person. In the case of the following nouns usage varies to such an extent that no rule can be given:—alms, amends, headquarters, measles, odds, mathematics, phonetics, metaphysics, politics, **and other abstract nouns in** *ics*.

The most common errors are those which are due to confusion in regard to the subject of the verb. There are three forms of the error to be guarded against. Sometimes the verb is attracted to the number of a noun that intervenes between the subject and the verb; sometimes, to that of a predicate noun; in the third place, an adjective modifier is allowed to make a singular subject plural. Of these errors the following sentences may serve as examples: *The failure of all his plans and projects have greatly discouraged him. The most valuable part of our University equipment are the books in the library. John, in company with his brother and mother, are coming to-night.*

44. Where we have a series of nouns expressing not so much plurality as phases of a single thought, the verb should be in the singular, *e. g.*, *The tumult and the shouting dies. All his study and strife was only preparatory to one end.*

45. A singular noun when connected with another noun by *as well as*, *with*, **or similar connectives takes a singular verb.**

The captain as well as the crew was lost.

Jackson together with two accomplices was arrested yesterday.

46. Collective nouns take a singular or a plural verb according to their meaning. If the collection is considered as a unit, use the singular verb; if we have in mind the individuals of the group, use the plural verb. Note the following examples:—

The faculty of the University of Wisconsin desires to express its appreciation of Professor Brown's services.

The faculty are leaving town for the summer vacation.

47. Some nouns with plural form take singular verbs; for example, news, means (as *means to an end*); and nouns designating divisions of time and space:—

The first hundred yards was run with the greatest ease. Is thirty minutes enough time for this exercise?

48. Singular nouns introduced by the disjunctives neither—nor, either—or, take a verb in the singular.

Neither entreaty nor threat moves him.

Compare the following examples:—

Not only the attorney but also the judge was affected by the appearance of the prisoner.

Man, no less than the lower forms of life, is a product of the evolutionary process.

49. In conditions contrary to fact the preterite subjunctive denotes present time; the pluperfect, past time.

If you were still a child, your conduct might be excusable.

If we had been prepared, we should not have lost the opportunity.

50. The subjunctive in other conditional clauses: It looks as if it were going to rain. If this be so, I will consent.

51. The subjunctive is frequently used in more or less formal statements after verbs implying or expressing a wish or request.

It is requested that the above rules be strictly observed.

It was voted that the students' petitions be made a special order of business for the next meeting.

52. In informal expressions the subjunctive often follows the verb *to wish*.

I wish he were in the country with us.

53. Note further the use of the subjunctive in the following examples:—

God have mercy on us. Be that as it may.

54. *Shall*, *should*, *would*, *may*, *might* are frequently used as auxiliaries of the subjunctive mood.

It is my wish that you shall come.

If this were true, it would seem to me the worst thing that had ever happened.

If I should fail? But I will not fail.

Although I may (or might) seem very stupid, I think I have understood everything that you have said.

May it happen as you have predicted.

I hope that you might come again.

55. Besides being used to denote action in present time, the present tense has the following special uses:—

1. It is used where a future tense might be employed; *e. g.*, Our ship sails at noon to-morrow.

2. It is used to state a truth without reference to time; *e. g.*, Virtue is its own reward. None but the brave deserve the fair.

3. It is used to denote an habitual action (Habitual Present); *e. g.*, I sit up every night until eleven o'clock. I am at home every Thursday afternoon.

4. It is used instead of a past tense to give vividness to narrative style (Historical Present).

5. It is used instead of a perfect tense; *e. g.*, We are told that you have distinguished yourself in every way.

56. Besides its common use to denote that an action has occurred or a state has existed in past time, the past tense has the following special uses:—

1. It describes the past action as continuing; *e. g.*, The battle raged all day long.

2. It describes the past action as habitual; *e. g.*, When I was a boy, I went to school on Saturday (Habitual Past).

The future tense describes an action as occurring in the future. It is formed by combining *shall* or *will* with the infinitive. In declarative sentences *shall* is used in the first persons, *will* in the second and third. In interrogative sentences *shall* is used in the first and second persons and *will* in the third. In dependent clauses the usage sometimes varies from that of independent clauses in the third person,

where *shall* is often used instead of *will*; *e. g.*, He *promises that he shall return before noon.* .

We should distinguish the use of *shall* and *will* in the future tense from the use of the words in certain verb phrases, conveying the idea of inevitability or determination. In such expressions the verbs retain something of their earlier meanings, and do not form a tense of the verb. So, *I will go* expresses some degree of volition, the force of *will* depending upon the voice stress in the spoken language and upon the context in writing. *You shall go* and *he shall go* convey the idea that the action is inevitable or compulsory. *Shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third may also be used independently; *e. g.*, *Shall I play next?* meaning, *Am I expected to play next? You will go. Will you not?* implying volition.

The Perfect Tense ordinarily denotes a past state or action which has some relation to the present. *I have tried to help you*, implies that the attempt has extended into present time.

The Pluperfect or Past Perfect Tense denotes an action considered as completed at some point in past time; *e. g.*, *I had answered the first question before my instructor was prepared to ask a second.* In certain cases idiomatic English makes little distinction between the past and the pluperfect; *e. g., I had been (I was) in the church ten minutes or more before I noticed that there were no other people there.*

The Future Perfect conceives the action of the verb as completed (perfected) at some point in future time; *e. g.*, *I shall have finished my course of study before I go abroad.*

57. The passive voice sometimes represents the action as continuing, sometimes as completed. Compare the following examples:—

Lemonade was sold at almost every booth.

Almost everything was sold before I arrived at the bazaar.

58. Be particularly careful to avoid the following marks of illiterate speech: *You was; ain't; had'nt ought to;* **the use of** *of* **for** *have* **as in** I should of told you; *don't* **for** *doesn't* **as in** It don't matter; *set* **for** *sit; lay* **for** *lie, laid* **for** *lay, laid* **for** *lain* (the principal parts of these verbs are:—*lie, lay, lain;* and *lay, laid, laid*); *done* **for** *did; come* **for** *came; run* **for** *ran.*

59. Can and May. Do not use *can,* **as in the following sentence, to imply permission:**—Mother, can I go out to swim? Right:—Mother, may I go out to swim?

60. The predicate substantive after the verb *to be* **is put in the nominative case.**

It is he. Is it they that you are speaking of?

EXERCISES

I. Supply a proper form of the verb in each of the following sentences:—

1. If I —— you, I should refuse to go. 2. If I —— there, I should have taken your part. 3. I —— gladly go with you. 4. I —— be glad to go with you. 5. —— he pass the course? 6. Every morning he —— go into the garden with a book under his arm. 7. I think we —— go. 8. He assured me that he —— go. 9. Promise me that you —— go. 10. It is my wish that you —— go. 11. It was my wish that you —— go. 12. I —— like you to take a vacation now. 13. I —— have some bread, please. 14. He —— finished his assigned reading by the time you settle down to work. 15. I hoped (*to finish* or *to have finished;* or may either be used?) all the assigned work before this examination. 16. I should have been afraid (*to do* or *to have done that*). 17. I did not sign the lease until after I (*moved* or *had moved;* or may either be used?) into the house. 18. I (*finished* or *had finished*) my task by the time you reached the house. 19. These books now —— at fifty cents a piece. 20. My train —— tomorrow at noon.

II. Comment upon the form and use of the verb or verbs in each of the following examples:—

1. Shall I take a hand in this game? 2. Women were treated

with marked disrespect by the German soldiers during the occupation of the town. 3. The pictures were offered at a nominal price. 4. Pictures were sold every day in the week. 5. God be praised. 6. Were I to help you in writing this theme, you would simply come to rely upon me all the more. 7. Time is money. 8. Should you not mind your mother? 9. May we not use this class-room for the meetings of our literary society? 10. You may of course do as you please, but the question is what would other people think of such conduct. 11. I should suppose that you were right in what you have just said. 12. The scene was one of great beauty and peace: the sun shone brightly and the clouds moved lazily across the sky. 13. House to let. 14. His plans were forming all the while.

III. Give the tense, the mood, etc., of each verb in the following passages:—

1. My fellows in the office would sometimes rally me upon the trouble legible in my countenance; but I did not know that it had raised the suspicion of any of my employers, when on the 5th of last month, a day ever to be remembered by me, B——, the junior partner in the firm, calling me to one side, directly taxed me with my bad looks, and frankly inquired the cause of them. So taxed, I honestly made confession of my infirmity, and added that I was afraid I should eventually be obliged to resign his service. He spoke some words of course to hearten me, and there the matter rested.—Charles Lamb.

2. And yet to be found out, I know from my own experience, must be painful and odious, and cruelly mortifying to the inward vanity. Suppose I am a poltroon, let us say. With fierce moustache, loud talk, plentiful oaths, and an immense stick, I keep up nevertheless a character for courage. I swear fearfully at cabmen and women; brandish my bludgeon, and perhaps knock down a man or two with it; brag of the images which I break at the shooting-gallery, and pass amongst my friends for a whiskery fire-eater, afraid of neither man nor dragon. Ah me. Suppose some brisk little chap steps up and gives me a caning in St. James's Street, with all the heads of my friends looking out of all the club windows.

My reputation is gone. I frighten no man more. My nose is pulled by whipper-snappers, who jump on the chair to reach it. I am found out. And in the days of my triumphs, when people were yet afraid of me, and were taken in by my swagger, I always knew that I was a lily-liver, and expected that I should be found out some day.—Thackeray.

CHAPTER XI

THE PREPOSITION

A preposition (*pre* before; *ponere* to place) is a word which is ordinarily placed before a noun or a noun-equivalent in order to subordinate the latter to some other word in the sentence. The word which the preposition governs is called its object and is put in the objective case.

Note the following examples in which the preposition does not precede its object:—The person whom I speak of was here yesterday. What are you thinking of?

Prepositions according to the above definition may govern words that stand for nouns:—*From below I could see a dark object on the summit of the mountain. Except that your answers are not always adequate, I should say that your examination paper is highly creditable.*

Errors in the Use of Prepositions

61. Do not employ unnecessary prepositions, as in the following expressions:—remember of, at about, lose out, win out, off of, over with, show up, start out, divide up (end up, rest up, write up, and many other cases of the unnecessary *up*), up till.

62. The Wrong Preposition.

Wrong: They all seemed to differ among one another.

Right: They all seemed to differ one from the other (or) among themselves.

Wrong: There will be no trouble among two such people.

Right: There will be no trouble between two such people.

Wrong: There will be no trouble between the people in that neighborhood.

Right: There will be no trouble among the people in that neighborhood.

Note. Observe, however, that where more than one object comes into consideration, *between* is used if the objects are considered in pairs; or each member of a group, in relation to the rest of the group collectively.

There was an agreement between (not among) England, France, and Russia.

Wrong: Beside me there were twenty or thirty people present.

Right: Besides me there were twenty or thirty people present.

Wrong: I was in Sullivan's Island for two days.

Right: I was at Sullivan's Island for two days.

Note. Before the name of a small or unimportant locality use *at* rather than *in*.

Wrong: I stepped in the boat.

Right: I stepped into the boat.

Ordinarily prefer *into* after verbs of motion. Note, that *in* is correct in such expressions as, *I put the money in my pocket. I placed the collars in your drawer*.

Wrong: There is no use of your making such a remark.

Right: There is no use in your making such a remark.

Wrong: This is different than (or to) that.

Right: This is different from that.

Wrong: I have no confidence but I will offer no opposition to your proposals.

Right: I have no confidence in your proposals but I will offer no opposition to them.

CHAPTER XII

THE CONJUNCTION

Conjunctions (*con*, together; *jungere*, to join) are words that connect words, phrases, or clauses.

Conjunctions are coördinate or subordinate. Coördinate conjunctions connect sentence elements that are independent; subordinate conjunctions connect dependent with principal clauses.

(*a*) *Coördination*

Copulative Coördination:—Simple Coördination. Coördination with Emphasis.

Simple Coördination:—According to the figure known as asyndeton, the conjunction may be omitted, *e. g.*, *I came, I saw, I conquered.* *And* is here the usual conjunction.

Now

Now as a coördinate conjunctive adverb has a formal use in syllogisms.

All men are mortal. Now Socrates is a man. Therefore, Socrates is mortal.

Now is also useful in introducing an incidental explanation.

Neither—Nor

Observe that English idiom permits the use of either of these words singly.

I did not pass History 1. Neither did I.
Man wants but little here below.
Nor wants that little long. (Goldsmith.)

No more or *any more than* may often take the place of *nor*.

I did not pass History 1. No more did I.
I am not obliged to tell everybody, any more than I am obliged to keep it a secret. (Fielding.)

Coördination with Emphasis:—

To direct more attention to each member of the coördination we use:—*alike—and; at once—and; both—and; equally—and.*

This should appeal alike to teacher and student.
Jack, at once the most interesting and the most unreliable person.
To your question I might answer both yes and no.
Your conduct is equally foolish and dangerous.

To direct special attention to one member of the coördination, the following words are used:—*also, further, furthermore, likewise, moreover, too, as well as* (*and—as well*), *not only—but also, even, indeed, what is more, what is worse*, etc.

(*b*) *Adversative Coördination*

The conjunction is sometimes omitted:

Try and come. If you cannot, send your brother.
Not only do these anecdotes disfigure Boswell's book; they are themselves disfigured by being included in his book.—Macaulay.

In adversative coördination the following conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs are used:—*but, yet* (*but yet*), *only* (*but only*), *rather* (*but rather*), *but then, conversely, on the contrary, on the other hand, however.*

The adversative relationship takes various forms. Note the following examples:—

The deed is done but its influence remains. (Simple antithesis.)
We should all serve our country, but each of us should be allowed

to do that for which he is best fitted. (Here the clause introduced by *but* places a restriction upon the more general thought of the preceding clause.)

Contrast with the preceding sentence the following examples:—

Each one should serve his country in his own way, but service from all we have a right to expect. (Here the progress is climactic.)

He tried hard but he did not succeed. (The clause introduced by *but* is in opposition to what we might have expected to follow from the first clause.)

Similar to the arrestive *but* in the last example is that which is often used in passing from one topic to another:—

But there are other ways in which a suspension bridge might be constructed.

This is not John, but Mary. (Here *but* introduces a substitute.)

But and *and* have special uses besides those which have been illustrated above. The student should familiarize himself with the following idioms:—

There has never been a religion but someone has pronounced it unworthy of belief. (Here we might use an attributive clause.)

See the failures. And there was scarcely a student in the class but expected to pass the course with credit. (Here we might use an attributive clause.)

I cannot so completely cover the ground in this course but there will be at the end of the year important questions unanswered. (Here we might have a clause of result.)

Are there no questions? It cannot be but I have overlooked something (that—not).

Not but that I should have satisfied your curiosity, had I been able to anticipate your questions.

I am not sure (or I do not doubt) but that the time has come to take the step that you recommend.

Perdition catch my soul but I do love thee. (We might say: if—not.)

You will be good and strong when you return home. (The sentence might be changed so that the first adjective will become an adverbial modifier.)

Mind and do as I tell you. (The sentence may be changed to read: Remember to do as I tell you.)

Go and seek your fortune. (This or *Go, seek your fortune* is more idiomatic than *Go that you may seek your fortune* or any other form of the sentence in which hypotaxis is substituted for parataxis.)

We sat and smoked in silence. (Compare this form of the sentence with others in which subordination is used, *e. g., We sat smoking in silence*, or *Smoking we sat in silence*, or *We sat in silence smoking*. Clearly a paratactic construction is here the best.)

EXERCISE

Correct the following sentences:—

1. The instilling of a spirit of unity and patriotism into the people of Illinois that will go far to advancing them to an ideal state of brotherhood. 2. Waiting there in the meanwhile for the train which it seemed would never come. 3. We may consider now how the war is aiding agriculture and manufacturing. Production from both the former and the latter being greatly increased. 3. He gave me a definite promise, I took him at his word. 4. I see that the opera season has begun. How many of them do you expect to attend? 5. When a movement attracts so much attention as Christian Science has, it deserves serious consideration. 4. My first wireless apparatus being very crude, I was not able to get the results I have lately. 5. I have never voted dry before but I intend to at the election. 6. That is not the way which you should speak to me. 7. Oh you remember the story,—how the princess who, having been taken by the fairies, was put into a high tower and later turned into a cat. 8. The man whom I thought was present proved an alibi. 9. My brother with two or three of his college friends are coming home for the Christmas vacation. 10. An extra charge will be made for resittings when a change of hair or dress are made.

11. Neither the one nor the other are right. 12. Neither you nor I are right. 13. Neither they nor he are right. 14. I have looked for my book every place. 15. The positions that are overcrowded are those for which it takes no training to hold. 16. Each of us are thinking of the same thing. 17. The proper care of our bodies and minds require a great deal of time. 18. My plan of study for the coming year comprise four courses. 19. Everybody took their hat and left the room. 20. The student is likely to neglect his courses until the semester is well advanced; then seriously handicapped they begin working. 21. Liquor has a peculiar effect upon the red man; they are infinitely better without it. 22. Would that it had been me instead of him. 23. He plays better than me. 24. I know children whom I like much better than they. 25. Between you and I there can be no quarrel. 26. He seemed to be very fond of we fellows. 27. Let he who made thee answer this. 28. As our President said recently that it would be impossible to have the necessary equipment to establish the training at the present. 29. Conscription brings the youth of America on an equal basis. 30. Modern inventions have made an invasion upon us possible. 31. Switzerland through the Universal Military Service has kept off many attacks through the multitude of wars that have overrun the continent due to the fact that the men were able to defend themselves and the enemy knew it. 32. The murder of several Italian bankers in New York and Chicago illustrate this. 33. Thus one can see from the preceding that the question of private banks is one that concerns a great many people it is evident that safe banking is a necessity for the growth of a successful nation.

SECTION TWO

THE RHETORIC OF THE SENTENCE

The rhetorical effectiveness of a sentence arises from its form and content. To write good sentences we must rely more upon tact and discretion than upon rules; for the sentence is not a rigid but a flexible unit, often relaxing for the sake of greater ease the rules of set discourse. If we were to rewrite the essays of Charles Lamb in the sentences of Macaulay, we should spoil them, because we should replace their characteristic unity of mood—serving to weld together many diverse elements—with unity of a formal sort. One point, however, may be here emphasized. Just as it is disconcerting for a person to interrupt a conversation with an irrelevant remark, so you distract your reader by introducing into your sentences what is beside the point. Very often the violation of unity appears not in the thought but in the form of the sentence; that is, a writer by giving undue prominence to a minor detail impairs the true proportion and emphasis of what he says.

We should not think of sentences as detached units of expression. Let us consider them rather as woven into a context, their form determined by some larger design. With due regard to variety and energy of movement they should meet and part from other sentences, now relaxing the more rigorous forms for the sake of ease, now assuming in the interest of dignity or emphasis a more studied expression,—shortening their length to express a point succinctly, or extending their limits to declare with greater amplitude the writer's meaning.

Much may be done toward the attainment of a flexible style by departing now and then from the normal word order of the English sentence. What is of prime importance here is the exercise of judgment, that we may avoid too frequent or forced inversions. Our judgment should guide us, too, in employing the various sentence types,—loose, periodic, balanced. To force the use of one or another of these rhetorical forms is to write with artificiality rather than with art. Of the sentences mentioned the loose is the more informal, because unlike the periodic type it permits us to mark off before we come to the period a word group which is grammatically and logically complete. The sentence just written is loose because it is possible to conclude it with the word *informal!* Much of the effect of such sentences, however, depends upon their length and the degree of their looseness. The habitual use of very loose sentences is to be carefully avoided. The habit is a symptom of loose thinking. On the other hand, we should remember that many sentences are not susceptible of periodic structure. Furthermore, we should not let a fondness for balancing or setting in contrast words and phrases betray us into a word order that is factitious rather than faithful to our thought. Avoiding on the one hand artificiality and on the other hand artlessness, we should try to bring into nice adjustment the three demands of Clearness, Emphasis, and Ease.[1]

[1] For examples of periodic and balanced sentences, see p. 114ff.

CHAPTER XIII

CLEARNESS

In the section on grammar it was pointed out that through inattention to syntax we sometimes permit one word to usurp the grammatical function of another. Similarly, through a careless arrangement of sentence elements, a word or phrase may usurp the logical function of another. The result is that our sentences, though capable of being analyzed, are open to an interpretation other than the one intended. We should first see that our grammar is sound, and then that the logic of the sentence squares with its grammar,[1]—that according to the rules of grammar we have said what we mean and only what we mean. Not only a loose ordering of words but omissions and redundance may be set down as causes of obscurity. In short, to write clearly is so to order our words that an attentive and intelligent reader can have no doubt of our meaning.

Errors of grammar, as we have seen, are due to (1) the grammatical incompleteness of the sentence, (2) the lack of agreement between parts of the sentence that according to grammatical rule should agree, and (3) the use of one modifier where grammatical rule requires another. Impropriety or ineffectiveness arises from (1) the logical incompleteness or superfluity of the sentence, (2) the ambiguity or obscurity of reference or relation, and such other faults as might arise from careless arrangement.

(*a*) *Omissions and Redundance*

Do not omit words necessary to the logical completeness of your sentences nor permit the sentence to be a fragment-

[1] As has been shown elsewhere this is not a rule to be rigidly insisted upon.

ary rather than a full expression of your thought. On the other hand, omit unnecessary words and elements of thought which can not easily be unified with the main idea of your sentence. A violation of these rules sacrifices not only unity but clearness and emphasis.

63. A necessary demonstrative is often omitted.

There is no difference between college life and high school.

(*Corrected*)

There is no difference between college life and that of a high school.

64. Do not omit words necessary to your meaning.

I consoled myself that I should go home for Christmas.

(*Corrected*)

I consoled myself with the thought that I should go home for Christmas.

65. Use all words that are necessary to make clear the relation of one part of a sentence to another part.

Our neighbor was seldom communicative and disagreeable when we tried to talk to him.

(*Corrected*)

Our neighbor was seldom communicative; and he was disagreeable when we tried to talk to him.

The people of the United States think they have a wonderful navy, and its markmanship is better than that of any other nation.

(*Corrected*)

The people of the United States think they have a wonderful navy; and indeed its markmanship is better than that of any other navy.

66. Be careful to modify the verb appropriately when its tense does not give a sufficiently clear indication of time.

In considering present conditions in Europe, we should never forget that there was a Holy Alliance among the great powers.

(*Corrected*)

In considering the present conditions in Europe, we should never forget the Holy Alliance that united the great powers in the year 1815.

67. In a compound complex sentence use all words necessary to show the coördination of the principal clauses.

The prodigal was met at the garden gate by the old watch-dog, who welcomed him affectionately; and waved a familiar greeting to a figure in the doorway.

(*Corrected*)

The prodigal was met at the garden gate by the old watch-dog, who welcomed him affectionately; and to a figure in the doorway he waved a familiar greeting.

68. Remember that redundance sometimes impairs an exact expression of your thought.

Kindly repeat that again.

(*Corrected*)

Kindly repeat that.

(*b*) *Antecedents and Modifiers*

When only the position of pronoun and of antecedent can make clear their relation, the latter should be so placed that no intervening word can usurp its function. We should guard against the usurper, too, in the case of adjective and adverbial modifiers. Confusion arises when the modifier is separated from the word which it logically modifies by one which may grammatically take its place.

69. Do not introduce before a pronoun a number of grammatically possible antecedents.

My friend remarked to his chance acquaintance that he was too tired to continue the ascent.

(*Corrected*)

My friend remarked to his chance acquaintance, "You are too tired to continue the ascent."

70. Avoid the inconspicuous antecedent.

This is the best of Thackeray's novels, who is the greatest of Victorian novelists.

(*Corrected*)

This is the best novel by Thackeray, who is the greatest of Victorian novelists.

The main point brought out in James's *Social Value of the College Bred* is that it trains you to know a good man when you see him.

(*Corrected*)

The main point made by James in his *Social Value of the College Bred* is that a college education trains you to know a good man when you see him.

71. Do not place your adjectives and adverbial modifiers so that their grammatical relations will not be clear.

The judge condemned the prisoner with flashing eyes.

(*Corrected*)

With flashing eyes the judge condemned the prisoner.

The remaining third of the cases of deafness were due to heredity, especially if one of the parents were deaf.

(*Corrected*)

In the remaining third of the cases, deafness was due to heredity, particularly to the deafness of one of the parents.

Just when the pod is ready to burst open if it is singed we shall destroy the seeds.

(*Corrected*)

If we singe the pod just when it is ready to burst open, we shall destroy the seeds.

Note the advantage of using in the sentence above the active for the passive voice.

I have merely stood up to say that the proposition meets with my approval.

(*Corrected*)

I have stood up merely to say that the proposition meets with my approval.

Good bread can only be made with great care.

(*Corrected*)

Good bread can be made only with great care.

In a technical school the student only learns his special trade.

(*Corrected*)

In a technical school a student learns only his special trade.

72. Do not undertake to modify a word which is implied.

Having tramped for three hours the goal was reached.

(*Corrected*)

Having tramped for three hours we reached the goal.

(c) *Logical Agreement of Sentence Elements*

73. See that the parts of your sentence are in logical as well as grammatical agreement. Avoid mixed figures of speech.

The best test to determine whether the bread is ready for the oven is when it is light.

(*Corrected*)

We should be sure that the bread is light before we put it in the oven.

The use of the word responsible is poor diction.

(*Corrected*)

Responsible, as here used, is not a good word.

I think that the human race has climbed through these channels to its present stage of civilization.

(*Corrected*)

I think that the human race has climbed by these steps to its present stage of civilization.

"Homecoming" consists of three days.

(*Corrected*)

"Homecoming" lasts three days.

74. Do not introduce into a sentence thoughts which cannot be clearly related to one another.

Lincoln was President of the United States during the Civil War and he told many good anecdotes.

CHAPTER XIV

EMPHASIS

Emphasis is of course not something wholly apart from unity and clearness. The sentence that is clear and unified will ordinarily be more emphatic than one that is not. Weakness is in general the price that we pay for disregarding rhetorical principles. There are, however, special means of giving emphasis to the sentence. Obviously, a selection of strong words and phrases will help us. But we are here concerned not with the choice of sentence elements but with their organization.

From this point of view, emphasis depends first of all upon the position of word or phrase. Words at the beginning or at the end of a sentence will receive special emphasis; and a sentence element not in its normal place will carry more emphasis than one that appears at the expected point. Note the difference between, *This is ordinarily true* and *Ordinarily this is true;* between, *The days are gone* and *Gone are the days.*

In the second place, emphasis results from designing the sentence according to certain well-known and well-tried rhetorical patterns. These are the balanced, antithetical, climactic, and periodic structures. Though the design is in each case readily perceived, it is not always easily imitated. Such sentences are not to be regarded as expressions of affectation or as mere rhetorical artifice. When used with judgment, they are natural means of securing emphasis.

(*a*) *The Balanced Sentence*

A balanced sentence is one that shows a close parallelism of structure, which often involves a repetition of words.

The instruction which we give to high school pupils is in many cases precisely the instruction which we give to college students.

This difference of proficiency may arise from the difference of intellectual powers.

I am at a loss how to describe the success of the work without betraying the vanity of the writer.

When to the balanced structure of the sentence is added a sharp contrast of words or phrases, we get the antithetical sentence.

Every man finds himself differently affected by the sight of fortresses of war and palaces of pleasure.—Johnson.

Love is only to be excited by that levity and cheerfulness which invite the modest to freedom and exalt the timorous to confidence.—Johnson.

During this awful period I was neither elated by the ambition of fame nor depressed by the apprehension of contempt.—Gibbon.

(*b*) *The Climactic Sentence*

In the climactic sentence we pass from the less important to the more important members of a series of words, phrases, or clauses.

It mattered not that he had never in his life taken a voyage except on the Thames, that he could not keep his feet in a breeze, that he did not know the difference between latitude and longitude. —Macaulay.

A politic caution, a guarded circumspection, a moral rather than a complexional timidity were among the ruling principles of our forefathers in their most decided conduct.—Burke.

(*c*) *The Periodic Sentence*

A periodic sentence is one in which the thought is suspended until we reach the end of the sentence. Approximations to periodicity, it should be noted, serve to emphasize

different parts of the sentence. Note in the following sentences the extent to which the thought is suspended:—

But the ruined Grange, with a moat round it full of willows and big water plants, approached by a pretty bridge with ruinous parapets, had the perfect quality of beauty.—Benson.

Without a single lecture either public or private, either Catholic or Protestant, without any academical subscription, without any episcopal confirmation, I was left by the dim light of my catechism to grope my way to the chapel and communion table, where I was admitted, without a question, how far or by what means, I might be qualified to receive the sacrament.—Gibbon.

They aver that, when they come to look into the documents and literature of Christianity in times past, they find its doctrines so variously represented, and so inconsistently maintained by its professors, that however natural it be *a priori*, it is useless, in fact, to seek in history the matter of that Revelation which has been vouchsafed to mankind; that they cannot be historical Christians if they would.—Newman.

Her own sisters, sinning against natural affection, pitiless over her pathetic death and finding in it only a judgment upon the impiety with which, having shamed herself with some mortal lover, she had thrown the blame of her sin upon Zeus, have, so far, triumphed over her.—Pater.

In the system itself, taken as the scheme of a republic constructed for procuring the prosperity and security of the citizen, and for promoting the strength of the state, I confess myself unable to find out any thing which displays, in a single instance, the work of a comprehensive and disposing mind, or even the provisions of a vulgar prudence.—Burke.

(*d*) *Repetition for Emphasis*

A common fault is that of weak repetition. It should be remembered, however, that repetition, artistically employed, adds much to the emphasis of a sentence. Note the effectiveness of the following modes of repetition:

He not only rose next morning like a giant refreshed, but conducted himself like a giant refreshing.—Dickens. In this example emphasis is due in part to the position of the adjective modifiers.

Literature consists of a whole body of classics in the true sense of the word, and a classic as Sainte-Beuve defines him, is an "author who has spoken to all in a style of his own, yet a style which finds itself the style of everybody,—in a style that is at once new and antique, and is the contemporary of all the ages."—John Morley. Repetition is here justified by the importance in the passage of the concept of style.

The reason why you must avoid modern works at the beginning is simply that you are not in a position to choose among modern works. Nobody at all is quite in a position to choose among modern works. To sift the wheat from the chaff is a process that takes an exceedingly long time. Modern works have to pass before the bar of the taste of successive generations. Whereas with classics, which have been through the ordeal, almost the reverse is the case. Your taste has to pass before the bar of the classics. That is the point. If you differ with a classic it is you who are wrong and not the book. If you differ with a modern work, you may be wrong and you may be right, but no judge is authoritative enough to decide. Your taste is unformed. It needs guidance and it needs authoritative guidance. Into the business of forming literary taste faith enters. You probably will not care for a particular classic at first. If you do care for it at first, your taste so far as that classic is concerned, would be formed, and our hypothesis is that your taste is not formed. —Arnold Bennett. Here repetition serves to keep before us the important words of the paragraph,—modern works, classics, taste.

It is a trifle and not a very successful trifle.—Macaulay. The repetition of a noun with an added adjective is a useful and easy means of securing emphasis.

(*e*) *Inversion*

The Attributive Adjective Modifier after the Noun:—

Minister Plenipotentiary, God Almighty, devil incarnate, church militant, retort courteous, sum total, body politic, city beautiful,

malice aforethought, a falsehood pure and simple, the story proper, something unexpected, things temporal and things eternal, matters personal and official, no man living, a gentleman born, darkness visible, the best style possible, something great, English undefiled.

The Adjective Phrase at the Beginning of the Sentence:—

Slight indeed in themselves, these fragmentary indications become suggestive of much, when viewed in the light of such general evidence about the human imagination as is afforded by the theory of comparative mythology.—Pater.

The Adverbial Modifier at the Beginning of the Sentence:—

Three days later the King informed the house that his brother had left some debts.—Macaulay.

No sooner do I settle down to work than all the boys come trooping in.

Never shall I forget your kindness.

Seldom have I known a more straightforward fellow.

The Adverbial Modifier at the End of the Sentence:—

This is the way with him always.

75. Avoid any arrangement of your sentences which will give to words or phrases more prominence than they deserve.

I, if the weather is clear and if my mother will consent, will come.

(*Corrected*)

I will come if the weather is clear and if my mother will consent.

Soon after the Spanish-American War Congress raised our navy to second place by its appropriations.

(*Corrected*)

Soon after the Spanish-American War the appropriations of Congress advanced our navy to second place.

(*f*) *The Double Subject*

They are delightful people, those Bostonians.

It is surprising the amount of work one can do in an evening if he is not interrupted.

To fit myself to be a great engineer, this has been my chief ambition.

(*g*) *Subordination of Sentence Elements*

It is not true, as we have sometimes been told, that the most important thought of a sentence should always be put in the principal clause. On the contrary, what we wish to emphasize may be the grammatically subordinate thought. "When did you see the accused?" asks the prosecuting attorney. "I saw him when he threw the revolver out of the window," replies the witness. The question here being one of time the temporal clause obviously carries more emphasis than the principal clause. In many cases, we are not concerned with the relative importance of the two thoughts but with their relations in the given context. If I am speaking of my travels, I might properly say, *I was in London when Queen Victoria died*, without implying that my presence was more important than the death of the Queen. The sentence, indeed, raises no question of emphasis except that which concerns the combination of circumstances. Which of the two clauses we subordinate depends here more upon the context than upon considerations of emphasis. In other cases what is merely incidental would be given a subordinate position. *As I was walking down the street the other day, I saw a sight that I shall long remember*, is preferable to *I was walking down the street the other day when I saw a sight I shall long remember*. What is clearly of subsidiary interest should, of course, be placed in the subordinate clause; but it does not follow that every subordinate clause

expresses a thought that is less emphatic than that of the principal clause.

76. Make important thoughts reasonably prominent in the structure of your sentences.

They stir the top layers of the soil, thus exposing the roots of the weeds to the direct rays of the sun, which quickly kills them.

(*Corrected*)

They kill the weeds by exposing their roots to the direct rays of the sun.

In every theme of considerable length there is one thing essential to secure coherence and unity, which is called a plan.

(*Corrected*)

In every theme of considerable length a plan is essential to coherence and unity.

If war were declared to-morrow against the United States, our troops would be scattered from Maine to California, and it would take thirty days to mobilize them.

(*Corrected*)

If war were declared to-morrow against the United States, it would take thirty days to mobilize our army, now scattered from Maine to California.

I was strolling down the main thoroughfare when I saw the royal procession approaching.

(*Corrected*)

As I was strolling down the main thoroughfare, I saw the royal procession approaching.

77. Do not use the compound sentence when a better distribution of emphasis would be obtained by employing the complex form or by reducing one of the clauses to a modifying phrase.

City people enjoy the glare of the city lights and seldom give the country a chance to prove alluring.

(*Corrected*)

City people, enjoying the glare of the city lights, seldom give the country a chance to prove alluring.

78. The Participle Tag. Do not place an important thought in a loose participial phrase at the end of the sentence.

The materials for a simple kite are of course readily obtainable, consisting of three light sticks, paper, paste, and a ball of common white twine.

(*Corrected*)

The materials for a simple kite, which are of course readily obtainable, are three light sticks, paper, paste, and a ball of common white twine.

Ease in composition depends upon smoothness, variety, and euphony. We should avoid abrupt transitions, awkward repetitions, unexpected changes in point of view, and clumsy circumlocutions; we should master the English sentence so that we can avail ourselves of its flexibility by occasionally placing words and phrases out of their normal order; we should vary the familiar sentence types, and avoid harsh sound combinations; nor should we use too frequently connectives and demonstratives in passing from one sentence to another. Let us try to arrange our sentences so that the end of one will connect easily with the beginning of another. By overworking connectives we may easily lose in ease all that we gain in coherence. Let us examine two typical passages of clumsy English:—

(*a*) The old system or the aldermanic system has been practised for many years. Under this system the aldermen who constituted the governing body, are elected from the wards for a period of two years. The number of aldermen varies according to the size of the city; however, there are usually about one hundred. Under this system the individuals have less power than under the commission form, for there are only about five commissioners to about one hundred aldermen.

Note the needless repetition in this awkward passage, and the distribution over several sentences of matter which could easily have been embodied in one. The first sentence

emphasizes what is not worth mentioning. Furthermore, the thought of the principal clause in the second sentence is given undue prominence; its subordination will improve both the ease and the emphasis of the passage. In the third place, a combination of sentences three and four will make it possible to conclude the passage more effectively.

The revised passage might read:

Under the aldermanic system of municipal government, the aldermen, elected from the wards for a period of two years, constitute with the mayor the governing body. Inasmuch as a city that would elect a hundred aldermen under the old system would under the Commission Form of Government have its affairs directed by five commissioners, it is clear that the individual officeholder in the latter case would have the greater power and responsibility.

(*b*) Another important matter which has been sadly neglected is the care of the streets. There are several places where the streets need to be paved and a better drainage introduced. The streets are muddy and very untidy, and in a rainy season they are as bad as many of the country roads.

The sentence division in this passage might stand. Something should, however, be done to avoid the awkward repetition of *streets*. To employ a synonym here or there would not improve the passage appreciably; but if we place the troublesome word in a more prominent position in the first sentence, we can use pronouns in the sentences that follow. Obviously, too, the sentence structure should be varied.

Revised the passage might read as follows:—

Moreover, the streets in Champaign have been sadly neglected. In several localities they are neither paved nor properly drained. Usually muddy and untidy, they are in a rainy season as bad as many of the country roads.

79. A wordy style is not infrequently fluent, but a superfluity of words is as often due to clumsy circumlocutions.

The proper time to begin to prepare for examinations is a long time before you know the examination is to be given.

(Corrected)

We should make an early start in preparing for examinations.

80. Do not use such redundant expressions as, the reason why is . . . because; the purpose of is . . . in order to; the time was . . . when.

The reason why I am cramming is because I have not studied during the semester.

(Corrected)

I am cramming because I have not studied during the semester.

or

The reason why I am cramming is that I have not studied during the semester.

81. Do not abruptly change the point of view within the sentence.

I listened attentively, but not a sound was heard save the barking of a dog.

(Corrected)

I listened attentively but heard no sound except the barking of a dog.

While I was at Mr. Smith's house, the greatest consideration was shown me.

(Corrected)

While I was at Mr. Smith's house, I was treated with the greatest consideration.

82. Separation of words that belong together often makes a sentence awkward.

(a) Separation of Subject and Verb

He in spite of all my directions took the wrong road.

(*Corrected*)

In spite of all my directions he took the wrong road.

(b) Separation of Article and Substantive

Smoking is a not very cleanly and to many people an offensive habit.

(*Corrected*)

Smoking is a habit which is not very cleanly and which is offensive to many people.

83. The Principal Clause between Two Subordinate Clauses.

If it does not rain, we shall take a ride if you are willing.

(*Corrected*)

We shall take a ride if you are willing and if it does not rain.

84. Progressive Coördination or Subordination.

I like him but I do not care for his father, but the latter seems to be fond of me.

(*Corrected*)

I like him but I do not care for his father. The latter, however, seems to be fond of me.

He is the man who won the hundred yard dash, which is the most hotly contested of all the races.

(*Corrected*)

He is the man who won the hundred yard dash, the most hotly contested of all the races.

85. The Shifted Construction.

In order to brand a calf it must be thrown and held down while the mark is burnt on some conspicuous portion of the creature's anatomy.

(*Corrected*)

To be branded a calf must be thrown and held down while the mark is burnt on some conspicuous part of its hide.

He is a man tall for his age, who has a good physique.

(*Corrected*)

He is a man tall for his age and of good physique.

Euphony.—Euphony depends in part upon the collocation of sounds, in part upon their varying pitch and stress. Some sounds are in themselves less pleasing to the ear than others. *Cataract*, for instance, with its harsh gutturals is certainly less euphonious than *serene*, with its sibilant, liquid, and nasal. Although it is undesirable, even though it were possible, to avoid wholly the harsh sounds in the language, one should guard against amassing them unless there is something in the thought to justify the lack of euphony. Compare Tennyson's

> On the bald street breaks the blank day

with the following passage:

> Calm on the seas and silver sleep
> And waves that sway themselves in rest,
> And dead calm in that noble breast
> Which heaves but with the heaving deep.

Since the effect of the second quotation does not depend simply upon its rhyme and the regularity of its meter, some of its rhythm may be preserved in a prose version:—On the sea there is calm and silver sleep, the waves swaying themselves in rest; and there is calm too in the heart of my friend, that heaves only with the heaving waters.—Alliteration, it should be noted, is used in both of the examples, serving to emphasize in the one case euphony, in the other harshness.

Other forms of repetition are illustrated in the repeated vowel sound in heaves—deep, and waves—sway.

But prose rhythm does not depend wholly upon the collocation and repetition of musical sounds. Looked at more broadly it cannot be separated from the rhetorical form of the sentence. The more studied sentence forms, such as the balanced and periodic structures, are effective partly on account of the sentence rhythms which cannot be dissociated from them. The rise and fall of the sentence may be as easy as an ocean swell or it may be as restless as a choppy sea. The description and classification of prose rhythms is a subject attended with many difficulties; but anyone can accustom himself to the more obvious rhythms by familiarizing himself with selected passages of rhythmical prose.

Compare the following versions of Paul's First Epistle to the Corinthians:—

(a) There is one manner of glory of the sun and another glory of the moon, and another glory of the stars; for one star differeth from another in glory. So is the resurrection of the dead. The body is sown in corruption, and riseth in incorruption. It is sown in dishonor and riseth in honor; it is sown in weakness and riseth in power. It is sown a natural body and riseth a spiritual body.—Geneva Bible.

(b) There is one glory of the sun, another glory of the moon, and another glory of the stars: for one star differeth from another star in glory. So also is the resurrection of the dead. It is sown in corruption, it is raised in incorruption. It is sown in dishonor, it is raised in glory. It is sown in weakness, it is raised in power. It is sown a natural body, it is raised a spiritual body.—Authorized Version.

The rhythmical movement here is comparatively simple, but it will be observed that a distinct gain has been made in the second version by making the structure of the passage more nearly parallel. *It is sown* is set over against *it is raised*, which takes the place of *riseth* in the earlier version.

In the Greek text and the Geneva version the word *body* appears as the subject of the third sentence. Its omission in the Authorized Version has left the grammar of the passage dubious, but it has unquestionably contributed to the regularity of the rhythm. Repetition of words should also be noted. Observe, too, the omission of *manner* and the repetition of *glory* in the first sentence of the Authorized Version. Finally compare *So is the resurrection of the dead* with *So also is the resurrection of the dead.*

Out in the open air, tending their flocks by day beneath the burning sun, sleeping by night beneath the innumerable stars of those rainless skies, watching the change of seasons, the ripening of fruits, the real and apparent influence of the host of heaven, it is little to be wondered at if the Arabians, like the Chaldeans, worshipped the stars and planets, and worshipped them through idols, regarding them perhaps as inferior to God himself, but still divine.—A. C. Benson.

A good deal of the rhythmical effect here is due to the periodicity of the structure as far as the word *planets.* The looseness of the rest of the sentence serves to set off the last two words, and thus to give them more emphasis than they would otherwise have had. Note further the parallelism in the first part of the sentence.

There had been a permanent protest established in the world, a plea, a perpetual after-thought, which humanity henceforth would ever possess in reserve, against any mechanical and disheartening theory of itself and its conditions. That was a thought which relieved for him the iron outline of the horizon about him, touching it with soft light from beyond; filling the shadowy, hollow places to which he was on his way with the warmth of definite affections; confirming also certain considerations by which he seemed to link himself to the generations to come in the world he was leaving.—Pater.

The quiet beauty of this passage appears in the rhythm as well as in the phrasing. Obviously the writer has not been intent merely upon putting emphatic words in emphatic places. Though his voice is not raised, it is richly modulated. Notice particularly the passage, *touching it with soft light from beyond;* and *filling the shadowy, hollow places to which he was on his way.*

EXERCISES

I. Criticise and improve the following:—

1. Of course there are a few that really become rich but the great mass of people is suffering from the effects of the great war and it will be a great relief to humanity in general when it is over.

2. Illinois has been shown the value of being very economic concerning the food question.

3. The younger men and boys are being greatly inspired by the khaki-clad men that we see everywhere and the things they are accomplishing make the others more eager to do their very best along some line which will greatly serve their country in time of need.

4. Everywhere at the present time there seems to be a feeling of uncertainty. There have been an unusual number of marriages during the past year.

5. Prices are raised considerably and are one of the chief reasons of the high cost of living.

6. There is a large decrease in the enrollment compared to other years.

7. When he comes to college he has the advantage of a larger community, besides associating with a class of people that live for the higher ideals of life, which such a class seeking education must necessarily have.

8. Perhaps the greatest benefit derived from this war by the state of Illinois is a higher ideal of patriotism that seems to have entered the minds of the people.

9. This done, the cows are fed and milked; then the farmer proceeds to separate the milk, after which the skimmed milk is given to the hogs and the cream is put into a large can ready for market.

10. The thought of the crowd watching my initial struggle with the waters in attempting to cross the narrow river, in whose cool depths I splashed was not pleasing, but nevertheless I was determined to go, so go I did, but oh, what a time I had.

11. There should be a place for more description in a theme of this description.

12. Of course you are going to take this course.

13. In many parts of Dixie the Civil War has never ended; they distrust and almost despise a Yankee.

14. At present we are not only making airplanes for ourselves but for the allies.

15. After the desired height has been attained, proceeding at a rapid speed, one glides along as smoothly as if he were on a smooth sea, having no tendency to vertigo.

16. If this embargo were dropped, so that Japan could obtain the greatly needed steel for the building of her vessels, our vessels would be free for naval use, for Japan would do the carrying trade for us.

17. In September of that year I had the pleasure of taking the trip to Niagara for the third time in my life with father.

18. The submarine warfare in the Mediterranean has been suppressed by Japan's naval vessels and if allowed to do so, they would patrol the entire Pacific.

19. The gases which fill a mine are very numerous but two of these gases are very important; these being the white damp and the black damp.

20. This gas is very heavy and it suffocates those in its presence. The miners can generally keep this gas away from them by building a rude wall between them and the gas.

21. A student may know more about the subject than the professor realizes or he may study hard in the review and this way learn the fundamental facts of the course.

22. Regulation as to the collateral to be accepted would also be included by the proposed regulation.

23. As private banks have to make little account of their actions, they are tempted to make unsound financial deals.

24. In preparing for the final examination the student reviews the past work as a whole thereby obtaining a general idea of the entire subject.

25. When the instructor has finished reading the examination papers he is in a position to tell just how much of the desired knowledge has been retained by the student.

II. Explain the effectiveness of the following sentences:—

1. An address set down in cold print is likely to prove an unsatisfactory lusk at best. 2. His memory and observation of afternoon teas past is stimulated by afternoon teas to come. 4. Granted that I become a finished tea-goer, easy of speech, nodding, laughing, secure in the graceful manipulation of my tea things, never upsetting my tea, never putting my sandwich in the way of an articulation, yet is all of this experience of no use whatever to me except at other afternoon teas. 5. Matthew Arnold, careful, cool, and scholarly, held decided opinions on the poetic art. 6. It goes hard then with many once popular reputations, with many authorities once oracular.—Arnold. 7. They are in the field and we should help them in every way to be effective there.—Woodrow Wilson. 8. We are glad, now that we see the facts with no veil of false pretense about them, to fight thus for the ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German people included.—Woodrow Wilson. 9. Both parties deprecated war; but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive; and the other would accept war rather than let it perish.—Lincoln. 10. The French are at once not at all proud of themselves and very proud. 11. American chivalry, a strong article and equal to anything Europe ever produced, clings passionately and persistently to its inward vision.—Agnes Repplier. 12. At a distance he is admired; but bring him hand to hand, he is a cripple.—Emerson. 13. Dante was very bad company and was never invited to dinner.—Emerson.

APPENDIX A

THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

The Verb—To Help

INFINITIVE

Active voice	*Passive voice*
Present	*Present*
To help	To be helped
Perfect	*Perfect*
To have helped	To have been helped

PARTICIPLE

Present	*Present*
Helping [1]	Being helped
	Past
	Helped
Perfect	*Perfect*
Having helped	Having been helped

PRESENT TENSE

Singular

1. I help	1. I am helped
2. You help	2. You are helped
3. He helps	3. He is helped

[1] Progressive forms (I am helping, I had been helping, etc.) are formed by combining the present participle with the different parts of the verb *to be*.

Plural

1. We help
2. You help
3. They help

1. We are helped
2. You are helped
3. They are helped

Past Tense

Singular

1. I helped
2. You helped
3. He helped

1. I was helped
2. You were helped
3. He was helped

Plural

1. We helped
2. You helped
3. They helped

1. We were helped
2. You were helped
3. They were helped

Future

Singular

1. I shall help
2. You will help
3. He will help

1. I shall be helped
2. You will be helped.
3. He will be helped

Plural

1. We shall help
2. You will help
3. They will help

1. We shall be helped
2. You will be helped
3. They will be helped

Perfect

Singular

1. I have helped
2. You have helped
3. He has helped

1. I have been helped
2. You have been helped
3. He has been helped

Plural

1. We have helped
2. You have helped
3. They have helped

1. We have been helped
2. You have been helped
3. They have been helped

Future Perfect

Singular

1. I shall have helped
2. You will have helped
3. He will have helped

1. I shall have been helped
2. You will have been helped
3. He will have been helped

Plural

1. We shall have helped
2. You will have helped
3. They will have helped

1. We shall have been helped
2. You will have been helped
3. They will have been helped

Pluperfect

Singular

1. I had helped
2. You had helped
3. He had helped

1. I had been helped
2. You had been helped
3. He had helped

Plural

1. We had helped
2. You had helped
3. They had helped

1. We had been helped
2. You had been helped
3. They had been helped

Subjunctive

Present

Singular

1. If I help
2. If you help
3. If he help

1. If I be helped
2. If you be helped
3. If he be helped

Plural

1. If we help
2. If you help
3. If they help

1. If we be helped
2. If you be helped
3. If they be helped

PAST

Singular

1. If I helped
2. If you helped
3. If he helped

1. If I were helped
2. If you were helped
3. If he were helped

Plural

1. If we helped
2. If you helped
3. If they helped

1. If we were helped
2. If you were helped
3. If they were helped

PERFECT

Singular

1. If I have helped
2. If you have helped
3. If he have helped

1. If I have been helped
2. If you have been helped
3. If he have been helped

Plural

1. If we have helped
2. If you have helped
3. If they have helped

1. If we have been helped
2. If you have been helped
3. If they have been helped

PLUPERFECT

Singular

1. If I had helped
2. If you had helped
3. If he had helped

1. If I had been helped
2. If you had been helped
3. If he had been helped

Plural

1. If we had helped	1. If we had been helped
2. If you had helped	2. If you had been helped
3. If they had helped	3. If they had been helped

Imperative

Help	Be helped

APPENDIX B

PUNCTUATION

The fundamental reason for punctuation is that it facilitates an understanding of the sentence. It helps us to set off word groups which should be recognized as logical or grammatical units. Sometimes faulty punctuation results in momentary confusion of thought or even a total misunderstanding of the sentence. It should be admitted, however, that not all uses of punctuation can be defended as aids to understanding; some of these are merely conventional.

(*a*) *Period*

86. The period should be placed at the end of every sentence that is not interrogatory or emphatically exclamatory.

Observe. A man and a woman, with their children, properly trained, are able easily to cultivate as much ground as will feed them, and to spin and weave as much cloth as will clothe them.—Emerson.

87. The period is ordinarily placed after abbreviations, *e. g.*, Mr.; P. S.; D. D. Note that the best typographical usage places the period after cent. in per cent.; but observe that it is omitted after chemical symbols and the "format" of books (HO, 8vo), after MS (manuscript), and frequently after certain abbreviations not popularly used, *e. g.*, OHG (Old High German), IE (Indo-European), PMLA (Publications of the Modern Language Association).

88. Do not place a period after your signature; for example, at the close of a letter.

89. Do not place a period after the title of a composition.

(*b*) *Colon*

90. Within the sentence the colon is most widely used to introduce a series of clauses, a long quotation, or a formal statement. It is much less frequently employed to separate two clauses, the second of which restates the substance of the first; or to separate two groups of clauses, one or both of which contain a semicolon. The former of these two uses has now been in general taken over by the semicolon; the latter, by the period.

Nay, a question arises on us here, wherein the whole German reading public will eagerly join: Whether man can any longer be so interested by the spoken word as he often was in those primeval days, when, rapt away by its inscrutable power, he pronounced it, in such dialect as he had, to be transcendental (to transcend all measure), to be sacred, prophetic and the inspiration of a god?—Carlyle.

In the scene that precedes, Caithness informs us with satisfying particularity that the tyrant has lost his self-control:

Some say he's mad. Others, that lesser hate him,
Do call it valiant fury.—Kittredge.

Regarding physiological science then, in its widest sense—as the equivalent of Biology—the science of individual life—we have to consider in succession:

1. Its position and scope as a branch of knowledge.
2. Its value as a means of mental discipline.
3. Its worth as poetical information.

And lastly,

4. At what period it may best be made a branch of education.—Huxley.

If we will make bread we must have contagion, yeast, emptyings, or what not, to induce fermentation into the dough: as the torpid artist seeks inspiration at any cost, by virtue or by vice, by friend or by fiend, by prayer or by wine.—Emerson.

Of all earth's meteors, here at least is the most strange and consoling: That this ennobled lemur, this hair crowned bubble of the

dust, this inheritor of a few years and sorrows, should yet deny himself his rare delights, and add to his frequent pains, and live for an ideal, however misconceived.—Stevenson.

(c) *Semicolon*

91. The semicolon, as its name suggests, is a less emphatic mark of punctuation than the colon. On the other hand, it is more emphatic than the comma. It is used to set off the larger word groups in a series, particularly if the enumeration is formal or if the members of the series themselves contain commas. The semicolon is also usually placed before conjunctive adverbs, or between clauses which, though clearly related in thought, are not connected by a conjunction or a conjunctive adverb.

She was ecstatically blissful; she was deeply ashamed.—Bennett.

As eleemosynary, they are the creatures of the founder; he may delegate his power either generally or specially; he may prescribe particular modes and manners, as to the exercise of part of it.—Webster.

Cranmer became Primate; Shaxton, a favourer of the new changes, was raised to the see of Salisbury; Barlow, a yet more extreme partizan, to that of St. David's; Hilsey to that of Rochester; Goodrich to that of Ely; Fox to that of Hereford.—Green.

The poem has vigour and freshness; it is not without pathos.—Arnold.

It did not burn him so much now; still he licked his fingers from a sort of habit.—Lamb.

(d) *Comma*

92. The comma marks a pause less emphatic than that marked by the semicolon. It is used to separate words which might otherwise be improperly associated.

I urge you to go away, for a vacation at this season of the year is a good investment.

It is placed between similar or identical words.

Is, is a word with an interesting history.

It is placed between words or short word groups in a series.

Engineer, broker, jurist, physician, moralist, theologian, and every man, inasmuch as he has any science, is a definer and map-maker of the latitudes and longitudes of our condition.—Emerson.

There are empty chairs, solitary walks, and single beds at night.—Stevenson.

And the criticism of life will be of power in proportion as the poetry conveying it is excellent rather than inferior, sound rather than unsound or half sound, true rather than untrue or half-true.—Matthew Arnold.

Give me to know, to utter, and to argue freely according to conscience, above all liberties.—Milton.

93. It is placed before the conjunction connecting long co-ordinate clauses or phrases.

But it was a singular want of judgment, an ignorance of the very principles of composition, which induced Brutus, Calvus, Sallust, and others to imitate this terse and severe beauty in their own defective language, and even to pronounce the opposite kind of diction deficient in taste and purity.—Newman.

Now, the time of life when a man will become a grandfather is something to be considered long beforehand, and you had better begin to consider it now.—Eliot.

94. It is placed after dependent clauses that precede the principal clause, and before dependent clauses that are not closely connected with the preceding principal clause.

If this please God, let it be as it is.—Jeremy Taylor.

If they were unacquainted with the works of philosophers and poets, they were deeply read in the oracles of God.—Macaulay.

No generous youth can escape this charm of reality in the book, so that it is highly stimulating to intellect and courage.—Emerson.

95. It is placed before non-restrictive adjective clauses and phrases.

But there cannot indeed live a more unhappy creature than an ill-natured old man, who is neither capable of receiving pleasures, nor sensible of doing them to others.—Sir William Temple.

96. Use commas to set off the word or phrase of address, and passages that are appositional or parenthetical. When the passage is long, dashes or parenthesis marks are preferable to commas.

And over against Amanda at her dinner party sat Sir Sidney Umber, one of those men who know that their judgments are quoted.—Wells.

And now, Brothers of the Oratory, I have come to the end of a somewhat uninteresting, but a necessary discussion.—Newman.

Your cross-country runner scorns the highway, but that is because he has confidence in his legs and loins, and he likes to take the fences.—Bliss Perry.

97. Such connectives as *then, therefore, however, nevertheless, to be sure, at all events, at any rate, in any case, furthermore, in fact,* are followed by commas when they stand at the beginning of the clause or sentence; within the clause or sentence they are preceded and followed by commas.—Exceptions to this rule are made where the connection between the word and phrase and the rest of the sentence is so close as to make a pause seem forced.

The chalk, then, is certainly older than the boulder clay.—Huxley.

It is time, therefore, to tell him by the authority of Shakespeare, that he assumes as an unquestionable principle, a position which, while his breath is forming it into words, his understanding pronounces to be false.—Johnson.

Here then was the extreme of self-government carried out; and the State was intensely free.—Newman.

98. Participial phrases are set off by commas.

On leaving Wilton House, we took the coach for Salisbury.—Emerson.

But being in the fault, she has the misfortune of greatness to be held as the chief offender.—Emerson.

99. A comma is used to mark the omission of a word or words easily supplied from the context.

Pindar calls him the dream of a shadow: another, the dream of the shadow of smoke.—Sir Thomas Browne.

(*e*) *Dash*

100. The dash is used to set off word groups that interrupt the structural continuity of the sentence; to set off a series of particulars when such expressions as *namely* or *for example* have been omitted; to introduce after a long list of particulars a summarizing clause; to set off numbers marking the limits of a period of time or indicating the limiting pages of a reference; to mark an emphatic pause.

Many—how many cannot be said—found protection in their castles.—Froude.

The mere matter of a picture—the actual circumstances of an event, the actual topography of a landscape—should be nothing without the form, the spirit of the handling.—Pater.

Don't tell any one—not yet.
She's—she's dear to me.

(*f*) *Parenthesis Marks*

101. In general the comma or the dash is to be preferred to parenthesis marks for setting off parenthetical word groups. The parenthesis marks are, however, useful for enclosing a parenthesis within a parenthesis, and to set off certain explanatory words or phrases.

The knowledge (*gnôsis*, superrational instruction) of this truth is wisdom and morality.

(g) *Brackets*

102. Brackets are now chiefly used to enclose whatever—letter, number, word, phrase, clause, or sentence—has been introduced into a quoted or edited text, as an interpolation or rectification.

That was his [life's] limit.

(h) *Question Mark*

103. The question mark follows an interrogation or is placed in parenthesis marks after a word or number about which doubt is entertained.

Well, what in the name of Plutus is it you want?
Chaucer was born in 1340 (?) and died in 1400.

(i) *Exclamation Point*

104. The exclamation point is used only after emphatic exclamations.

O, the vast, gloomy, solitary Golgotha, and Mill of Death!—Carlyle.

(j) *Quotation Marks*

105. Quotation marks enclose all matter reproduced verbatim. A quotation within a quotation is enclosed in single quotation marks. When, according to a not uncommon practice, single marks enclose the larger quotation, double marks set off the quotation within the quotation. Quotation marks enclose further: the titles of pictures, of serial publications, of subdivisions of books, etc.; words not in ordinary usage, such as slang or technical terms; words specially cited in definitions and translations.[1]

[1] Titles are often italicized instead of being enclosed in quotation marks. Italicize, too, foreign words and phrases and expressions which carry special emphasis. Words to be italicized are underlined in manuscript.

106. Note that the period, the semicolon, and the comma are always placed within the quotation marks; the colon, question mark, and exclamation mark only when they are a part of the quotation.

The counsel of the committee said in a public address in December, 1911,—

'If it is expected that any Congressional or other investigation will explore the existence of a "Money Trust," in the sense in which we use the word "trust," as applied to unlawful industrial combinations, that expectation will not be realized.'—Atlantic Monthly.

The "Calumny," which Mr. Horne dates in 1494, epitomizes the early and the late Botticelli.—Mather.

These costumes lasted long, and they took in the long run but little from the Marshall exchequer: for she wore them seldom, only assuming what her husband called, with a laugh, her "disguise" when going into town.—Canfield.

Although he does seem to share the hope universally cherished by Americans that we shall, in spite of grave national defects, "win out" in the end, he has nevertheless, in direct and unadorned statements, pointed out our faults.

The *Religio Medici* was not designed for publication.

No man did more to correct the vicious taste of the preceding age in theatrical declamation than he did, so far, indeed, as to change the mode almost entirely, yet this was not his *principal* excellence, and he knew it.

Rien ne rêussit mieux que le succès. And we Americans are tainted with this insanity, as our bankruptcies and our reckless politics may show.

EXERCISES

I. Punctuate the following:—

1. For example Mr W R Gregg in his Rocks Ahead or Warnings of Cassandra said If ever England is reduced to import her fuel from America or China the day of her manufacturing prosperity to say nothing of her supremacy the matter now in question will have set forever.

2. Thou hast drawn together all the star stretched greatness all the pride cruelty and ambition of man and covered it all over with these two narrow words Hic jacet.

3. The Century Company announces for publication in the near future the following volumes The Firefly of France by Marion Polk Angelotti Battering the Boche by Preston Gibson The Woman Voters Manual by S E Forman and Marjorie Shuler with an introduction by Carrie Chapman Catt and America after the War by an American Jurist who prefers to remain anonymous.

4. At the first call to the American people for books there came a huge supply of miscellaneous ammunition contributions which cleared the attics and storerooms of many homes but which complicated the problem of the camp librarian on sentry duty at the library door halt what book goes there he asked.

5. Cheer up my Ernest at the thought that you are not alone in the world.

6. At the moment it was unreal to think of Wilson in the White House across the river Lincoln was nearer and more familiar.

7. His poet was Corneille his heroes were the Catholic Saints or even the Jansenists with their purity and obstinacy his Socialist was Proud'hon because Proud'hon built society on love but the love of one woman but neither Proud'hon nor the Catholic doctrine of sacrifice nor the idealism of Corneille was likely to appeal to the modern man and transform his idealism.

8. In short the magic of the hand is almost absent from these sketches they are in a manner ill done and supremely inapproachably lovely.

APPENDIX C

CAPITALIZATION

Capitalize—

107. Proper nouns and the adjectives derived from them:

Holland, Dutch, Rome, Latin, Germany, German.

108. In designations of places (countries, districts, streets, etc.), organizations, historical periods, and important events, the generic as well as the specific words.

Prince Edward's Island, Fifth Avenue, American Committee for Relief in the Near East, War of the Spanish Succession, the Age of Elizabeth.

N. B. Designations of sections of the country are capitalized but preferably not the adjectives derived from them. For example: the North, the South, the East, the West; but northern industries, the southern farms.

109. Designations of God and the other members of the Christian Trinity are capitalized, but not pronouns which clearly refer to the Supreme Being.

The Almighty, Father, Son, Holy Ghost.

110. The first word of each sentence, of each line of poetry, and of each summarization or complete quotation not directly dependent upon what precedes.

Never forget this: "Honesty is the best policy." You should never forget that "honesty is the best policy." In conclusion, I wish to emphasize the following: First, the Monroe Doctrine is designed to . . . .

111. Titles of persons:

Lord Charnwood; Dr. Smith; the Right Reverend Arthur B. Johnson; Samuel Smiles, A. M., Ph. D.; Queen Elizabeth.

112. The principal words in titles of poems, articles, books, etc.:

The Mill on the Floss, The Lay of the Last Minstrel, The Glory of the Imperfect.

The article should be capitalized when it belongs to the title of the book, the poem, or the article. In citing newspapers and magazines one should preferably exclude the article from the title, *e. g.*, the *Springfield Republican*, the *Nation*, the *Unpopular Review*.

113. The exclamation O (Oh) and the pronoun I.

INDEX

Accent, 59
Adjective, 72ff.; used as adverbs, 83; predicate adjective, 75; idiomatic uses, 75
Adverb, 74ff.; used as adjectives, 74f.
Agreement, logical agreement, 112ff.; subject and verb, 92, 93; pronoun and antecedent, 87, 88
Antecedent, inconspicuous, 110; ambiguous, 111; singular connected by *or* or *nor*, 88
Apostrophe, 69ff.

Brackets, 144
Building, 17

Can and may, 96
Capitalization, 147ff.
Clauses, principal between two subordinate clauses, 125; substantive without *that*, 71; restrictive and non-restrictive, 73; adjective, 72f.; adverbial, 76f.; of result, 77; of manner, 77; of degree, 77; of concession, 77f.; of cause, 78f.; of condition, 79
Clearness, 108ff.
Colloquialisms, 34
Colon, 139f.
Comma, 140f.
Conjugation, 133f.
Conjunction, 101ff.
Contrary to fact conditions, 93
Coördination, 101ff.; progressive, 125

Dash, 143
Degree, comparative and superlative 74
Derivations of words, 3ff.
Deterioration of words, 7

Emphasis, 114ff.
Errors, common, in use of words, 38ff.
Etymology, 6ff.
Euphemism, 14
Euphony, 126ff.
Exclamation point, 144

Foreign element in English vocabulary, 4ff.
Foreign words, 33

Generalization of words, 13
Gerund, 87
Good use, 32ff.
Grammar, 63ff.

Indo-Germanic, 6
Inflection, 7, 90
Intrusive sounds, 61

Meanings of words, 13ff.

Noun, 66ff.; foreign plurals, 70f.; collective, 92f.; omitted, 75

Object, of verb, 86; of preposition, 86
Obsolete words, 33

Omissions, 108ff.; of necessary demonstrative, 88; omitted sounds, 60

Parenthesis, 143f.
Participle Tag, 121
Period, 138
Phrases, adverbial, 76; adjective, 72; at beginning of sentence, 118; prepositional, 72
Point of view changed, 124
Predicate substantive after copula verb, 85, 96
Prefixes, Latin, 7ff.; Greek, 11f.
Preposition, 99ff.
Pronouns, 85ff.; demonstrative omitted, 109
Pronunciation, 59ff.; list of words commonly mispronounced, 61ff.
Provincialisms, 34
Punctuation, 138ff.

Question mark, 144
Quotation marks, 144ff.

Redundance, 110, 124
Root, 7

Semantics, 13, note
Semicolon, 140
Sentences, climactic, 115; balanced, 114f.; periodic, 115f.
Separation of subject and verb, 125
Separation of article and substantive, 125
Shall and will, 95
Shifted construction, 125f.
Sound substitution, 60
Specialization of words, 13
Spelling, 52ff.
Split infinitive, 84
Stem, 7
Subordination, 119f.
Suffix, 7
Synonyms, 16ff.

Than, case after, 86
The one, the ðnes, 88

Unity, 113

Verb, 90ff.; past tense, 94; voice, 90; transitive and intransitive verbs, 91; mood, 90; subjunctive, 93; finite and non-finite verbs, 91; weak and strong verbs, 91; tense, 90, 94, 95; number, 90; voice, 95; person, 90
Verbosity, 124

Words, etymology, 4ff.; prefixes, 7ff.; changes in word meaning, 13ff.; good use, 32ff.; foreign words, 33; abstract and concrete words, 34ff.; common errors, 38ff.; list of, commonly mispronounced, 61ff.