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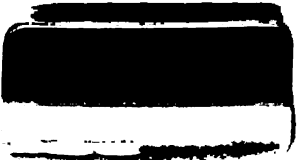
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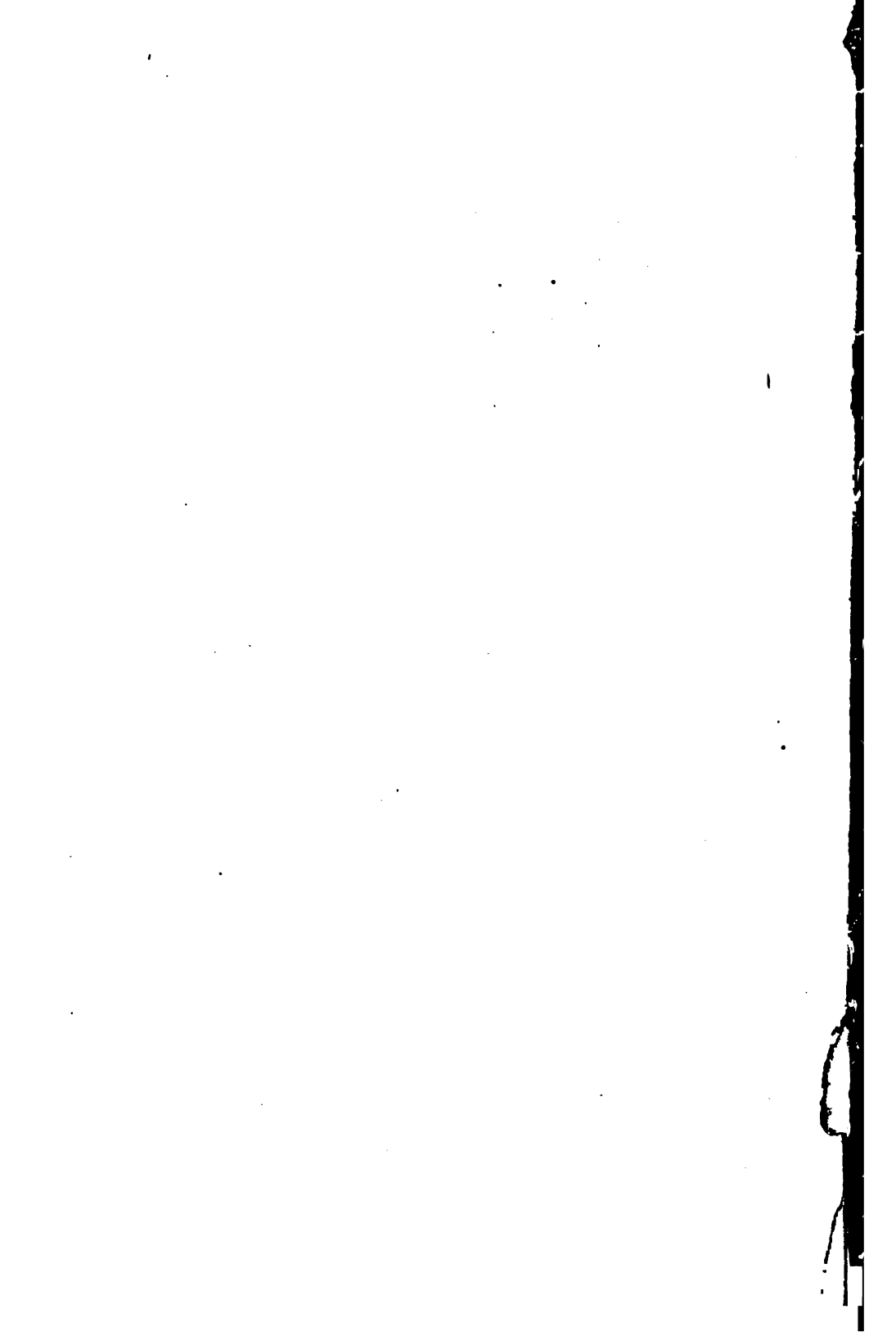


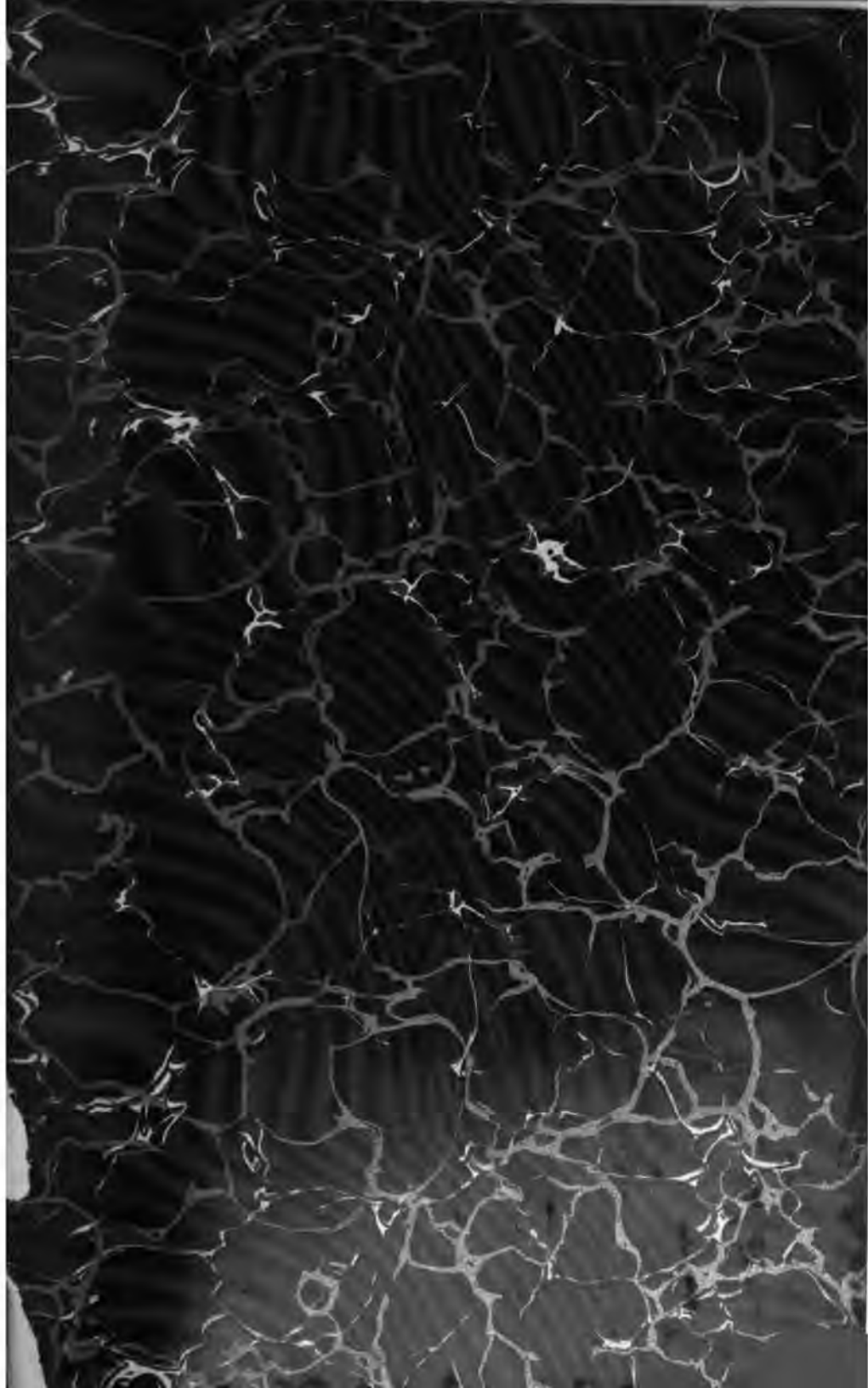


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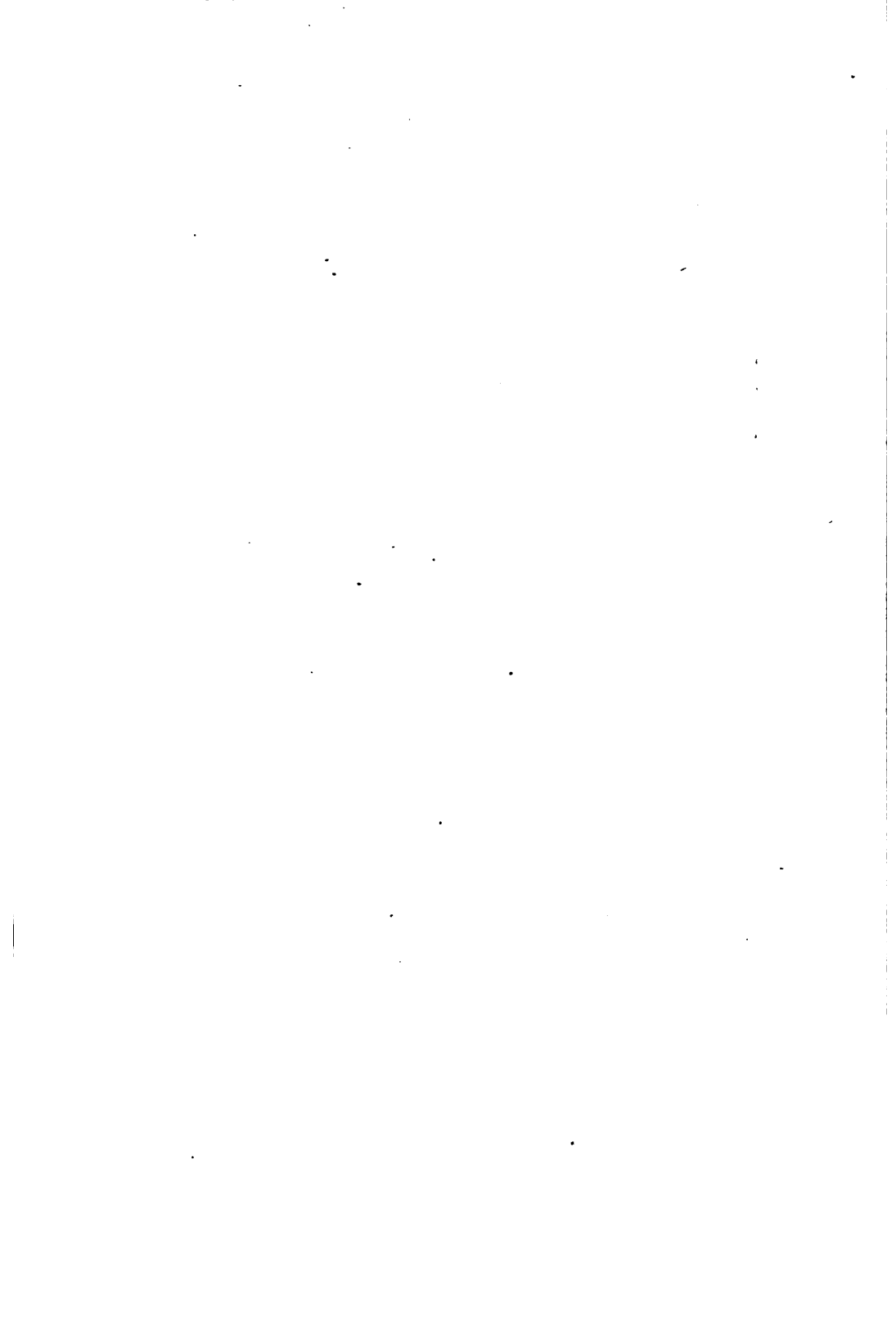
















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## PREFACE

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The International Library of Technology is the outgrowth of a large and increasing demand that has arisen for the Reference Libraries of the International Correspondence Schools on the part of those who are not students of the Schools. As the volumes composing this Library are all printed from the same plates used in printing the Reference Libraries above mentioned, a few words are necessary regarding the scope and purpose of the instruction imparted to the students of—and the class of students taught by—these Schools, in order to afford a clear understanding of their salient and unique features.

The only requirement for admission to any of the courses offered by the International Correspondence Schools, is that the applicant shall be able to read the English language and to write it sufficiently well to make his written answers to the questions asked him intelligible. Each course is complete in itself, and no textbooks are required other than those prepared by the Schools for the particular course selected. The students themselves are from every class, trade, and profession and from every country; they are, almost without exception, busily engaged in some vocation, and can spare but little time for study, and that usually outside of their regular working hours. The information desired is such as can be immediately applied in practice, so that the student may be enabled to exchange his present vocation for a more congenial one, or to rise to a higher level in the one he now pursues. Furthermore, he wishes to obtain a good working knowledge of the subjects treated in the shortest time and in the most direct manner possible.

In meeting these requirements, we have produced a set of books that in many respects, and particularly in the general plan followed, are absolutely unique. In the majority of subjects treated the knowledge of mathematics required is limited to the simplest principles of arithmetic and mensuration, and in no case is any greater knowledge of mathematics needed than the simplest elementary principles of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, with a thorough, practical acquaintance with the use of the logarithmic table. To effect this result, derivations of rules and formulas are omitted, but thorough and complete instructions are given regarding how, when, and under what circumstances any particular rule, formula, or process should be applied; and whenever possible one or more examples, such as would be likely to arise in actual practice—together with their solutions—are given to illustrate and explain its application.

In preparing these textbooks, it has been our constant endeavor to view the matter from the student's standpoint, and to try and anticipate everything that would cause him trouble. The utmost pains have been taken to avoid and correct any and all ambiguous expressions—both those due to faulty rhetoric and those due to insufficiency of statement or explanation. As the best way to make a statement, explanation, or description clear, is to give a picture or a diagram in connection with it, illustrations have been used almost without limit. The illustrations have in all cases been adapted to the requirements of the text, and projections and sections or outline, partially shaded, or full-shaded perspectives, have been used, according to which will best produce the desired results. Half-tones have been used rather sparingly, except in those cases where the general effect is desired rather than the actual details.

It is obvious that books prepared along the lines mentioned must not only be clear and concise beyond anything heretofore attempted, but they must also possess unequalled value for reference purposes. They not only give the maximum of information in a minimum space, but this information is so ingeniously arranged and correlated, and the

indexes are so full and complete, that it can at once be made available to the reader. The numerous examples and explanatory remarks, together with the absence of long demonstrations and abstruse mathematical calculations, are of great assistance in helping one to select the proper formula, method, or process and in teaching him how and when it should be used.

The question whether or not a volume containing our treatises on English grammar and faulty diction, punctuation, and letter writing should be added to the International Library of Technology is one that has received most careful consideration and has been decided in the affirmative. These treatises were written for the student who is not in touch with a teacher. The objects to be realized, therefore, were that they should be so presented as to be easily understood and easily applied; that the subject of grammar especially, which is ordinarily so unattractive and difficult, should be divested of its dulness and be made an instrument of practical use. The grammar includes a treatise on faulty diction, in which nearly every species of error in composition is illustrated and the method of avoiding or correcting it is explained. This section on faulty diction, taken in connection with the punctuation and capitalization, so enlarges the scope of the grammar as to make with it a very satisfactory Course in grammar, composition, and rhetoric. The volume concludes with Letter Writing, which is, perhaps, the best practical treatise on the subject in print. We consider the volume, as a whole, to be one of the most useful of reference books, and one which engineers, business men, and others can consult regarding any difficulties arising when writing or speaking the English language.

The method of numbering the pages, cuts, articles, etc. is such that each subject or part, when the subject is divided into two or more parts, is complete in itself; hence, in order to make the index intelligible, it was necessary to give each subject or part a number. This number is placed at the top of each page, on the headline, opposite the page number, and to distinguish it from the page number it is preceded by

the printer's section mark (§). Consequently, a reference such as § 16, page 26, will be readily found by looking along the inside edges of the headlines until § 16 is found, and then through § 16 until page 26 is found.

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# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 1)

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## INTRODUCTION

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### LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

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#### LANGUAGE

1. The word *language* comes from the Latin word *lingua*, meaning "the tongue." Ages ago, the only language used by man was spoken, but in course of time, need arose for some means by which thought could be recorded and preserved. This need slowly led to better and better forms of writing, and centuries later to printing.

At first, writing was a mere succession of rude pictures, called *hieroglyphics*. Later, letters were invented. Most of those letters were, at first, imitations of the pictures that had been used in the earliest efforts to record thought. These letters represented sounds, and when placed together in certain ways, they formed *words*. When the sound represented by each letter in a word was known, the word could be spoken or *pronounced*; and if words were arranged together in certain orders, they could be made to represent the thoughts of men. When words are so arranged, we have *written* or *printed language*, and when pronounced in the order in which they are arranged, we have *spoken language*.

**Definition.**—*Language is the body of uttered and written signs used by man to express thought.*

2. **Letters and Words.**—A letter may be regarded as the visible symbol of a sound, and a written or printed word

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does for the eye exactly what a spoken word does for the ear. Consider what happens when the ear hears a spoken word, or the eye sees one that is written or printed. Suppose that the word *horse* is heard or seen. At once something like a pictured horse is formed in the mind; this mental picture or image is called an **idea**—a word that means “an appearance” or “a thing seen.”

These mind pictures of things that we see often, such as cat, dog, boy, house, moon, seem almost as real to us as the things themselves. Not every word, however, whose meaning and uses we know causes so clear a mental picture as do the names of things familiar to us, yet every word produces some effect in the mind, and this effect is called an idea.

**Definition.**—*A letter is the symbol or representation of an oral sound.*

**Definition.**—*A word is the symbol or representation of an idea or mental image.*

**3. Definition of Sentence.**—When words are arranged in proper order, and when all the words that are needed to make a complete meaning are taken together, we have a *sentence*. In a properly constructed sentence, the mental pictures or ideas expressed by its words follow in a kind of procession, and form a complete *thought*. A sentence is, therefore, the symbol of a thought, just as a word is the symbol of an idea.

**Definition.**—*A sentence is a collection of spoken or written words so arranged as to express a thought or a complete meaning.*

Or, putting the definition in a form to correspond with the definitions of letter and word, we have the following:

**Definition.**—*A sentence is the oral or written symbol of a thought or a complete meaning.*

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#### GRAMMAR

**4.** When a person undertakes the study of any subject, it is important that he should know exactly what the subject is about—what it is. The study or science called *English Grammar* really includes everything that is known

about English letters, words, and sentences. But no grammar contains all this information; most of it is found in books having other names—spellers, dictionaries, etymologies, rhetorics, etc.

**Definition.**—*English Grammar is the science that treats of the correct use of the English language, oral and written.*

**5. Divisions of English Grammar.**—The subject of the grammar of our language was formerly divided into four general heads:

1. *Orthography*: the grammar of letters, spelling, and pronunciation.

2. *Etymology*: the grammar of words—their origin, history, composition, and the changes or modifications in form and use that they undergo.

3. *Syntax*: the grammar of the sentence—its forms, varieties, and the dependence and relation among themselves of the parts that compose the sentence, as well as the arrangement of those parts.

4. *Prosody*: the grammar of verse, including everything relating to poetical composition.

**6. Unit of Thought in Grammar.**—Every subject has some central point of interest—some object or matter of consideration that is of higher importance than any other and to which everything else is secondary. Thus, in orthography the word is the central idea; in geography it is man—where he is, his surroundings, his wants and how they are supplied; everything belonging to the science gets its importance from its relation to the central figure, man. So in grammar there must be some leading idea or unit of greatest interest and importance. What is it? Let us consider.

In orthography and etymology it is the word that fixes the attention. But these divisions of grammar are only preparatory to the study of a very much more important branch of the subject—syntax, the science of the sentence. Grammar deals primarily with thought and the forms in which thought is expressed by speech and writing. It is true that words are necessary to the expression of thought; but about words

there is nothing fixed or constant. The words we use have been divided into classes, and although there are in the English language nearly or quite 250,000 words, they have all been placed in eight classes. Now, there are many thousands of words that cannot be classified until it is known what office or function they perform in particular sentences. The same word may be used in several different ways, and it will then belong in as many different grammatical classes. Consider the word *school* in the following sentence:

When in *school* you should *school* yourself to obey the *school* teacher.

The word *school* is here, first the name of a place or building; secondly, it denotes action; and in its third use, it describes—tells what kind of a teacher is meant. For each different use or function, the word belongs in a different grammatical class.

It is clear, then, that words cannot be grouped in classes or studied in relation to one another until they take their places in sentences. It is in the sentence, therefore, that words perform the functions for which they were devised; it is in the sentence that they have their usefulness, their interest, and their full significance. They are the materials of which men construct the wonderful edifice of thought. The sentence is, therefore, the unit of thought in grammar.

**7. The Domain of Grammar.**—The principal function of grammar, therefore, is to investigate the sentence. This includes the consideration of its nature, varieties, forms, the parts of which it is made up, the relations of these parts to one another, and the laws and principles by which the correct forms of sentences are regulated.

Sentences combined give the many varieties of composition in prose and poetry. The various questions arising with reference to the best possible construction of these combinations of sentences are discussed in other branches of grammar, such as Composition, Rhetoric, Philology, and Linguistics in general. The student should carefully note that, in the sense in which the word grammar is here employed, the science deals mainly with the sentence.

## THE SENTENCE

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### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO USE

**8. The Arrangement of Words.**—There are two ways in which words may be arranged:

1. *Independently*, or *out of relation* to one another.
2. *Dependently*, or *in relation* to one another.

Thus, we may utter or write a number of words so that they shall convey no thought:

the the of in its lays some nest bird cuckoo other one egg

Here, whatever meaning the words may have separately, they are all used independently, just as much so as a column of words in a spelling book. They are entirely *out of relation*; that is, the meaning of no word has any influence on that of any other. They do not help one another to express a thought.

Let us now place them *in relation*; that is, so that each one shall do its share in expressing a thought.

The cuckoo lays its one egg in the nest of some other bird.

The words used here are the same as those above, but the result is different. The words are now in relation, and they have a meaning, not only individually, but collectively. They are joined in such a way as to express a thought, and the thought is complete. Words, therefore, are arranged *in relation* when by their union they help one another to express some meaning different from any of the meanings expressed by the words taken separately.

---

### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Arrange the following words in such order that each group will express a thought, and will be therefore a correct sentence:

- (a) The one of of the is rose flowers loveliest
- (b) August 5 telegram the Atlantic first the ocean was sent 1858 across
- (c) May 24 to the the Bridge public was opened Brooklyn 1883

(d) Albany from New York arrived 1809 first the August 9 steamboat at

(e) You exactly the when century tell twentieth can began?

(f) More beautiful in spring in the fall the are colors than trees of the

(g) To sing birds rose the the all sun began when

**9. Words Implied or Understood.**—Sentences sometimes seem to consist of but one word; as, *Look. Come.* The student will observe that these words express action. Now, it is clear that every such word requires us to think of an *actor*, although the word denoting the actor is not expressed. Words not expressed, which are necessary to the completeness of a thought, are said to be *understood*. If, in the one-word sentences just given, every necessary word were expressed, the sentences would be, *You look. You come.*

In order, therefore, that a sentence may express a complete thought, it must consist of words arranged in proper relation; and that this shall be possible, at least two words are required. Of these two words, one may be understood, but it must be clearly implied.

**10. Different Uses or Functions of Sentences.**—In the communication of thought among men, there are only three different uses or purposes that are served by sentences:

1. *To Make a Statement or Declaration.*—If a person has some knowledge or information that he wishes to convey to others; that is, if he wishes to tell something, he makes use of a form of sentence called a *statement* or *declaration*.

The earth and the moon are both spherical.

An honorable boy is likely to become an honorable man.

I slept and dreamed that life is beauty;

I woke and found that life is duty.

2. *To Ask a Question.*—A person may desire some information that he believes another person can furnish. In order to obtain it, he employs a form of sentence called a *question* or *interrogation*.

Does every man really meet his Waterloo at last?

Is it possible to obtain too much of a good thing?

Are you always able to say no when you ought to say no?

3. *To Express a Command or an Earnest Wish or Entreaty.*

A person may wish to impose his will on others, or to have it known that he has a strong desire that something shall or shall not be or be done. To accomplish this object he expresses his thought so as to indicate that it is a command or a wish.

Study your lessons.

Do not abandon me here to my enemies.

Pity the sorrows of a poor old man.

Sentences, then, may be used *to tell or declare, to inquire or question, and to command or entreat.*

**11. Sentences Defined With Respect to Use.**—The fact that there are three ways in which sentences are used has led grammarians to divide sentences with respect to use into three great classes:

**Definition.**—*A declarative sentence is a sentence used to tell or declare something.*

**Definition.**—*An interrogative sentence is a sentence used to ask a question.*

**Definition.**—*An imperative sentence is a sentence used to express a command, a wish, or an earnest entreaty.*

---

**EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE**

Write sentences as directed below:

- (a) Five declarative sentences.
- (b) Five interrogative sentences.
- (c) Five imperative sentences.

---

**12. Exclamatory Sentences.**—The thought expressed in a sentence may be so mingled with strong feeling or emotion of some kind as to give the sentence an appearance of serving an entirely different use from those described above. Thus, a person may make a statement, ask a question, or express a command under the influence of such earnestness, anger, sorrow, or other emotion that the sentence



becomes an *exclamation*. But feeling in uttered thought does not change a statement, a question, or a command into something else, for the emotion affects the sentence only in the manner of utterance. The use made of the sentence is still the same.

Some grammarians, however, have divided sentences with respect to their use into four kinds—the fourth being the exclamatory sentence. Others have given them double names; as, exclamatory-declarative, exclamatory-interrogative, and exclamatory-imperative. Others again have taken no account of the feeling expressed, and have classified sentences only as expressing thought.

This last is clearly the best; for a sentence shows feeling not so much by the words composing it as by the manner in which they are uttered. But the manner of utterance is dependent entirely on circumstances. A printed sentence becomes exclamatory only when the manner and tones of the person that reads it betray emotion. Moreover, there is nothing constant about the extent or degree in which this exclamatory quality of sentences is indicated by their utterance. For example, every variety of excitement may be shown in speaking such sentences as the following:

The Kremlin is on fire, sire.

Do you imagine that I will submit to such extortion?

Leave the city and the country at once.

But in whatever manner these sentences are uttered, they are still respectively a statement, a question, and a command.

### **13. Punctuation and Capitalization of Sentences.**

Besides the words that compose sentences, certain points, or marks of punctuation, are necessary. These points, or marks, are just as necessary to the completeness of a sentence as the words are. If a sentence is very long, one or more of these marks of punctuation may be needed within the body of the sentence to separate some of its parts from one another; but whether it be long or short, some kind of point must be placed at its end. One of the

following three marks of punctuation should be used at the end of every sentence:

The *period* (.)

The *mark of interrogation* (?)

The *mark of exclamation* (!)

Every sentence, whether long or short, must begin with a capital letter.

**14. Rules for Punctuating Sentences.**—The following rules should be carefully observed in punctuating at the end of sentences:

**Rule.**—*Place a period at the end of every declarative and every imperative sentence, unless it is very strongly exclamatory.*

**Rule.**—*Place a mark of Interrogation at the end of every question unless it is very strongly exclamatory.*

**Rule.**—*Place a mark of exclamation at the end of every sentence intended to be uttered with very strong emotion.*

There is a growing practice of using a period or a question mark at the ends of sentences, and of avoiding the mark of exclamation as much as possible. When there is doubt concerning what mark should be used, the student must decide for himself.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Of the following twelve sentences, four are declarative, four interrogative, and four imperative. Copy and punctuate them properly and write "Dec." after the declarative sentences and "Imp." after the imperative sentences.

- (a) Please do not forget the teacher's advice
- (b) A white tiger was recently killed in India
- (c) Should a man ever forget the mother that loved him so well
- (d) In your dealings with others always observe the Golden Rule
- (e) I wonder whether the expedition to the south pole will ever return
- (f) Will there be a total eclipse of the sun in 1920
- (g) Remember always to chide with kindness the erring
- (h) How many miles wide is the Amazon at its mouth
- (i) If you would have your secrets kept you must keep them yourself

- (j) Why should the spirit of mortal be proud  
 (k) Trust in the Lord but keep your powder dry  
 (l) Perhaps no one will ever know what became of Andrée the explorer

2. Copy and punctuate the following exclamatory sentences and tell which are declarative, which imperative, and which interrogative:

- (a) O where shall rest be found  
 (b) Strike for the green graves of your sires  
 (c) My very soul in deep disgust is stirred  
 (d) Up guards and at them  
 (e) How glad I am that we escaped with our lives  
 (f) You should be very much ashamed of yourself sir  
 (g) Is thy servant a dog that he should do this thing  
 (h) How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood

3. Write two declarative, two interrogative, and two imperative sentences.

4. Write two exclamatory-declarative sentences, two exclamatory-imperative sentences, and two exclamatory-interrogative sentences. Punctuate them properly.

5. Write two sentences that must be punctuated with marks of exclamation.

6. Write two exclamatory sentences that do not require marks of exclamation.

7. Write two declarative sentences and then change them into interrogative sentences by merely rearranging the words. Thus, A good soldier will always do his duty. Will a good soldier always do his duty?

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## SENTENTIAL ELEMENTS

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### SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

**15. Essential Parts of a Sentence.**—We may say of nearly everything that it is capable of being or doing something or other; or, we may deny that it has any such power.

Thus, of the things denoted by the words *the earth* and *the boy*, many things may be stated.

*The earth* {  
 is round.  
 turns on its axis.  
 is the abode of man.  
 is lighted by the sun.

*The boy* {  
 is not studious.  
 loved his teacher.  
 can swim.  
 will not come.

These are declarative sentences; by some slight and easy changes they may be made interrogative.

Is	}	<i>the earth</i>	{	round?
Does				turn on its axis?
Is				the abode of man?
Is				lighted by the sun?
Is	}	<i>the boy</i>	{	not studious?
Did				love his teacher?
Can				swim?
Will				not come?

In the imperative sentence, words are used in such way as to denote that some person or thing is ordered or entreated to do or be, or not to do or be, something or other.

(*You*) Be quiet. (*You*) Do not go. (*You*) Give the poor fellow some food.

In each of the sentences given above there are two parts. The part printed in Italics represents something that is capable of being or doing something or other; the part printed in Roman type tells what this being or action is. As long as these parts stand alone, they represent only ideas, or groups of related ideas that declare, ask, or command nothing completely; but when they are properly joined they express thoughts—they form sentences.

The first of these parts, when used in a sentence, is the *subject* of the sentence; the second part is the *predicate*.

In the declarative and interrogative sentences given above, the subjects are *the earth* and *the boy*; *you*, understood, is the subject of the imperative sentences. The predicates in all the sentences are in Roman type.

**16. Subject and Predicate.**—It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to give a perfect definition of these two necessary parts of every sentence, because there are several kinds of sentences, and the functions of the subject and the predicate are not the same in all. The definitions usually given refer only to the declarative sentence, and while, in different grammars, they are nearly all slightly different, they are in substance about as follows:

**Definition.**—*The subject of a declarative sentence is the word or words denoting that of which something is affirmed or denied.*

**Definition.**—*The predicate of a declarative sentence is the word or words denoting what is affirmed or denied of that which the subject denotes.*

Although it is impossible to give faultless definitions of subject and predicate, the student may learn to recognize them without difficulty; and that, after all, is the important matter. The subject and predicate of a sentence are called its **principal parts**.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. As shown in (a), copy and underscore the subjects of the following declarative sentences and doubly underscore the predicates:

- |                               |                               |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (a) <u>Dogs</u> <u>bark</u> . | (f) Clothing protects.        |
| (b) Water freezes.            | (g) Spring will come.         |
| (c) Birds sing.               | (h) Flowers have bloomed.     |
| (d) Boys study.               | (i) Men have been killed.     |
| (e) Horses neigh.             | (j) Parents should be obeyed. |

2. Copy the sentences given below; underscore the subjects and doubly underscore the predicates as in the example above. Supply the missing subjects of imperative sentences.

- |                          |                           |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| (a) Listen.              | (g) Is honesty practiced? |
| (b) Do you hear?         | (h) Were you instructed?  |
| (c) Does time fly?       | (i) Could they come?      |
| (d) Make haste.          | (j) May we be seen?       |
| (e) Has war begun?       | (k) Has he been elected?  |
| (f) Can Jupiter be seen? | (l) Should he have gone?  |

**17. Questions, Exclamations, and Inverted Sentences.**—It is sometimes not easy to pick out the principal parts—the subject and predicate—of interrogative, inverted, and exclamatory sentences. But if the question or the exclamation be changed into a statement, and if the inverted sentence be restored to the regular order, the difficulty will disappear. How this is done is shown below:

Is the lion the king of beasts?

Changing this sentence to the declarative form, the subject is easily seen to be the part in Italics; thus,

*The lion* is the king of beasts.

Again,

How sweetly the birds are singing!

*The birds* are singing how sweetly.

How quiet and beautiful is the night!

*The night* is how quiet and beautiful.

Bright shone the light over fair women and brave men.

*The light* shone bright over fair women and brave men.

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#### EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE

Change into the interrogative form the first ten sentences in Examples for Practice following Art. 16; then enclose the subject in marks of parenthesis and the predicate in brackets.

**Model.**—*Déclarative.*—Years pass. *Interrogative.*—[Do] (years) [pass?]

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**18. What Modifiers Are and What They Do in Sentences.**—The words *modify*, *modifier*, and *modification* are so much used in grammar that the student should understand their exact meaning. These terms all contain the Latin word *modus*, “a measure.” We may conclude, then, that they all have in them some idea of measuring, not as grain is measured, but as thought is measured.

When we hear a class name like *animal*, there comes to us at once a mental picture or idea of a vast unmeasured class that includes every creature, dead or living, or yet to live. Now join to the name a measuring word—a modifier—such as *four-footed*. Consider what has happened to our idea or mental picture. An immense number of animals are shut out, and the class is much smaller and more definite. Let us add another modifier, say *grass-eating*. Again the class is reduced. All animals that eat flesh are now shut out from the class of four-footed grass-eating animals. Thus, each added modifier reduces the measure of the class, and we may continue adding modifiers until the animal meant is separated from every other in the great class of animals.

**Definition.**—A *modifier* is any word or expression used with another word to narrow its application and to denote its meaning more exactly—to reduce or lessen the measure or extent in which its sense is to be taken.

MODIFIERS	MODIFIED WORD	MODIFIERS
Red Large red Large, red, sweet Very large, red, sweet	} <b>apples</b>	{ for cooking. { from a tree in the orchard. { bought in the market. { that you gave me yesterday.

Other words besides class names may take modifiers. Thus, with *glad* or *sour* we may use *very*, *extremely*, *moderately*, *always*, *too*, *never*, and many others.

So, also, a person may swim well, fast, slowly, in the ocean, up stream, for life, when he goes to the seashore, if the day is pleasant, etc.

**19. The Modified Subject.**—In speaking or writing, we usually employ more than one word to denote the subject of a sentence. Descriptive words are added, so that the thing denoted by the subject may not be mistaken for something else. As has been explained, these added words are called *modifiers*. Without modifiers, the subject is *simple* or *unmodified*; or more briefly, it is the *subject*. With the modifiers, the subject is called the *entire* or *modified subject*. For example, modifiers such as those shown below, might be used with such subjects as *boy* and *horse*.

The, my, a, good, studious, bright, diligent	} <i>boy</i> learns	That, his, our, the grocer's black, sorrel, young	} <i>horse</i> runs
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With these modifiers we can form such sentences as the following:

The diligent studious boy learns.  
 The grocer's young sorrel horse runs.

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Copy the following sentences, and as shown in (a) below, enclose the simple subject in marks of parenthesis and underscore the modifiers of the subject:

- (a) A studious (boy) will succeed.  
 (b) A beautiful black horse neighs.  
 (c) My pretty little blue-eyed sister is calling.  
 (d) Will the far-off icy pole ever be reached?  
 (e) Can an idle, careless, uneducated man succeed?  
 (f) A gentle, loving, little fairy came.  
 (g) A beautiful, high-stepping, black horse led the herd.  
 (h) A large piece of buttered bread made his breakfast.

**20. The Modified Predicate.**—By means of modifiers, the predicate of a sentence may be made to denote differences of many kinds in what it declares or asks or commands concerning the subject. When such modifying words are added, we have the *entire* or *modified predicate*; without them, there remains only the *simple predicate*, or more briefly the *predicate*.

These modifiers denote *time*, *place*, *manner*, *direction*, and various other circumstances.

A bird <i>flies</i> {	swiftly gracefully today now	We should <i>study</i> {	diligently faithfully frequently systematically
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## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Copy the following sentences; underscore modifiers of the predicate, and decide what each modifier denotes, whether time, place, manner, etc.; enclose the simple predicate in brackets and the simple subject in marks of parenthesis.

- (a) Pronounce your words distinctly and correctly.  
 (b) Never speak angrily or hastily.  
 (c) My book lay here yesterday.  
 (d) Do you now know clearly and precisely my meaning?  
 (e) He frequently strokes the cat's fur gently and lovingly.  
 (f) Gayly and sweetly sang the little bird today.  
 (g) You should act promptly, wisely, and firmly.  
 (h) Yesterday a vicious dog attacked me fiercely and suddenly.  
 (i) When and why do you leave us?  
 (j) Where will you go tomorrow?



2. Copy the following sentences, and as in (a) below, enclose the simple subjects in parentheses and the simple predicates in brackets. Then underscore the modifiers of the subjects and overscore the modifiers of the predicates.

- (a) [Will] the beautiful (birds) [return] to us again in the spring?
- (b) Many dark clouds of threatening appearance gathered along the mountain.
- (c) Did you ever read about the Sleeping Beauty?
- (d) All the idle boys of the village roamed about with Rip Van Winkle.
- (e) Great quantities of gold have been found in Alaska.
- (f) The natural fear of children is greatly increased by ghost stories.
- (g) How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood.
- (h) The President of the United States will certainly come to the city tomorrow in the morning.
- (i) At last her pretty pleasure boat was seen far away at sea.
- (j) The two windows on the west peeped down between the willow branches into the orchard.

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## CLASSES OF WORDS

**21. Eight Parts of Speech.**—All the words in our language are included in eight classes called **parts of speech**. These classes of words correspond to the eight ways in which words are used in expressing thought. The class in which a word belongs cannot generally be known until that word is actually used in a sentence. Even then we can know only what part of speech the word is in that particular sentence, for it may be used in some other way the next time we meet it. One of the chief things that the student must learn to do quickly and with certainty is to tell what each word does in the sentences he studies—to determine its use or *function*. When he has rightly decided this in the case of any word, he can be sure in which one of the eight classes the word belongs; that is, he can say what part of speech the word is. It is this necessity for constantly and carefully discriminating the functions of words—what they do and how they are related—that makes the study of grammar so valuable a means of mental discipline.

## THE NOUN

**22. Function of the Noun.**—We cannot look in any direction without seeing things that have names. All words that are used as the names of things are called *nouns*. Some names of things that we can see are *sky, tree, house, star, boy*. Some other things we learn about by touching, or feeling; as, *coldness, heat, air, weight, warmth, dampness*. The sense of hearing enables us to learn about other things that have names; as, *music, laughter, conversation, singing, speech*. In like manner, by tasting and smelling we become acquainted with *sweetness, bitterness, fragrance, odor*, and many other things.

Besides the thousands of things that we may learn about by using our eyes and our other senses, there is a multitude of things that we cannot touch or hear or see; we find out about them by thinking. Some examples are *truth, honor, love, kindness, hatred*.

Most nouns consist of but one word, but many others are made up of two or more words taken together; as, *railroad, steamboat, sky-rocket, paper-weight*. Indeed, any collection of two or more words that can be used as the subject of a sentence may be regarded as a noun, for it is the name of something. Thus, in the following sentences the expressions in Italics are used as nouns:

- Sawing wood* made him tired.
- To have tried and failed* was no disgrace.
- Why he went* was a great mystery.
- To do one's duty* is sometimes not easy.

**Definition.**—*A noun is any word or expression used as the name of something, and capable of being the subject of a sentence.*

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Make lists of nouns as follows:
  - (a) Five names of things good for food.
  - (b) Five names of trees.
  - (c) Five names of tools used by workmen.
  - (d) Five names of flowers.
  - (e) Five names of animals.

- (f) Five names of parts of the human body.
- (g) Five names of parts of a house.
- (h) Five names of objects that you have seen on the dinner table.
- (i) Five subjects that are studied in school.
- (j) Five names of trades or occupations.
2. Write two sentences, each of which shall contain three nouns.
3. Write sentences, each of which shall contain three of the following words used as nouns: wagon, window, watch, lesson, honesty, snow, milk, sky, city, patience, life, sport, village, light, crowd, difficulty, success, fort.
4. Make a list of the thirty-five nouns in the following sentences:
- (a) Some animals sleep all through the winter in a tree or a cave and wake up in the warm days of spring.
- (b) Kind hearts are more than coronets.
- (c) I see the lights of the village gleam through the rain and mist,  
And a feeling of sadness comes o'er me that my soul cannot resist;  
A feeling of sadness and longing that is not akin to pain,  
And resembles sorrow only as the mist resembles the rain.
- (d) We should not lose courage from failure, nor should success be followed by boasting; for life is too short for any kind of fortune to have long continuance.
- (e) Laziness goes so slowly in the race of life that poverty is sure to be ahead long before the end is reached.
5. Write a list of the fifty-two nouns to be found in the following selections:
- (a) Great thoughts, like great deeds, need no trumpet.
- (b) The truth, the real life and sunshine, lay far out in regions beyond the horizon.
- (c) Tell me not, in mournful numbers, life is but an empty dream.
- (d) That divine unrest, that old stinging trouble of humanity, that makes all high achievement and all miserable failure, inspired and supported these barbarians on their perilous march.
- (e) "They are worlds like ours," said the young man; "and some of the least sparkles that you see are not only worlds, but whole clusters of worlds turning about one another in the midst of space. In them is perhaps the answer to all our difficulties or the cure of all our sufferings; and yet we can never reach them; not all the skill and craft of men can fit out a ship for the nearest of these our neighbors, nor would the life of the most aged suffice for such a journey."
- (f) "I am a natural law," the visitor replied, "and people call me Death. I am a physician; the best healer that ever was, for I cure both mind and body with the same prescription. I take away all pain and forgive all sins, and where my patients have gone wrong in life, I smooth out all complications and set them free again upon their feet."

### THE PRONOUN

**23. Function of the Pronoun.**—Little children just learning to speak refer to themselves and to others whom they know by using nouns:

Katy's mama is a good mama.

Katy's mama gave Katy a penny.

Speaking of strangers they use *boy, girl, lady, gentleman*, and they repeat the names of things as often as the objects are referred to:

The lady gave Katy an apple.

The apple was on a tree by the lady's house.

But children soon learn the use of certain words that take the place of nouns, such as *I, we, he, it, they*, etc. These are called *pronouns*, a word that means "for nouns." Pronouns enable us to avoid the awkward and frequent repetition of nouns. With their help we can talk to persons, and about persons and things without knowing their names. Thus, meeting a stranger, we may say:

Will *you* be good enough to tell *me* whether *I* am in time for the train?

*I* do not see *it*, and *they* told *me* at home that *you* would inform *me* when *it* leaves.

If the student should make the experiment of using nouns instead of these little words that take their place, he would see how serviceable pronouns are.

**Definition.**—*A pronoun is a word used to denote persons or things without naming them.*

**24. The Antecedent of a Pronoun.**—The antecedent of a pronoun is the word for which the pronoun stands or to which it refers:

Mary said to her brother that she would help him with his lessons if he would help her with hers.

Here *Mary* is the antecedent of *her, she, and hers*; while *brother* is the antecedent of *him, his, and he*.

The word *antecedent* means "going before." The word referred to by a pronoun usually comes in the sentence before the pronoun does. In asking questions, however, the pronoun is generally found in the question and the antecedent in the answer following.

Who is he? He is the doctor.  
 What is that? That is an orange.  
 Which is the prettier? The violet.

Here *doctor* is the antecedent of *who* and *he*, *orange*, the antecedent of *what* and *that*, and *violet* is the antecedent of *which*.

Some pronouns denote the *speaker*; as, *I, we, me, us*; some denote the person *spoken to*, or addressed; as, *you, thou, thee, yours*; but most of the pronouns are used to denote that which is *spoken of*; as, *he, him, she, her, it, they, them, who, which*, etc.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Improve the following sentences by substituting pronouns for nouns used awkwardly and write the amended sentences:

(a) Harvey saw Harvey's sister fall into the river, and Harvey saved Harvey's sister from drowning.

**Model.**—Harvey saw his sister fall into the river, and he saved her from drowning.

(b) Mary hurt Mary while Mary was jumping Mary's rope.

(c) Susie and Susie's brother took Susie's and Susie's brother's skates to school.

(d) My sister was sewing and my sister pierced my sister's finger with the needle.

(e) Louis said, "Give Louis Louis's ball and bat."

(f) The children ate the children's lunch under a tree that threw the tree's pleasant shade over the children.

(g) The teacher complained to Willie's mother that Willie's lessons were neglected although Willie had been asked to study Willie's lessons.

2. Write a list of the pronouns and their antecedents in the following sentences:

(a) "I'm not so haughty as you," said a violet to a daffodil, "but many people tell me that they think me prettier and sweeter than you."

(b) "How selfish you are," said the ox to the dog; "you will not eat the hay yourself, nor will you permit me to eat it."

(c) The sun did his very best to make the sea as bright as it wanted to be.

(d) Narcissus was a beautiful youth. He dearly loved to stand on the bank and admire himself as he appeared in the image reflected from the mirror-like surface of the water. Venus saw him, and in her anger she changed him into a flower condemned always to stand, just as he was then standing, and admire his own beauty.

(e) Volcanoes get their name from Vulcan, who was fabled to have his forge far down among the roots of the mountain. Here, with a cyclops to help him, he forged the thunderbolts used by Jove when he wished to smite the earth.

(f) "Where are you going, my pretty maid?"

"I'm going a-milking, sir," she said.

(g) There lies the sea as flat as my hand and as innocent as a child; but they say that when the wind blows it gets up into water mountains bigger than any of ours, and it swallows down great ships bigger than our mill, and makes such a roaring that you can hear it miles away on the land.

(h) They told me that they saw the fair girl sitting in a boat with its head pointed toward the falls, and that as she drifted past her lover watching her from the cliffs, she waved her hand to him and smiled.

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### THE VERB

**25. Function of the Verb.**—In our language, the most important class of words is the *verb*; for without this part of speech, no statement or question or command can be fully expressed. Every sentence must contain at least one verb. The noun names things about which statements may be made or questions asked, but nothing can be stated or asked about things without the help of a verb. Thus, *stars, birds, John*, are names, but they tell us nothing. Now, if suitable verbs are used with them, thoughts are expressed—sentences are formed.

Stars shine. Birds can fly. Will John come?

Such expressions as *shine, can fly, will come*, when they are used in forming complete sentences, are verbs.

**26. Meaning of Predication.**—Grammarians say that the verb *predicates* being or action of the person or thing named by the subject of the sentence. The word *predicate* comes from a Latin word that means "to say" or "tell,"

“to declare in public.” But as predicate and predication are used in grammar, they mean much more than this. The fact is that there is much need of a word that has all of the following meanings: to assert, to deny, to question, to command, to wish, to entreat; for the verb is the chief word in sentences that express all these forms of thought. The following are examples:

*To assert:* John runs. Birds were singing. We did go.  
*To deny:* Mary did not go. We have not been walking.  
*To question:* Have you seen him? When did the boys go?  
*To command:* Study your lessons. Sit erect at your desk.  
*To wish:* Would he were here. May he soon succeed.  
*To entreat:* O, do not be so cruel! Forgive the poor fellow!

All the different uses of the verb in these sentences are expressed by the one word *predication*. Of course the Latin word from which predicate is derived does not have all these meanings; but as the word is used in grammar, it must be understood to have them all.

**Definition.**—*A verb is the predicating word or words in a sentence.*

**27. Verb Phrases.**—The simple or unmodified predicate may consist of one word, or of as many as four words. When the verb or predicate contains two words or more, it is called a **verb phrase**. The following are some examples of sentences in which the predicates are verb phrases:

The fire *will not burn*.                      *May* he not soon go?  
 He *might be killed*.                      *You had not been suspected*.  
 The child *should not have been punished*.

#### • EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Copy the following sentences; then underscore the subjects and doubly underscore the verbs.

- (a) Did the teacher accept your excuse?
- (b) Better things might have been expected of so sensible a boy.
- (c) In three days, the city will fall into our hands.
- (d) The mists on the banks of Newfoundland are caused by the warm waters of the Gulf Stream.
- (e) No army so large had ever before been assembled.

- (*f*) White light may be separated into a band of different colors.  
 (*g*) A ship had long been seen on the horizon.  
 (*h*) An honest man may be benefited by the advice of a knave.  
 (*i*) Was ever a man so abused before?  
 (*j*) I will, with patience, hear your story.  
 2. As in the model, fill each of the blanks with three suitable verbs.  
 (*a*) A small boy . . . down the hill.

**Model.**—A small boy  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ran} \\ \text{coasted} \\ \text{walked} \end{array} \right\}$  down the hill.

- (*b*) The general . . . the soldier for bravery.  
 (*c*) The teacher . . . the work of the pupil.  
 (*d*) Beautiful flowers . . . in the meadows.  
 (*e*) Mary . . . at school until her brother . . . his lessons.  
 (*f*) The children . . . their teacher very much indeed.  
 (*g*) The kitten . . . on the rug until Susie . . .  
 (*h*) The policeman . . . by the mayor of the city.  
 3. Construct sentences containing the following used as verbs:  
 (*a*) Send, comes, surprise, loved, wander, wonder  
 (*b*) Believed, saw, delayed, lingered, hurried, stayed, went  
 (*c*) Will repay, has depended, were relieved, can promise, have gone  
 (*d*) Has been tried, will be rescued, should have obeyed, may have sailed  
 (*e*) Should have been presented, might have been expected, could have been seen, will have been finished, may be trusted

### THE ADJECTIVE

**28. Function of the Adjective.**—When the noun *apple* is used, it may mean any apple whatever. But it is often necessary to indicate some particular apple as the one meant. This may sometimes be done by pointing to it, touching it, or by some similar act. This, however, is not often convenient and cannot be done at all in writing; but the thing intended can be pointed out easily and exactly by means of language. This is done by joining to the name of the thing meant, words that describe it in some way—that tell some quality it has. Thus, apples may be described by the use of such words as *sweet, large, red, pretty*; their number may be indicated by *many, several, some, six*; and we may do something very much like pointing to an object by using *this, that, these, those, the, yonder*.



When words are used for this purpose—to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun—they are *adjectives*. The word originally meant “thrown near,” and this part of speech is so named because it is usually placed beside the noun:

*sour* apples, *happy* children, *several* days, *the* boy, *an* egg

Sometimes, however, the adjective stands at some distance from the noun or pronoun to which it belongs.

*The* APPLE is extremely *sour*.

MARY sat in the shade of a beautiful tree, *happy* and *contented*.

Even in such cases, it is easy to decide with which nouns or pronouns the adjective modifiers belong.

Most adjectives denote *qualities*. Thus, an *honest* boy is a boy that has the quality of honesty; a *strong* man is a man that has the quality of strength. Adjectives that denote qualities are called *qualifying adjectives*.

Many adjectives are used to denote the material of which an object is made. Some examples are:

a *gold* watch, a *leather* apron, a *cotton* dress, a *silver* spoon

**Definition.**—*An adjective is a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.*

**29. Compound Adjectives.**—Adjectives are often composed of two or more words joined by hyphens.

*Sweet-scented* flowers, *rosy-fingered* morning, a *never-to-be-forgotten* event.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. As shown in the model below, write in sentences each of the following words, preceded by two or more adjectives.

**Model.**—*Rain*—A *cool refreshing* rain fell in the evening.

tree, wind, flower, time, ocean, health, grove, storm, road, rest, forest, soldier, stream, dog, day, house, picture, business, cloud, bird, work, city, orange, fortune.

2. Copy each sentence following, and then underscore the adjectives and doubly underscore the words they modify.

**Model.**—(a) My father brought twelve beautiful sweet oranges from the city market.

(b) The arbutus is a fragrant delicate flower that blooms during the early days of spring.

(c) A beautiful butterfly spread its wide fragile wings in the golden sunlight.

(d) Once there lived in the bottom of the deep dark sea a beautiful goddess whose home was a wonderful silver palace.

(e) A cunning fox stole up to a lazy careless goose one still dark night and found her in a deep dreamless slumber.

(f) The whirling snowflakes covered with a soft white blanket the saddening nakedness of the autumn landscape.

### THE ADVERB

**30. First Function of Adverbs.**—The word *adverb* means "to a verb" (*ad*, "to"). This part of speech is so named because it is usually placed near the verb. Its use as a modifier of a verb is to denote *when, where, why, or in what manner* the action expressed by the verb takes place. The adverb does for a verb exactly what the adjective does for a noun or a pronoun—modifies its meaning. Thus,

ADJECTIVES		ADVERBS	
hasty	}	He spoke	
agreeable			}
pleasant			
	speech	agreeably	
		pleasantly	

Besides showing the time, the place, the cause, or the manner of an action, the adverb may denote any one of a great many circumstances relating to the action. Whenever we find in a sentence any word that modifies a verb, any word that makes us know more exactly the manner in which the action was performed, we may be sure that the word is an adverb. The following are examples of adverbs that modify the meaning of verbs, which is the first and most important function of this part of speech:

The clock runs	}	quietly	When	are you going?
		regularly	Where	
		always	Why	
		slowly	How	

**31. Second Function of Adverbs.**—Adjectives are mostly words that denote qualities. There are numerous degrees of most qualities, and in order to denote these

different degrees, adverbs are joined to the adjective so as to show in what measure or degree the quality is to be understood. Thus, different degrees of goodness among *good boys* might be indicated by using with the adjective *good* various *adverbs of degree*, such as *very*, *extremely*, *quite*, and many others. We should then have expressions like the following, in which the meaning of the adjective is modified by the adverb that precedes it:

VERY *good* boys, EXTREMELY *good* boys, REMARKABLY *good* boys

This is the second function of adverbs—to modify the meaning of adjectives. The following are additional illustrations:

The banker was	}	rich	The apple is	}	sour
	moderately comfortably independently exceedingly surprisingly			(too, quite somewhat slightly decidedly extremely)	

**32. Third Function of Adverbs.**—Adverbs are sometimes used to modify the meaning of other adverbs. Not many adverbs are used in this way; a few of the most common are *so*, *too*, *not*, *just*, *almost*, *most*, *very*, *more*, *less*, *quite*.

SO *nearly* done, ALMOST *completely* open, SOMEWHAT *sourly* told, NOT *entirely* happy, QUITE *recently* arrived, VERY *prettilly* said

**Definition.**—*An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

**33. Phrase Adverbs.**—There are many adverbial expressions consisting of two or more words that are called **phrase adverbs**; these are easily recognized from the use made of them in sentences. Some examples are the following: *by and by*, *sooner or later*, *time and again*, *far and near*, *to and fro*, *backward and forward*, *again and again*.

The end will come *sooner or later*.

*Time and again* he was reprimanded for misconduct.

The italicized phrases in these sentences are phrase adverbs denoting time. Such expressions should be treated as if they consisted of but one word.

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Write a list of the adverbs used in the following sentences, and tell what each adverb modifies:

- (a) The rain fell steadily and heavily yesterday.
- (b) Why should one man judge another hastily or harshly?
- (c) Speak slowly and distinctly, and you will be more easily understood.
- (d) "Do your work neatly and carefully," the teacher always said.
- (e) I never before saw a rainbow quite so brilliant.
- (f) Why did you go there, and where had you worked before?
- (g) He walked much faster than I, but I was not so very much outstripped.
- (h) When we go to the beach I sometimes find very great pleasure in collecting the exquisitely beautiful shells.

2. Write five sentences in each of which two or more of the following words shall be used as adverbs: once, then, sooner, brightly, sometime, presently, never, thus, early, lightly, otherwise, everywhere, ever, most, lately, steadily, afterwards, somehow, soon, rather, yonder, strongly, eastwards, occasionally, always, forward, nowhere, perhaps, probably, frequently.

3. Write sentences in which shall occur the following words used as adverbs: rightly, gladly, kindly, openly, frequently, occasionally, sweetly, gleefully, gracefully, beautifully, neatly.

4. Use in sentences the following words as adverbs: entirely, often, when, where, how, why, however, whence, whither, so, as, very, quite, almost.

5. Use the following as adverbs: today, tomorrow, yesterday, forever, one by one, in groups, side by side, back and forth, up and down, now and then, by and by, as soon as possible.

6. Construct five sentences in which adverbs modify adjectives, and five in which adverbs modify adverbs.

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 THE PREPOSITION

**34. Word Bridges.**—Words may stand together without bearing to one another any relation in meaning—without helping one another to become useful in expressing thought. The words in a list for spelling are of this kind; they are without connection or relation in meaning.

But words may be so arranged that, if their meanings are suited to one another, they seem to belong together. They form what may be called a compound idea, and without rearrangement may enter a sentence as one of its elements.

This is the case when suitable modifiers are joined to nouns, adjectives, or adverbs; as, *good boy*, *very sorry*, *quite soon*.

Again, ideas may seem to be so widely separated—so unlike—that nothing could ever bring into relation the words denoting these ideas. Yet they may often be joined and brought into relation by means of a kind of *word bridge* between them. Examples of this are shown below:

A palace	}	<table style="border: none;"> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">by</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">above</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">under</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">over</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">near</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">across</td></tr> </table>	by	above	under	over	near	across	the sea	Write	}	<table style="border: none;"> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">about</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">concerning</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">to</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">against</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">for</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding: 0 5px;">among</td></tr> </table>	about	concerning	to	against	for	among	the Indians
by																			
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against																			
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These word bridges are called *prepositions*. They are so named because they are nearly always placed before (*pre*, before) the noun or pronoun to which they connect some preceding word. The work done in sentences by prepositions is twofold: (1) they connect words; (2) they bring words into relation.

The preposition, with the noun or pronoun joined to it, forms a *prepositional phrase*. The noun or the pronoun in a prepositional phrase is called the *object* of the preposition.

Phrases of this kind are used as modifiers, just as if they were adjectives or adverbs consisting of only one word. Thus, in the expressions *a silk dress* and *a dress of silk*, *silk* and *of silk* are both adjective modifiers of the noun *dress*. Again, in *Examine with care* and *Examine carefully*, the verb *examine* is modified in meaning both by the adverb *carefully* and by the prepositional phrase *with care*. The functions of these two modifiers are the same—they are both adverbial in the work they do.

The number of prepositions is considerably less than one hundred, but they form a very useful class of words. Indeed, it is not easy to see how we could get along without them, for some of the shortest of them, such as, *to*, *for*, *in*, *with*, *from*, *by*, *at*, *on*, *of*, occur in nearly every sentence.

**Definition.**—*A preposition is a word used to connect words and bring them into relation.*

Just as adverbs sometimes consist of two or more words used as one word, so also do prepositions. In the following, the expressions in *Italics* are phrase prepositions:

The Gospel *according to* St. Mark; done *in spite of* opposition; respected *in proportion to* his wealth; acted *with respect to* his interests; decided *in accordance with* the evidence.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. By several suitable prepositions establish a relationship in meaning between each of the following: rode . . . the forest, sailed . . . the ocean, spoke . . . him, died . . . sunrise, acted . . . the enemy, lived . . . the sea.

2. Find prepositional phrase modifiers of the following words used as adjectives: hopeful, polite, disobedient, confident, courageous, revengeful, faithful, sorry, smooth, sad.

**Model.**—Every father should be *HOPEFUL of the success* of his children.

3. Construct ten sentences in each of which appear two nouns connected by a preposition.

**Model.**—My sister gave me a *book of poems*.

4. Construct sentences containing the following used correctly as prepositions: from, before, against, below, under, around, opposite, toward, within, without.

5. Make a list of the prepositional phrases contained in the following stanzas:

Tears, idle tears, I know not what they mean,  
Tears from the depth of some divine despair  
Rise in the heart, and gather to the eyes,  
In looking on the happy autumn fields,  
And thinking of the days that are no more.

Fresh as the first beam glittering on a sail  
That brings our friends up from the under world,  
Sad as the last which reddens over one  
That sinks with all we love below the verge;  
So sad, so fresh, the days that are no more.

Dear as remembered kisses after death,  
And sweet as those by hopeless fancy feigned  
On lips that are for others; deep as love,  
Deep as first love, and wild with all regret,  
O Death in Life, the days that are no more.—*Tennyson*.

## THE CONJUNCTION

**35. Function of Conjunctions.**—Like the preposition, the *conjunction* is used for connecting. Between these two parts of speech there are some differences that are easily seen.

1. Conjunctions usually connect clauses; prepositions never do.

Mary went to the picnic, but Kate remained at home.

Here the conjunction *but* connects the two clauses of the sentence, in each of which there is a preposition connecting words. In the first clause, *to* connects *went* with *picnic*; in the second *at* connects *remained* with *home*.

2. Conjunctions connect words belonging to the same part of speech or words used in the same way; prepositions usually connect different parts of speech and words used differently. This may be seen from the illustrations below:

	NOUN		NOUN	ADJ.		ADJ.				
<i>Conjunctions.</i>	—bread	{	and or nor	}	butter	poor	{	yet but and	}	proud

	ADJ.		NOUN		
<i>Prepositions</i>	tired	{	of, by, from, because of, in consequence of	}	play
	VERB		NOUN		
	slept	{	in, by, near, inside, under, on, upon, beside	}	the house

3. A conjunction does not take after it a noun or a pronoun to form phrases that modify the meaning of other words; a preposition forms with its object an adjective or adverbial modifier, or an expression used as a noun. Thus, in the examples under 2 above, *of play*, *by play*, etc. are adverbial modifiers of *tired*. No such use can be made of the conjunction and the word that follows it.

The most important work of conjunctions is to connect; that of the preposition is to bring words into relation.

The conjunction *and* is used more, perhaps, than all the other conjunctions taken together. This word has been called the *plus sign* of language; for when it is placed between two words or phrases or sentences it denotes that the sum of their meanings is to be understood. Other conjunctions that are much used are *but, if, unless, yet, though, although, because, therefore, however, moreover, hence, lest, whether, provided, for* (meaning *because*).

Some conjunctions go in pairs: *not only . . . but also, both . . . and, neither . . . nor, or . . . or, nor . . . nor, either . . . or*.

Conjunctions used in pairs are called *correlative conjunctions*.

**Definition.**—*A conjunction is a word used to connect clauses, or sentential elements that are used alike.*

Conjunctions frequently stand at the beginning of sentences; they are then said to *introduce* rather than *connect*.

*And I have loved thee, ocean.*

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. By using five different conjunctions, form five sentences of the following:

He trusted in me . . . I had no confidence in him.

2. Separate each of the following sentences into three others that shall together be equivalent to the separated sentence:

(a) Cherries, plums, and pears succeed well in the United States.

(b) The boy can read, write, and cipher very well indeed.

(c) The drover purchased sheep, calves, and oxen from the farmers.

(d) The President spoke of a government of the people, by the people, for the people.

3. Construct sentences in which shall occur the following words used as conjunctions: *because, hence, or, notwithstanding, unless, except, although, if, yet, whereas*.

4. By using conjunctions, make one sentence of each of the following groups:

(a) { Rome was not built in a day.  
A fortune is not made in a year.



- (b) { The Spanish fleet entered the harbor of Santiago.  
 { The Spanish fleet tried to escape to the ocean.  
 { The Spanish fleet was destroyed by the blockading vessels.
- (c) { The great prizes of life are won by ability.  
 { The great prizes of life are not won by trickery.  
 { The great prizes of life are not won by indolence.

### THE INTERJECTION

36. In addition to the seven classes of words already described, there is another class commonly reckoned by grammarians as forming the *eighth* part of speech. Some examples are the following: *oh! alas! hark! ha!* While it is convenient and perhaps better that words of this kind should be regarded as forming another part of speech, it should be remembered that they have no place in sentential structure. They are thrown among (*inter*, among, and *jectus*, thrown) sentences to indicate feeling only, not thought. In language, they are as much out of grammatical relation with the real elements of sentences as the figures that are used in numbering chapters and paragraphs. Some authorities say that interjections represent entire sentences condensed into single words. By this they mean that *psshaw!* for example, is a kind of equivalent for *What you say is absurd*, and *hist!* for *Be quiet and listen, for I hear a strange noise*, or the like. A sigh or a groan is, in a sense, an interjection, and while these generally convey a hint of the thought appropriate to them, they do not express thought in the precise way required in the sentences of which grammar takes account. We often hear imitations of the noises made when we cough or sneeze or laugh or weep, and these sounds may be represented in print; and the cries of certain animals are indicated by such words as *mew! bow-wow! cluck! baa! whippoorwill!* These may be classed as interjections when so used. Since we do not need such words as *oh! alas! ugh! ha! fie! fudge! hem! heigh-ho! he!* etc. in expressing thought, an interjection may be defined as follows:

**Definition.**—*An interjection is a word that has no relation to other words in a sentence, and is used to express feeling or emotion.*

**PARTS OF SPEECH GROUPED**

**37.** The parts of speech, considered with respect to the importance of the work each does in expressing thought, may be placed in two groups:

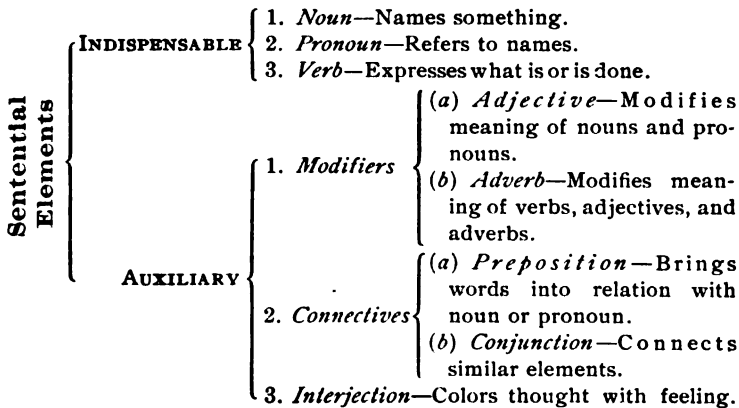
**1. The Indispensable Parts of Speech.**—These are the *verb*, the *noun*, and its substitute, the *pronoun*. With the verb and the noun or the pronoun, a complete sentence may be formed; but these are the only parts of speech with which this can be done.

**2. The Auxillary or Helping Parts of Speech.** These include the five remaining classes of words:

- (a) *The Modifiers.*—The adjective and the adverb.
- (b) *The Connectives.*—The preposition and the conjunction.
- (c) *The Interjection.*—These words serve to indicate the feeling intended to be associated with expressed thought.

It will hereafter appear that words are sometimes used in such manner as to make it difficult to decide in what class they belong; also, that some words do double duty in the sentence. Thus, there are many words that modify in the manner of adjectives and at the same time have the function of pronouns; others again modify as adverbs and connect as conjunctions. These cases, however, will be considered in the proper places.

**SYNOPSIS**





# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 2)

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## FUNCTIONS OF SENTENTIAL ELEMENTS

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### WORD ELEMENTS

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#### THE NOUN AND THE PRONOUN

**1. Various Uses of Nouns and Pronouns.**—So far as has yet been considered, the only work done in sentences by nouns and pronouns is to stand in the relation of subject.

*Nouns as Subjects:* The *moon* lights the earth. *William* was hurt.

*Pronouns as Subjects:* *We* saw the President. *Who* inquired for me?

But besides filling the office of subject, nouns and pronouns have other uses in sentences. Their most important functions are as follows:

1. *As Absolute, or Independent.*—We have seen that the interjection is used apart from, and independent of, the sentence with which it occurs. In a similar way, a noun or a pronoun, with its modifiers, used independently, may be omitted without destroying the grammatical completeness of the sentence. There are several varieties of the independent use of nouns and pronouns:

(a) With a *verbal* to express a cause or an independent fact. (A *verbal* is a word derived from a verb, but not used with predicating force; that is, to make assertions, ask questions, or express commands. Verbals may be used as nouns or as adjectives, but they retain some of the characteristics of the verb in that they may have subjects, objects, and adverbial modifiers. When used with an independent noun

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or pronoun, verbals are generally used as adjectives. The following are types of verbals that are often found in independent constructions: *being*, *loving*, *having been*, *having finished*, *having been suspected*, etc.)

The earth *being* round, it can be circumnavigated.

He *being* the older, they gave him the preference.

The clerk *having been suspected* of dishonesty, an investigation was ordered.

The example *having been solved*, the teacher read another to the class.

Here *earth*, *he*, *clerk*, and *example* are independent or absolute, for the phrases in which they occur might be omitted without destroying the grammatical completeness of the sentence. The subject and predicate would still remain.

It can be circumnavigated.

They gave him the preference.

(b) Nouns and pronouns may be independent by *direct address*.

Go home, my *child*.

Come here, *you*.

*Friends*, *Romans*, *countrymen*, hear me for my cause.

As before, the sentences here make complete sense when the independent words with their accompanying modifiers are omitted; as, *Go home*. *Come here*. *Hear me for my cause*.

(c) Nouns and pronouns may be independent by *pleonasm*.

The *boy*, O where was he?

*He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear.

*Shakespeare*; he was the greatest poet that ever lived.

The *sea*; it is the greatest thing God ever made.

This construction is used for the purpose of emphasis. It consists in the separate mention of that concerning which an impressive complete statement or question is to follow. The word *pleonasm* is derived from the Greek word *pleōn*, meaning "more." The notion is that more words are used than are needed.

(d) Nouns and pronouns may be independent by *apposition*.

Socrates, the *philosopher*, drank poison hemlock.

Did you see him, the *savior* of his country?

Here *philosopher* and *savior* are independent by apposition. A noun in apposition denotes the same person or thing as the word it explains. Thus, *Socrates* and *philosopher* mean the same person, as do also *him* and *savior*. The word *apposition* means "placed near." The name implies that the appositive is placed close to the word it explains. This is usually, but not always, the case.

(e) Nouns and pronouns may be independent by *exclamation*.

O *liberty!* How many of earth's oppressed have yearned for thee.  
 Poor *fellow!* The paw he holds up there has been frozen.

2. *As Predicate Complement*.—A *complement* is something added to complete or fill out something else. In nearly every sentence the predicate has with it a noun or a pronoun to complete its meaning. A noun or a pronoun so used is called the *predicate complement*. There are two varieties of this construction:

(a) The *predicate noun* or *pronoun*, after such verbs as *be* (am, is, are, was, etc.), *seem*, *appear*, *become*, etc.

He was a <i>scholar</i> .	It was <i>she</i> .
John became an <i>engineer</i> .	He seems a <i>gentleman</i> .
The earth is a <i>planet</i> .	He has been <i>mayor</i> .

A predicate noun or pronoun always denotes the same person or thing as the subject. Thus, in the sentences above, *he* and *scholar* represent the same person. The same is true of *John* and *engineer*, of *earth* and *planet*, of *it* and *she*, of *he* and *gentleman*, of *he* and *mayor*.

(b) The *object noun* or *pronoun*—usually called the *object of the verb*. The object of a verb is the noun or the pronoun that answers the question *What?* or *Whom?* Thus,

The boy obeyed his father. The boy obeyed *whom?* His *father*.  
 The dog ate the meat. The dog ate *what?* The *meat*.  
 The boy ate his *dinner*.  
 William sawed the *wood*.  
 Did you see the *elephant?*  
 We met *him* by the schoolhouse.  
 He *whom* they trusted has deceived *them*.

In the last sentence the pronoun *whom* precedes the verb

*trusted*, of which it is the direct object. The usual place of the direct object is after the verb, but the position is sometimes reversed.

*Her* they loved but *him* they hated = They loved *her* but they hated *him*.

### 3. *As the Object of a Preposition.*

We rowed *across* the *lake*.

The babe is asleep *in* the arms *of* its *mother*.

Can you throw the ball *over* the *steeple*?

The preposition is often understood; as,

The teacher gave *John* a book = The teacher gave a book *to John*.

Mary's father bought *her* a kitten = Mary's father bought a kitten *for her*.

A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition generally follows it, but sometimes in poetry it precedes.

The rattling *crags* **AMONG**, leaps the live thunder.

The prose order of this sentence would be,

The live thunder leaps **AMONG** the rattling *crags*.

4. *As Factitive Object.*—After certain verbs, a noun may be used as a complement of the direct object; that is, to complete the direct object. Verbs that in this way take two objects are such as mean *to make*, *to name*, *to choose*, *to call*, *to think*, *to consider*, and some others. The following are examples of this construction:

Washington called *Lafayette* his **FRIEND**.

Pharaoh made *Joseph* **GOVERNOR** of Egypt.

The people elected *McKinley* **PRESIDENT**.

The boys nicknamed *him* **TOM**.

The President appointed *Grant* **GENERAL** of the army.

They deemed *him* a **COWARD** but they found *him* a **HERO**.

Every one thinks *war* a dire **CALAMITY**.

In these sentences, the factitive object is in small capitals and the direct object in Italics.

The word *factitive* comes from the Latin word *facere*, meaning "to make." The term implies that the necessity for using a second object is made or caused by the verb; that is,

the meaning expressed by the verb is completed by the factitive object.

Some authorities regard this use of a noun as a mere case of apposition with the direct object. It differs, however, from an ordinary appositive in that it is not an independent element, although, like an appositive, it stands near the word it explains, and it denotes the same person or thing. An ordinary appositive with its modifiers may be omitted without destroying the complete sense of the sentence, but the factitive object must usually be expressed or the sentence becomes meaningless.

Grant, the silent *soldier*, became President.

Omitting the appositive we still have complete sense:

Grant became President.

The French called *Napoleon* the little CORPORAL.

If the factitive object with its modifiers is omitted, there remains only, *The French called Napoleon*—an expression that means nothing. The factitive object is therefore not a true appositive.

5. *As a Modifier Denoting Possession or Origin.*

the boy's shoes, our horses, the world's productions, the sun's heat

The first two modifying words *boy's* and *our* denote *possession*; the last two indicate the *source* or *origin* of the things denoted by *productions* and *heat*. Unlike words in apposition, a possessive modifier denotes something different from the meaning of the word that is modified.

6. *As the Equivalent of an Adverbial Phrase.*

He is six feet tall = He is tall *by six feet*.

The meat weighed five pounds = The meat weighed *to the extent of five pounds*.

The book is worth a *dollar*.

The enclosure is a *mile* long.

He studied his lesson a whole *hour*.

Here the adjective *tall* is modified by *feet* used as an adverb; and the verb *weighed* is modified in a similar manner by *pounds*, used as the equivalent of an adverbial phrase.



A noun so used is merely the remnant of a prepositional phrase used as an adverbial modifier; it usually denotes measure of some kind—*quantity, height, distance, time, value, etc.*

7. *As the Equivalent of an Adjective.*

My *soldier* cousin is taller than your *sailor* lover.

The *labor* leader and the *merchant* tailor live on the same *village* street.

In these sentences the nouns in Italics have the value of adjective modifiers. Nouns used in this way often become permanently joined to the nouns they modify, forming solid or hyphenated compounds; as, *steamboat, railroad, sky-rocket, prayer-book.*

The foregoing are the principal uses of nouns and pronouns. It is important that the student should learn to recognize them quickly and with certainty. This subject will be resumed later in connection with the Cases of Nouns.

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EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Tell in which of the foregoing ways each noun printed in Italics in the following sentences is used:

- (a) She was the *pet* of her *class* in *school*.
- (b) Ye *crag*s and *peak*s, I'm with you once again. I hold to you the *hand*s that once I held to show they still are free.
- (c) Had I but served my *God* with half the *zeal*  
I served my *king*, he would not in mine *age*  
Have left me naked to mine *enemies*.
- (d) Of earthly *goods*, the best is a good *wife*; a bad, the bitterest curse of human life.
- (e) Loud *wind*, strong *wind*, sweeping o'er the *mountains*, pour forth from airy *fountain*s, *draft*s of life for me.
- (f) *Experience* and *reason* show that *affairs* confided to many *persons* rarely succeed.
- (g) They carried us five *miles*, and for the *service* we paid fifty *shillings*.
- (h) *Time*, you *thief*, who love to get *sweets* into your *list*, put that in.
- (i) *Wealth*; that is a *burden* carried by human *donkeys*; it is generally supposed to be of great *value*.
- (j) There are two *worlds*; the *world* that we can measure with *line* and *rule*, and the *world* that we feel with our *hearts* and *imagination*s.

## THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ADVERB

**2. Functions of the Adjective.**—As we have seen, the adjective is a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun; that is, to measure, restrict, or narrow its application. In doing this work, the adjective has the following varieties of position and use:

1. *The Adjective May Be Used Attributively.*—In this use the adjective precedes the word it modifies and is a mere adjunct or epithet.

*Good weather; blue-eyed girl; several persons; wise, earnest, thoughtful citizens*

The word *attribute* means “ascribed to.” To say that a word is used as an attribute means that the quality it denotes belongs to the person or thing named by the modified word. Thus, in the expression *honest boy*, the word *honest* denotes that the quality or attribute *honesty* is possessed by the person denoted by the word *boy*.

Several attributive adjectives may modify the same noun or pronoun, and some of them may be compound.

*Long-winded, tedious, rambling speaker; left-handed penman*

2. *The Adjective May Be Used Appositively.*—Adjectives may be used in a way similar to nouns in apposition. They are then said to be used appositively.

*A lady, graceful, beautiful, and winning conducted the party.  
Young, charming, and talented, the girl was a general favorite.  
We saw him busy, contented, hopeful.*

In these examples, the adjectives are said to be used *appositively* because they are joined to the nouns or pronouns in much the same way that an appositive noun is joined to the word it explains.

3. *The Adjective May Be Used as the Complement of the Predicate.*

*The merchant was honest, shrewd, and successful.  
Great is Diana of the Ephesians.  
I am sorry that you have been so ill.*

This use of the adjective is common after the various forms of the verb *be* (am, is, was, has been, will be, etc.). So used, it expresses a state or condition of the person or thing named by the subject.

4. *The Adjective May Be Used as a Noun.*

The *good* are said to die young.

The *gay* will laugh when thou art gone.

The *beautiful* is not always the *best*, neither is the *ugly* or *deformed* the *worst*.

Some understood word may usually be supplied after adjectives used as above; for example, *persons* after *good* and *gay*, and *thing* or *object* after the adjectives in the other sentence.

5. *The Adjective May Be Used Factitively.*

They made her *happy*.

The lightning struck him *dead*.

The teacher considers John *truthful*.

The Athenians thought Socrates *wise*.

The evidence proved him *innocent*.

The word *factitive* means "doing" or "bringing about." In this construction, the action expressed by the verb has an effect on the person or thing named by the direct object, and this effect is denoted by the adjective. It is a use of the adjective similar to that of the noun as factitive object.

**3. Functions of the Adverb.**—The usual function of the adverb is to modify or restrict the meaning of the following sentential elements:

1. *Verbs.*

Walk *slowly*.

Softly and tenderly he spoke her name.

In the first sentence the adverb *slowly* tells the manner in which the walking is to be performed. It is therefore said to modify the meaning of the verb *walk*. In the second sentence there are two adverbs, *softly* and *tenderly*, and they both modify the verb *spoke*.

2. *Adjectives.*

I have been seriously ill.

He showed us his extremely beautiful captive.

Here, *seriously* modifies the adjective *ill*, and *extremely* modifies the adjective *beautiful*. These modifiers are adverbs, because they modify adjectives.

Even when an adjective is used as a noun, it may be modified by an adverb.

There is not so much difference as is generally supposed between the *exceedingly* GOOD and the *extremely* BAD.

### 3. *Other Adverbs.*

They came very early, and stayed so long, that quite gladly we saw them depart.

Here the adverbs *very*, *so*, and *quite* are modifiers, respectively, of the adverbs *early*, *long*, and *gladly*. It will be seen, therefore, that any modifier of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb must be an adverb.

The forms and the usual functions of the other word elements of sentences have already been explained.

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### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Pick out the adjectives in the following sentences and tell what each adjective modifies:

(a) She is pretty to walk with, and witty to talk with, and pleasant to think about.

(b) These things we know are neither rich nor rare.

(c) 'Tis sweet to find that where'er we rove, we are sure to find something blissful and dear.

(d) Young men are fitter to invent than to judge; for new projects than for settled business.

(e) A lucky man is as rare as a white crow.

(f) Be not a generous man to yourself and a parsimonious man to your friends.

2. Mention the adverbs in the following sentences and tell what each adverb modifies:

(a) Too much of anything is nearly always bad.

(b) You should never permit yourself to speak ill of the absent.

(c) Money that is easily obtained is usually very soon squandered.

(d) Sweetly but sadly the bell was tolling in the distance.

(e) Nothing is said nowadays that has not often been said before.

(f) The more virtuous a man is, the less easily does he suspect that others are vicious.

## PHRASE ELEMENTS

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### DEFINITION OF A PHRASE

**4. Phrases With Respect to Use.**—In sentences we very often find groups of two or more words that seem to belong together, very much as if they were parts of a compound word. They consist of several closely related ideas expressing a compound idea, and this does the duty of a single word in the sentence where it occurs. This duty or function is to modify like an adjective or an adverb, or to name some object or some action in the way that nouns do. Although the uses of prepositional phrases as adjectives and adverbs have already been touched on, the importance of the general subject of phrases is so great as to require further consideration.

There are two special marks by which a group of words may be known to form a phrase:

1. It must do the work that is usually done by one word.

He was busy in his office during the whole day.

Reading good books is a profitable method of passing the time.

To have visited Paris seemed to the speaker a reason for boasting.

Seeing the multitude, he went up into a mountain.

The nine phrases in these sentences are used exactly as if each were a single word. Two of them, *reading good books* and *to have visited Paris*, are *noun phrases* because each is the subject of the sentence in which it occurs. Both phrases in the first sentence are *adverbial phrases*, being modifiers of the adjective *busy*. *In his office* tells *where* he was busy and *during the whole day* tells *how long* he was busy. Other adverbial phrases are *to the speaker*, which modifies the verb *seemed*, and *into a mountain*, which modifies the verb *went*. The adjective phrases are *of passing time*, modifying the noun *method*; *for boasting*, modifying the noun *reason*; and *seeing the multitude*, modifying the pronoun *he*.

2. It must not contain a verb that predicates; that is, a verb that actually asserts, denies, etc.

In the sentences above, the expressions *reading*, *passing*, *to have visited*, *boasting*, and *seeing* are *verbals*, since they are derived from verbs; but they are not in a full sense verbs. It is impossible with them alone to make a statement or ask a question. Predication by verbals is only assumed or taken for granted—not actually made. This will be more fully explained in another place.

**Definition.**—*A phrase is a group of words used as a single part of speech, but containing no word of real predication.*

**5. Phrases With Respect to Form.**—We have seen that when phrases are considered with respect to the work they do in sentences, they are of three kinds: *noun*, *adjective*, and *adverbial* phrases. When they are examined with regard to their form or structure, the three kinds of phrases mentioned above can be reduced to two general classes:

1. *Prepositional Phrases.*—Such as begin with a preposition. The following are examples:

*in* the morning, *by* the seashore, *above* the falls, *against* the evidence, *according* to the best dictionary, *in spite* of good counsel

Prepositional phrases may contain verbals:

*for being* present, *of passing* counterfeit money, *in having disobeyed* the teacher, *against wasting* words

2. *Verbal Phrases.*—Such as are introduced by a verbal. The following sentences have verbal phrases in Italics:

*Fearing a riot*, the mayor called out the police.

*Having been elected President*, he promptly took the prescribed oath of office.

He was reported *to have resigned his position*.

Verbal phrases are of two kinds: *participial* and *infinitive*. The verbal phrases in the first two sentences above are participial phrases; the phrase in the third sentence is an infinitive phrase. The meaning of these names will be explained later.

Infinitive phrases begin with the preposition *to*. The following are some examples:

to study his lesson, to have written a letter, to be loved, to have been seen, to be walking, to have been walking

The student should notice the difference between the infinitive phrase and the prepositional phrase consisting of *to* followed by an object noun or pronoun. Some examples follow:

to a good boy, to the city, to church, to them

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Construct sentences in which shall occur the following phrases: during the rain, upon the hill, over the sea, according to law, by an honorable life, through a dark wood, of the people, beside his sister, behind the wagon, across a wide river.

2. Separate the following compound phrases into the simple phrases of which they are composed: at the bottom of the sea, with his sister by his side, in a boat on the river, during a trip through Europe in vacation, earning money by the hardest kind of labor, observing the time by the clock in the steeple of the old church on the hill.

3. Use the following phrases in sentences, and decide what is the function of each; that is, tell which you use as nouns, which as adjectives, and which as adverbs: to study, to be answered, to have been chosen, seeing a procession, eating an apple, to write a letter, to earn his living, having built a home, having been sick.

4. Write sentences and use in them the following words each of which is modified by a phrase: loaf, kind, caught, fun, black, skate, run, river.

5. Use each of the following as the first part of a phrase: against, between, without, upon, pushing, having reached, in reply to, with regard to, down, to earn.

6. Pick out the noun, the adjective, and the adverbial phrases in the following sentences:

(a) Years steal fire from the eyes as vigor from the limbs.

(b) Know when to speak; for many times it brings  
Danger to give the best advice to kings.

(c) But I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,  
And the thoughts of men are widened by the process of the suns.

(d) He drew his bridle in the shade  
Of the apple trees, to greet the maid,  
And ask a draft from the spring that flowed  
Through the meadow, across the road.

(e) If wisdom's ways you wisely seek,  
Five things observe with care:  
Of whom you speak, to whom you speak,  
And how, and when, and where.

(f) You must get into the habit of looking intensely at words, and of assuring yourself of their meaning syllable by syllable—nay, letter by letter.

(g) Being entirely right and adhering to your opinion in spite of all temptation to do otherwise, will be found more difficult than being a hero in battle.

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## CLAUSE ELEMENTS

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### DEFINITION OF A CLAUSE

**6. How Sentences Become Clauses.**—Two or more sentences may be made into one by means of conjunctions. After the union of these elements, they are no longer sentences, but *clauses* of a sentence. Thus, take the two sentences:

The earth is round.

Men can sail around the earth.

These two sentences may be united into one sentence by using as a conjunction any one of the following and making some slight changes in the wording: *and, if, so, then, because, for, since, inasmuch as, seeing that*, etc.

The earth is round, for men can sail around it.

Here we have a sentence consisting of two clauses connected by the conjunction *for*, each clause having a subject and a predicate.

When separate sentences are united, slight changes are usually necessary. This happens in such cases as the following:

1. When subjects in two or more of the sentences denote the same person or thing.

The sun rises in the east.

The girls stayed at home.

The sun moves across the sky

The girls did the housework.

The sun sets in the west.

The boys went to the picnic.

The sun rises in the east, moves across the sky, *and* sets in the west.

The girls stayed at home *and* did the housework, *but* the boys went to the picnic.



Here we still have three statements, in which the omitted subjects are clearly implied.

2. When two or more of the predicates are alike.

Spring returned once more.           The day is dreary.  
 The birds returned once more.       The world is dreary.  
 The flowers returned once more.    My life is dreary.  
 Spring *and* the birds *and* the flowers returned once more.  
 The day *and* the world *and* my life are dreary.

In such cases the predicate usually appears but once in the final sentence, making a structure without clauses. It being impossible to say anything completely without using a predicate, this element is the most important part of a sentence. A sentence is considered to have only as many clauses as it has different predicates; for, if it be rightly constructed, the subjects that are not expressed are plainly implied. Moreover, the imperative regularly omits the subject, but the predicate cannot be omitted without destroying the sentence.

**Definition.**—*A clause is one of the predicating parts of a sentence that has two or more such parts or elements.*

**7. Varieties of Clause Connectives.**—Besides being joined by regular conjunctions, clauses may be united by adverbs and by certain pronouns. An adverb used for this purpose is called a *conjunctive adverb*, and a pronoun so employed becomes a *relative* or *conjunctive pronoun*.

Adverbs that are much used as connectives are *when*, *where*, *while*, *why*, *how*, *as*, *since*, and many others. The following are some examples:

He left for the city *when* the clock struck ten.  
 They buried him on the field *where* he had fought so well.  
 One half the world does not know *how* the other half lives.  
 No one has been here *since* you went away.  
 It was easy to understand *why* he left so suddenly.

Conjunctive adverbs may be distinguished from regular conjunctions by the fact that they connect and at the same time denote *place*, *time*, or *manner*, while conjunctions connect and nothing more. The following will illustrate:

<i>Conjunctions</i>	{	I shall leave tomorrow <i>if</i> the day is fine.
		You will succeed <i>provided</i> you are faithful.
		You may go <i>unless</i> you prefer to stay.
<i>Conjunctive Adverbs</i>	{	I shall leave tomorrow <i>after</i> I have dined.
		You will find the book <i>where</i> you were sitting.
		You should have done <i>as</i> you were told.

The pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, *whose*, *whom*, and *that* are frequently used as connectives.

Can you tell me *who* solved this example?

I cannot imagine *whom* you mean.

Do you know *whose* horse ran away?

Yonder stands the house *that* my father built.

*Who* committed the crime was not known.

When pronouns are used as connectives they always perform some other work in the sentence. Thus, *who* in the first sentence connects, and besides, is the subject of the second clause. In the next sentence *whom* is the direct object of the verb *mean*—*You mean whom*. The pronoun *whose* is a modifier of *horse*, denoting possession or ownership; *that* is the object of the verb *built*—*My father built that*; in the last sentence, *who* is the subject of the verb *committed*, and at the same time it introduces the sentence. Sentences consisting of clauses connected by conjunctive adverbs may often have their clauses inverted so as to place the connective at the beginning. In this position the conjunctive adverb has the same connective effect that it has when in the body of the sentence.

*When* the clock struck ten he left for the city.

*Since* you went away no one has been here.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Decide what clauses compose the following sentences, and mention the connectives:

- (a) The days were warm, but the nights were very cold.
- (b) Be very quiet and listen attentively to the teacher's explanations.
- (c) The wild geese fly north when the days become warm in the spring.
- (d) The Cossack prince rubbed down his horse and made for him a bed of leaves.

(e) The man was thoroughly honest although he was very poor indeed.

(f) Spend the days of youth wisely, or you may in age regret your neglect.

(g) The Tartar's horse looked as if the speed of thought were in his limbs.

(h) I had heard that voice before though I could not have told where.

(i) Byron died in Greece when he was only thirty-six years old.

(j) Sir Isaac Newton proved that the path of every planet must be an ellipse.

#### FUNCTIONS OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

8. Dependent clauses do a work in sentences exactly like that done by phrases; that is, they are used as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

1. *A Clause May Be Used as a Noun.*—When used as a noun a clause may be:

(a) The subject of a sentence.

*What became of Henry Hudson* WAS never ASCERTAINED.

*After the horse has been stolen* IS not the time for locking the stable.

*That the prisoner was guilty* APPEARED very doubtful.

The clauses in Italics are the subjects, respectively, of the verbs in small capitals.

(b) The predicate noun.

The place to study music is *where nothing but music is taught*.

The critical moment for Cæsar was *when he crossed the Rubicon*.

In the first sentence, the clause beginning with *where* denotes the same thing as *place*; that is, it is the predicate noun. The same is true of the italicized clause in the next sentence.

(c) The object of a verb.

Do you know *when the train leaves for Boston?*

He did exactly *what he was told*.

Here the verbs have as direct objects the clauses in Italics.

(d) The object of a preposition.

The child wondered about *why the sky is so blue*.

He spoke of *what causes the tides*.

*Why the sky is so blue* is the object of the preposition *about*, and *what causes the tides* is the object of the preposition *of*.

(e) In apposition with a noun or a pronoun.

The *FACT*, *who had done the damage*, was soon known.

The clause in *Italics* is in apposition with the noun in small capitals; that is, the clause explains what is meant by the noun *fact*.

2. *A Clause May Be Used as an Adjective.*

The island *that we discovered* was inhabited by savages.

The spot *where John Brown's body rests* is in the Adirondacks.

The clause, *that we discovered* is an adjective modifier of the noun *island*, and the clause, *where John Brown's body rests* modifies the noun *spot*.

3. *A Clause May Be Used as an Adverb.*

They buried him *where he fell*.

Busy *when he called*, I could not see him.

*Exactly when the clock struck*, our train started.

The first dependent clause modifies the meaning of the verb *buried*; the second, that of the adjective *busy*; the third modifies the meaning of *started*.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Of the italicized clauses in the following sentences, state in which of the classes illustrated in the preceding article each clause belongs. Mention the connectives and tell to what parts of speech they belong.

(a) Peggotty died *just as the tide went out*.

(b) The steamer reached her destination *before she was expected*.

(c) The government *that has been established in Porto Rico* is the best *that has ever existed in that island*.

(d) His firm belief was *that all men are created equal*.

(e) Have you ever ascertained *why the sky is blue?*

(f) The land *where oranges flourish* must be a sunny land.

(g) It is an ill wind *that blows no man good*.

(h) He *that is convinced against his will*, is of the same opinion still.

(i) Time was *when the little toy dog was new*,

*And the soldier was passing fair;*

*And that was the time when our Little Boy Blue,*

*Kissed them and put them there.*

(j) He knew *whose gentle hand was at the latch, before the door was opened*.

## THE RANK OF CLAUSES.

9. With respect to rank, there are two relations in which clauses may stand to one another.

1. *Clauses May Be of Equal Rank.*—When two or more sentences are united into one, the relation of the clauses in the resulting sentence is entirely dependent on the kind of conjunction or other connective word used. If such words as *and, or, but, also, moreover, yet, still*, and others of the class called *coordinating conjunctions* are used, the resulting sentence will consist of clauses equal in rank—each clause being of just as much importance as any other. Clauses connected by conjunctions of this kind are **coordinate clauses**.

He finished his work *and* then he received his pay.

The moon is not very distant, *but* we shall never succeed in reaching it.

Helen Keller is deaf and blind; *yet* she has become a fine English scholar.

2. *Clauses May Be of Unequal Rank.*—Clauses may be so joined in a sentence as to have unequal importance as sentential elements. For example, a clause may be nothing more than a noun in the function it fills, or it may be a mere modifier, doing the work of an adjective or an adverb.

*Noun Clause:* He told me *how I should enter a room*.

*Adjective Clause:* The castle *that we now own* was built during the period *when Queen Elizabeth ruled England*.

*Adverbial Clause:* Do not strike *until the iron is hot*.

In the first sentence, the clause is the object of the verb *told*, just as *secret* would be in the sentence, *He told me a secret*. In the next sentence, the first clause modifies the noun *castle*, and the second, the noun *period*. These are therefore adjective clauses. In the last sentence, the verb *do strike* is modified by *until the iron is hot*, an adverbial clause denoting time.

Clauses so used may often be omitted without destroying the main sense of the sentence, for they usually serve only to add some circumstance or explanation to the meaning of a more important element. Such are called **subordinate, dependent, or secondary clauses**, because of their inferior

importance as sentential elements. The clause that expresses the main thought and has attached to it one or more helping or subordinate clause elements has been called by various names; as, *principal, leading, primary, or independent* clause.

Subordinate clauses may be of equal rank, but in order to be so they must be connected by coordinating conjunctions.

After the sun has set *and* the moon has risen, we shall take our departure.

#### SUBORDINATING CONNECTIVES

10. The words used to unite independent with dependent clauses are of the three kinds mentioned in Art. 7; conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and relative or conjunctive pronouns. Some examples of these connectives are the following:

1. Subordinating conjunctions; as, *if, unless, except, provided, lest, because, whether*, etc.

2. Conjunctive adverbs; as, *when, while, why, where, whither, whence, after, before, as, how, since*, etc.

3. Relative or conjunctive pronouns; as, *who, whose, whom, which, that, what, whoever*, etc.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. By using suitable subordinating conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs, unite the following so as to form ten sentences, each containing an independent clause and one or more adverbial dependent clauses:

We shall depart	{	the sun rises the day is fine we are not welcome our money is all gone the game has been killed
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2. Make sentences of the following, and let each contain three or more clauses; state also the office of each dependent clause:

The traveler	{	whose word had been doubted that the officer arrested that smiled so pleasantly that caught the burglar that we met yesterday	}	was allowed to proceed.
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3. Mention the independent and the dependent clauses in the following sentences, and describe fully the function of each dependent clause:

- (a) I concluded from what he said that he had never been to Europe.
- (b) When we were sailing up the Hudson we noticed the Palisades.
- (c) Tell me what kind of company you keep and I will tell you how much you value a pure life and a good name.
- (d) Work while the day endures, for a night is coming when no man can work.
- (e) "What Will He Do With It?" is the title of one of Bulwer's novels.
- (f) She sang a song that was called "Comin' Thro' the Rye."
- (g) Pleasure, with a winning smile, said, "Come with me and I will make thee happy."
- (h) He was glad when he noticed how the fish kept their heads up stream.
- (i) Very soon the young philosopher finds that things which roll so easily are very apt to roll into the wrong corner and get out of his way when he most wants them.

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## FORMS OF SENTENCES

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### THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

**11. Twofold Classification of Sentences.**—We have seen that sentences considered with regard to the use that is made of them are divided into three classes. If used to make statements, they are *declarative*; if they express a question, they are *interrogative*; if used in commanding, entreating, or wishing, they are *imperative*. We have seen too that any one of these three classes may become *exclamatory*. Various combinations of two or more of these uses may occur in one sentence, as is shown in (c) above.

We come now to consider another and very important classification—one that has no regard to the use that sentences serve, but is based on their form or structure.

**12. The Simplest Sentential Structure.**—The simplest possible structure that a sentence can have is the form composed of two words: one the *subject*, the other the *predicate*.

*Birds fly. Water flows. Perseverance succeeds. Who came? They retreat.*

In the imperative sentence, the subject is generally omitted, but if it were not clearly implied there could be no thought expressed, and therefore no sentence.

(*You*) Come. (*Thou*) Behold, or Behold *thou*. (*Ye*) Go, or Go *ye*.

**Definition.**—*A simple sentence is a sentence composed of one subject, expressed or clearly implied, and one predicate.*

**13. Other Elements in a Simple Sentence.**—The simple sentence without modifiers is not often met with in actual use; some other elements are usually added to the subject, or to the predicate, or to both. These elements may be words or phrases, but not clauses. When clauses enter, the sentence is no longer simple.

SUBJECT	MODIFIERS	PREDICATE	MODIFIERS
Birds	{ many beautiful of varied colors of sweetest song                 }	fly	{ continually in the tropical forests from tree to tree of Central Africa                 }

In the tropical forests of Central Africa many beautiful birds of varied colors and sweetest song fly from tree to tree continually.

SUBJECT	MODIFIERS	PREDICATE	MODIFIERS	OBJECT	MODIFIERS
Student	{ that thoughtful from the city                 }	learned	{ with care, always, before school time, in the morning                 }	lessons	{ his hardest for that day                 }

In the morning before school time that thoughtful student from the city always learned with care his hardest lessons for that day.

When a sentence contains many modifiers, especially if some of them are phrases, the arrangement and punctuation of its various parts require both care and taste.

**EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE**

1. Using such connectives as are required, fit the following modifiers to the principal parts so as to form simple sentences. Endeavor to get the best possible arrangement and punctuation.

- (a) Girl { pretty, a, with blue eyes, } came { to our ring, promptly, }  
 { little, very, charming } { in answer }
- (b) Animals { of our country, } may be seen { playing in captivity, by }  
 { many, wild, } { the river, on pleasant }  
 { interesting } { days }



- (c) Lesson { for children, the } is { wisely, to learn,  
difficult, most } { to use, how, time
- (d) Plain lay { under the autumn sky, with its great cities,  
the, with its silver river, before him, broad
- (e) He settled { with an iron constitution, with a friendly voice,  
down, six feet three in his stockings, a kind,  
young man, talkative

2. By adding word and phrase elements, as in the preceding examples, expand the following simple sentences. The expanded sentence must still be simple.

(a) The song died. The days passed. The roses faded. The time will come. The leaves have fallen. The work has been finished.

(b) Who discovered? Did Crusoe live? Does his heart beat? Should nobody praise? (You) Come. (You) Continue. (You) Be.

**14. Compound Members.**—Two or more simple sentences may often be contracted into one sentence, which is itself simple. This is done by joining their like members by means of conjunctions.

John goes to school.	}	=	{	John and his sister go to
His sister goes to school.				school.
Is the earth round like a	}	=	{	Are the earth and its moon
ball?				and all the other planets
Is its moon round like a				and their moons round
ball?				like a ball?
Are all the other planets and	}	=	{	Are all the other planets and
their moons round like a				their moons round
ball?				like a ball?

The foregoing are simple sentences with compound subjects.

We gathered walnuts.	}	=	{	We gathered walnuts, chest-
We gathered chestnuts.				nuts, and beechnuts.
We gathered beechnuts.				

Here we have a simple sentence with a compound object.

Mr. Blaine was an orator.	}	=	{	Mr. Blaine was an orator, a
Mr. Blaine was a statesman.				statesman, and a patriot.
Mr. Blaine was a patriot.				
The boy has been honest.	}	=	{	The boy has been honest,
The boy has been truthful.				truthful, and industrious.
The boy has been industrious.				

In the first of these sentences, the predicate noun is compound; in the next, the predicate adjective is compound.

Modifying words and phrases, either adjective or adverbial, may be compounded in the same manner as the more important members. If a sentence that contains compound elements has only one predicating verb, it is a simple sentence.

The cunning and treacherous *visitor* arrested by the guard strongly and earnestly **INSISTED** upon his innocence.

That handsome *boy* and his *sister* **ARE** always polite and respectful in their bearing toward others.

Simple sentences are often very long. There is one condition necessary in order that a sentence may be simple—it must contain but one predicating verb:

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## THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

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### DEFINITION OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

15. A sentence may be composed of two clauses of unequal rank, one being the principal or independent clause and the other used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. A sentence of this kind is called a **complex sentence**.

*Come* when you have time.

*Who believes* that the earth is flat?

*Lucy was the sweetest child* that ever brightened a home.

*He quoted the proverb*, "Honesty is the best policy."

"Who are you?" *he inquired*.

In these sentences, the principal clauses are in *Italic*, and the subordinate clauses in *Roman*, type. *When you have time* is an adverbial clause modifier of the verb *come*; *that the earth is flat* is a noun clause used as the direct object of the verb *believes*; and *that ever brightened a home* is an adjective clause modifier of the noun *child*. The clause, *Honesty is the best policy*, is used as a noun in apposition with the noun *proverb*, the meaning of which it explains; in the last sentence, *Who are you?* is the object of *inquired*.

A sentence may contain several subordinate clauses. In such case, if there is only one principal clause, the sentence is still complex.

<i>It is dangerous to be abroad</i>	{	when the sun has gone down, and while the air is damp.
While youth lasts and our friends are many,	}	<i>let us be happy, if we can.</i>

In the first sentence, *It is dangerous to be abroad* is the principal or independent clause. This clause standing alone would make complete sense, but neither of the two on the right would do so. They are adjective clauses modifying *to be abroad*, and are for this reason subordinate. The sentence is therefore complex. In the second sentence the imperative clause in Italics is the principal or independent clause. The subordinate clauses, *While youth lasts*, (*while*) *our friends are many*, and *if we can* are mere modifiers. *While* is understood before the second subordinate clause. The coordinating conjunction *and* connects the two dependent clauses, *While youth lasts* and (*while*) *our friends are many*.

**Definition.**—*A complex sentence is a sentence consisting of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.*

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Combine the following groups of simple sentences into complex sentences, and underscore the principal clause. Change as few words as possible.

(a) The birds go south. The snow falls. The weather becomes cold.

**Model.**—When the weather becomes cold and the snow falls, the birds go south. Or, The birds go south when the weather becomes cold and the snow falls.

The conjunctive adverb *when* is expressed before the first subordinate clause and understood before the second. These two subordinate clauses being of equal rank are connected by the coordinating conjunction *and*.

(b) The sky falls. We shall catch sparrows. We are alive at that time.

(c) "Who killed Cock Robin?" The school assembled. The master inquired.

(d) He might become a scholar. He was seventeen years old. Harry's father sent him to college.

(e) The foolish man became angry. The goose laid golden eggs. He killed the goose.

2. Write complex sentences as follows, and underscore the subordinate clauses.

(a) Two sentences, each of which has an adjective clause.

**Model.**—No one ever saw the house that Jack built.

The exact time when gunpowder was invented is not known.

(b) Two, each of which has an adverbial clause.

(c) Two, each of which has two or more clause modifiers.

(d) Two, each of which has for its subject a noun clause.

(e) Two, each of which has for its object a noun clause.

(f) Two, each of which has a noun clause as the predicate noun.

(g) Two that have noun clauses in apposition.

(h) Two that have clause objects of prepositions.

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## THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

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### DEFINITION OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

**16.** If by the use of subordinating connectives clauses be joined in such relation that one of them is more important than any of the others, the sentence is, as we have learned, complex. But if coordinating connectives be used, the clauses thus joined will be of equal rank. If these clauses do not stand in an inferior or dependent relation to some more important clause, the sentence is **compound**.

The simplest possible form of the compound sentence consists of two imperative clauses of which the subjects are understood.

*Go and see. Come or go. Call or write. Sleep and rest.*

Other and longer compound sentences having two clauses of equal rank are as follows:

*Sit still and study your lesson.*

*Who met and repulsed the enemy?*

*I neither know nor do I care.*

*The farmer plowed the field and sowed it with wheat.*

*The farmer plowed and sowed in the spring.*

*Dare to do right, dare to be true.*

In the last sentence the conjunction is omitted and its place filled by a comma.

Compound sentences may be lengthened by the addition of subordinate clauses:

*The rain was falling* when we started, but *the sky was clear* before we reached our destination.

The good die young *is an old saying*, but *the saying is not true*.

*Do not trust him* that makes many promises, nor *doubt him too much* that makes few.

In all the foregoing sentences the independent clauses are in Italic, and the subordinate clauses in Roman, type. *When we started* is an adverbial clause modifying the verb *was falling*; *before we reached our destination* also is an adverbial modifier of *clear*. *The good die young* is a noun clause, the subject of the verb *is*; *that makes many promises* is an adjective modifier of *him*; and *that makes few* modifies *him* in the last principal clause.

**Definition.**—*A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more independent clauses, with or without subordinate clauses.*

Such sentences as the following are by some grammarians classed as *simple sentences with compound predicates*:

The winds *blew* and *beat* upon that house.

The children *rode*, *walked*, *drove*, or *played* in the park every day.

Mary *washed* the dishes, *polished* the silver, and *dusted* the furniture.

In this work, however, such sentences are regarded as compound. The reason for this is that the verb is by far the most important element in every sentence. It can never be omitted from a simple sentence, but any other element may be lacking. The subject of an imperative sentence is regularly omitted, while, without a verb, there can be no sentence—no expressed thought. A sentence is therefore regarded as containing as many clauses as there are in it verbs that predicate.

**17. Connectives May Be Understood.**—When we wish to unite words into a series, it is common to omit

some of the connectives when they may easily be understood and supplied.

Apples, pears, peaches, *and* other fruits are found in the market.  
 Busy, happy, contented, charming, were those children.

In a similar way, the connectives between clauses are often omitted; or, the arrangement of the clauses may be such that the connective serves to introduce rather than to connect.

I promised him I would visit him = I promised him *that* I would visit him.

Should he come I would go = I would go *if* he should come.

*While* we live let us live = Let us live *while* we live.

*Where* do you think he has gone? *Whom* do you imagine I saw?

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Write the following compound sentences, underscore the verbs of the independent clauses, and mention the connectives.

(a) Sorrow was dead indeed in her, but peace and perfect happiness were born.

(b) Once upon a time a good many years ago, there was a traveler, and he set out upon a journey.

(c) When it rained, they remained within doors; but when it was fine weather, they wandered all day long in the woods.

(d) The sky was so blue, the sun was so bright, the water was so sparkling, the leaves were so green, the flowers were so lovely, and they heard so many singing birds and saw so many butterflies, that everything was beautiful.

(e) He called many times but there was no reply, and when he passed out of the wood and saw the peaceful sun going down upon a wide purple prospect, he came to an old man sitting upon a fallen tree.

(f) The whole journey was through a wood, only it had been open and green at first, like a wood in spring; and now it began to be thick and dark, like a wood in summer.

(g) I consider the noble savage a prodigious nuisance and an enormous superstition; and his calling rum "firewater" and me a "paleface" wholly fail to reconcile me to him.

(h) The day is done, and the darkness falls from the wings of night  
 As a feather is wafted downward from an eagle in his flight.

2. Tell which of the following sentences are simple, which complex, and which compound; tell also the kind of clauses, and mention the connectives.

(a) When I die, put near me something that has loved the light, and had the sky above it always.

(b) In the preface to his collected works, De Quincey has fully defined his own position and claim to distinction.

(c) While William of Orange lived, he was the guiding star of a whole brave nation; and when he died, the little children cried in the streets.

(d) The place where shining souls have passed imbibes a grace beyond mere earth.

(e) With smoking axle hot with speed, with steeds of fire and steam,  
Wide-waked Today leaves Yesterday behind him like a dream;  
Still, from the hurrying train of Life, fly backward far and fast  
The milestones of the fathers, the landmarks of the past.

(f) "To do the best for yourself is finally to do the best for others," said the lecturer on political economy.

(g) To him who in the love of nature holds communion with her visible forms, she speaks a various language.

(h) Death is the end of life; then why should life all labor be?

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## SENTENTIAL ANALYSIS

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### ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

**18. The Meaning of "Analysis."**—The word *analysis* means "a taking apart"; it is the opposite of *synthesis*, "a putting together." With regard to sentences, analysis is any scheme of representing the relations and functions of their words, phrases, and clauses. This is usually done by means of diagrams, and of these, many systems have been devised by different authors.

**19. Dismemberment of Sentences in Analysis.** The most serious objection that has been urged against analysis by diagrams is that nearly all methods of analysis so separate the sentential elements that the student is unable to put them together again. This objection is obviated in the scheme that will now be explained.

**20. Subject and Predicate.**—The subject of a sentence is enclosed in marks of parenthesis ( ); the predicate verb is enclosed in brackets [ ]. When the subject or any

other element is to be represented as understood, the fact is indicated by a caret  $\wedge$ .

(Birds) [fly].    ( $\wedge$ ) [Make] haste.  
 ( $\wedge$ ) [Tell]  $\wedge$  me the truth.                      A (storm) [is coming].

In a complex sentence, the marks of parenthesis and the brackets should be heavier in the principal clause than in the subordinate clauses.

The (tree) [must lie] where (it) [fell].  
 (What (he) [thinks] about it) [concerns] me not.

When the predicate is a verb phrase with intervening modifiers, the brackets should be as in the following sentences:

The (clouds) [will] soon [have rolled] away.  
 The (result) [might] easily [have been foreseen].

**21. Predicate Complements.**—That a noun or a pronoun is the direct object of a verb is indicated by two parallel lines below it,           . If this object is a phrase or a clause, the parallels are extended to include it.

(They) [counted] the stars.  
 My (sister) [means] to return.  
 (He) earnestly [desired] to be thought honest.

The (boy) [cried], "The (wolf) [is coming!]"  
"[Can] the (leopard) [change] his spots?" (he) [asked].

In the last sentence, the predicate verb *asked* is preceded by a noun clause used as the object of the verb.

A predicate noun or pronoun is denoted by two parallel lines above it, and a predicate adjective by a straight line above a wavy line,           . The lines denoting a predicate adjective may be either above or below the adjective.

The (stranger) [was] assuredly a gentleman.  
 (Cherries) [are] ripe.  
 The (roses) [were] in bloom.  
 The (battle-ship) [was] about to be tested.



**22. Modifying Elements.**—A modifier is connected by an arrow with the element it modifies.

(He) [was] a manly, intelligent boy.

Here *boy* is the predicate noun.

My (dog) [is] by no means vicious.

*Vicious* is the predicate adjective.

(Liberty), within due limits, [is] an inherent right of all men.

*Right* is the predicate noun, and denotes the same thing as *liberty*—is only another name for the subject.

**23. Independent Elements and Connectives.**—Independent elements are indicated by a wavy line, ~~~~~, and connectives by the plus sign +. If a connective has any other function, this fact may be indicated as already explained. The following analysis will illustrate these points:

The king, (he) [can do] no wrong.

(Jack), the Giant Killer, [performed] some wonderful exploits.

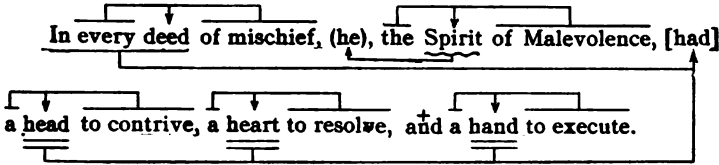
John, [can] (you) [explain] to me the true cause of the tides?

The (warp) + and (woof) of man's life [are] past + and future time.

[Did] (I) not, sir, carefully [explain] to you what (I)[wanted]?

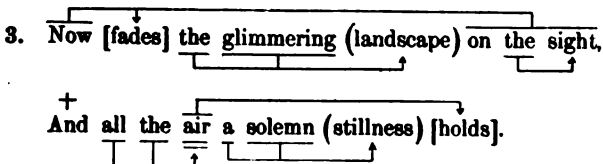
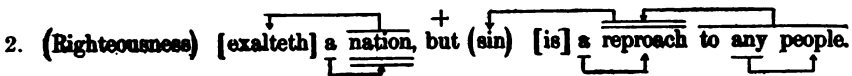
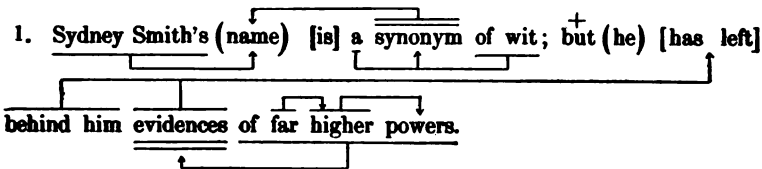
In the first sentence, *king* is independent by pleonasm; in the second, *Giant Killer* is independent by apposition; in the third, *John* is independent by address.

Besides being a connective, *what*, in the last sentence, is the object of *wanted*; *what I wanted* is the object of *did explain*.



MODELS OF ANALYSIS

24. If the student finds any of the following analyses difficult, he should review them frequently. He will see their difficulties clear away as he reconsiders them in the light of what he learns after first studying them. The ability to solve all doubtful questions concerning the functions and relations of sentential elements is the best evidence of thorough grammatical knowledge. Analysis of sentences, therefore, should be persisted in as the best possible preparation for understanding and writing good English.



NOTE.—The author's meaning may have been that air holds stillness, or it may have been the reverse, as in the diagram.

4. (I) then [let] myself down and <sup>( )</sup> [swam] across the channel  
 +  
 (which) [lay] between the ship and the sands.

5. (He) [spoke] of Burns: (men) rude and rough

[Pressed] round to hear the praise of one  
 +  
 Whose (heart) [was made] of manly, simple stuff.

6. Oft when the (wine) in his glass [was] red,

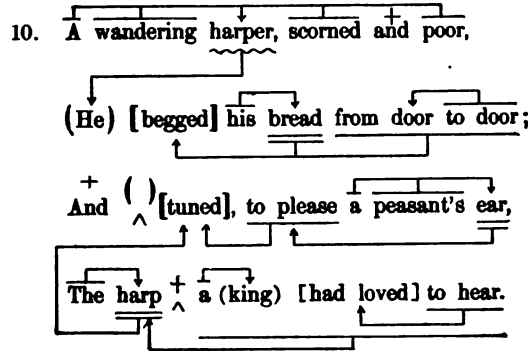
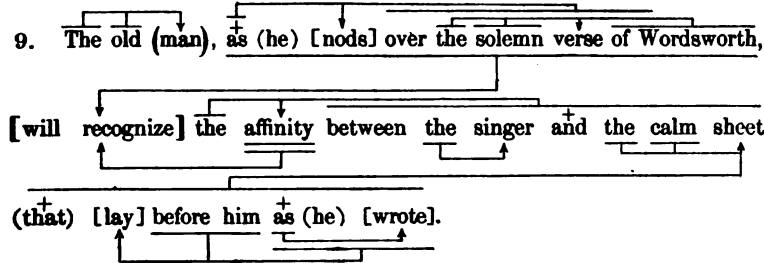
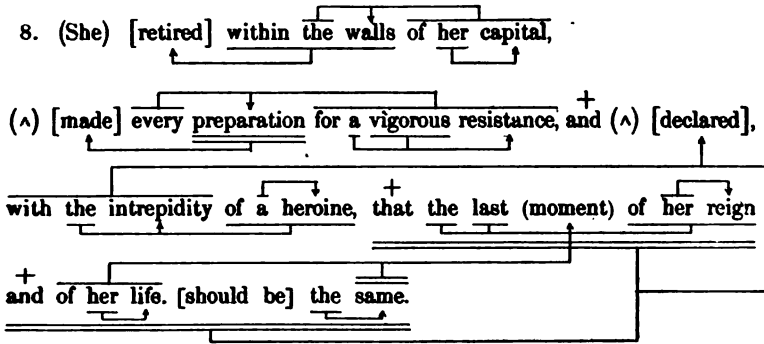
(He) [longed] for the wayside well instead;

And <sup>( )</sup> [closed] his eyes on his garnished rooms,  
 +  
 To dream of meadows and clover blooms.

*Instead* has of the wine understood after it. This word is in reality a prepositional phrase, *in stead*, written as one word. There are many such; as, *indeed*, *aboard*, *astern*, *toward*, etc. When so written, they are commonly used as *adverbs*.

7. The (world) [will] little [note] nor [^] (a) long [remember] what (we) [say] here;  
 +  
 but (it) [can] never [forget] what (they) [did] here.

The first *what* is the object of *say*—*we say what*; the second is the object of *did*—*they did what*. In like manner, *what we say here* is the object of *will note* and (*will*) *remember*, and *what they did here* is the object of *can forget*.



11. A little (learning) [is] a dangerous thing;

( $\wedge$ ) [Drink] deep, or ( $\lambda$ ) [taste] not the Pierian spring.

*Deep* is usually an adjective, but here it is an *adverb*.

12. But (grief) [should be] the instructor of the wise;

(Sorrow) [is] knowledge: (they) (who) [know] the most

[Must mourn] the deepest o'er the fatal truth,

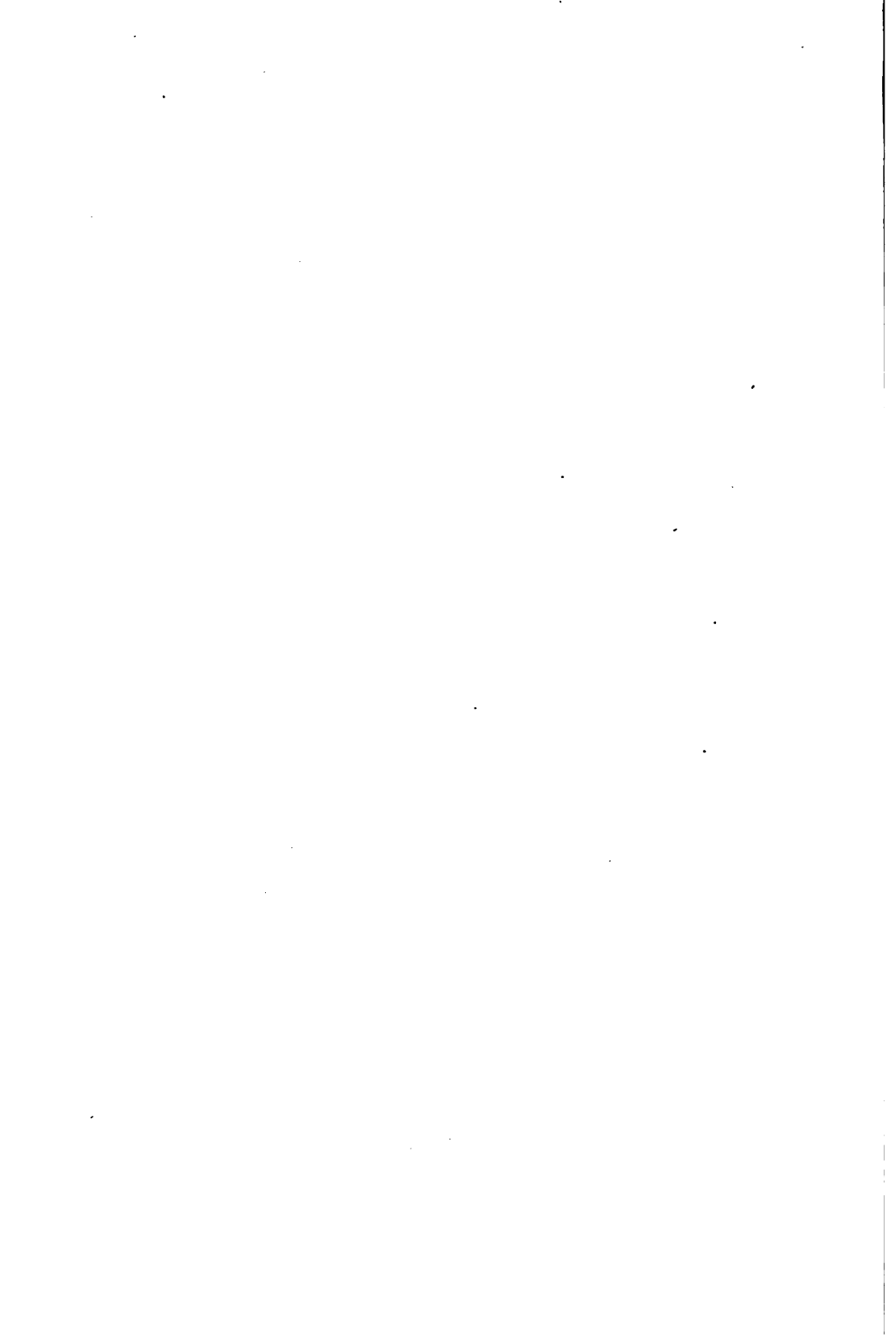
The (Tree) of Knowledge [is] not that of Life.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Make detailed diagrams for the following sentences:

- (a) Habit is the memory of the bodily organs.
- (b) Indian summer is caused by the decay or slow combustion of the leaves.
- (c) We read of the age of stone, of gold, and of iron; the world is now entering the age of electricity.
- (d) I am monarch of all I survey, my right there is none to dispute;  
From the center all round to the sea, I am lord of the fowl  
and the brute.
- (e) If you should talk to him of Jacob's ladder, he would ask how many rounds it had.
- (f) A little child will place a shell to his ear and will hear in it the roar of the distant ocean.
- (g) It is not linen you are wearing out, but human creatures' lives.
- (h) Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll;  
Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain.
- (i) Upon this hint I spake;  
She loved me for the dangers I had passed,  
And I loved her that she did pity them.

- (j) And my soul from out that shadow that lies floating on the floor,  
Shall be lifted nevermore.
- (k) The reward for discharging one duty is the power to perform  
another.
- (l) Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears;  
I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.  
The evil that men do lives after them;  
The good is oft interred with their bones.
- (m) Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,  
These three alone lead life to sovereign power.
- (n) As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate,  
I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honor him; but as he was ambi-  
tious, I slew him.
- (o) On a lone barren isle, where the wild roaring billows  
Assail the stern rock, and the loud tempests rave,  
The hero lies still, where the dew-dropping willows  
Like fond weeping mourners lean over his grave.



# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 3)

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## THE NOUN

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### SUBDIVISIONS OF THE NOUN

**1. Classes of Nouns.**—Any word or expression, whether long or short, that is used in speech or writing as the name of something, is a **noun**. Nouns are divided into two great classes: (1) *common nouns* and (2) *proper nouns*.

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#### COMMON NOUNS

**2. Generic, or Class Names.**—Most of the nouns in our language are class names; that is, names applied in common to classes of things, each class being made up of objects of the same kind. The word *common* is derived from two words meaning "bound together." The things denoted by a common noun are united or bound together in one group or class by certain likenesses—certain common qualities. Thus, the word *boy* is not a name given to one particular thing and to no other; it is a name of any one of a great class composed of millions of objects that are alike in certain particulars. These class names are common nouns; as, *stone, tree, cloud, day*.

**Definition.**—*A common noun is a noun used to name a class of things.*

**3. Varieties of Common Nouns.**—Common nouns have been variously subdivided, but all of them may be included in two great classes:

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1. *Names of Things Sensible.*—This class comprises the names of things that may be perceived by the senses of sight, hearing, etc. Some examples are:

tree, desk, noise, thunder, sweetness, brightness, odor, weight, roughness, music

2. *Names of Things Rational.*—This class of nouns includes the names of things that cannot be perceived by the senses—things that are merely conceived or thought of as existing:

goodness, truth, fear, hatred, patriotism, ambition, absence, neatness, thought, candor, loss

4. Some of the common nouns included in the two classes mentioned above have been grouped as follows:

1. *Collective Nouns.*—These are sometimes called *nouns of multitude*, because they denote many things united in one group. Some examples are:

army, jury, congress, flock, assembly, tribe, nation, regiment, family, drove, covey

2. *Abstract Nouns.*—These are words that name qualities, conditions, or states considered apart from the persons or things that have the qualities, conditions, or states. Such nouns are called *abstract*, because they name something that is drawn away or *abstracted* from the real things that have the quality named. Thus, we may think and talk about *happiness* or *bravery* or *weariness* or *sorrow* without giving any thought or attention to the persons or things that are happy or brave or weary or sorrowful. Other examples of abstract nouns are:

rudeness, thought, anger, solidity, drowsiness, truth, honesty, weight, emptiness

Many abstract nouns end in *ness*. For nearly every adjective denoting quality there is a corresponding abstract noun. The following pairs of words are illustrations, the first word of each pair being an adjective, and the second, a noun:

angry—anger  
 heroic—heroism  
 beautiful—beauty  
 true—truth  
 high—height

brief—brevity  
 witty—wit  
 agile—agility  
 spherical—sphericity  
 stupid—stupidity

3. *Verbal Nouns.*—Some words derived from verbs are called verbal nouns and are used to name actions, just as *tree* and *moon* name real things. In the following sentences the expressions in Italics are verbal nouns:

*Walking* is better exercise than *riding*.

*Seeing* is *believing*.

His *having worked* counted in his favor.

His *having been convicted* led to his discharge from work.

*Sewing, cooking, and dressmaking* are now taught in some schools.

Verbal nouns are really abstract nouns, for they name action apart from the actor, just as *goodness* is the name of something that may be thought of as separated from things that are *good*.

5. *Other Nouns Regarded as Common.*—A common noun has been defined as a name applied to a class of things, but there are many nouns that do not name classes and yet are usually regarded as common nouns. Such are:

1. The names of the sciences; as, *chemistry, astronomy, physics, mathematics*.

2. The names of diseases; as, *cholera, pneumonia, scarlatina*.

3. The names of drugs and chemicals; as, *quinine, bromine, camphor*.

Indeed, there is much confusion among authors in classifying nouns, but it is a matter of little practical consequence. The only really important matter is that the student shall be able to know with certainty that a certain word, on account of the work it does, is a noun.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Classify the fifty-one common nouns in the following sentences as sensible, rational, collective, abstract, and verbal.

(a) The pain suffered in the act of dying is not usually of great severity.

(b) The swiftness of the blow permitted no dodging or running away.

(c) Books are the treasured wealth of the world, the rich inheritance of generations and nations.

(d) When I think what that land was and what its condition is now, a shade of sadness steals over me; my mind reverts from the degradation of the present to the glory of the past.

(e) Reason is the mistress and queen of all things.

(f) Power acquired by crime was never used for a good purpose.

(g) Wóth makes the man, and want of it, the fellow.

(h) A small degree of wit accompanied by good sense is better in the long run than a great amount of it without judgment.

(i) The atmosphere of home breathes rest and comfort and its chambers seem full of welcomes.

(j) How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood,  
When fond recollection recalls them to view.

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#### PROPER NOUNS

6. Nearly all the objects that we think and talk about belong in some class or other, and when we wish to refer to them, their class names are generally definite enough. If for any reason it is necessary to specify more particularly a thing that belongs to one of these classes, we may do so by giving its name and pointing to it, or by joining modifying words to its name. Thus, we may say, *that large red APPLE, the tall MAN with black hair, the largest CITY in the world.* But this is not always satisfactory. We may wish to send a letter, money, or other object to some person living and moving about among millions of other persons in some great distant city. In such cases the class name would be of little use, for it is necessary to distinguish the person or other object we mean from every other. This can be done better than in any other way by using a name given only to that person or thing; as, *Boston, Ohio, Henry Clay, William McKinley.* Such names are *proper nouns*; they are so called from the Latin word *proprius*, meaning "one's own." A proper noun is usually set apart for naming one person or thing; and if its work is to be done perfectly, the name must be used for no other purpose. A common noun distinguishes one class from every other class, while a proper noun is intended to distinguish one individual or thing from every other.

In both writing and printing, a proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

**Definition.**—*A proper noun is a noun used to mark or distinguish some particular person, place, or thing.*

Each country has a name of its own; so also has each city, town, village, and street, as well as most rivers, mountains, lakes, etc.

Germany, Paris, Broadway, Hudson, Ontario

The names of the months, the days of the week, the planets, and the most conspicuous stars are proper nouns.

June, Monday, Saturn, Sirius, Lyra

**7. Proper Nouns Used as Common Nouns.**—A noun strictly proper cannot be preceded by *a* or *an*, for these modifiers imply that the word before which one of them is placed names an entire class of things. Thus, *a Clay*, *a Lincoln*, *a Boston*, denotes that there is a class of *Clays*, of *Lincolns*, and of *Bostons*. When preceded by *a* or *an*, these words should be called common nouns. The following sentences illustrate this usage; and the nouns, although really common, retain their capitals:

A Daniel come to judgment.  
Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest.  
He is a veritable Hercules.

*The* sometimes precedes proper nouns used as common nouns.

The Shakespeares have done more good than the Napoleons.  
The Smiths have gone to visit the Browns.

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## INFLECTIONS OF THE NOUN

**8. Definition of Inflection.**—The word *inflection* is much used in grammar. It comes from two Latin words that mean "in" and "a bending"; it implies that something is *bent* or changed from one form or condition into another. Thus, we speak of the inflections of the voice, meaning its

changes from certain tones to others that are higher or lower. As used in grammar, inflection signifies those changes in the form of a word that come from changes in its use or meaning. Generally, but not always, inflections are variations or additions at the end of a word. The simplest or most common form of a word may be called its *inflectional base*.

The following will illustrate what is meant by the inflection of nouns:

*Uninflected:* The boy ate. The child ran. The mouse plays. The goose flies.

*Inflected:* The boys ate. The children ran. The mice play. The geese fly.

The {boy's } home  
The {boys' }

The {child's } money  
The {children's }

The {mouse's } fur  
The {mice's }

The {goose's } wings  
The {geese's }

**Definition.**—*Inflection is a change in the form of a word made in consequence of some change in its meaning or use.*

**9. Three Noun Inflections.**—Nouns are inflected for three purposes:

1. *To Denote Number.*—That is, to show whether a noun signifies *one* of the objects it names, or *more than one* of them:

norse, horses; church, churches; ox, oxen; die, dice

2. *To Denote Sex.*—Many nouns have one form for males and another for females. This, however, is not an inflection, for there is no inflectional base. Some examples are:

man, woman; boy, girl; colt, filly; drake, duck; wizard, witch

When the distinction of sex is made by a true inflection, the inflectional base denotes the male sex and the inflected or changed form denotes the female sex.

Thus, *lion, actor, count, marquis, negro*, are uninflected forms, and they name males; the inflected forms, *lioness, actress, countess, marchioness, negress*, denote females.

3. *To Denote Case.*—Case is the relation in which a noun or any substitute for a noun stands to other words in a sentence. While there are several different relations that

nouns may have in sentences, and therefore several cases, there is only one case in the English language that is shown by inflection. This is the one that denotes possession; as, *John's hat*. There are several different relations that are shown by this case. Among them are *origin*; as, the *sun's* rays, my *father's* confidence; *attachment* or *adjunct*; as, *man's* duty, the *earth's* weight.

**10. Another Function of Nouns.**—When a noun is so used in a sentence as to name or denote the *speaker*, the *person or thing spoken to*, or the *person or thing spoken of*, it is sometimes said to be inflected for **person**. This, however, is not an inflection at all, for an inflection is a *change of form*. This function of nouns is shown by other words in the sentence—the context. The noun itself remains unchanged, whether it denotes the speaker, the person addressed, or the person or thing spoken about in the sentence. Thus,

*Speaking:* I, *John*, saw it.

*Addressed:* *John*, come here.

*Spoken of:* I met *John*.

For convenience, however, it is usual to say that nouns have four inflections, the fourth being for person.

**11. Special Names of Inflections.**—Of the eight parts of speech, five either really have inflection or are said to have it. When some or all of the inflections of any part of speech are arranged in an orderly way, the arrangement has, for that particular part of speech, a special name.

1. *Nouns* and *pronouns* have **declension**—they are *declined*.

2. *Adjectives* and *adverbs* have **comparison**—they are *compared*.

3. *Verbs* have **conjugation**—they are *conjugated*.

The remaining parts of speech—prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections—are not inflected; they have forms that never vary whatever change may occur in the way they are used in sentences. They are said to be **uninflected** or **invariable**.

**12. Kinds of Inflection.**—There are three methods of grammatical inflection:

1. *By Suffixes.*—This is the method most in use in inflecting English words.

boy, boy's; ox, oxen; god, goddess; child, children

Inflection by suffixes often requires some change in the inflectional base.

tiger, tigress; duke, duchess; calf, calves

2. *By Change Within the Body of the Word.*—This variety of inflection is much less common than the first, and it occurs most frequently among certain verbs.

run, ran; sing, sang, sung

Of nouns, we have examples in

man, men; mouse, mice; tooth, teeth; foot, feet

A combination of the first and second methods is frequent.

slay, slew, slain; brother, brethren

3. *By Different Words.*

witch, wizard; boy, girl; he goat, she goat; man servant, maid servant; am, is, was; I, we

As has been said, this is not inflection; but, as a matter of mere convenience, most grammarians treat it as a real inflection.

#### NUMBER IN NOUNS

**13. Definition of Number.**—Whether a noun means one, or more than one, of the objects it names, is known from one or both of two facts:

1. *Its form.*

man, men; house, houses; mouse, mice; goose, geese

2. *Its use.*

The SHEEP *is* black. The SHEEP *are* mine.

My FISH *is* a trout. Your FISH *are* salmon.

Here the form of the verb shows the number of the noun.

**Definition.**—*The number of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes one or more than one.*

**Definition.**—*The singular number of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes one.*

**Definition.**—*The plural number of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes more than one.*

**14. Rules for Forming the Plural of Nouns.**—Many nouns form their plurals irregularly, but the following rules include most English nouns:

**General Rule.**—Most nouns form their plural by adding *s* or *es* to the singular.

star, stars; box, boxes; church, churches

The ear is nearly always a reliable guide in determining whether *s* should be added or whether *es* is required. The following cases should be noted:

**Special Rules.**—1. Nouns ending (*a*) in *s*, *sh*, *x*, *z*, *ch* soft, and some ending (*b*) in *o* after a consonant, are pluralized by adding *es*; as, *mass*, *masses*; *lash*, *lashes*; *sex*, *sexes*; *topaz*, *topazes*; *larch*, *larches*.

Some examples of (*b*) are *calico*, *tornado*, *torpedo*, *innuendo*, *virago*, *mulatto*, *stiletto*, *wo*, *potato*, *mango*, *cargo*, *echo*, *hero*, *negro*, *embargo*, *buffalo*, etc.

Many words of this kind take only *s*; as, *canto*, *junto*, *solo*, *quarto*, *tyro*, *octavo*, *nuncio*, *embryo*, *folio*, etc.

2. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel add *s* to form the plural; as, *chimney*, *valley*, *money*, *key*, *play*, *joy*, *viceroys*, *alley*, *monkey*, *guy*, etc.

3. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant are pluralized by changing *y* into *i* and then adding *es*; as, *fly*, *ally*, *city*, etc.

4. Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change the *f* or *fe* into *v*, and then add *es* to form the plural; as, *thief*, *wife*, *life*, *wolf*, *sheaf*, *beef*, *loaf*, *calf*, *half*, *leaf*. *Wharf* and *staff* have in the plural *wharves* or *wharfs*, and *staves* or *staffs*. Others in *f* and *fe* add *s* alone; as, *life*, *gulf*, etc.



5. Compounds generally pluralize the modified part; as, *brothers-in-law*, *corner-stones*, *wagon-loads*, etc. When the elements of the compound are closely associated, the *s* is put at the end; as, *graveyards*, *pineapples*, *forget-me-nots*, *spoonfuls*.

6. Letters, numerals, and arbitrary characters are generally pluralized by taking 's; as, *9's*, *A's*, *+'s*,  $\sqrt{\quad}$ 's.

7. The plurals of proper nouns are generally formed regularly; as, *the Dr. Browns*. But we may say, *the Messrs. Howard*, *the Doctors King*, *the two Miss Joneses*, or *the two Misses Jones*. The names of two or more persons each of whom has the same title are pluralized thus: *Generals Grant and Sherman*; *the Misses Jones, Smith, and Brown* (if unmarried); *Mesdames Jones, Smith, and Brown* (if married); *Messrs. Bray and Martin*.

8. Nouns that have been taken unchanged from other languages, usually retain their foreign plurals. The following are examples:

Phenomenon, phenomena; analysis, analyses; stratum, strata; genius, genii; focus, foci; cherub, cherubim; beau, beaux; index, indices; radix, radices.

Some words of this class form their plurals as if they were English words; as, *seraphs*, *cherubs*, *focuses*, *indexes*, *geniuses*, *formulas*, *radices*.

9. Many nouns, on account of their meaning, have no plural. Some of them are *darkness*, *laziness*, *sloth*, *honesty*, *eloquence*, *pride*, *mekness*, *gold*, *silver*, *quinine*, *galvanism*.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Use in sentences the plurals of the following words: money, dwarf, hero, tomato, gas, roof, checker-board, penny, fish, grouse.

2. Write five sentences each containing a noun shown by its form to be plural.

3. Write five sentences each containing a noun shown by its use to be plural.

4. Copy the following, then underscore the singulars and doubly underscore the plurals: news, wages, politics, means, riches, alms, measles, victuals, scales, dregs, scissors, committee, audience.

5. Write the plural of handful, knight-templar, rose-tree, mother-superior, court-martial, Miss Alexander, postmaster-general, Mrs. Ewing.

## GENDER IN NOUNS

**15. How Words Denote Sex.**—The distinction of *sex*, whether real or imagined in the things denoted by nouns, is made, when made at all, in the following ways:

1. By the form, or by the meaning, of words.

empress, girl, ruffian, witch, woman

2. By the use made of other words in the sentence; that is, by the context.

When the *sun* exerted *his* power, the *moon* shed *her* beams in vain.  
The *ship* spread *her* white wings and soon faded in the distance.

This giving of gender to the names of sexless things is called **personification**.

Animals alone have sex in the usual sense. With the exception of the highest classes of these, their sex is not generally regarded as of sufficient importance to be noted in language. The young of human kind, and even adults, are often spoken of in terms that do not show their sex. Thus, we say:

The *child* had finished *its* sleep.

The *members* of the party enjoyed *themselves* at the picnic.

The *students* were dressed in *their* holiday clothes.

**16. Sex and Gender.**—The student must carefully distinguish between *sex* and *gender*. The former is a characteristic of *living beings*, the latter of *words*. Thus, the word *man* has gender, and the object named by the word *man* has sex. We may therefore speak of the male sex, the female sex, the masculine gender, or the feminine gender, but not of the masculine sex, the feminine sex, the male gender, or the female gender.

**Definition.**—*The gender of a word is that form or use of it by which sex is denoted.*

**Definition.**—*The masculine gender is that form or use of a word by which the male sex is denoted.*

**Definition.**—*The feminine gender is that form or use of a word by which the female sex is denoted.*

**Definition.**—*The neuter gender is that form or use of a word by which the absence of sex is denoted.*

**Definition.**—*The common gender is that form or use of a word by which the sex of the thing named is left uncertain.*

The *sheep* were grazing on the hillside.

The *employees* received their pay on Saturday.

**17. Gender by Form or Meaning.**—There are two methods by which gender is denoted by the forms of words:

1. *By Gender Suffixes.*—The endings *ess, ine, trix*, and *a* usually denote that the word is of the feminine gender. When these suffixes are added to the masculine form, some modification in spelling is usually necessary.

*Masculine:* Baron, actor, master, executor, hero, signor

*Feminine:* Baroness, actress, mistress, executrix, heroine, signora

2. *By Gender Prefixes.*—By the use of prefixes or separate modifiers, such as *man, woman, male, female, he, she*, expressions denoting gender are formed.

*Masculine:* Man servant, cock robin, he goat, menfolk

*Feminine:* Maid servant, hen robin, she goat, womenfolk

By their *meaning*, without respect to form, words may denote sex.

*Masculine:* Man, monk, nephew, husband, wizard, uncle

*Feminine:* Woman, nun, niece, wife, witch, aunt

**18. Gender by Use or Context.**—There are two principal varieties of this method of denoting gender:

1. The gender of words is often denoted by other words in the sentence; that is, by the context. The following are some examples:

The *elephant* performed **HIS** task.

The *robin* attacked **HER** enemies.

The *governor* **MARRIED** one of *his* **CLERKS**.

2. Things without sex are often personified; that is, they are spoken of as if they were persons. This usage is frequent in poetry. Objects characterized by energy, strength,

great size, or violence are represented as masculine; those conceived of as tender, refined, weak, beautiful, or gentle are treated as feminine. Thus,

*Masculine:* The *sun*, the *ocean*, *winter*, a *flood*, a *river* during a flood, a *mountain*, *anarchy*, the various *vices*, actions characterized by rage, energy, or violence, such as *murder*, *war*, *riot*, *rapine*

*Feminine:* *Spring*, a *ship*, a *balloon*, the *moon*, many of the more delicate and beautiful *flowers*, such as the *lily*, *violet*, *rose*, etc., *cities and countries*, *science*, the gentler *virtues*, *nature*

When abstract qualities are personified in exclamations, the nouns denoting them may be capitalized. Thus,

Lay thy soft hand upon my brow and cheek, O peaceful Sleep!  
O Liberty! Liberty! how many crimes are committed in thy name!

**19. Omission of Feminine Distinctions.**—There is an increasing tendency among writers to omit the distinctions that mark the feminine gender. This is especially the case with prefixes and suffixes. Thus, we apply to both males and females such words as *servant*, *doctor*, *author*, *writer*, *teacher*, *artist*, *poet*, *clerk*, *executor*, *minister*, *citizen*.

Indeed, the inflection for gender is of very little importance in grammar; and, with the lapse of time, it is being more and more ignored. As illustrations of the truth of this statement, it may be remarked that most grammarians reject the common gender, and many, the neuter gender.

**20. Gender of Proper Names.**—There are many pairs of proper names similar in form for the two sexes:

Julius, Julia; Charles, Caroline or Charlotte (*Latin*, *masc.* Carolus, *fem.* Carolina); William (*German*, Wilhelm), Wilhelmina; Henry, Henrietta; Francis, Frances; John, Johanna; Joseph, Josephine

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Write the feminine forms of the following nouns: abbot, gander, Joseph, master, bachelor, marquis, John, count, heir, testator, Paul, sir, czar, sultan, horse, king, Augustus, earl, drake, colt, hart, Lucius (Luke); buck, ram, shepherd, Louis, monk, friar, widower, priest, Cornelius, lad, bridegroom, beau, merman, male, peacock, landlord, tiger.

2. Compose sentences personifying the following words in such way as to show gender: Rome, Columbia, "Maine" (battle-ship), Spain, ocean, Tiber, moon, sun, winter, May, December, and the names of the planets Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn.

3. Write sentences in which the following are personified and the gender is indicated by the context: sun, mountain, Rhine, New York City, England, hope, sleep, fame, death, hate.

**Model.**—*Boston* is proud of the achievements of *her* gifted sons.  
Let *fate* do *her* worst; I care not.

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#### PERSON IN NOUNS

**Definition.**—Persons in grammar are those relations and uses of words by which the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing spoken of are distinguished from one another.

**21. Three Persons of Nouns.**—A noun is said to be in the *first person* when it names the speaker.

*I, William McKinley*, do hereby appoint etc.  
*We*, the *undersigned*, agree to pay etc.

A noun is said to be in the *second person* when it names the person or thing addressed.

Thou, *God*, seest me.  
Ye *crags* and *peaks*, I'm with you once again.  
Come, *John*; let us go.

A noun is said to be in the *third person* when it names the person or thing spoken of or mentioned.

The *people* told the *sexton* and the *sexton* tolled the *bell*.

**22. Person Not a Real Inflection of Nouns.**—Some authorities assert that nouns have no distinction of person, because they undergo no change of form to denote the speaker, the hearer, or the person or thing mentioned. They would say that in the sentence given above, *William McKinley* mentions his own name—speaks of himself—merely to explain who is meant by the pronoun *I*.

Nouns in the first and second persons are always used independently. A noun in the first person is independent by apposition, and a noun in the second person is independent by address.

**23. Person of a Subject Noun.**—Strictly a noun used as the subject of a verb is in the third person, even though it names the speaker or the hearer. For one may speak about himself or his hearer as if each were a third party and absent.

Thus, Brown may say of himself, "If Brown is summoned, he will surely go." "Is my old friend [addressing him], the doctor, still enjoying life?" Here *Brown*, *friend*, and *doctor* are in the third person.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Tell the person of each italicized word:

- (a) *Comrades*, leave me here a little, while as yet 'tis early *morn*:  
Leave me here, and when you want me, sound upon the *bugle-horn*.
- (b) O, *mother*, your *boy* is so sorry; forgive him, and he will never vex his dear *mother* in the same *way* again.
- (c) We are such *stuff*  
As *dreams* are made of, and our little *life*  
Is rounded with a *sleep*.
- (d) And I have loved thee, *ocean*; and my *joy*  
Of youthful *sports* was on thy *breast* to be  
Borne like thy *bubbles* onward; from a *boy*  
I wanted with thy *breakers*—they to me  
Were a *delight*; \* \* \*
- (e) Who noble *ends* by noble *means* obtains,  
Or, failing, smiles in *exile* or in *chains*,  
Like good *Aurelius* let him reign, or bleed  
Like *Socrates*, that *man* is great indeed.

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#### CASE IN NOUNS

**24. Meaning of the Word Case.**—The student has already learned that a noun or a pronoun may be related in a number of different ways to other words in a sentence—that it may fill various uses or functions. For example, a noun may be the *subject* of a sentence, it may be the *predicate noun*, it may be the *object* of a verb or of a preposition, and it may fill other offices. These several uses of nouns and pronouns in helping to express thought make up the *cases* in grammar.

Among all the cases of English nouns, there is found only one real inflection or change from the ordinary simple form of the word—from the inflectional base. This is in the form by which ownership, origin, or adjunct is denoted; such as, a *boy's* hat, the *girl's* story, *Rome's* greatness. Of the case relations of the noun, this is the only one that may be known by its form; all other cases must be inferred from the way the noun is used—from its relation to other words.

The word *case* is from the Latin *casus*, which means "a falling." In that language there were formerly seven cases. Of these, there was one case that depended for its form on no other. This was the nominative, the form that merely names. Since this case form could stand alone, as if erect and independent, while the others appeared only in sentential structure and in dependence on other words, the nominative was called the *erect* or *upright* case (*casus rectus*). From it the others—the *oblique* cases—were formed. From this notion that the other cases *decline* (*lean away*) from the nominative, came the word *declension*, which in grammar means an orderly arrangement showing the nominative or erect form and the oblique or declined cases.

In the sense that case is a falling, the nominative is not a case at all; but this curious use of the word *case* has been extended in grammar to include all the relational forms and uses of nouns and pronouns.

**Definition.**—Case in grammar is that form or use of a noun or a pronoun by which its relation to other words in a sentence is shown.

**25. Number of Cases.**—Most grammarians consider that English nouns have three cases: the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*. These include all the functions or relations that are filled by nouns and pronouns in English sentences.

**26. The Nominative Case.**—The word *nominative* means "naming." The singular of every noun in the nominative case is the form that is always given in dictionaries where the word is to be defined, or where we merely mention

the word; as, *man, tree, mountain*. From this singular nominative, the plural nominative is formed by the rules already given. Thus, *men, trees, mountains*, are plural nominatives.

But since the objective forms of nouns are exactly like the nominative forms, both in the singular and in the plural, these cases must be recognized, not by their forms, but by their work or function in sentences.

The most frequent and important use of the noun is in the relation of subject to a verb that predicates; that is, those verb forms that are called *finite*—the verb forms that state, question, or command.

[There are certain forms, not finite, called *infinitives, participles, and verbal nouns*; such are, *to see, to be seen, to have seen, having seen, seeing*, etc. These verbals are not used by themselves to predicate, but they do duty as adjectives, adverbs, and nouns.]

When a noun stands in a sentence as the subject of a finite verb, it is said to be in the nominative case. The nominative subject of a verb is the word that answers the question *Who?* or *What?*

The boy can swim. Who can swim? The boy. The word *boy* is, then, the subject of the sentence.

Does the earth rotate? Does what rotate? The earth.

All the trains will have gone. What will have gone? The trains.

**Definition.**—*The nominative case is the form or use of a word in the relation of subject of a finite verb.*

It should be understood that the nominative case, although defined above as if employed in only one way, has several other uses besides that of standing as the subject of a finite verb. These, however, are of much less importance than the use as subject. The other uses of nouns in the nominative case will be explained later.

**Definition.**—*The possessive case is the form or use of a word by which it denotes possession, origin, or adjunct.*

**Possession:** The girl's book. The book belongs to the girl—is her property.



*Origin:* The sun's light. The light has its origin in the sun—comes from the sun. The poet's lines. The sailor's story.

*Adjunct:* The boy's height. Height is a quality or an adjunct of a boy. The earth's size. The river's depth.

**27. Remarks on the Possessive Case.**—Besides the three relations mentioned above, there are several others that are denoted by the possessive case. The possessive case being a real inflection, however, there is no difficulty in knowing the case by its form.

The inflected form is used mostly with the names of living beings. Thus, we may say, the horse's owner, but not the tree's foliage; the snail's speed, but not the train's speed; etc. For inanimate objects, it is better to use the uninflected noun with the preposition *of*: as, the *top of the tree*, the *owner of the land*, the *speed of the train*, not *the tree's top*, *the land's owner*, *the train's speed*.

We very frequently speak of inanimate things as if they were real living agencies; in other words, we personify them. In such cases the inflected form of the noun is to be preferred to the prepositional phrase.

the torrent's fury, the storm's progress, the fire's hunger

There is, however, some authority for the use of the possessive case with the names of inanimate things.

In the above expressions a noun in the possessive case takes the place of a prepositional phrase; the latter being in function an adjective, it is clear that a noun in the possessive case has the value of an adjective modifier.

Some nouns ending in *s*, *x*, *ce*, and *es*, in order to avoid too many hissing sounds, take only the apostrophe in the possessive singular; as, *Moses'* laws, *Socrates'* death, for *Jesus'* sake, for *conscience'* sake, *Demosthenes'* safety, *Xerxes'* army, the *Sioux'* defense, *Bullions'* grammar, the *Ganges'* side.

The possessive should be formed in the usual way unless the offensive sound is very noticeable.

Compound nouns add the sign of the possessive to the last element; as, *the Emperor of Germany's tour*, *Smith and Brown's store*. In the case of long compounds, however, it is usually better to avoid such possessives. For example,

*by the order of the commander-in-chief* should be preferred to *by the commander-in-chief's order*; and *the tour of the Emperor of Germany*, to *the Emperor of Germany's tour*.

**28. The Objective Case.**—The objective case is so named because its most frequent use is in the relation of the object of a verb or a preposition. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a verb names that which receives the action performed by some actor.

The boy *struck* the DOG.

The policeman *arrested* the BURGLAR.

The teacher *praised* her PUPILS.

When a noun or a pronoun is brought by a preposition into relation with some other word, the relation begins with the one word and ends with the other, very much as action begins with an actor and ends with that which receives the action. The preposition specifies and directs the relation, just as a verb specifies and directs the action. Hence, the word in which the relation ends that is specified and directed by a preposition, is in the objective case.

The object of a verb or of a preposition is the word that answers the question *Whom?* or *What?*

I saw the teacher. I saw whom? The teacher. *Teacher* is therefore the object of the verb *saw*.

Mary crossed the ocean. Mary crossed what? The ocean.

The boy went with his father. The boy went with whom? His father.

He leans against the tree. He leans against what? The tree.

There are some other uses of nouns and pronouns in which they are said to be in the objective case. These will be explained later. The foregoing are, however, the most frequent uses of the objective case, and are usually referred to in the definition of this case.

**Definition.**—*The objective case is the form or use of a word in the relation of object of a verb or of a preposition.*

*Object of a Verb:* We *visited* the SHOW. The boy *recited* a POEM.

*Object of a Preposition:* He *leaned against* the FENCE. The moon looked *into* his BEDCHAMBER.

**29. Declension of Nouns.**—The declension of a noun is an orderly arrangement of its cases in both the singular and the plural number. The declension of the common nouns *girl* and *mouse*, and that of the proper noun *Mary* are given below. *Mary*; like all nouns strictly proper, has no plural.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR
<i>Nominative:</i>	girl	girls	mouse	mice	Mary
<i>Possessive:</i>	girl's	girls'	mouse's	mice's	Mary's
<i>Objective:</i>	girl	girls	mouse	mice	Mary

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Write expressions containing the possessive case singular of the proper nouns, and the same case in both numbers of the common nouns in the following list:

**Model.**—the horse's strength, the horses' strength; D. Appleton & Co.'s publications

comrade, goose, deer, man servant, Jones the hatter, child, calf, robin, boy preacher, Cyrus the Great, lady, hero, fish, childwife, Clafin & Co., fly, ox, witness, shipmaster, Grant and Lee, woman, mouse, brother, woman servant, Jack the Giant Killer, man, mother, thief, brother-in-law, John of Anjou, chief, wolf, conscience, aide-de-camp, Arnold the traitor

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#### FUNCTIONS OF THE CASES

**30. Use of the Nominative Case.**—The various uses that may be made of nouns in expressing thought have already been explained and illustrated. We come now to the consideration of the cases assumed by nouns when they are employed in particular relations.

The nominative case has five principal uses or functions in sentences.

1. A noun used as the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case. This function of nouns has already been mentioned.

The *teacher* is sick.

The *horse* drew the load.

The *soldier* may have been killed.

2. A noun used as a predicate noun is in the nominative case. The predicate noun always denotes the same person or thing as the subject. The most frequent use of nouns in this way is after some form of the verb *be*. Some of these forms are *am, is, are, was, were, has been, have been, had been, will be*, etc.

The diamond is a precious <i>stone</i> .	Grant looked a <i>hero</i> .
That boy will be <i>president</i> .	Jones was chosen <i>speaker</i> .
He seemed a <i>scholar</i> .	She walks a <i>queen</i> .

In these sentences, the same person or thing is denoted by each of the following pairs of words: *diamond, stone; boy, president; he, scholar; Grant, hero; Jones, speaker; she, queen*. The verb placed between each pair unites them so as to form an assertion.

Diamond *is* carbon. Grant *looked* a hero.

Because *is, am, and are* so often serve this purpose of connecting a subject with a predicate nominative, they are called *copulas*—something that *couples, joins, unites*.

3. A noun in apposition with another nominative is itself in the nominative case. This function of a noun is very much like that of an adjective—it is explanatory and modifying.

Grant the *general* ended the war.  
Cicero the *orator* was a Roman.

4. A noun may be used independently in the nominative case. In this construction, the nominative fills the office for which it is named—its nominating or naming function. A word so used has no grammatical relation to other words. It stands in an independent relation and has no other use than merely to name some person or thing. This independence is of three varieties:

(a) *By Address*.

And, *Saxon*, I am Roderick Dhu.  
Study your lessons, *children*.

(b) *By Exclamation*.

*Fire!* See the fire!  
*O Sleep!* it is a gentle thing, beloved from pole to pole.

(c) *By Pleonasm*.—Strictly speaking, any noun or pronoun that overfills a construction is *pleonastic*; for this is what the word means. But pleonasm is the mere mention of a noun or a pronoun, not in the way of address or exclamation, but as suggesting that about which the sentence treats more fully. It is a use for the sake of emphasis; the pleonastic noun or pronoun is not the subject or object of a verb.

The *sea*—it is the greatest thing God ever made.

The *boy*, oh, where was he?

*Tears*, idle *tears*, I know not what they mean.

5. A noun used absolutely is in the nominative case. This also is a kind of independent construction. It consists of a noun or a pronoun used with a verbal to form a phrase that is usually the equivalent of a dependent clause. This phrase, although it is not a necessary part in the sentential structure, generally adds some modifying circumstance.

*Dawn* having appeared, we departed = When dawn appeared  
= At dawn we departed.

Our *destination* having been reached, we went ashore.

*Autumn* coming on, the nights grew colder.

**31. Use of the Possessive Case.**—The possessive case is generally regarded as having but one function in grammar. This is to denote possession or some similar relation. Its real use is to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun; for, when we say *John's hat*, the effect produced on the meaning of *hat* by the word *John's* is exactly similar to that which would be produced if an adjective such as *black* were used with *hat*.

**32. Use of the Objective Case.**—The objective case has a variety of uses each of which the student should be able to recognize.

1. A noun is in the objective case when it is the direct object of a verb.

They *sang* a HYMN.

He *wasted* his MONEY.

We *saw* the MOON.

2. A noun is in the objective case when it is the indirect object of a verb.

They *laught* the BOY arithmetic—that is, *to* the boy.  
I *bought* the GIRL a book—*for* the girl.

A noun so used is generally equivalent to a prepositional phrase used as a modifier and consisting of a noun or a pronoun preceded by *to* or *for*. More exactly, the indirect object, with *to* or *for* understood, forms an adverbial phrase modifying the meaning of the verb. It is not an object of the verb, but of an understood preposition.

3. A noun is in the objective case when it is used in apposition with another word in the objective case.

He struck *John*, his BROTHER.  
We visited *New York*, the METROPOLIS of America.  
He killed the *fawn*, our PET.  
Paul appealed to *Rome*, the MISTRESS of the world.

A noun or a pronoun may have an appositive to explain or modify its meaning. As is the case with an appositive nominative, the explaining word and the word explained always denote the same person or thing, and are always in the same case.

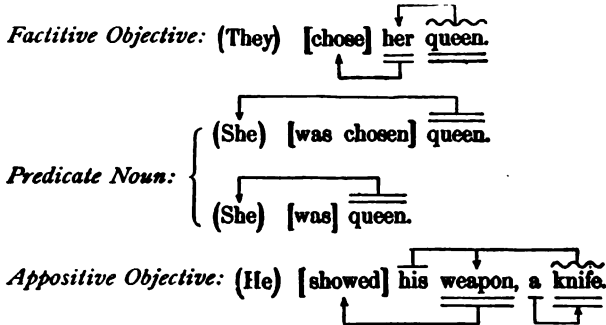
4. A noun is in the objective case when it is used as a factitive object after certain verbs. The following sentences illustrate this construction:

They made *him* TEACHER.  
The people elected *Washington* PRESIDENT.  
The convention appointed the *mayor* CHAIRMAN.  
The troops considered their *general* a COWARD.  
The parents named their *baby* RUTH.  
I think *lying* a detestable HABIT.  
The jury deemed the *prisoner* a CRIMINAL.  
The president appointed *him* POSTMASTER.

In these sentences, the factitive object (in small capitals) denotes the same person as the direct object.

Factitive and appositive objectives are grammatically independent elements, although, logically, they are closely related to the direct objects they explain. In diagramming they should be indicated by wavy lines drawn above them.

The following diagrams will show the similarity of this construction to an ordinary appositive and to a predicate noun:



5. Another variety of the objective case is that called the adverbial objective. Certain words denoting time, measure, weight, distance, value, etc. are used in the objective case to modify like adverbs.

We went <i>home</i> and stayed a <i>week</i> .	The river is a <i>mile</i> wide.
He was six <i>feet</i> high.	He wanted a farm fifty <i>acres</i> larger.
The hat is worth a <i>shilling</i> .	It will be forgotten a hundred <i>years</i> hence.
The ship sailed last <i>night</i> .	
She weighs one hundred <i>pounds</i> .	
We waited an <i>hour</i> .	

These adverbial objectives are generally remnants of prepositional phrases. Thus, the foregoing may be regarded as shortened forms of the following:

We went (to) home and stayed (through or during) a week.  
 He was high (by or to the extent of) six feet.  
 It cost (to the amount of) a dollar.  
 The hat is worth (to the extent of) a shilling. Etc.

6. A noun used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case. As we have seen, prepositions are used with nouns and pronouns to form phrases. The nouns and pronouns in such phrases are in the objective case.

They live *in* the COUNTRY.  
 He believed *in* GOVERNMENT *of* the PEOPLE, *for* the PEOPLE, *and by* the PEOPLE.  
 He that is not *with* ME is *against* ME.

7. A noun used as the object of a verbal is in the objective case. As has already been explained, verbals are certain verb forms that cannot by themselves predicate, but are used as adjectives or nouns. They preserve their verbal character enough to be modified as verbs are, and to take objects after them. Such objects are nouns or pronouns in the objective case, or expressions used as equivalents of nouns or pronouns.

*Seeing* the MULTITUDE, he went up into a mountain.

He was engaged in *studying* his LESSON.

The man was accused of *robbing* a BANK.

He was arrested for *having stolen* some FRUIT.

*Earning* MONEY is hard work; *spending* MONEY is very easy work.

*Multitude* is the object of *seeing*, and the whole phrase, *seeing the multitude*, is a modifier of *he*.

8. A noun used as the subject or object of an infinitive is in the objective case. Verbals that begin with *to* are called *infinitives*. Examples of their various forms are:

to see, to be seeing, to be seen, to have been seen, to have seen, to have been seeing

In these verbals *to* is called the *sign of the infinitive*. The following sentences illustrate this use of the objective case:

I told HIM *to go*.

They persuaded the BOY *to accompany* them.

We expected the HOUSE *to be finished* before last December.

It is hard for NATIVES of the tropics *to endure* a cold CLIMATE.

They sent the BOY *to cut* CORN.

It will be noticed that these subjects of the infinitive are at the same time objects of prepositions or of predicating verbs.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. State the case of each noun in the following, and tell its use or function:

- (a) His father was a hero of the Revolution.
- (b) Pizarro plundered and murdered the Inca of Peru.
- (c) Believing in his innocence, the lawyer defended him.
- (d) O that I were the viewless spirit of a lovely sound.
- (e) Gold is by no means the most costly metal.



- (*f*) The diamond is mere crystallized carbon.  
 (*g*) Her vacation over, she returned at once to resume her work.  
 (*h*) Death, the great leveler, comes to knock at every door.  
 (*i*) "Time, I have lost it; ah, the treasure"; and he died.  
 (*j*) He brought his game, a deer, on his back.  
 (*k*) "My home; I never had a home at any time in my life."  
 (*l*) The committee found him dictating letters to his secretary.  
 (*m*) They thought him a hero; they found him a coward.  
 (*n*) To follow the path of duty, to obey the monitor conscience, should be the aim of all.  
 (*o*) Backward, turn backward, O Time in your flight,  
       Make me a child again, just for tonight.  
 (*p*) The cottage contained seven rooms, including a laundry.  
 (*q*) The judge having learned the facts, sent the merchant a summons to appear in court.

2. Construct sentences each containing one of these verbs followed by a predicate nominative: was, seemed, appeared, became, was considered.

3. By using the following as verbs, make sentences containing a direct and a factitive object: name, thought, call, choose, consider.

4. Write a sentence containing a nominative case absolute.

5. Illustrate by sentences a nominative and an objective appositive.

6. Write two sentences each containing the adverbial objective construction.

7. Make two sentences, each containing an appositive objective and two each containing a factitive objective.

8. Write sentences containing nouns used as the objects of the following infinitives: to write, to have seen, to have known.

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#### PARSING THE NOUN

**33. Oral Parsing.**—A noun is parsed orally by stating in an orderly way its classification, its inflections, its functions, and its relations. To illustrate, let it be required to parse the nouns in the following sentence:

The visitor was Richelieu, the minister of France.

*Visitor:* it is a noun, common, third, masculine, singular, nominative, subject of *was*.

*Richelieu:* it is a noun, proper, third, masculine, singular, nominative, predicate noun, agrees in case with *visitor*, and denotes the same person that is indicated by the subject.

*Minister*: it is a noun, common, third, masculine, singular, nominative, in apposition with *Richelieu*, the meaning of which it explains.

*France*: it is a noun, proper, third, neuter, singular, objective, object of the preposition *of*, with which it forms an adjective phrase modifying the meaning of *minister*.

In oral parsing, the reasons should at first be fully given; later, they may be omitted as above; and finally, it is enough to give only the most important facts. For example, with respect to the nouns parsed above, the pupil may say:

*Visitor*: it is a common noun, nominative, subject of *was*.

*Richelieu*: it is a proper noun, the predicate nominative.

*Minister*: it is a common noun, nominative, in apposition with *Richelieu*.

*France*: it is a proper noun, object of the preposition *of*.

**34. Written Parsing.**—A form for the written parsing of nouns is shown below.

Here comes his body, mourned by Mark Antony, who, though he had no hand in his death, shall receive the benefit of his dying, a place in the commonwealth.

Noun	Class	Gender	Number	Case	Relation
body	common	neuter	sing.	nom.	subject of <i>comes</i>
Mark Antony	proper	mascu.	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>by</i>
hand	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of verb <i>had</i>
death	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>in</i>
benefit	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of verb <i>shall receive</i>
dying	verbal	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>of</i>
place	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	independent by app.
commonwealth	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>in</i>

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Parse the nouns in the following sentences:

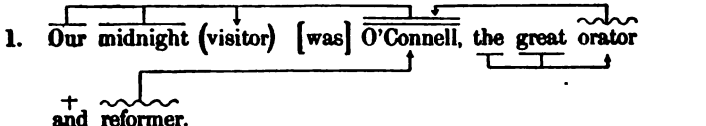
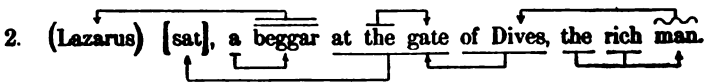

- (a) Can you tell me, John, whether there are lions in India?  
 (b) Money, the root of all evil, is, however, the power that makes success and failure.  
 (c) Columbus, fearing a mutiny, promised his men to return to Spain.

- (d) There is a tide in the affairs of men, which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.
- (e) The book cost a dollar and was sold for two dollars.
- (f) I had got home to my little tent where I lay all night.
- (g) They call him king of the coral isle,  
The lord of the tropic seas.
- (h) A man beyond middle age entered, wearing the look of one that knew the world and was sure of his own course in it.
- (i) The woman's cause is man's; they rise or sink together.
- (j) There stands not by the Ganges' side  
A house where none has ever died.
- (k) A man naturally feels himself superior to him that turns somersaults, whether literal or literary.
- (l) The unwearied sun from day to day  
Does his Creator's power display,  
And publishes to every land  
The works of an Almighty hand.

### DIAGRAMS OF THE CASE CONSTRUCTIONS

#### MODELS OF ANALYSIS

35. In order that the student may become familiar with the various case constructions and with the method of representing them by diagrams, some model analyses are here given.

1. 
2. 
3. 

The words *beggar* and *gentleman* in 2 and 3 are, like *O'Connell* in 1, predicate nominatives.

4. The boy's (absence) [caused] his mother, poor thing, much grief.

In 4, the preposition *to* or *for* is understood before *his mother*.

5. The (vessel) [sunk] last night ten miles from shore.

*Night* and *miles* are adverbial objectives modifying *sunk*. The carets indicate the usual place of the preposition in adverbial phrases.

6. Your sister, John; (you) [resemble] your sister.

*Sister* is in the nominative case by *pleonasm*, and *John* in the nominative case by address.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Analyze the following sentences by diagram, and parse the nouns:

- (a) Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.
- (b) She was thinking then of her former lord, good soul that he was.
- (c) The sleek and shining creatures,—we hunt them for the beauty of their skin.
- (d) Wild natures need wise curbs.
- (e) I know the way by which she went home yesterday.
- (f) The storm having passed, the sea became peaceful.
- (g) Are you my cousin of whose exploits I have so often heard?
- (h) If a mad dog bit your hand, my Lord, would you not chop off the bitten member?
- (i) England; it is the land where might made right eight hundred years ago.
- (j) They sang of what is wise and good and graceful.

TABLE OF NOUNS

Nouns	{	PROPER	{	1. <i>Particular Names</i> —Henry, Boston
			2. <i>Used as Common</i> —The Miltons, the Ciceros	
		COMMON	{	1. <i>Class Names</i> { (a) <i>Sensible</i> —Tree, bird
				(b) <i>Rational</i> —Rest, condition
			2. <i>Collective</i> —Army, flock, convention	
			3. <i>Abstract</i> —Redness, honesty, discordance	
			4. <i>Verbal</i> —Writing, seeing, hearing	

## INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS

Inflections	{	GENDER	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Masculine</i>—Man, John, stag, Cæsar</li> <li>2. <i>Feminine</i>—Girl, Dora, filly, Cleopatra</li> <li>3. <i>Neuter</i>—Book, Boston, day</li> <li>4. <i>Common</i>—Parent, wolf, fish</li> </ol>
		NUMBER	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Singular</i>—Boy, child, Danube</li> <li>2. <i>Plural</i>—Boys, children, 6's</li> </ol>
		PERSON	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>First</i>—I, John, am going.</li> <li>2. <i>Second</i>—Come, James, let us go.</li> <li>3. <i>Third</i>—The earth is a planet.</li> </ol>
		CASE	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Nominative</i>—John came. The boy is a scholar.</li> <li>2. <i>Possessive</i>—Mary's hat. The woman's hope.</li> <li>3. <i>Objective</i>—I saw the clouds from the door.</li> </ol>

# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 4)

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## THE ADJECTIVE

**1. Function of the Adjective.**—The adjective has been defined as a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun. When, as the name *adjective* implies, this element is joined directly to a noun, the effect in each case is to restrict or limit to a particular number, or kind, or other group, the objects named by the noun. This is to modify or measure the noun in the extent of its application.

Thus, every object answering a certain description is included by the noun *tree*. But when modifiers are joined to the noun, the number of denoted objects is reduced by including only such as are:

1. Of a certain kind or quality; as, *tall trees, green trees, oak trees, evergreen trees, forest trees.*
2. For some particular use; as, *lumber trees, shade trees, fruit trees, sugar trees.*
3. Of a certain number, definite or indefinite; as, *six trees, several, some, many, few trees.*
4. In a certain condition of change or action; as, *dying trees, living, growing, standing, fallen, leaning trees.*
5. Definitely pointed out; as, *the, those, yonder, my trees.*

In these and many other ways, the adjective enables us to separate the object or objects we wish to consider from all others named by the noun.

**2. The Place of the Adjective.**—The adjective does not always directly precede the noun as a mere modifier; it

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is often widely separated from the word to which it belongs. In every position, however, its function is to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun. The placing of an adjective at a distance from its usual position has the effect of emphasizing its meaning; but, although when so placed it is still a modifier, it is something more, as is explained below.

Considered with respect to *position*, adjectives are:

1. *Adjunctive* or *attributive*—joined directly to the noun and preceding it.

*good* weather, *six* tons, *some* money, *that* house

Here the adjective modifies—denotes some quality or attribute in that which is named by the noun.

2. *Appositive*—placed near, but used like a noun or a pronoun in apposition.

*Sad* and *silent*, the traveler sat by the roadside.

He was condemned for crimes, *real* and *supposed*.

*Hopeful*, *confident*, the boy left home.

3. *Predicative*—performing a direct part in predicating, and called, therefore, a *predicate adjective*.

The tree is *green*.

The sun is *bright* and *shining*.

The boy looks *pale* and seems *sick*.

In (3), the predication is actually made—that is, there is formal assertion that a certain object possesses some quality; in (2), predication is strongly implied; and, in (1), it is merely assumed or taken for granted. Thus, in the expression *good and true stories*, we assume, as something not disputed, that the qualities goodness and trueness characterize the stories of which we speak; in *stories, good and true*, the qualities are more than assumed. It is as if we said, *stories that are good and true*; only we do not quite say it. But in *The stories are good and true*, the predication is actually made—we declare that the qualities are really possessed by the things named by *stories*.

This distinction between *actual* predication and *assumed* predication is one of great importance, as will be more clearly seen when the detailed treatment of the verb is taken up.

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Make a list of the adjectives used adjunctively, a second list of those used appositively, and a third list of those used predicatively.

(a) A body of men, patriots good and true, marched against the ruthless invaders.

(b) A pretty blue-eyed girl sat silent and despondent in the pleasant shade of a beech tree.

(c) The old tower, gray and ruined with time, had covered its hoary nakedness with clambering vines.

(d) A stately officer, steadfast comrade of the wounded man, visited the hospital with faithful regularity.

(e) Maud Muller on a summer's day,  
Raked the meadow, sweet with hay.

(f) The elder man was grave and silent while his younger companion sat abashed and speechless.

(g) My recollections of Spain are of the most lively and delightful kind.

(h) The village was beautiful and the surrounding country was the most charming and picturesque that we had seen.

(i) The evening was calm and lovely and the stars stole out one by one, radiant and beautiful.

(j) Injustice swift, erect, and unconfined,  
Sweeps the wide earth, and tramples o'er mankind.

### 3. Adjectives Classified With Respect to Form.

When considered with respect to their form, adjectives may be:

1. *Proper or Common*.—(a) A **proper** adjective is one that is formed from a proper noun; as, *French, Miltonic, Parisian, Rhenish, Franco-Prussian*. (b) A **common** adjective is one that is not derived from a proper noun; as, *true, fresh, lively, soul-stirring*. Some adjectives derived from proper nouns are now treated as common adjectives, being written without initial capitals; as, *herculean* from *Hercules*, *tantalizing* from *Tantalus*, *titanic* from *Titan*, *stentorian* from *Stentor*, *romantic* from *Roma*, *platonian* from *Plato*.

2. *Simple or Compound*.—(a) A **simple** adjective is one that consists of but one word element; as, *sweet, lonely, high, narrow, Spanish*. (b) A **compound** adjective is one that is composed of two or more word elements forming either a



solid or a hyphenated compound; as, *lifelike, homesick, rosy-fingered, all-wise, self-confident, all-seeing, never-to-be-forgotten, Russo-Japanese, Spanish-American.*

3. *Primitive or Derivative.*—(a) A **primitive** adjective is one that is not derived from a simpler word in actual use in our language; as, *true, thin, sincere, sweet.* (b) A **derivative** adjective is one that is derived from a simpler word used in the language; as, *truthful, homely, thinnest, insincere, sweetish, changeable.* These adjectives come from the simpler forms *true, home, thin, sincere, sweet, change.*

4. **Derivation of Adjectives.**—Adjectives are formed from simpler elements by means of prefixes and suffixes. Suffixes may be joined to several classes of words as follows:

1. *To Nouns.*—Adjectives are formed from nouns by the addition of *al, able, ous, ic, ish, ful, y, en, ed, some, less, ly, ile, an, one,* and many others. Examples are:

*national, lovable, furious, tonic, childish, faithful, hearty, wooden, timbered, burdensome, luckless, motherly, infantile, etc.*

2. *Suffixes Joined to Other Adjectives.*—The most commonly used suffixes by which adjectives are formed from other adjectives are *er, est, ish, fold, some, teen (ten), ly, th, ty (ten).* The following are examples:

*sounder, saddest, sweetish, threefold, lonesome, thirteen, kindly, fifth, ninety*

3. *Suffixes Joined to Verbs.*—Many adjectives are derived from verbs. Some of these are verbals used unchanged or with prefixes.

*growing, shorn, shaven, unfed, unloved, cultivated, foredoomed, prepaid, countersigned, interviewed*

Others are formed from verbs or verb stems by adding suffixes.

*wakeful, exhaustless, tiresome, blowy, eatable, credible, urgent, considerate, credulous, composite, active, static, etc.*

5. **Compound Adjectives.**—The number of compound adjectives is very great, and is constantly increasing.

Classified with reference to the elements of which they are composed, they are as follows:

<i>Adjective</i> +	{	<i>Adjective</i> ; as, pale-blue, white-hot, red-orange <i>Verbal</i> ; as, slow-moving, high-stepping, good-looking, high-born <i>Noun</i> ; as, red-headed, keen-sighted, sharp-tongued, rapid-fire, rosy-fingered
<i>Noun</i> +	{	<i>Adjective</i> ; as, heart-whole, fancy-free, love-lorn, air-tight, sky-blue <i>Verbal</i> ; as, foot-worn, heart-breaking, hand-made, home-brewed, ivy-covered <i>Noun</i> ; as, lion-hearted, cherry-lipped, ox-eyed, Krag-Jørgensen
<i>Adverb</i> +	{	<i>Adjective</i> ; as, all-powerful, over-honest, truly-good, doubly-wicked <i>Verbal</i> ; as, never-ceasing, so-called, swiftly-flying, well-dressed, fast-fleeing, early-rising
<i>Verb</i> + <i>Noun</i> ;		as, breakneck, do-nothing, killjoy, breakbone

There are compound adjectives consisting of combinations other than the foregoing, but these include the most important. Most compound adjectives are written with hyphens, but such as are of old and frequent use have acquired the solid form. When the student is in doubt whether or not to use a hyphen, he should consult a generally approved dictionary.

**6. Adjectives Classified With Respect to Use.**—All adjectives modify, but most of them do so by expressing some quality or other in the thing denoted by the modified word. The others consist of several small groups that are known by special names.

Divided according to use or function, adjectives are:

I. *Qualitative Adjectives.*—These denote quality, and, for that reason, they are sometimes called *qualifying* adjectives. The number of this class of adjectives is immense, including all that denote qualities perceived directly by the senses,—sensible qualities, and qualities inferred by the mind from something perceived by the senses,—rational qualities.

1. Sensible; as, *red, sweet, fragrant, loud, heavy, long, rough, left-handed, English, living, Caucasian.*

2. Rational; as, *honest, true, gentle, loving, thoughtful, well-beloved, affectionate.*

Each of the foregoing classes may be divided into proper or common adjectives and verbal or participial adjectives; and these may be simple or compound, as already explained.

II. *Quantitative Adjectives.*—These are such as denote quantity, either definite or indefinite; some of them relate to mass as well as to number.

1. Definite; as, *both, all, no, five, whole.*

2. Indefinite; as, *any, few, some, several, divers, many, more, most, much, little.*

These words are quantitative adjectives only when they are used to modify as adjectives do; as, *both* boys, *all* persons, *no* pardon, *several* mistakes. The same words are often used alone; as, *Few, few* shall part where *many* meet. *Some* was good but *much* was spoiled.

In these sentences, the words in italics are pronouns.

Adjectives of quantity that denote number are called *numeral* adjectives. Of these there are two classes: *cardinal*; as, *one, two, three, etc.*, and *ordinal*; as, *first, second, third, etc.*

III. *Demonstrative Adjectives.*—These are adjectives used to point out; in the case of some of them, the effect is much the same as when one points with the finger. This class is named *demonstrative* from the fact that the Latin word *demonstrare* means "to point out," or "indicate."

The demonstratives are subdivided as follows:

1. *Articles.*—Of these there are two: *a* or *an*, called the *indefinite* article, and *the*, the *definite* article. *A* is used before *consonant* sounds; as, *a man, a house*; *an* is used before *vowel* sounds; as, *an army, an egg, an iron, an onion, an urn*. It should be observed that a word may begin with a vowel sound, but not with a vowel; as, *herb, heir, honesty, etc.* Before words thus beginning with silent *h*, *an* is used; as, *an hour, an honest man, an honorable person.*

2. *Pronominal Adjectives*.—The student has already learned that words are sometimes used with double functions. The name, *pronominal adjective*, denotes that this class of words does duty both as pronouns and as adjectives. As adjectives, they modify the meaning of nouns; as pronouns, they represent, refer to, or take the place of, nouns. Thus, in the expression, *his hat*, the word *his* points out which hat is meant, and at the same time stands for the name of the owner of the hat. If, for example, the hat belongs to John, *his hat* = *John's hat*; and *his* and *John's* are alike in function—they are modifiers.

Again, nearly all of these words may stand alone instead of nouns; that is, they may be used as *pronouns*.

*This* is a tree.

*Some* are living, but *many* are dead.

It is only when they are joined to a noun and modify its meaning that they are pronominal adjectives.

*That hat* was formerly *my property*.

*Each man* owes something to *every man*.

The pronominal adjectives, sometimes called adjective pronouns, have been arranged in the following classes:

(a) *Demonstrative*.—These are called *pronominal adjectives* only because they are often used as pronouns. But when they are joined to a noun to modify its meaning, they are really nothing more than adjectives in function. Still, even then, they are called pronominal adjectives. They are *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *yon*, *yonder*, *former*, *latter*, *same*, and *such*.

*This* field is large; *that* field is small.

*These* teachers have charge of *those* children.

We have cherries and grapes; the *former* fruit is fine, but the *latter* fruit is not so good.

*Yonder* tree is a larch.

*Yon* house is my home.

*Such* conduct is inexcusable.

In all the foregoing sentences the italicized words are pronominal adjective modifiers.

(b) *Interrogative*.—There are only three words now used in this class: *which*, *whose*, and *what*.

*Which* book have you read?

*Whose* hat are you wearing?

*What* amount of money have you?

These words are used also without interrogative value as mere demonstrative adjective modifiers.

Tell me *which* book you want.

I do not know *whose* fault it was.

I cannot say at *what* hour the train leaves.

(c) *Possessive*.—In this class are included *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *its*, *their*, and *whose*. The last may be used either interrogatively or relatively.

*Whose* house is that?

He is the man *whose* letter came yesterday.

In the first sentence *whose* is used interrogatively; in the second sentence, relatively.

(d) *Indefinite*.—Such pronominal adjectives as point out, but not definitely, belong in this class, which includes about fifty words. Some of them are *certain*, *another*, *few*, *less*, *more*, *other*, *sundry*.

The following, when used with nouns, are called *distributives*, because they imply separate and individual attention to the persons or things named by the nouns they modify: *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Mention the adjectives in the following sentences, give the class of each as determined by its use or function, and tell what each adjective modifies:

(a) The way was long, the wind was cold;  
The minstrel was infirm and old.

(b) At last my eyes could see a woman fair, but awful as this round white moon o'erhead.

(c) The gray sea, and the long black land,  
And the yellow half moon, large and low,  
And the startled little waves that leap  
In fiery ringlets from their sleep;  
Then I gain the cove with the pushing prow,  
And quench its speed in the slushy sand.

(d) The youth with many a merry trick goes singing on his careless way.

(e)           Look—how round his straining throat  
               Grace and shifting beauty float;  
               Sinewy strength is in his reins,  
               And the red blood gallops through his veins—  
               Richer, redder, never ran  
               Through the boasting heart of man.

(f)       Sweet bird that sing'st away the early hours  
           Of winters past or coming, void of care;  
           Well pleased with delights which present are,  
           Fair seasons, budding sprays, sweet-smelling flowers.

2. By using suffixes, convert the following nouns into adjectives: friend, fog, virtue, truth, home, burden, year, awe, brass, flax, sense, child, feather, fear, demon.

3. By annexing suffixes to the following adjectives form other adjectives: clear, sick, lone, nine, black, comic, glad, weak, blithe, grim, scant, droll.

4. Form compound adjectives, three of each, by combining words as follows: (a) two adjectives; (b) an adjective and a noun; (c) an adjective and a verbal.

5. Illustrate the following by three compound adjectives for each: (a) noun + adjective; (b) noun + verbal; (c) noun + noun.

6. Form three compound adjectives for each of the following: (a) adverb + adjective; (b) adverb + verbal.

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## INFLECTION OF THE ADJECTIVE

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### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

7. The pronominal demonstratives *this* and *that* take the inflected forms *these* and *those* to denote the plural number.

*Singular: this* man, *that* mountain

*Plural: these* men, *those* mountains

With these exceptions, adjectives have but one inflection, which is called **comparison**. Qualitatives—adjectives that denote quality either sensible or rational—are, most of them, inflected for degrees of the quality denoted. The qualities by means of which we distinguish one thing from another usually exist in different degrees or amounts among the things having those qualities. Thus, we may say of one

thing that it is large, or pretty, or beautiful; of another, that it is the larger, the prettier, or the more beautiful of two; of a third, that it is the largest, the prettiest, or the most beautiful of three or more.

Such adjectives as are compared or inflected for quality have three degrees of comparison: the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*. The following are some examples of the three degrees of comparison:

<i>Positive:</i>	bright	early	beautiful
<i>Comparative:</i>	brighter	earlier	more beautiful
<i>Superlative:</i>	brightest	earliest	most beautiful

But many adjectives that denote quality are not capable of different degrees. These of course are not inflected—they are *incomparable*. These may, in general, be known by their meaning. Some of them are:

1. Some adjectives denoting shape, position, direction, etc.; as, *round, square, cubical, circular, triangular, central, parallel, erect, perpendicular, linear, equilateral, spherical, straight*.

If, for example, anything is really round or square or triangular or cubical it cannot be any more or any less so. Such words then cannot, in strictness, be compared, yet it is often done by careless writers, and often by classical authors, and sometimes for apparently good reasons.

2. Adjectives with a negative prefix or suffix; as, *INconceivable, UNseen, AtoMic, Adamantine, IMMature, ILlegible, hopeLESS, harmLESS, NON-existent*.

All these prefixes and suffixes denote the absence of the quality expressed by the rest of the word. Thus, *less* as a suffix means *without*; as *homeless*, without a home; *in, im, il, non, a, and un* each means *not*. (*In, im, and il* as prefixes sometimes mean *in, into, or on*.)

3. Adjectives denoting quality not capable of increase or diminution cannot, in strictness, be compared. The following are examples: *perfect, complete, absolute, infinite, everlasting, dead, asleep, satisfied, celestial, divine, human, material, golden, weekly, eternal, endless*.

It should be noted, however, that many adjectives of this kind are often inflected. Thus, such forms as the following,

though not good, are of frequent occurrence both in speech and writing:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{more} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{most} \end{array} \right\} \text{complete, perfect, divine, hopeless, satisfied, etc.}$$

The same usage is common with adjectives having negative prefixes or suffixes; as, *most unexpected, most ignorant, most hopeless, more innocent*, etc.

4. Latin comparatives used as ordinary English adjectives cannot be compared; as, *anterior, superior, inferior, senior, junior, prior, exterior, interior*, etc.

In comparisons, these Latin words are usually followed by *to*, while ordinary English comparatives require *than*. Thus, *prior to, earlier than; inferior to, worse than; junior to or of, younger than*.

**8. The Distinguishing of One Object From Another.**—We become acquainted with the objects we know and have names for, either through their qualities or by observing their relations to other objects. Thus, when we say or see the word *orange*, it calls up in the mind ideas of certain *qualities*: as, *color, taste, smell, size, shape*; or it calls up ideas of certain *relations*: as, *value, position, weight, utility*. Thus, we know an orange or any other object by its sensible qualities or by its relations.

Again, honesty is a *rational* quality distinguishing the conduct of men in their dealings with one another. If a man habitually acts so and so under particular circumstances, his conduct illustrates some quality, as *honesty, justice, truthfulness, loyalty*, and we speak of him as an *honest, just, truthful, or loyal man*.

Thus, it is by means of qualities, sensible and rational, and by the various relations among things, that we are able to recognize objects and distinguish them from one another. By their differences and resemblances and by their relations, and in no other way, we become acquainted with the things around us.

**9. The Positive Degree.**—Before we can say that anything is large, for example, we must have a notion of



the usual size of objects of that kind. This notion we get by experience in comparing many things of that class. When one says, *a large house, tree, animal*, the expression implies that he has seen and compared many houses, many trees, many animals, and that he has in his mind a general notion or type with respect to the size of each kind of thing mentioned. This type is not often the same with different persons, for it is derived from experience, and this is of many varieties. The wider the experience, the more valuable the type.

This typical notion of any quality is the *positive degree* of that quality. It is expressed by the simple uninflected form of the adjective; as, *wise, sorry, red, pale*.

**Definition.**—*The positive degree of an adjective is the form or use of it that implies the comparison of one thing or group of things with many others of the class.*

*A wise son maketh a glad father.*

His face, *red* and *pale* by turns, showed his *deep* emotion.

**10. The Comparative Degree.**—In the use of an adjective in the positive degree, the comparison is only implied or taken for granted; in the comparative degree, the comparison of one thing with another must actually be made; and only two objects or two groups of objects are considered—one having a certain quality, and the other having it in a higher or lower measure or degree. Thus, of two things, one may be *sweet* or *pretty* or *long* or *small*, and the other *sweeter*, *prettier*, *longer*, or *smaller* than the first. An adjective so used is in the *comparative degree*.

**Definition.**—*The comparative degree of an adjective is the form or use of it by which a comparison with respect to some quality is actually made between two things or groups of things.*

*A girl prettier than my cousin accompanied us.*

The  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{less} \\ \textit{more} \end{array} \right\}$  *valuable* house of the two was sold.

A  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{less} \\ \textit{more} \end{array} \right\}$  *satisfactory* collection than mine cannot be found.

**11. The Superlative Degree.**—When the superlative degree of an adjective is used, the least number of objects

or groups of objects considered is three. One of them, as compared with the others—two or more—is seen to have the highest or lowest degree of some quality; and, to denote this, a form or use of the adjective known as the *superlative degree* is required. This degree, also, like the comparative, requires an actual comparison. At least three *pretty* or *good* or *little* objects must be compared before we can say that one of them is the *prettiest*, the *best*, the *least*. The word *superlative* means “surpassing,” “above or beyond all others.”

**Definition.**—*The superlative degree of an adjective is the form or use of it by which a comparison with respect to some quality is actually made among three or more things or groups of things.*

The  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{least} \\ \textit{most} \end{array} \right\}$  valuable house. The *prettiest* girl.

**12. Rules for Comparing Adjectives.**—Adjectives of one syllable are compared as follows:

Positive +  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{er} = \textit{comparative}; \textit{as, bright, brightER} \\ \textit{est} = \textit{superlative}; \textit{as, smooth, smoothEST} \end{array} \right.$

Adjectives of two or more syllables usually take the adverbs *more* or *less* before the positive to form the comparative, and *most* or *least* to form the superlative.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{more} \\ \textit{less} \end{array} \right\} + \textit{positive} = \textit{comparative}; \textit{as, } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{more} \\ \textit{less} \end{array} \right\} \textit{beautiful}$   
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{most} \\ \textit{least} \end{array} \right\} + \textit{positive} = \textit{superlative}; \textit{as, } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{most} \\ \textit{least} \end{array} \right\} \textit{beautiful}$

**Special Rule.**—Adjectives of two syllables ending in *y*, and many in *ow* and *e*, usually add *er* and *est* to the positive to form, respectively, the comparative and the superlative.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{lovely} \\ \textit{holy} \\ \textit{sorry} \\ \textit{easy} \\ \textit{angry} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{er} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{comparative}; \textit{as, lovelIER, holiER, sorriER,} \\ \textit{easiER, angriER} \end{array} \right. \\ \textit{est} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{superlative}; \textit{as, loveliEST, holiEST, sorriEST,} \\ \textit{easiEST, angriEST} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{polite} \\ \textit{mellow} \\ \textit{narrow} \\ \textit{simple} \\ \textit{noble} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{er} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{comparative}; \textit{as, politer, mellowER, nar-} \\ \textit{rowER, simplER, nobler} \end{array} \right. \\ \textit{est} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{superlative}; \textit{as, politEST, mellowEST, narrow-} \\ \textit{EST, simplEST, noblest} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$

**13. General Principle.**—Many other adjectives of two syllables are compared with *er* and *est*, when to do so does not offend the ear.

The preferable form of comparison is largely dependent on usage, and in nearly all cases this may be determined by the ear. Harshness of sound or difficulty of pronunciation is always sufficient cause for rejecting the regular comparison—that by *er* and *est*—and using *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*.

It should be added that the sentential use of an adjective has much to do with its comparison. If an adjective is joined directly to a noun, the preferable comparison is by *er* and *est*, if euphony permits; but if the adjective is used in the predicate or like a noun in apposition, comparison by *more* and *most* or by *less* and *least* is to be preferred, especially in poetry.

A form *more fair* and a face *more sweet*.

Surely, surely, slumber is *more sweet* than toil.

The wind breathes low with *mellower* tone.

He stooped to touch the *loftiest* thought.

*More* and *most* are preferable to *er* and *est* when not comparison, but only a high or a low degree of a quality is intended; as, Most weary seemed the sea = *Very weary*, etc. This is known as the *intensive* use of the adjective,—a use by which the force or emphasis is greatly increased. Some other examples follow.

His actions were *most despicable* = *extremely* despicable.

A fearsome sound was heard, *most* wierd and (most) *strange* = *very* wierd and *very* strange.

He should have been *less careless* = not so careless.

**14. Modifications in Spelling.**—1. Adjectives ending in *e* silent omit the *e* before *er* and *est*; as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest*.

2. Final *y* preceded by a consonant is changed into *i*; as, *gaudy*, *gaudier*, *gaudiest*.

3. A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled before *er* and *est*; as, *slim*, *slimmer*, *slimmest*; *sad*, *sadder*, *saddest*.

**15. Irregular Comparison.**—Most of the following adjectives are of frequent use, and are irregular in comparison:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
good, well	better	best
far	farther	farthest
little	less	least
many, much	more	most
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
forth (adv.)	further	furthest
fore	former	foremost, first
late	later, latter	latest, last
hind	hinder	hindmost
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
[neath] (prep.)	nether	nethermost
[out] (adv.)	outer, utter	{ outmost, outermost { utmost, uttermost
[up] (prep.)	upper	upmost, uppermost
[in] (prep.)	inner	inmost, innermost

**16. Parsing the Adjective.**—To parse an adjective, the student should mention:

1. *Its Class.*—This involves stating its class as qualitative, quantitative, or demonstrative. If it is *qualitative*, it may be sensible or rational; if *quantitative*, it may be definite, indefinite, or numeral; if *numeral*, it may be cardinal or ordinal. If it is *demonstrative*, it may be an article either definite or indefinite; or it may be a *pronominal*, and if so, it is ordinary, interrogative, possessive, or indefinite.

2. *Its Comparison.*—State whether or not it is compared. If it is compared, give its comparison, and say in what degree it is found.

3. *Its Use.*—State what it modifies, and whether it is an adjunctive, a predicative, or an appositive adjective.

**17. Oral Parsing of the Adjective.**—In order to illustrate the oral parsing of the adjective, let it be required to parse the adjectives in the following sentence:

But he thought of his sister, proud and cold,  
And his mother, vain of her rank and gold.

*His*: an adjective, demonstrative, pronominal, not compared, and, as a mere adjunct, modifies *sister*.

*Proud*: an adjective, qualitative, rational; compared by *er* and *est*; it is in the positive degree, and is an appositive modifier of *sister*.

*Cold, vain*: parsed exactly like *proud*.

*Her*: parsed like *his*.

**18. Adjective Equivalents.**—As has already been explained, the adjective function may be filled by sentential elements other than ordinary adjectives.

1. By a verbal; as, a TREE *standing* by the door, COAL *to sell*, a STORY *to be believed*, etc.

2. By a prepositional phrase; as, a LETTER *from home*, a CURE *for lisping*, a DAY *for planting trees*, the APPLES *in the cellar*.

3. By a clause; as, a TREE *that is alive*, a STORY *that should be believed*, a MAN *whose father was in-the Revolution*, a VOTER *that failed to register*.

4. By a noun in the possessive case; as, John's HAT, a mother's CARE.

5. By an uninflected noun used as a modifier; as, gold-MINE, apple BLOSSOMS, house-PAINTER, iron-ORE, ink-WELL, night-WATCHMAN.

**19. Expansion of Adjective Elements.**—Almost any adjective word element may be expanded into a phrase or even into a clause.

a summer day = a day in summer

a kind act = an act of kindness = an act that was kind

a memorable event = an event to be remembered = an event that should be remembered

It is evident, therefore, that phrases and clauses used as adjective modifiers may generally be condensed into single words; and, inasmuch as force is gained by brevity, we should prefer the shorter forms unless there are good reasons for using the longer.

**20. Uses of Adjective Phrases.**—We have seen that an adjective may be a mere adjunct, a complement of the

predicate, and that it may be used appositively to add some fact or circumstance, or to explain the meaning of something that precedes.

Phrases and clauses when used as adjectives are usually predicative or appositive.

APPOSITIVE OR RESTRICTIVE		PREDICATIVE
The price	{	was
demanded in New York that was demanded	}	high. very reasonable. beyond our means. more than we could pay.
He was never where he was needed.		

### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. In the following, parse the adjectives, and point out the phrases and clauses.

- (a) This murderous chief, this ruthless man,  
This head of a rebellious clan,  
Hath led thee safe.
- (b) Gentleness, the characteristic mark of the true gentleman of the old school, distinguished his every act, even the most trifling.
- (c) The church that stood by our old-time schoolhouse is in ruins.
- (d) In their ragged regimentals, stood the old Continentals, yielding not.
- (e) The three stood calm and silent, and looked upon their foes,  
And a great shout of laughter from all the vanguard rose.
- (f) The emperor there, in his box of state,  
Looked grave; as if he had just then seen  
The red flag wave from the city gate,  
Where his eagles in bronze had been.
- (g) He that gives up the smallest part of his secret has no control over what remains.
- (h) The experience that teaches us to govern our own spirits is the best of all training.

2. Determine, by the ear or from a dictionary, the approved comparison of the following words, and write the comparisons in full: dry, wry, sly, spry, sincere, haughty, common, lovely, noble, curious, precious, wealthy, swarthy, remote, awkward, wholesome, tardy, faithful, morose, discreet.

3. Write the comparison of such of the following adjectives as admit comparison, and explain why each of the others does not: golden, entire, English, spherical, empty, final, prone, dead, ultimate, erect, false, extreme, perfect, wooden, universal, eternal, humane, unanswerable, friendless, infallible.

**21. Other Methods of Comparison.**—The regular comparison by annexing *er* and *est* is usually regarded as a true inflection; but the method by means of the adverbs *more*, *most*, and *less*, *least*, is in no sense an inflection. There seems to be no very clear reason why grammarians should have selected these particular adverbs to use in comparing adjectives; for there are a great many other adverbs that modify with more definiteness; as, *somewhat*, *slightly*, *very*, *quite*, *extremely*, *exceedingly*, *positively*, *decidedly*, *barely*, *merely*, *only*, *rarely*, *occasionally*, *temporarily*, etc. All these are useful, and the student should have a ready command over a good variety of them. Not only are adverbs used for this purpose of comparison, but adverbial phrases and clauses also, when greater precision of degree is required.

<i>Words</i>	{ pretty, exceptionally, tolerably, very, excessively, charmingly, surprisingly, extremely, delightfully, guardedly, entirely, refreshingly, truly }	cordial
<i>Phrases</i>	{ in school, in manner, at dinner, toward the aged, in speech, at times, from early training, in taking leave, by instinct, from policy, to excess, with an object, from habit }	polite
<i>Clauses</i>	{ if he is in the mood, when he can afford to be so, although he is poor, when he chooses to be, where there is merit, when he should be other- wise, when his ship comes in, as his means allow }	generous

By using such adverbial modifiers as those given above, it is possible to express a great variety of degrees of the quality denoted by an adjective. These degrees of quality range all the way from the positive, in such expressions as *barely alive*, *scarcely polite*, to the superlative. By means of some of these intensive adverbs it is possible to express quality even higher than the superlative in *est* or with the adverb *most*.

Thus, such expressions as *indescribably vain*, *exceedingly mean*, *inconceivably cruel*, *absolutely wretched*, and *hopelessly stupid* are all regarded as much stronger than the regular forms of comparisons *vainest*, *meanest*, *cruellest*, *most wretched*, and *stupidest*.

TABLE OF THE ADJECTIVE

Adjectives	QUALITATIVE	Common	{ Simple: good, wise, happy
			{ Compound: four-handed, blue-eyed
		Proper	{ Simple: Russian, English
	{ Compound: Anglo-American		
	Participial	{ Simple: amusing, pleasing	
		{ Compound: life-giving, wool-gathering	
	QUANTITATIVE	Definite	{ Common: whole, no, enough, both, all
			{ Numeral: { Cardinal—one, six { Ordinal—first, sixth
		Indefinite	{ Common: some, much, little, any
			{ Numeral: any, few, some, several, divers
DEMONSTRATIVE	Article	{ Definite: the	
		{ Indefinite: a, an	
	Pronominal	{ (a) Common: this, these; that, those; you, yonder	
		{ (b) Interrogative: which? what?	
		{ (c) Indefinite: each, either, certain, else, sundry	
{ (d) Possessive: my, thy, his, her, their			

## THE PRONOUN

**22. Function of the Pronoun.**—The pronoun has been described as a word used instead of a noun or as a substitute for a noun. This description comes from the literal meaning of the word *pronoun* (*pro*, "for," *noun*, "a name"), but this definition is not exactly true of all the pronouns. When *John* says of himself, *I see*, the meaning is somewhat different from what it would be if he should say *John sees*. In the former case, *I* represents the speaker, and shows by its form that it does so; in the latter example, *John* may denote the speaker, but nothing about the form of the word shows that it does, as is the case with *I*.

When of himself and Henry, to whom he speaks, he says *We see*, it is not equivalent to *John and Henry see*. But if the pronoun were an exact substitute for a noun, these pairs of sentences would be exact equivalents. By its form, *I* denotes the speaker but gives no hint of who he is—it shows



only that somebody, present and known without being named, is speaking. The pronoun, however, would serve equally well if the name of the speaker were unknown, or even if he had no name.

In like manner,

*We* = *I* + *you* (the speaker + the listener), and,

*We* = *I* + *you* + *he* (the speaker + the listener + Henry), etc.

In this last case, *he* is a real substitute for a noun, but *you* and *I* are not. Hence,

*I* denotes that some one, whose name is unknown or does not need to be known, is speaking.

*We* denotes that some one is speaking for himself and for others that have been referred to or are present. What their names are is generally a matter of no importance.

*You* denotes some one in the relation of listener to some one speaking, and it is equally satisfactory whether the listener's name is known or not.

*He, she, they*, etc. are real substitutes for names.

It appears, therefore, that the definition usually given for the pronoun is objectionable from the fact that it does not exactly describe the functions of all the pronouns. Doubtless, however, it is the best that can be devised. Perhaps the definition already given is somewhat less open to objection than that usually met with in grammars.

**Definition.**—*A pronoun is a word that denotes persons and things without naming them.*

**23. The Antecedent of a Pronoun.**—Every pronoun denotes some person or thing, or it is a substitute for the name of some person or thing. This name is the **antecedent** of the pronoun. The name *antecedent* means "going before," the implication being that the name denoted, that is, the antecedent, occurs in the sentence before the pronoun that denotes it. Such is usually, but not always, the case. Thus, in the sentence, *John resolved that he would earn his money before he would spend it*, the pronouns *he* and *his* follow their antecedent *John*, and *it* follows its antecedent *money*. But in the sentence, *Who discovered the Pacific Ocean?* the

antecedent of *who* is inquired for and must be found in an answer to the question—*Balboa discovered it. Ocean, the antecedent of it, is really antecedent in position.*

Moreover, the pronouns *I, we, me, us, you*, and all others denoting the speaker or listener, can scarcely be said to have antecedents, since, as we have seen, they are not strictly substitutes for nouns; they denote persons or things rather than take the place of names, and an antecedent is a word or an expression, not a person or thing. In the sentence, *I hurt myself*, neither of the pronouns has an antecedent word; each represents a person, but so far as the reader knows or the sentence indicates, the person denoted by the pronouns has no name, or, if he has, it need not be known.

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## CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

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### PERSONAL PRONOUNS

**24. Function of the Personal Pronoun.**—Although the number of pronouns is small, they are divided into several classes, which are usually grouped under five heads: *personal, relative, interrogative, demonstrative, and indefinite*. The personal pronouns are those that by their form indicate *persons*—the speaker, the hearer, or the person or thing spoken about.

The personal pronouns that by their form denote the speaker are the following: *I, my, me, we, our, us*.

The personal pronouns that denote the listener or person addressed are: *thou, thy, thine, thee, you, ye, your, yours*.

The personal pronouns that denote the person or thing spoken of are: *he, she, it, his, hers, its, him, her, they, their, theirs, them*.

The words *my, thy, our, your, his, her, its, and their*, when followed by a noun whose meaning they modify, are generally called *pronominal adjectives*.

*my work, its safety, his neglect, thy duty, her mother, their haste, our home*

**25. Absolute Possessive Pronouns.**—The pronouns *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs*, when used as

equivalent to a noun with a pronominal modifier, are called **absolute possessive pronouns**.

Mine and yours are better than his and hers.

These pronouns, although they denote possession, are never in the possessive case; they are always in the nominative or the objective case, and are either singular or plural. Thus, I may speak of *my boy* or *my boys* as *mine*.

The boy is mine.

The boys are mine.

By absorbing the possessive effect of *my*, *thy*, etc. these pronouns take into their meaning the idea of possession, but their function is always nominative or objective.

If *mine* were *yours*, *yours* would exceed *theirs* in value.

She gave *hers* for *his* and *ours* together.

In the first sentence, the italicized pronouns except the last, are nominatives; the last, and all in the next sentence are objectives. However, because they denote possession, these forms are given as possessives in the declension of the personal pronouns.

**26. Compound Personal Pronouns.**—Certain of the personal pronouns annex *self* or *selves* to form compound personal pronouns:

my	him	}	self	our	}	selves
thy	her	}		your	}	
your	it	}		them	}	

These pronouns, in either the nominative or the objective case, are usually in apposition with some other word; or they are intensive and have the effect of emphasis. When in apposition, they are usually set off by commas.

I, *myself*, will go.

They attacked the king *himself*.

They are used *reflexively* also; that is, as the objects of verbs whose subjects denote the same person or thing as the pronouns. Thus,

He cut *himself*.

They saw *themselves* in the great parlor mirror.

Any of these reflexive pronouns may be used as the object of a verb or preposition, or as a predicate nominative.

I hurt *myself*.

A house divided against *itself* cannot stand.

Richard is *himself* again.

Both the nominative and the objective case are shown in the following from Tennyson: *And I, MYSELF, sometimes despise MYSELF.*

The personal pronouns also are sometimes used reflexively, especially in poetry; as,

Get *thee* gone.

I did repent *me*.

I do remember *me* that in my youth, etc.

*Self* or *selves* may be used as a noun preceded by the nominal modifier *own*; as,

To your own *selves* be true.

We saw the giant's own *self*.

In the first sentence *selves* is a noun, the object of *to*; in the second, *self* is the object of the verb *saw*.

#### DECLENSION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

		SINGULAR	PLURAL		
FIRST PERSON	<i>Nominative:</i>	I	we		
	<i>Possessive:</i>	my, mine	our, ours		
	<i>Objective:</i>	me	us		
SECOND PERSON	<i>Nominative:</i>	thou, you	you, ye		
	<i>Possessive:</i>	thy, thine, your	your, yours		
	<i>Objective:</i>	thee, you	you, ye		
		MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	
THIRD PERSON	<i>Nominative:</i>	he	she	it	they
	<i>Possessive:</i>	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
	<i>Objective:</i>	him	her	it	them

#### RELATIVE PRONOUNS

**27. Function of the Relative Pronoun.**—The relative or conjunctive pronouns have double functions in sentences: they stand for a noun or an equivalent of a noun, and they connect clauses.

My father died yesterday. }  
 +  
 My father was a lawyer. } = My father, *who* died yesterday, was a lawyer.

This dog is for sale. }  
 +  
 This dog gained the first prize. } = This dog, *which* gained the first prize, is for sale.

This man owns the house. }  
 +  
 Jack built the house. } = This man owns the house *that* Jack built.

In the first sentence *who* stands for *father*, and it connects the two clauses; it is, besides, the subject of the verb *died*. In the second sentence the function of the relative pronoun *which* is exactly similar to that of *who* in the first sentence. *That*, in the last sentence, connects the clauses and is the object of *built*; this is because it takes the place of *house* in the second of the united clauses. The words *father*, *dog*, and *house*, to which the pronouns relate, are antecedents; *father* being the antecedent of *who*; *dog*, of *which*; *house*, of *that*.

**28. The Simple Relative.**—The simple relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

**Who** is used for persons, and for animals and things personified—things that are addressed or spoken of as if they were persons. It is inflected for case, but has the same form in both the singular and the plural.

*Nominative, WHO:* Julius Cæsar, *who* invaded Britain, soon returned to Gaul.

*Possessive, WHOSE:* Alexander, *whose* father was Philip, was taught by Aristotle.

*Objective, WHOM:* Napoleon, *whom* all France loved, died at St. Helena.

**Which** is used for animals and for things without life. It was formerly used for persons; as, *Our Father, which art in Heaven*. *Which* is not inflected either for number or case, but *whose* is sometimes used as its possessive case; as, *The jewels, whose value was great, were seized by the sheriff*. This use of *whose* is condemned by many authorities, who prefer

of *which* to *whose* when the reference is to anything without life, but the usage has been fully established.

*Nominative*, WHICH: The telephone, *which* was once merely curious, is now indispensable.

*Possessive*, [WHOSE]: We heard a noise the cause of *which* we could not determine (*whose* cause).

There were many horses *whose* owners had been killed.

*Objective*, WHICH: This celebrated problem, *which* the teacher found too difficult, the boy solved with ease.

(The teacher found *which*. *Which* is the object of *found*.)

**That** is the most useful of all the relatives, being a substitute for either *who* or *which*. It is used in both the singular and the plural, and represents both living beings and things without life.

The man *that* hath no music in him must not be trusted.

The ships *that* pass in the night escape notice.

The cat *that* killed the rat *that* ate the malt was our old tabby.

This relative differs from *who* and *which* by not being used immediately after a preposition. Thus we may say,

The man	{	WITH <i>whom</i> I went was my father.	}	was Cowper's.
		BY <i>whom</i> it was done was arrested.		
		THROUGH <i>whose</i> agency the fight was won was promoted.		
The verse	{	IN <i>which</i> we delighted	}	was Cowper's.
		BY <i>whose</i> music we were charmed		
		AGAINST <i>which</i> objections were urged		

The relative *that* cannot be substituted for any of the italicized relatives in the examples above.

**29. Relatives in Restrictive and in Coordinate Clauses.**—There is an important distinction in the use of *who*, *which*, and *that* in relative clauses. Many of the best writers observe it, and it is strongly insisted on by a large number of the highest authorities in grammar.

Professor Bain states the principle in the following language: "The adjective clause, in its fundamental restrictive application, should be introduced by the restrictive relative *that*."

A **restrictive clause** is one that does the work of a mere modifier.

A **coordinate clause** is a clause of equal rank with a leading or principal clause. It usually adds some circumstance and may be in its nature appositive, explanatory, or a mere afterthought; its rank in the sentence is the same as that of the principal clause—coordinate with it in importance.

*Restrictive Clauses:* The rope *that was made of cotton* (cotton rope) was not so strong as the cable *that was made of steel* (steel cable).

The man *that hesitates* (hesitating man) is lost.

Clauses so used are mere adjectives in function—they narrow, restrict, modify, the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

The connective that introduces a restrictive clause is not always *that*. Many other words may have this function. Any clause becomes restrictive when it has the value of a mere adjective or adverb.

Strike **WHEN** *the iron is hot*.

I know a bank **WHEREON** *the wild thyme grows*.

The city **IN WHICH** *we found ourselves* was the capital of the country.

Here the first clause is a mere adverb in function; the second and third are adjectives. All these are therefore restrictive or modifying clauses.

*Coordinate Clauses:* The officer, *who is my cousin*, was very attentive.

His wealth, *which was great*, did not surpass that of his partner, *who was his brother*.

Ice, *which is frozen water*, forms at 32° Fahrenheit.

Here *which* = *and it*, and *who* = *and he*.

**30.** The following analyses will aid the student in understanding the distinction between restrictive and coordinate clauses.

1. The (president), (who) [is] the head of the army, [ordered] an advance.
2. [Did] (you) [return] the book that (you) [borrowed] from me?

In 1, *who* is equivalent to *and he*. The sentence is therefore compound, for it consists of two independent coordinate clauses. In 2, the clause, *that you borrowed from me*, is an adjective modifier of *book*. The sentence is complex.

The relative *that* connects the two clauses and is at the same time the direct object of the verb *borrowed*—you *borrowed that* from me.

3. (Words) (that) [have been uttered] [can] never [be recalled].
4. (Time), (who) [is] a thief, [robs] us of our choicest treasures.
5. (Time) (that) [is] wasted sooner or later [brings] remorse.

**31.** The student must not understand that this use of *who* and *which* solely as coordinating and of *that* solely as restrictive is fully approved by all the latest and best authorities. It is merely a very valuable distinction, actually made by many eminent authorities, and strongly urged for general adoption. That the usage will soon be fully accepted, there can be little doubt, for it enables us to avoid ambiguity and to escape an undesirable frequency in the use of *who* and *which*. The student is advised to give particular care and thought to the sentences in example 2 of the Examples for Practice that follow Art. 36.

**32. The Double Relative.**—What, called the **double relative**, is so named because it does the work of both antecedent and relative. The word is equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*, in which *that* or *thing* is the antecedent of *which*. This relative never represents persons, and the clause introduced by it usually has the value of a noun.

When *what* is compounded with *ever* and *soever*, it is called a **compound relative pronoun**, as are also the similar compounds of *ever* and *soever* with *who*, *which*, and *whose*.

The uses of *what* are illustrated in the following sentences:

- Describe what you found. What = { that which.  
the thing which.  
the thing that.
- Explain what caused the trouble. What = that which, etc.
- From what he said, he is willing. What = that which, etc.



In the first sentence, *what* fills the double relation of object of both *describe* and *found*; in the second sentence, *what* may be resolved into *that which*; in such case, *that* would be the object of *explain* and *which* the subject of *caused*. Grammarians so explain the function of the double relative for the reason that no word can be at the same time in two cases. In the last sentence, *what* is the object of both *from* and *said*.

In all these uses, *what* may be decomposed into an antecedent followed by a relative: *that which*, the **thing which**.

1. The (result) [was] different from what (he) [expected].
2. (You) [could] never [guess] (what) [did] the mischief.
- 

In 2, the object of the verb *could guess* is the entire clause, *what did the mischief*, used as a noun.

**33. Substitutes for Relatives.**—The words *as*, *but*, *when*, *where*, *whence*, *whither*, and *why*, as well as some of their compounds with *ever* and *soever*, are frequently used as substitutes for a relative pronoun or for a prepositional phrase in which the object of the preposition is a relative pronoun. The following are some examples:

**As**, preceded by *such* or *same*.

Select such men as you need. Such men as = the men that, or those men that.

Here *men* is the antecedent of *as*.

You have the same failings  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{as} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$  he has shown.

**But**, after a *negative* clause, where **but** = **that** + **not**.

There is no one but sometimes blunders (that does not).

**When**, in cases where a noun denoting **time** is the antecedent.

There is a time  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{when} \\ \text{at which} \end{array} \right\}$  men must, etc.

**Where**, when the antecedent denotes *place*.

He fell on the field  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{where} \\ \text{on which} \end{array} \right\}$  he fought.

**Whither**, after a clause denoting motion *to a place*.

We telegraphed to the office  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{whither} \\ \text{to which} \end{array} \right\}$  he had gone.

**Why**.—The clause introduced by *why* as a relative is always an adjective modifier; as,

There is no reason  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{why} \\ \text{for which} \end{array} \right\}$  I should go.

*Why I should go* is an adjective modifier of *reason*, the antecedent of *why*.

Usually, *why* is a conjunctive or an interrogative adverb.

Explain *why* (conj. adv.) you failed.

*Why* (int. adv.) is the earth flattened at the poles?

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#### INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

**34.** The **interrogative pronouns** are *who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions.

**Who** inquires for persons, is either singular or plural, and is entirely indefinite—the person inquiring is in ignorance of the persons for whom he inquires; as,

Who  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{was} \\ \text{were} \end{array} \right\}$  hurt?

Interrogative *who* is declined in the same way as relative *who*: Nominative, *who?* Possessive, *whose?* Objective, *whom?*

**Whose**, although it denotes possession, may, like the absolute possessives *mine*, *thine*, etc., be used in either the nominative or the objective case; strictly, it is never in the possessive case.

*Nominative*: *Whose* is it? It is Mary's.

*Objective*: *Whose* did you send him? I sent him *yours*.

Here the antecedent of *whose* may be *book*, for example.

**Which** inquires for persons or things, either one or

more, of a class; it may therefore be either singular or plural without change of form; as,

Which of the men  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$  ready? Which  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$  the best?

**What** applies only to things; as,

What do you want?

What is truth?

**Whether** was formerly used as an interrogative with the force *which of two?* as,

Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?

*Whether* as an interrogative pronoun is no longer used.

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#### DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

### 35. Function of the Demonstrative Pronoun.

When *this* and *that*, with their plurals *these* and *those*, and *former* and *latter*, stand alone and have the functions of pronouns, they are called **demonstrative pronouns**.

*This* is mine if *that* is yours.

*These* are good, but *those* are bad.

He punished the *former* and rewarded the *latter*.

We have seen that when these words are joined to a noun to modify its meaning they are *pronominal adjectives*.

*This* hat is old; *that* hat is new.

*These* men are idle; *those* women are industrious.

The demonstratives are used both of persons and things, and they are not inflected for case.

*This* and *these* refer to what is near; *that* and *those* refer to the more distant.

His work is better than  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{this (near)} \\ \text{that (distant)} \end{array} \right\}$  of yours.

You may take *these*; I prefer *those*.

Some other words are employed as demonstrative pronouns. Words so used may always be known by the office they fill in a sentence; *such* is one of them.

You are a gentleman; behave as *such*.

The **antecedent** of a demonstrative names that which is referred to by the pronoun. This may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

This is very interesting. (A *book*, for example.)

*To be*, or *not to be*; THAT is the question.

*When it was that he went away*, THAT was never known.

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#### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

**36. Function of the Indefinite Pronoun.**—As its name indicates, the **indefinite pronoun** stands for names, but denotes the things themselves with vagueness and uncertainty. Some of them have something of the pointing-out, or demonstrative quality, but not enough of it to put them among the demonstratives. It is their indefiniteness in denoting the persons or things intended that is most noticeable.

Most of the indefinite pronouns are used also as adjective modifiers, and in some of their uses a few of them are regarded by many grammarians as mere nouns. But, inasmuch as all of them in some measure do the work of pronouns, it is better to call them such.

**One** and **other** are the best examples of indefinite pronouns. This is because their antecedents are perfectly indefinite, and because they are inflected for number and case.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>Nominative:</i>	one	ones	other	others
<i>Possessive:</i>	one's	ones'	other's	others'
<i>Objective:</i>	one	ones	other	others

*One* cannot help loving *one's* little *ones*.

*Others'* wrongs impress us less than do our own wrongs.

*One* can do what *one* likes with *one's* own.

Other pronouns belonging among the indefinites are the following when used without an associated noun: *none*, *any*, *some*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *many*, *few*, *several*, *aught*, *naught*, *enough*, *such*, *somewhat*, *sundry*, *certain*.

*Each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither* are generally classed as **distributives**, or **distributive indefinite pronouns**.

This is owing to the fact that, although they imply a whole group, they require that the units making up the group shall be considered separately.

*Each* decided to make the voyage.

*Everybody* has erred at some time.

*Such* and *other* are called **comparatives**, because they are used in comparing.

This is *such* as will please you.

That is *other* than it should be.

Here, that which *such* denotes is something that has been compared with other things that may not please.

*Each other* and *one another* are called **reciprocals**—they have a mutual sense.

They hate *each other* = The former hates the latter and the latter the former = They hate; *each* hates the *other*.

There must be only *two* persons or things referred to when *each other* is used.

They helped *one another* = They helped; *one* helped *another*.

There are always more than *two* referred to by *one another*.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Arrange in lists and classify the pronouns in the following selections:

(a) They and I visited the park yesterday and we were much pleased with its fine appearance.

(b) Children learn early to distinguish between mine and thine.

(c) At last, like one who for delay seeks a vain excuse, he rode away.

(d) One must not expect many to be right when all are liable to be wrong.

(e) These are such as our fathers used long before we were born.

(f) It is said that people ought to guard their noses,

Who thrust them into matters none of theirs.

(g) Few, few shall part where many meet.

(h) Nor is a true soul ever born for naught:

Wherever any such hath lived and died,

There hath been something for true freedom wrought.

(i) \* \* \* \* \* then I held you fast,

And all stood back, and none my right denied,

And forth we walked.

(j) I saw the boy, who was taking a ride on the pony that I gave him.

(k) What in me is dark, illumine.

(l) "Shall I have naught that is fair?" saith he;  
"Have naught but the bearded grain?"

(m) The earth yearns toward the sun for light,  
The stars all tremble toward each other,  
And every moon that shines tonight  
Hangs trembling on an elder brother.

(n) Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap.

2. Copy the following, and use the proper relative. Notice the difference in meaning when the relative clause may be taken either as restrictive or as coordinating. Punctuate properly by setting off with commas clauses that begin with *who* or *which*. From those that are restrictive omit the commas.

(a) The evil {that  
which} men do lives after them.

(b) The best boy {that  
whom} you have is the one {that  
whom} I want.

(c) The soldier {that  
who} is his country's defender should be ready to die for her.

(d) These documents {that  
which} I commit to your care are very important.

(e) The teacher {who  
that} is wise omits punishment {which  
that} is degrading.

(f) The Chinaman {who  
that} came into the country through Canada was arrested as soon as he crossed the line {that  
which} separates the two countries.

(g) The earth {which  
that} is a sphere {which  
that} is flattened at the poles is nearly 8,000 miles in diameter.

(h) In manners {which  
that} characterize the gentleman he was superior to all {whom  
that} he met.

(i) I noticed a lady with a lap-dog {who  
which  
that} was out for an airing.

(j) The clock {which  
that} keeps such excellent time was the property of my grandfather {who  
that} died a year ago.

(k) The boy enlisted for the war  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$  his father greatly disapproved.

(l) Libraries  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$  are destined to destruction by fire always contain literary treasures  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$  cannot be replaced.

(m) The pyramids  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$  were built of stone are still in a good state of preservation.

(n) The lady  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$  accompanied the senator from Utah was his wife  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{that} \\ \text{whom} \end{array} \right\}$  he had married a year before.

3. By means of diagrams, analyze the following sentences:

- (a) As he sowed, some fell by the wayside.
- (b) What did you pay for the horse that you sold to me?
- (c) One cannot always obtain one's just dues in this world.
- (d) Words that are primitive have no other form that is simpler.
- (e) His own father would not have known him in that guise.
- (f) I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke.
- (g) They that have done this deed are honorable.
- (h) I am no orator, but a plain blunt man that loves my friend.
- (i) The usher sat remote from all, a melancholy man.
- (j) I have done the state some service, and they know it.
- (k) I knew that my secret was one that the earth refused to keep.
- (l) Joy went with my children one and all, and tuned their voices with song.
- (m) We, the people of the United States, do hereby ordain and establish this Constitution.
- (n) Know then this truth—enough for man to know—  
Virtue alone is happiness below.
- (o) Judged by their manner of governing children, most men have never themselves been children.

**37. Parsing the Pronoun.**—To parse the pronoun, the student should state the following:

1. The *class* and *subclass* in which it belongs. It may be *personal* (simple or compound), *relative* (simple, double, or compound), *interrogative*, *demonstrative*, *indefinite* (distributive, comparative, reciprocal). The antecedent should be mentioned, and reasons given for each statement.

2. The *inflection* if there is any—*gender*, *person*, *number*, *case*, and *why*.

3. Its *use* and *relations* in full.

**38. Model for Written Parsing.**—The following model can be made very useful for written parsing.

Only to a few of us did the master reveal the secret that he had so long concealed.

Can you tell me what you wish him to do?

Pronoun	Class	Gender	Person	Number	Case	Relation or Syntax
few	indef.	com.	third	plur.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>to</i>
us	pers.	com.	first	plur.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>of</i>
that	rel.	neu.	third	sing.	obj.	obj. of <i>had concealed</i> Connects <i>secret</i> with <i>he had</i> , etc.
he	pers.	masc.	third	sing.	nom.	subj. of <i>had concealed</i>
you	pers.	com.	second	sing.	nom.	subj. of <i>can tell</i>
me	pers.	com.	first	sing.	obj.	obj. of <i>to</i> understood
what	d. rel.	neu.	third	sing. or plur.	obj.	= <i>that, which</i> : obj. of <i>can tell</i> and <i>to do</i>
you	pers.	com.	second	sing.	nom.	sub. of <i>wish</i>
him	pers.	masc.	third	sing.	obj.	obj. of <i>wish</i> and sub. of <i>to do</i>

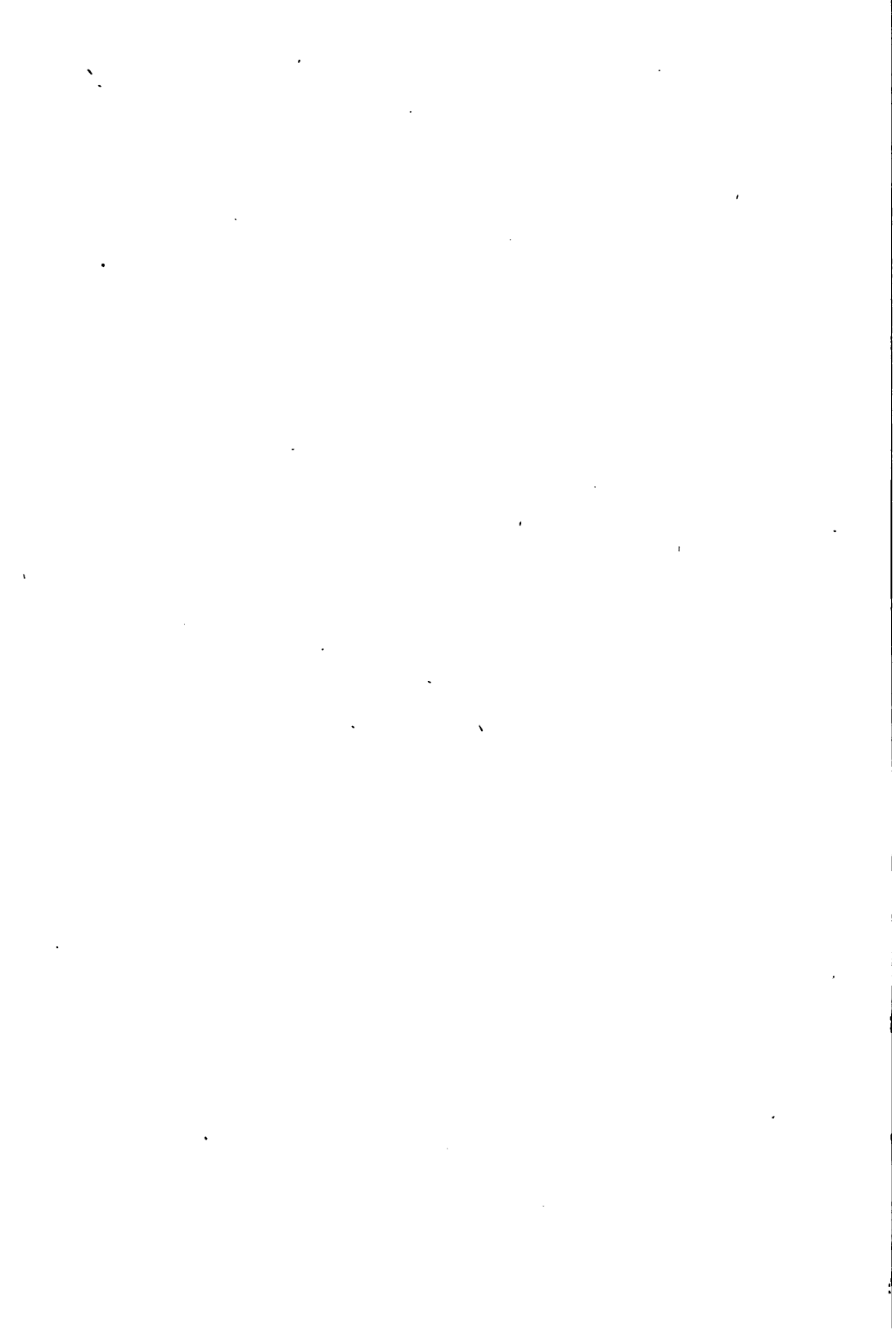
EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Parse, in writing, all the pronouns given in the first twelve sentences in example 3 of the Examples for Practice following Art. 36.

TABLE OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns	CLASSES	}	1. <i>Personal</i> { Simple Compound
			2. <i>Relative</i> { Simple Double Compound
			3. <i>Interrogative</i>
			4. <i>Demonstrative</i>
			5. <i>Indefinite</i> { Distributive Comparative Reciprocal
	PROPERTIES	}	<i>Gender</i>
			<i>Person</i>
			<i>Number</i>
			<i>Case</i>





# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 5)

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## THE VERB

**1. Importance of the Verb.**—We have already learned that in every sentence the verb is the *predicating word*. By this is meant that the verb is the word that enables us:

1. To say, tell, or declare.

The earth *is* a sphere.

The storm *will rage* fiercely.

2. To ask a question.

*Is* he a scholar?

*Has* the boy *arrived*?

3. To command, entreat, or wish.

*Be* quiet.

*Excuse* me.

*Proceed*.

*Pity* the blind.

*Walk* slowly.

*Thy* will *be done*.

Every word in a statement is, or should be, necessary to the completeness of the statement; the same is true of the words in a question or a command. But the verb is the one word that cannot be omitted without making nonsense of what remains—without destroying the completeness of the sentence. It is impossible to express a complete thought unless some word in the sentence has the office of a predicating verb. From this fact, grammarians were led to call this part of speech the *verb*, from the Latin word *verbum*, meaning “a word.” The name implies that the verb is *the* word—the all-important element in speech.

The verb is named, therefore, from considering the importance of the part it fills in the sentence. The usual definition of the verb, however, refers to its use in the sentence rather

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than to its importance. Considered, then, with respect to the office it fills,—its *function*,—the verb *tells*; it *questions*, it *commands*—in one word, it *predicates*.

**Definition.**—*A verb is the predicating word or words in a sentence.*

The dog *barks*.

A bird *was singing* in the cherry tree.

The time for our departure *will soon arrive*.

*Can* John *solve* the example?

The man *is* a scholar.

**2. What Verbs Express.**—In order that the student may understand the real nature of the verb, and the reasons for the classifications that are to follow, it is necessary to consider more fully just what this part of speech does in the sentence.

The most important matter with which language can be concerned is *action*—the various changes and movements and doings of things material and immaterial. In the expression of thought many words are required, but the most useful of them all is the verb—the action word. Now, action is of many kinds, and it is sometimes not easy to see that a certain verb really does express action.

Physical action is recognized without difficulty, generally by the aid of the senses. Examples of verbs denoting this kind of action are *walk, push, write, skate, build, sing, eat*.

Mental and emotional action is almost as readily recognized as that expressed by verbs denoting sensible motions. Such are *think, remember, admire, consider, judge, decide*.

It is less easy to see that real action or change is indicated by such verbs as *rest, lie* (to recline), *sleep, decay, grow*, and many others like them; but, most difficult of all are a few verbs called *neuter verbs*, such as *seem, appear, feel*, and especially *be* in its various forms—*am, is, was, were, have been, will be*, etc.

The neuter verbs are thought by many not to express action at all, but to denote a state or condition of that which is named by the subject. A little reflection, however, will

make it clear that they express action and at the same time denote a state or condition of the actor.

When it is said, *He seems sick*, there are certain changes in the usual appearance of the person in question, signs that speak as plainly to the eye as the tongue can to the ear. In other words, certain parts of a man's body, by doing something, seem or look or appear in a manner that reveals some state or condition of the man himself. For example, his general bearing, his movements, the color of his skin, the luster of his eyes, and many other agencies are by a kind of action making known that he is in a state described by the word *sick*.

**3. Action and State.**—Every verb, then, indicates some kind and degree of activity. But this is not all. It is true also that every verb expresses or implies a state or condition of the actor. Thus, when it is said, *The boy walks, thinks, sleeps, and grows*, each of the verbs denotes a special kind of activity as well as a certain accompanying state. The boy not only performs the act of walking, but he is in a state or condition such that he may be called a *walking boy*. He is in a condition of walking, of thinking, of sleep, of growth. When the boy walks, we notice the action, but the state is scarcely ever considered; when he sleeps, we notice the state rather than the action. If, however, we say, *The boy is good*, the verb *is* denotes the species of action that we call being or existence, but this action is not even thought of; our attention is engaged only by a state or condition of goodness in the boy.

Hence, all verbs might be arranged in a series beginning with verbs that make action prominent and state slight or unnoticeable, and ending with those in which state is the conspicuous feature and the action is obscure or unnoticed.

I	{	walk shout think try hate reason	II	{	sleep grow repose sit lie decay	III	{	feel seem taste smell exist be
ACTION (State Implied)			ACTION AND STATE			STATE (Action Implied)		

4. **Verbs Active and Verbs Neuter.**—It is evident that all verbs may be divided into two great classes—**active verbs** and **neuter verbs**. The dividing line between these two classes cannot be fixed with any definiteness, for it is sometimes difficult to determine whether it is the action or the state that is the more prominent. Besides, a verb may be used as *active* in one sentence and *neuter* in another. The following are some examples:

Active { He *sleeps* noisily.  
 We *felt* our way carefully.  
 Keep your promise loyally.

Neuter { The babe *sleeps* safe in its mother's arms.  
 The poor woman *felt* sad.  
 Keep quiet.

When a verb is neuter, it is accompanied by an adjective to denote the state expressed; when active, the action denoted by the verb may be modified by an adverb. This is illustrated in the sentences given above.

A verb that expresses both action and state in nearly equal degrees may have with it both an adjective and an adverb; the one denotes the condition of the actor and the other indicates the time, the place, or the manner of the action. With verbs of this kind, the adverbial modifier is usually a phrase or a clause.

The following sentences, in diagram, contain verbs that are accompanied by both adjectives and adverbs as modifiers:

1. "(We) [shall] soon [arrive] at home safe."
2. "How sweet the (moonlight) [sleeps] upon this bank."
3. "The (moon) [looks] wan and pale after the (sun) [rises]."
4. The (tree), broken by the storm, [lay] rotting on the ground.

In 1, *soon* and *at home* are modifiers of *shall arrive*; *safe* is a predicate adjective denoting the condition of the subject after the action is performed.

In 2, *upon this bank* is an adverbial phrase telling where the action of sleeping takes place; *sweet* is a predicate adjective denoting the state or quality of the *moonlight*. This will be better seen if the sentence is transposed—*The moonlight sleeps how sweet upon this bank*.

In 3, *after the sun rises* is an adverbial clause modifier of *looks* and denotes the time when *the moon looks wan and pale*.

In 4, *rotting* is a participle having the value of a predicate adjective; it denotes the state or condition of *the tree*. *On the ground* is an adverbial phrase that tells where the tree was lying.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

By means of diagrams, analyze the following sentences:

- (a) The sun rose warm and bright above the desolate arctic scenery.  
 (b) Bright and fierce and fickle is the South,  
 And dark and true and tender is the North.  
 (c) For still my voice rang false and hollow when I sang.  
 (d) The jewel on her brow burned clear, a mystic star.  
 (e) During the entire day the captive sat in his cage, sad and songless.  
 (f) Every pupil sat erect at his desk, patient and obedient, and went through his exercises.  
 (g) Long I stood there, wondering, fearing, doubting.  
 (h) The skies grew dark and glared red and angry over the peaceful landscape.  
 (i) Fresh from the fountains of the wood, a rivulet of the valley came.  
 (j) He bore himself confident and fearless before his enemies.  
 (k) She opened the door wide for us, and waited, quiet but attentive, while we told our wants.  
 (l) The days seemed strangely dull and lonesome; the nights dragged dark and fearful.

**5. Classes of Active Verbs.**—The action expressed by a verb may be of a kind that involves only the actor, as when we say:

The boy { walks.  
 thinks.  
 swims.

Again, the action may begin with the actor and end with something that receives the action or is affected by it.

The boy { killed a *bird*.  
knew his *lesson*.  
solved a *problem*.

In these examples, the action performed by the boy operates on or affects something besides the boy himself—a *bird*, a *lesson*, a *problem*. These words are called the *direct objects*, or merely the *objects*, of the verbs. Verbs that have direct objects are called *transitive*, because the action seems to *pass over* (*transire*, “to go over”) from the actor to something that receives the action. Not always, however, do the subject and the object have the verb between them, but the name *transitive* implies that they do. The following sentences have these two parts on the same side of the verb, but this arrangement is irregular and poetical.

Arms and the man I sing.  
Rivers they forded and lofty mountains they climbed.

Here *arms* and *man* are the objects of *sing* (to celebrate in a poem); also, *rivers* and *mountains* are the objects of the transitive verbs *forded* and *climbed*, respectively.

All active verbs that do not have objects are called *intransitive*, for the reason that the action does not *go over*, so to speak, from an actor to a receiver.

ACTIVE VERBS { *Transitive*: The girl WASHED the *dishes* and SWEPT the *floor*.  
*Intransitive*: The clock RAN for a time and then STOPPED.

Whether a verb is transitive or intransitive depends entirely on the use that is made of it, for a verb ordinarily transitive may be used without an object. In such cases the verb should be regarded as intransitive.

Men *build*, but time *destroys*.  
Leah *washed* and *combed*.

The intention here is to say of *men* only that they perform the act of *building*, very much as we might say of *birds* that they perform the act of *flying*. To specify what they build

is apart from the purpose. When a verb is thus used without a direct object, it is intransitive. Hence, in the sentences just given, the verbs *build*, *destroys*, *washed*, and *combed*, having no objects, are intransitive.

The subject may be omitted and yet the verb may be transitive; for, in an imperative sentence, the subject is regularly absent, but is clearly implied.

He worked hard and (subject implied) **SAVED** *money*.

(Subject) **RING** the *bells*, and (subject) **FIRE** the *guns*, and (subject) **FLING** your *starry banners* out.

**Definition.**—*A transitive verb is a verb that expresses action represented as received by some person or thing.*

The lady **SELECTED** some *ribbon*.

The general **WON** the *battle*.

Jack **KILLED** the *giant*.

**Definition.**—*An intransitive verb is a verb that expresses action not represented as received by any person or thing.*

The bird *sings*.

The boys *were skating*.

He *was thinking* of home.

**Definition.**—*A reflexive verb is a transitive verb whose subject and object denote the same person or thing.*

The *question* answers *itself*.

*They* have injured only *themselves*.

All verbs not actually used as neuter, and of neuter verbs there are few, belong in one or other of these two great classes; that is, they are either **active-transitive** or **active-intransitive**.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Make a list of the transitive verbs, and with each verb write its object. Then make a list of the intransitive verbs.

(a) The earth sometimes receives the shadow of the moon.

(b) The directors met and voted a large sum of money for improvements.

(c) The foolish fellow killed the goose that had laid the golden eggs.



(*d*) These people deserve the sympathy and respect of all right-minded men.

(*e*) The party that won the election believed that it should enjoy the advantages of its victory.

(*f*) Playing ball occupied a large share of the boy's time.

(*g*) A furious storm overturned the ship and blew her sails away.

(*h*) Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.

(*i*) The sun rose and shed his golden light on the beautiful landscape.

(*j*)                   The seeds ye sow, another reaps;  
                          The wealth ye find, another keeps;  
                          The robes ye weave, another wears;  
                          The arms ye forge, another bears.

(*k*) Man wants but little here below, nor wants that little long.

**6. Transitive Verbs, Active and Passive.**—Transitive verbs occur in two forms:

1. *The Active Form.*—In this use of the transitive verb, the subject denotes the *actor*; the name of the *receiver* of the action is the direct object of the verb.

The hunter *killed* a deer.

David *slew* Goliath.

The subject, *hunter*, denotes the actor; the object, *deer*, denotes the receiver of the action. In the second sentence, *David*, the subject, names the actor, and *Goliath*, the object, denotes the receiver of the action.

2. *The Passive Form.*—In the passive form of a transitive verb, the subject denotes the *receiver* of the action, and the *actor*, if denoted at all, is represented by the object of the preposition *by*.

A deer *was killed* by the hunter.

Goliath *was slain* by David.

*Deer* names both the subject of the verb and the receiver of the action. *Hunter*, the object of the preposition *by*, denotes the actor.

**7. Omission of Actor's Name From Passive Constructions.**—We may wish to say that something has been done, but by whom done we may either not know or may

not wish to say. Sometimes, too, it may be a matter of no interest or importance by what agency the act was performed.

Our silver *has been stolen* (thieves unknown).

The burglar was arrested yesterday (not important by whom).

The earth has been circumnavigated (by many persons).

This sediment was brought from the uplands (by various agencies that need not be specified).

In these sentences the verbs are transitive, for only transitive verbs are capable of assuming the *passive* form.

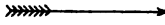
In the active form, however, no verb is transitive unless the object is actually expressed or so clearly implied that its presence in the sentence would be awkward or unnecessary.


The farmer *planted* ———, *cultivated* ———, and *marketed* his POTATOES during his son's absence.

Here, each verb is transitive, for in place of the blanks the noun *potatoes* must be understood.

The following diagrams will show where the action begins, and on what it operates and ends, in these two transitive constructions:

#### TRANSITIVE FORMS

*Active.*—“Our visitor  RELATED the story with much effect.”

*Passive.*—“The story WAS RELATED with much effect by our visitor.”

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Change each of the following sentences into the passive form:

- (a) The dog killed the sheep.
- (b) The teacher gave the boy a beautiful book.
- (c) With a little help from the teacher John solved a difficult example.
- (d) With a good opera glass, one can see the four moons of the planet Jupiter.
- (e) Two gases, oxygen and hydrogen, form water.
- (f) The boy killed a sparrow with his air gun.
- (g) The incoming train might have killed the careless passenger.
- (h) A strong guard of soldiers defended the town.

- (i) Neither friend nor enemy can influence him.  
 (j) On a clear day, we could see a ship, like a white bird, in the distance.  
 (k) Can you deceive the judge with such a story?  
 (l) Magellan circumnavigated the earth and discovered the Philippine Islands.

### 8. Other Prepositions Than *By* in the Passive.

The preposition *by* is regularly used in the passive before the name of the actor or agent.

The tree was killed **BY** *lightning*.  
 We were overtaken **BY** a *storm*.

Sometimes, however, *with* or *of* is used instead of *by*.

The cat was strangled **WITH** *milk*.  
 The poor fellow was overwhelmed **WITH** *misfortune*.  
 The teacher was disgusted **WITH** John's *conduct*.  
 We were delighted **WITH** our *success*.  
 The boy was enamored **OF** his *cousin*.  
 The man was possessed **OF** a *devil*.

These sentences may all be written in the active form with the nouns in Italics as subjects, proving that they are in true passive construction.

*Milk* strangled the cat.  
*Misfortune* overwhelmed the poor fellow.  
 John's *conduct* disgusted the teacher.  
 Our *success* delighted us.  
 The boy's *cousin* enamored him.  
 A *devil* possessed the man.

**9. Other Transitive Forms.**—There are several peculiar cases of the transitive construction:

1. Some intransitive verbs may be used transitively when compounded with a preposition. Prepositions so used, without an object, are really adverbs.

<i>Intransitive</i>	{	They <i>laughed at</i> us.
		The people <i>stared at</i> the strangers.
<i>Transitive</i>	{	We were <i>laughed at by</i> them.
		The strangers were <i>stared at by</i> the people.
		The maid <i>was spoken to</i> by her mistress.
		The decision <i>was arrived at</i> after much discussion. The column <i>was added up</i> by the teacher.

These are true transitives, for, as we have seen, only transitive verbs are capable of assuming the passive form.

2. When four elements enter the construction; viz., the subject, the verb, the direct object, and the indirect object. These four elements appear in both the active and the passive construction.

<i>Active</i>	{	The professor taught (to) him grammar.
		The child's father bought (for) Mary a doll.
<i>Passive</i>	{	Grammar was taught (to) him by the professor.
		A doll was bought (for) Mary by her father.

In these sentences, *him* and *Mary*, whether preceded by *to* or *for* or not, are called **indirect objects**.

3. When the actor is only implied and is indefinite. In such cases, the actor or cause may be regarded as being in external circumstances or influences, or in mental preference or inclination.

*I am decided* (by existing facts) to retreat.  
*He was inclined* (by nature, by instinct) to evade questions.  
*I am resolved* (by reflection—by experience) to try.  
*I am grieved* to know that my old friend is dead.  
*He is determined* to go into the army.

Verbs so used are such as denote some form of mental habit or state; as, *bent*, *disposed*, *resolved*, *grieved*, *hurt*, *determined*, etc.

Instead of regarding this as a true passive construction, it is perhaps better to treat it as a case of the verb *be* followed by a verbal with the force of a predicate adjective.

He was	{	angry.
		disposed.
		resolved.

Here *inclined* is a verbal with the exact value of a predicate adjective; just as if the sentence were written thus:

The general was	{	eager	} to attack.
		glad	
		reluctant	

4. *Cognate Objects*.—Some verbs, usually intransitive, take objects similar in meaning to the verb itself (*cognate*, “born together,” and so, similar in meaning).

The whistles *blew a blast*.

He *dreamed a dream*.

The judge *drank a draft* from the spring.

He *saw a sight*.

The passive form of this construction is generally awkward, and should be avoided.

A sight *was seen* by him.

A draft from the spring *was drunk* by the judge.

10. *The False Passive*.—An erroneous construction, called the **false passive**, is frequently employed by careless writers. It consists in using the indirect object of the active construction as the subject of the passive verb. The following examples will illustrate:

*Active* { My father sent me a letter.  
The teacher gave the boy a book.  
The lady offered the boy a dollar.

*Correct Passives* { A letter was sent (to) me by my father.  
A book was given (to) the boy by the teacher.  
A dollar was offered (to) the boy by the lady.

*False Passives* { I was sent a letter by my father.  
The boy was given a book by the teacher.  
The boy was offered a dollar by the lady.

In the last three sentences, *letter*, *book*, and *dollar* seem to be the direct objects of the passive verbs that precede them. This construction is not permissible, for only active verbs can have direct objects. In order to put *letter*, *book*, and *dollar* in the nominative case, as they should be, the sentences must have the apparent subjects in the objective case after the preposition *to*.

To *me* a letter was sent etc.

To the *boy* a book was given etc.

To the *boy* a dollar was offered etc.

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Convert the following active constructions into passives:

(a) The king furnished the messenger a carriage.

**Model.**—*Passive:* A carriage was furnished (for) the messenger by the king.

(b) Old Mother Hubbard gave the poor dog a bone.

(c) The teacher sent a book to her best student.

(d) The foreman paid the workman a month's wages.

(e) The farmer showed the bewildered traveler the right path.

(f) The charitable lady bought the destitute family a supply of provisions.

(g) The lawyer procured the accused a new trial.

(h) The captain gave the scout promotion on account of his faithful service.

(i) The physician obtained the patient a vacation.

(j) The rich man gave the poor widow the scraps from his table.

(k) The artist showed the lady his finest pictures.

(l) The traveler told the guests an interesting story of his travels.

(m) The merchant sold the customer some damaged goods.

(n) My father gave me much excellent advice.

(o) The sheriff handed the counsel an important paper.

(p) A messenger brought the gentleman a message.

(q) The magistrate gave the prisoners a severe lecture concerning their conduct.

(r) The doctor ordered the patient a long rest.

2. Analyze, by diagrams, the following sentences:

(a) If you talk nonsense, you must expect few listeners.

(b) Santiago was surrendered to the American forces by the Spaniards.

(c) Admiral Dewey's victory over the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay was followed by the cession of the Philippine Islands.

(d) Lighted by gems shall its dungeon be,  
But the pride of its beauty shall kneel to me.

(e) And he who scorns the least of Nature's works  
Is thenceforth exiled and shut out from all.

(f) John the Baptist was beheaded by order of Herod Antipas.

(g) The best things are found when we are looking for something else.

(h) The world's method of punishing ignorance is not by a word and a blow and the blow first; it is the blow without the word.

(i) In America more than one hundred machines are used in making a shoe.

## INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB

**11. Conjugation.**—As we have seen, nouns and pronouns are inflected or changed in form in consequence of some change in their meaning or use. For a similar reason, verbs also are inflected. The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called *declension*; that of verbs, *conjugation*. This word means *a yoking or joining together*; that is, all the different inflections of a verb are so arranged as to be seen together and the changes more easily recognized, compared, and remembered.

Verbs have four inflections: (1) for *mode*; (2) for *tense*; (3) for *number*; (4) for *person*.

**Definition.**—*Conjugation is an orderly arrangement of the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons of a verb.*

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 MODE

**12. Function of Mode.**—The sentence, *I walk*, takes before the mind the form of a mere statement; that is, the guise or *mode* of the thought is that of a statement or declaration. The thought is merely stated or indicated.

By the help of certain other words, the thought may be expressed as conditional or dependent on something else; it then assumes before the mind another fashion or mode.

Even if } I make haste, I shall be late.  
Unless }

Again, a thought may be conceived or recognized as being in the mode or dress of a command or an entreaty; as, *Walk thou. Be quiet. Make Haste.*

Or, the action or state may take the form of mere mention without special reference to any person as acting or being. This is a case of action or being in general, and without actual predication.

*To live is to think.*

'Tis better *to have loved* and (to have) *lost*,  
Than never *to have loved* at all.

These different attitudes that a complete thought or a mere verbal idea assumes are modes; and, since these differences depend largely on the form of the verb and the way in which it is used, the verb itself is said to be in this or that mode. Really, however, it is generally the sentence that has mode; but the word is applied in grammar only to the verb. Mode is to a sentence very much as a uniform is to an official of any kind. A thought appears at one time in the dress of a *statement*, and at another time in that of a *question*; now as a *command*, again as a *condition*; etc.

**Definition.**—*Mode is the form or use of a verb by which is shown the kind of sentential structure employed to express a thought.*

Mode comes very near to being only another classification of sentences with respect to *use*. From use or function, sentences are *declarative*, *interrogative*, and *imperative*. From the form they assume—their verbal dress—sentences, or, rather, the verbs they contain, are said to be in the indicative mode when they indicate or declare, or when they express a question; in the imperative mode when the sentence expresses a command; etc.

**13. Number of Modes.**—There is no agreement among grammatical authorities as to the number of modes in English, but the greater weight of present opinion is undoubtedly in favor of four modes.

These modes are: (1) the *indicative*, (2) the *imperative*, (3) the *subjunctive*, (4) the *infinitive*.

**14. The Indicative Mode.**—The word *indicative* means “pointing out,” or “showing.” When a thought is expressed in the form or guise that affirms or denies, or in a form that questions, the predicating verb is in the indicative mode.

The earth *is* a planet.

He *will* not come.

*Does* he understand?

The first of these sentences affirms, the second denies, and the third expresses a question. The verbs used for these three purposes are in the indicative mode.



Again, when the thought expressed in a conditional clause is taken or meant as true, and not as a mere supposition, the verb is in the indicative mode.

If he *is* wise, he *is* cruel. (Here it is granted that he is wise.)  
If he *was* a great traveler, so also *was* I.

The truth or falsity of an ordinary statement, however, has nothing whatever to do with the mode of its verb. Hence, the verbs in the following sentences are all in the indicative mode:

The sun *rises* at noon.  
Dragon teeth *were* once *sown*, and men in complete armor *sprang* from them.  
The earth *is* an immense cube.

Other examples of verbs in the indicative mode are in the following sentences:

He *can* solve the example.  
The girl *may* not *come*.  
They *may* not *have heard* what you *were saying*.  
*Might* you not *have misunderstood* his statement?  
You *should* not *have gone*.

Some grammarians say that verb phrases in which *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* occur, are in the **potential mode**. But since all these verb forms affirm, deny, or question, they should be regarded as indicatives.

**Definition.**—*The indicative mode is the form or use of a verb by which a thought is predicated as a statement, a question, or a condition assumed as true.*

**15. The Imperative Mode.**—The word *imperative* means "commanding," but in grammar its meaning is extended to include every use of the verb between commanding and mere permission.

*Make* ready, *take* aim, *fire*.  
*Come* on; *let* us set out.  
*Pity* the poor.  
*Be* still, sad heart, and *cease* repining.  
*Go* in peace.  
*Please* yourself in what you do.

It is by use and not by form that the imperative mode of a verb is shown; for the imperative form *make*, in the sentence, *Make ready*, is unchanged in the indicative sentence, *They make ready*. It is only the use that is different.

The subject of an imperative verb is usually omitted. This subject denotes the person or thing commanded, and is most frequently the pronoun *thou* or *you* understood. When the name of the person commanded is used, it is independent by address. Thus, in *Come, John*, the sentence in full is, (*You*) *Come, John*.

**Definition.**—*The imperative mode is the use of a verb by which a sentence is shown to be a command, an exhortation, an entreaty, or a mere permission.*

**16. The Subjunctive Mode.**—This mode is so named because it is found only in *subjoined* or dependent clauses. The student must not assume, however, that the predicating verb in every subordinate clause is in this mode.

The subjunctive mode is used:

1. When doubt or denial or a condition of things contrary to the fact is implied by a subordinate clause; as,

If I *were* sure of his honesty, I would engage him. (The implication is that I am not sure of his honesty.)

Had he *been killed*, his father would have died of grief. (This is equivalent to *denying* that he was killed.)

If the day *had been* stormy, I should not be here. (The meaning is that the day is not stormy.)

But, if the conditional clause expresses a certainty or an admitted fact, the verb is in the indicative mode; as,

If he *is* a gentleman (which is granted), why did he not explain his action?

If he *calls* every day, be assured that he *has* a motive for so doing.

If he *did blunder*, that is no excuse for persecuting him. (Here, *is*, *calls*, *has*, and *did blunder* are indicative.)

2. To express a wish—a desire that something might be that is not; as,

Would she *were* mine = I wish that she *were* mine.

Thy deeds *be* upon thee = I wish that thy deeds *may be* upon thee.

## 3. To express a mere supposition; as,

If it wishes *were* horses, beggars might ride.

*Were* the moon *made* of green cheese, the milky way could be explained.

## 4. To denote a future uncertainty; as,

If it *snow*, I shall be surprised.

*Should* he *come*, I shall let you know.

## 5. To express an intention not yet carried out; as,

The judge directs that you *be required* to pay the costs.

In all these cases, the subordinate clause expresses something that has no existence in reality, is contrary to the truth, or is only conceived. The subjunctive mode is the mode of doubt, imagination, and uncertainty; the indicative is the mode of actuality, of certainty, of fact.

## 17. Indicative and Subjunctive Modes Contrasted.

The following examples will aid the student in distinguishing between the indicative and subjunctive modes:

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE	INDICATIVE MODE
If twice four <i>were</i> ten, my change would be correct.	If twice five <i>is</i> ten, my change is not correct.
If twice four <i>be</i> ten, my change is correct.	If the mail <i>is</i> heavy, we <i>put</i> on more help.
If the sky <i>fall</i> , we shall catch sparrows.	It <i>was</i> as dark as if night <i>had come</i> .
Would that night or Blucher <i>were come</i> .	Unless applicants for work <i>are</i> sixteen years old, we <i>do not hire</i> them.
Unless ye <i>repent</i> , there is no forgiveness.	He <i>is</i> a coward, if he <i>is</i> a braggart (as is admitted).
<i>Should</i> any soldier <i>absent</i> himself he shall be punished.	If it <i>was</i> a counterfeit (which is not denied), you <i>were</i> arrested justly.
<i>Were</i> the sun not intensely hot, all life would disappear from the earth.	Though he <i>was</i> dead, his influence <i>lived</i> .
Though I <i>were</i> dead, I should hear your voice.	

There are many nice distinctions in the subjunctive construction, and many disputed points. These distinctions,

however, occur for the most part in the writings of an earlier time; for the subjunctive mode is but little used by modern writers, being displaced by the indicative. It cannot be said, therefore, that sentences like the following are grammatically erroneous, for we are constantly meeting such in the works of our best modern writers.

If I *was* taken ill, I would call Dr. Brown.

If it *rains* tomorrow, I will not go.

Though it *thunders*, he cannot hear it.

If twice six *is* ten, you owe me nothing.

**Definition.**—*The subjunctive mode is the form or use of a verb that makes a subordinate clause express something as doubtful or merely supposed.*

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Arrange the verbs in the following sentences according to their modes—indicative, subjunctive, and imperative—in separate lists:

- (a) Had he been killed, I should never have forgiven myself.
- (b) Though his coat were of rubber, it would not keep him dry.
- (c) Though he wears a rubber coat, he is frequently wet.
- (d) Unless he come for the money, I shall not pay him.
- (e) Were I not Alexander, I should like to be Diogenes.
- (f) Had it been a spirit, it would have been invisible.
- (g) Though I was in fault, he should have pardoned me.
- (h) Except he find the foot of the rainbow, he will get no pot of gold.
- (i) Lest he forget his errand, I shall give him written instructions.
- (j) Provided he go rapidly, he will be there in time.
- (k) Take heed, lest any man deceive you.
- (l) If you grant that he is a scholar, I shall claim that he should have the place.
- (m) Although the lake was artificial, it looked as picturesque as if it were natural.
- (n) If he do but devote himself to his business, he will succeed.
- (o) Should you meet a team on the highway, keep to the right.
- (p) It is decided that you suffer the consequences of your folly.
- (q) If you would that others should treat you justly, act justly toward them.
- (r) Should my ship come in, as I hope, my fortune will be made.
- (s) The danger from a thunderbolt has passed before the thunder is heard.

**18. The Infinitive Mode.**—The word *infinitive* means “not limited.” This mode is so named because it takes no change of form in consequence of any change in the person or number of its subject. In the case of the other modes, especially the indicative, such changes of the verb occur, and they are for that reason called *finite* modes; the verbs also are finite—they are limited, modified, changed in form, for person and number. The following illustrations will make this difference clear:

		INDICATIVE MODE		
FINITE	{	Singular	<i>First Person:</i> I go. <i>Second Person:</i> { Thou goest. You go. <i>Third Person:</i> He goes.	
		Plural	<i>First Person:</i> We go.	
				INFINITIVE MODE
		INFINITIVE	{	Singular
Plural	<i>First Person:</i> He told us to go.			

Here it will be noticed that *to go* undergoes no change—is unlimited—in consequence of any changes in the person or number of the subject; while the indicative does change, and is therefore a limited or finite mode. It should be added that the verbal nouns and adjectives or participles are, like the infinitive, unlimited—not subject to change—for person and number. The verbals are real infinitives; by most authorities, however, the name *infinitive* has been confined to the forms with *to*, either expressed or understood.

The infinitive does not predicate, as do the other modes, but it names an act very much as a common noun names a thing. Usually, therefore, the infinitive is a kind of verbal noun. This may be seen from the following examples:

Life	}	is pleasant.	He desired	{	action.
Living					to act.
To live					

The *sign* of the infinitive is the preposition *to*, expressed or understood.

The preposition *to* generally precedes the infinitive; but the preposition is not a part of the verb, although it is sometimes treated as such. The sign of the infinitive is usually omitted after the verbs *may, can, must, shall, will, do, bid, dare, make, see, hear, feel*, and many others.

You may (*to*) go.

They saw him (*to*) finish the work.

He need not (*to*) come.

**Definition.**—*The infinitive mode is the use of a verb by which action or state is represented, not as predicated, but as merely named.*

**19. Forms of the Infinitive.**—Intransitive verbs have two infinitives, and transitive verbs have two active and two passive forms of the same mode.

INTRANSITIVE	{	to walk, <i>or</i> to be walking to have walked, <i>or</i> to have been walking						
TRANSITIVE	{	<table style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 10px;"><i>Active</i></td> <td style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-left: 10px;">to write, <i>or</i> to be writing to have written, <i>or</i> to have been writing</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 10px;"><i>Passive</i></td> <td style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-left: 10px;">to be written to have been written</td> </tr> </table>	<i>Active</i>	{	to write, <i>or</i> to be writing to have written, <i>or</i> to have been writing	<i>Passive</i>	{	to be written to have been written
<i>Active</i>	{	to write, <i>or</i> to be writing to have written, <i>or</i> to have been writing						
<i>Passive</i>	{	to be written to have been written						

**20. Kinds of Predication.**—The word *predication* when used in grammar without a modifying word is applied, in its full sense, only to finite verbs. They assert or deny action or state; they formally state or deny that something *is* or *does* something or other, or they express an inquiry as to whether something or other *is* or *does* this or that.

The *boy* **IS** studious.

The *earth* **REVOLVES**.

The *sky* **IS** not a dome.

**STUDY** your lesson.

**DOES** *he* **SEE** us?

If *he* **IS** not **GOING** etc.

This kind of predication is real—actually made—and is the work done by verbs in the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive modes.

The action or state expressed by the infinitive is not asserted, but is taken for granted or assumed, just as is done in the case of the ordinary verbal noun. Thus, if we should say, *John writes*, we have actually declared that some one called *John* performs an act expressed by *writes*. But

in, *I told John to write*, or, *I enjoyed writing*, the action expressed by *to write* or by *writing* is not asserted but assumed. The idea of action goes with these verb forms as a part of their meaning, and not as a formal assertion. Very much like this difference is that between the expressions, *John's hat* and *John owns the hat*. In the first expression, ownership by *John* is assumed or taken for granted as something not denied; in the second, ownership is predicated—distinctly stated. All verb forms not belonging among the finite forms have this *assumed predication*. All finite verb forms have *actual predication*.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Make separate lists of the infinitives; also of the verbs in the three finite modes.

- (a) I want you not to forget to come.
- (b) We found her practicing her music lesson.
- (c) If you fail to report, your place will be given to some one else.
- (d) Hadst thou been here, my brother would not have died.
- (e) He was blamed for wasting the fortune inherited from his father.
- (f) Nero is said to have fiddled while Rome was burning.
- (g) He who could prepare men to die would at the same time be teaching them how to live.
- (h) I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience.
- (i) He who does not have an excellent memory should never undertake the business of lying.
- (j) The greatest of faults is perhaps to think you have no faults.
- (k) The boy whistled to keep himself from being afraid.
- (l) The roses seemed to be saying: "Come and do something with us."

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**21. Elements That May Be Associated With the Infinitive.**—Although, in the case of the infinitive, predication is only assumed, this mode of a verb may have:

1. *A Subject*.—This may be expressed, or it may be implied more or less distinctly.

We invited HIM *to come*.

They persuaded US *to remain*.

John was told (HIM) *to go* (*to go HIMSELF*).

In the first sentence, *him* is both the object of the finite verb *invited* and the subject of the infinitive *to come*. *Us* is the object of *persuaded* and the subject of *to remain*. The subject of an infinitive that follows a passive verb is usually understood. In the third sentence, *him* or *himself* is the understood subject of *to go*.

The subject of the infinitive is always in the *objective case*.

### 2. *An Object.*

We sent him *to see* the PLAY.

For us *to have defeated* our ENEMIES served *to honor* our COUNTRY.

The words *play*, *enemies*, and *country* are all objects of preceding infinitives.

### 3. *A Predicate Noun, Pronoun, or Adjective.*

We knew her *to be* a TEACHER.

They declared the visitor *to be* HIM.

Dare *to be* TRUE.

A noun or pronoun used in the predicate with the infinitive always denotes the same person or thing as the subject and is in the same case. Thus, *teacher* and *him* denote the same persons as *her* and *visitor*, respectively.

4. *An Adverbial Modifier.*—This may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

*To live* TEMPERATELY is *to live* IN HARMONY with the laws of our being.

It is important *to strike* WHEN THE IRON IS HOT.

We knew the letter *to have been written* WHILE HE WAS SECRETARY.

In each of these sentences, the element in small capitals is a modifier of the infinitive in Italics.

**22. Functions of the Infinitive.**—An infinitive may have the office:

1. *Of a Noun.*—As a noun, the infinitive may be the subject or object of a verb, a predicate noun, a noun in apposition, a noun independent by pleonasm, or it may be the object of a preposition.

TO DIE (*subject*) for one's country *is* sweet.

He *tried* TO ESCAPE (*object*).

All that we ask is TO SEE him. (*To see* is used as a predicate noun and denotes the same thing as *all that we ask*, the subject of *is*.)



We are all under the same *obligation*—TO HELP the helpless. (*To help* is used as a noun in apposition to *obligation*.)

To DIE; is that merely to sleep longer than usual? (*To die* is used as a noun independent by pleonasm.)

*Except* to SUBMIT, we have no choice. (*To submit* is used as the object of the preposition *except*.)

2. *Of an Adjective*.—As an adjective, the infinitive may modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun directly, or it may do so as a predicate adjective.

They received *bread* TO EAT. (*To eat* modifies *bread*, just as if the expression were EATABLE *bread*.)

He seems TO HAVE SUFFERED much. (*To have suffered* is the predicate adjective after the neuter verb *seems*.)

They showed a *willingness* TO WORK for a living. (*To work* modifies the noun *willingness*.)

### 3. *Of an Adverb*.

A man *should eat* TO LIVE, not *live* TO EAT.

They are almost *ready* TO DEPART for the West. I hoped to be *able* TO VISIT my teacher.

In the first two sentences the infinitives, in small capitals, are used as adverbs, and each modifies the italicized element with which it is used. In the last sentence, the infinitive *to visit* is an adverbial modifier of the adjective *able*.

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### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Make a list of the infinitives in the following sentences; also state how each infinitive is used:

(a) I love to watch them in the deep blue vault.

(b) The youngest was quick to understand an explanation.

(c) It is better to have tried and failed than never to have tried at all.

(d) Let John be sent to find out why they failed to do the work.

(e) The speaker began to address the members.

(f) He ventured to break his promise to obey.

(g) We had only a few minutes to spare.

(h) Rome is said to have been founded 753 B. C.

(i) Determined to succeed, we set to work in earnest.

(j) No one ought to read a book that he is unable to understand

(k) Brutus professed to be Cæsar's friend.

(l) To be or not to be; that is the question.

(m) You need not expect a secret to remain a secret unless you keep it from every person.

(n) It is sweet and becoming to die for one's country.

2. Study the models and in a similar way analyze the sentences that follow them:

(a) (To have apologized) [was] to have admitted  
 + that (we) [were] wrong.

(b) The (soldiers) [were] extremely eager to make an attack.

(c) In her attic window the staff (she) [set],  
 To show that one (heart) [was] loyal yet.

(d) To die; (that) [is] to fall asleep and not wake again.

(e) Each morning sees some task begin,  
 Each evening sees it close.

NOTE.—*Begin* and *close* are infinitives after *sees*, the sign of the infinitive being omitted.

(f) Pause not to dream of the future.

(g) The story is much too sad to repeat, or even to hear.

(h) He believed his circle to be equal in area to our square.

(i) I have sat and eyed  
 The thunder breaking from his cloud, and smiled  
 To see him shake his lightnings o'er my head.

(j) I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.

(k) The walls must be crumbled, the stones decayed,  
 To pleasure his dainty whim.

(l) A sunbeam would not have deigned to enter through a window so dirty.

**23. Verbals.**—There are two other kinds of words derived from verbs. They have already been briefly noticed, but it is necessary to treat them here more fully.

Like verbs, verbals imply action or state, and at the same time they have the function of adjectives or of nouns. Such action or state as they express is assumed, not predicated. Sometimes their verbal character is the more prominent feature; in other cases their noun or their adjective nature is the stronger. Since they are forms of the verb, they are known by the general name of **verbals**. They are: (1) the *gerund* or *verbal noun*; (2) the *participle* or *verbal adjective*.

**24. The Gerund.**—This verbal may be simple or compound.

Simple	{	<i>Seeing</i> is <i>believing</i> .
		He was accused of <i>cheating</i> . We admired his <i>skating</i> .
Compound	{	<i>Being loved</i> is more satisfactory than <i>being hated</i> . He prided himself upon <i>having been promoted</i> . His <i>having escaped</i> was due to carelessness.

The gerund, or verbal noun, may be used in the same relations as an ordinary noun. It may therefore be:

(a) Subject of a sentence.

*Living* is expensive.

The boy's *having been indulged* was the cause of his ruin.

Here *having been indulged* is the subject of *was*, just as the noun *indulgence* is in the sentence, *Indulgence* was the boy's ruin.

(b) Object of a verb or of a preposition.

We practiced *riding* a bicycle.

We must thank him for *having assisted* us.

*Riding* is the object of the transitive verb *practiced*; *having assisted* is the object of the preposition *for*.

(c) Predicate noun.

*Seeing* is *believing*.

(d) In any of the independent relations; as, apposition, explanation, pleonasm, etc.

A most responsible function, *teaching*, is discharged by more than four hundred thousand persons in this country.

*Lying!* Do you mean to accuse me of lying?

A verbal noun may take an *adverbial modifier*; when derived from a transitive verb it may have an object.

Living *economically* is the usual method of saving *money*.

Speaking *only when we were addressed* was required of all of us.

The gerund *living* is modified by the adverb *economically*; *money* is the object of *saving*; *speaking* is modified by the clause in Italics.

**Definition.**—*A gerund or verbal noun is a verbal having the functions of a noun.*

**25. The Participle.**—The word *participle* is derived from a Latin verb meaning “to share” or “partake of.” The participle is so called because it partakes of the nature and function of both the verb and the adjective. The most common form of the verbal adjective ends in *ing*, but there is no difficulty in distinguishing it from the verbal noun ending in *ing*. For if, like an adjective, a verbal modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, it is a participle; if it merely names an action or a state, it is a gerund. Like the gerund, the participle is either *simple* or *compound*.

Simple	{	We saw <i>him</i> SKATING.
		<i>Columbus</i> , SEEING a light, knew that land was near.
		The <i>merchant</i> , TRUSTED and HELPED by his creditors, regained his prosperity.
Compound	{	The <i>soldier</i> , WOUNDED and DYING, was carried to the rear.
		The <i>boy</i> , HAVING RECOVERED, returned to his play.
		The <i>clerk</i> , HAVING DEFRAUDED his employer, was dismissed.
		HAVING BEEN SUSPECTED, <i>he</i> proved his innocence.

**Definition.**—*A participle or verbal adjective is a verbal having the functions of an adjective.*

The verbal character of the participle is sometimes very slightly marked. In such cases the verbal adjective may be regarded as an ordinary adjective. The following are illustrations:

*running* water, a *dining* room, a *writing* teacher, a *skating* companion, a *standing* order

The same loss of verbal value occurs with the gerund. A gerund preceded by *a*, *an*, or *the* becomes a mere abstract noun; as,

The *ticking* of the old clock was heard above the *raging* of the tempest.

When such verbals as those in the sentence above take a modifier before them, the modifier is usually an adjective; as,

The *loud* BARKING of wolves was heard in the distance.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Study the models below, and analyze the sentences that follow:

(a) A (bird) swiftly cleaving the air [is] a very pleasing sight.

(b) Being tired, (I) [lay] down in the jolting wagon

+ and (∧) [fell] into a sleep disturbed by troubled dreams.

(c) (He) [rose], struggling with weakness,

+ and (∧) [bowed] his head unto the sprinkled ashes.

(d) We caught sight of a donkey trying in vain to pull a loaded cart up the bank of a roaring mountain stream.

(e) Having prepared a hasty lunch to appease their coming hunger, the boys started before sunrise.

(f) He thinks, my dear little brother, so knowing,  
That feather-bed fairies do all the snowing.

(g) The evening mist, rising and floating far and wide, prevented us from seeing the mountains.

(h) But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,  
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.

(i) There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,  
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.

(j) \* \* \* \* \* and with him, directing his household,  
Gentle Evangeline lived, his child, the pride of the village.

- (*k*) And mine has been the fate of those  
To whom the goodly earth and air  
Are banned and barred—forbidden fare.
- (*l*) I sometimes deemed that it might be  
My brother's soul come down to me.
- (*m*) Having taken refuge in the swaying tops of the cocoanut trees,  
the monkeys threw the fruit at the sailors wandering about the grove.
- (*n*) This fading sunshine being gathered up and poured abundantly  
upon the roofs and walls, imbued them with a kind of subdued cheer-  
fulness.
- (*o*) To spend too much time in studies, is sloth; to use them too  
much for ornament, is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their  
rules, is the humor of a scholar.
- (*p*) His face was covered with those wrinkles that, rightly looked  
at, are no more than a sort of permanent sunburning.
- (*q*) Then, upon the velvet sinking, I betook myself to linking  
Fancy unto fancy, thinking what this ominous bird of yore  
Meant in croaking "Nevermore."

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TENSE

**26. Function of Tense.**—We have seen that, either by its form or by its use, or by both, the action or state expressed by a verb may be presented to the mind as being in a certain mode. But this is not all that the verb is capable of showing. By its form sometimes, but often by its use, a verb may reveal the *time* of an action or a state. Thus, in *I am*, *I see*, *I run*, the verbs show by their forms that the action expressed is to be understood as taking place in the present; but if the forms be changed into *I was*, *I saw*, *I ran*, the time of the action belongs to the past.

This peculiarity of the verb, by which it reveals the time of an action or a state, is called *tense*, a word meaning *time*.

A distinction must be made between tense and time. We may speak of the tense of a verb and of the time of an action, but the words cannot be interchanged.

**Definition.**—*Tense is the form or use of a verb by which it indicates the time and the degree of completeness of the expressed action or state.*

**27. Divisions of Time.**—There are three principal divisions of time—the *present*, the *past*, and the *future*. There

are, therefore, three principal tenses: the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *future tense*. These are called *primary tenses* because they correspond to these primary divisions of time. The following are illustrations:

PRIMARY TENSES	{ Present Tense	I love.	I am loving.
		I am loved.	I do love.
	{ Past Tense	I loved.	I was loving.
		I was loved.	I did love.
	{ Future Tense	I shall love.	I shall be loving.
		I shall be loved.	

**28. Verb Phrases.**—It will be noticed that in the foregoing illustrations only two tense forms appear in which the verb *love*, and no other, is used. These are *I love* and *I loved*. In the other forms, time is shown by means of verb phrases. These phrases contain some form of the principal verb associated with forms of certain other helping or *auxiliary* verbs. In the examples given, the only auxiliary verbs used are forms of the verbs *be*, *do*, and *shall*. But it will be shown later that the primary tenses are subdivided, and that from this subdivision many other verb phrases result, in which other auxiliary verbs must be employed. A complete list of these helping verbs in their present and past forms is as follows:

*Present:* do, am, have, shall, will, may, can, must  
*Past:* did, was, had, should, would, might, could, —

**29. Auxiliaries as Principal Verbs.**—Of these auxiliaries, *do*, *be*, and *have* are used also as principal verbs, and their own verb phrases are formed by the help of auxiliaries, in the same manner as is done with other principal verbs. The following examples will illustrate:

<b>Do</b>	I	{	am <i>doing</i> was <i>doing</i> have <i>done</i> have been <i>doing</i> should be <i>doing</i>	}	my daily work.
<b>Be</b>	He	{	must have <i>been</i> should <i>be</i> might have <i>been</i> will have <i>been</i> may have <i>been</i>	}	asleep at the time.

**30. Action as Denoted By Verb Phrases.**—In the three principal tenses, action in several conditions may be denoted:

1. *As Indefinite With Respect to Time.*—Thus, action may be expressed as performed at some time in the present, the past, or the future, but at no particular time.

*Present Indefinite:* He works. He does work.

*Past Indefinite:* He worked. He did work.

*Future Indefinite:* He will work. He shall work.

2. *As Progressive or Going On.*—By verb phrases, action or state may be represented as going on, and therefore as incomplete or unfinished at some other time, either expressed or implied.

*Present Progressive:* He is working.

*Past Progressive:* He was working.

*Future Progressive:* He will be working.

3. *As Complete or Perfect.*—Again, verb phrases may represent action or state as complete or finished at some definite time. This definite time is, for the present tense, the time of speaking; and for the past and future tenses, it is a time at or before the time of some other act to which reference is made.

*Present Perfect:* He has worked. He has been working. (At some time during the period ending with the time of speaking.)

*Past Perfect:* He had worked. He had been working. (During a period ending at some past time.)

*Future Perfect:* He will have worked. He will have been working. (During a period ending at some future time.)

The second example for each perfect tense given above represents the action before completion as continuous—in progress. These forms are called *perfect progressive*—they express continuous action completed in the present, the past, or the future.

**31. Number and Names of the Tenses.**—There are, therefore, six tenses; they are named *present, present perfect; past, past perfect; future, future perfect.*

There are two forms called *emphatic*—one for the present, the other for the past. They are formed by using *do* as an auxiliary verb. Thus, *I do study; I did study.*



The forms just mentioned are all active; in the passive also there are verb phrases for the same six tenses. The student may see all of these for the first person singular, indicative mode, in the following synopsis:

## SYNOPSIS

Form	Tense	Completeness	Common	Progressive	Emphatic
ACTIVE	Present	Indefinite	I love	I am loving	I do love
		Perfect	I have loved	I have been loving	Wanting
	Past	Indefinite	I loved	I was loving	I did love
		Perfect	I had loved	I had been loving	Wanting
	Future	Indefinite	I shall love	I shall be loving	Wanting
		Perfect	I shall have loved	I shall have been loving	Wanting
PASSIVE	Present	Indefinite	I am loved	See Art. 32.	Wanting
		Perfect	I have been loved		
	Past	Indefinite	I was loved		
		Perfect	I had been loved		
	Future	Indefinite	I shall be loved		
		Perfect	I shall have been loved		

In the conjugation of a verb, a complete view of all its forms is shown in the three persons, both singular and plural, through all the modes and tenses. But a view like that in the table above, giving only one person and number, is a *synopsis*.

**32. Progressive Passive.**—There has been much discussion whether any verbs may be correctly used in the passive progressive. If the table contained such forms, they would be, I AM BEING LOVED, *I have been being loved*, I WAS BEING LOVED, *I had been being loved*, I shall be being loved, and *I shall have been being loved*.

Only two of these awkward forms are ever used; they are the *present* and *past* indefinite, but the authority for them is very questionable. They are shown above in small capitals. We often hear such expressions as, *He is being killed*, *They were being measured*, *The house is building*, or *is being built*, etc. But since the same sense may be more elegantly expressed otherwise, these forms should be avoided. There is authority for them, but not much of the best.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. On a properly ruled blank, similar to the form for the synopsis in Art. 31, give a synopsis of the verb *see* in the active and passive forms of all the tenses of the indicative mode.

2. Write the following verbs in a column, and to the right of each state its tense and tell whether it is in the common, the progressive, or the emphatic form:

I saw.	We shall have been forgotten.
You will be elected.	Mary had been studying.
We were struck.	The boy had learned.
He is working.	I did resign.
They were fighting.	She had been advised.
She said.	We shall be left.
I have been told.	It has been hidden.
He has been seen.	The men had been employed.
They will be arrested.	I do refuse.
She will be helped.	You should have known.

---

**33. Interrogative Tense Forms.**—All tense phrases of the indicative mode and of the so-called potential mode become interrogative if the subject is made to follow the auxiliary; as, *Am I loving? Shall I be loved? Had I been loved?* etc.

The common forms for the present and the past indefinite, *I love* and *I loved*, are rarely used interrogatively except in poetry; the emphatic forms, *I do love* and *I did love*, used interrogatively without emphasis, furnish substitutes; as, *Do I love? Did I love?*

**34. Potential Verb Phrases.**—Many grammarians give what they call the potential mode. Its verb phrases

are formed by using *must*, with *may* and *can*, and their past forms, *might* and *could*; also, *would* and *should*, the past forms of *will* and *shall*. This so-called mode is said to have four tenses, as shown in the accompanying table.

Form	Present	Present Perfect
ACTIVE	Common I { may can must } love	I { may can must } have loved
	Progressive I { may can must } be loving	I { may can must } have been loving
PASSIVE	Common I { may can must } be loved	I { may can must } have been loved
	Progressive Wanting	Wanting
Form	Past	Past Perfect
ACTIVE	Common I { might could would should } love	I { might could would should } have loved
	Progressive I { might could would should } be loving	I { might could would should } have been loving
PASSIVE	Common I { might could would should } be loved	I { might could would should } have been loved
	Progressive Wanting	Wanting

All these verb phrases are, however, nothing more than varieties of the indicative mode—mere statements or questions. Thus, *I may love* = *I may (to) love*, in which *may* is used as a principal verb, followed by an infinitive (to) *love*. In all these compound verb phrases, such as *I shall go*, *I must be loved*, *I do walk*, the first verb is the principal one, and

the others, taken together, with *to* understood, make up an infinitive used as a verbal noun in the objective case. The principal verb should be regarded as in the indicative mode, unless it is used in the conditional way that has been described as the *subjunctive* mode.

The potential mode has been abandoned by most grammarians, but the student should be able to recognize and explain its verb phrases. The name *potential* comes from the Latin word *potentia*, meaning "power." *Can*, and its past form, *could*, are the only potential auxiliaries that have this meaning of power or ability; of the others, *may* denotes permission or future probability; *must* means necessity, etc. But, as has already been stated, mode is determined more by structure of the sentence than by the form of the verb.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Rewrite the following sentences, making them interrogative, and indicate the mode of each verb:

- (a) The foolish boy had been misled by his companions.
- (b) When the teacher reproved him for idleness he began at once to study.
- (c) The storm had been expected to arrive earlier.
- (d) Perhaps you will do better after you have rested.
- (e) The most formidable obstacles can usually be overcome by patient persistence.
- (f) Nobody can tell me where the man has gone or what he is doing.
- (g) You certainly cannot expect to succeed in such an absurd enterprise.
- (h) He could not have finished the work in time, however hard he had tried.
- (i) It is to be hoped that somebody will soon be successful in reaching the north pole.
- (j) To travel a distance equal to the circumference of the sun would require about twenty-two years, if the traveler should go at the rate of three hundred and fifty miles per day.

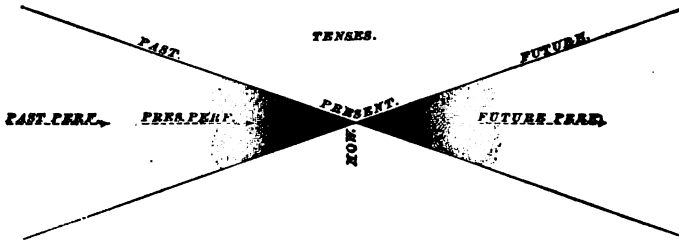
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#### 35. Relation of Tenses With Respect to Time.

The following diagram will show the relations of the six tenses of the indicative mode.

The shaded part of the diagram is intended to show that

the word *present* in ordinary speech does not mean now—this instant. Strictly, now—the present—is the point where the past and future meet; it has no extent, and is always moving. But, in ordinary speech, the present is a variable portion of time extending into both the past and the future. So that we use the word *present* somewhat vaguely. It is relative to human action and experience. When we say, *He is walking*, the fact is that the performance of the act consumes time on both sides of the point called *now*. *I work* does not mean that action of the kind called *work* is done just at the passing instant; but the notion conveyed is, that as time passes, from day to day and from year to year, my habitual activity is denoted by the verb *work*. A verb so used is



in the *present* tense. This extension of the present into the past and future finds its extreme in what is called the *universal present*—a tense form that is used to denote those activities or states that are always going on, always true.

Six added to three *makes* nine.  
Bread *is* the staff of life.  
The sun *shines*.

We learned that the earth *revolves*.  
The teacher told us that the moon  
*is* a sphere.

**36. The Tenses Defined.**—The time denoted by the **present tense** covers a period of variable extent, and lies partly in the past and partly in the future.

Time *flies*.  
The laws *must* be obeyed.

Gold *is* a valuable metal.  
*Can* you solve the problem?

The time included by the **past tense** covers all past time and reaches to the moving point called *now*.

The river *flowed*.  
The ocean *was* roaring.

His story *was* not finished.  
*Did* any one see a stray canary bird?

The time denoted by the **future tense** begins at the point *now* and includes all future time.

The sun *will grow* cold.

The day *will come*.

*Shall* we *have* the pleasure of a call from you soon?

The **present perfect tense** denotes action or state as complete at some point in the present.

He *has worked*.

We *have been writing*.

I *have been advised*.

The action expressed by this tense must not be thought of as always ending, or being finished, just at the present moment. For example, we may say of a man, *He has worked*, as if the action were ended; yet he may continue to work indefinitely after the time of speaking.

The **past perfect tense** denotes action or state as complete at or before some specified past time.

He *had been writing* (before I called).

When I arrived, he *had gone*.

He *had been hiding* for a week before he was found.

The **future perfect tense** denotes action or state as complete at or before some specified future time.

The vessel *will have sailed* by the time you reach the dock.

If snow *shall have fallen* by morning, we cannot go.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Arrange the verbs in lists according to their tenses.

(a) I may go. He might come. Gold is heavy. The boys have been studying.

(b) Shall I answer? Did he come? Have they gone? When he has rested, invite him to come into the office. Will not the sun be eclipsed? Did you expect me to go?

(c) He was thought to have escaped. If I were he, I should undertake the work. Shall you have gone by sunrise? Who had been suspected before they found the person that was really guilty?

(d) Why should any one be so proud? Have you done all that you should have done? Did you do the work that you promised to do? I should be glad to oblige you if I were able. Can you tell me what he does for a living?

(e) Would you let me visit the city? Ought he not to pay me? Have you had your dinner? Can you tell me where he has gone? Nobody can tell what will have happened by that time.

(f) What has been done about the matter? No one has been informed. How red the sky is. There had been rain and the roads were muddy, but we set out notwithstanding. Did you see him before he had been arrested?

(g) Take care that you reach the station before the train has gone.

(h) It is said to be better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all.

(i) One secret in education is to know how to use time wisely.

(j) Care should be taken, not that the reader of what you write may understand if he will, but that he shall understand whether he will or not.

(k) Sit down to write what you have thought and not to think what you shall write.

# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 6)

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## THE VERB—(Continued)

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### INFLECTION OF THE VERB—(Continued)

1. **The Different Modes With Regard to Time.**—The meaning of the six tenses just explained applies strictly to the ordinary tense forms of the indicative mode only. In the other modes, the notion of time is often unimportant, or it is obscured by some other consideration. In a statement or a question, time is generally a matter of importance; in other words, the tenses of the indicative mode carefully distinguish differences of time. Thus, in the following sentences, the time of the action or state is denoted very plainly and exactly—as much so as the action itself.

• He <i>sees</i> the deer.	They <i>will have gone</i> .
We <i>caught</i> a fox.	<i>Is</i> he <i>living</i> ?
They <i>will come</i> .	<i>Did</i> you <i>see</i> him?
They <i>have been paid</i> .	<i>Will</i> they <i>come</i> ?
The road <i>had been made</i> .	<i>Has</i> the train <i>started</i> ?

In these examples, the time of the action is revealed by the tense form, but in the other modes the tense form generally misleads in regard to time. Thus, in the sentence, *If he were sick, I should visit him*, the verbs *were* and *should visit* are past tenses in form, and *should* denote past time; but *were* may denote future time, and *should visit* indicates a time depending on the time expressed by *were*. In this sentence, it is the condition—the supposition—that is

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prominent, and the tense form shows nothing of the time, which is really not important.

Again, in the *imperative* and the *infinitive* tense forms, the real time of the expressed action must be gathered from the entire sentence. This may be seen from the following examples:

*Be* good, my child, and *let* who will *be* clever. (In the future—habitually.)

*To die* for one's country is glorious. (Always true.)

<i>To have conquered</i>	{	<i>was</i> not a sufficient triumph for Alexander.
every enemy		<i>is</i> our proud boast as a nation.
		<i>will be</i> the achievement of the Anglo-Saxon.

The verbs in the first sentence are in the present tense, although they all refer to the future. In the last sentence, the present perfect infinitive *to have conquered* may denote action completed at any time—present, past, or future.

In the case of the *verbals*, the element of time is almost always obscure and overshadowed. The time of the denoted action may, however, nearly always be gathered from the context.

	{	<i>having finished</i> his lesson, <i>went</i> skating one day.
A boy,		<i>looking</i> for a situation, <i>asks</i> to see you, sir.
		<i>having been educated</i> , <i>will find</i> life easier.

But, whatever time a tense form may really denote, the grammatical tense is named from that form. Thus, the verb is present in *If I come*; past in *If I came*; and present perfect in *If I have come* and in *To have come*.

**2. Effect of Certain Tense Elements.**—In tense phrases, every element has a special influence in determining the effect of the whole phrase. Some of the most important of these are as follows:

**Have** in its various forms, either alone or followed by *been*, gives the notion of completed action.

Many soldiers *have been* killed.

The appointed day *having* come, we set out.

The train *had* gone when we reached the station.

The **participle** in *ing* denotes unfinished or progressive action.

I am *walking*.

I have been *walking*.

In transitive verb phrases the passive participle denotes passive action—action received by the person or thing denoted by the subject.

I have been *hurt*.

The deer had been *pursued*.

The passive participles *hurt* and *pursued* denote action that affects, or is received by, that which is represented by the subjects, *I* and *deer*.

Do gives emphasis to declarative verb phrases.

He *does* work.

They *did* call.

We *do* repent.

**3. Person and Number of Verbs.**—Some verbs have, in the present and past tenses, certain inflections or changes of form in consequence of changes in the person and number of the subject. This is shown below:

		PRESENT TENSE			PAST TENSE		
SING.	{ <i>First Person:</i>	I	see	am	I	saw	was
	{ <i>Second Person:</i>	Thou	seest	art	Thou	sawest	wast
	{ <i>Third Person:</i>	He	sees	is	He	saw	was
PLUR.	{ <i>First Person:</i>	We	see	are	We	saw	were
	{ <i>Second Person:</i>	You	see	are	You	saw	were
	{ <i>Third Person:</i>	They	see	are	They	saw	were

These inflections for person and number are very few and unimportant for English verbs, yet they have led grammarians to say that *a finite verb must agree with its subject in number and person*. By this they mean that such changes must be made in the form of verbs as are required by changes in the person and number of the subject.

**4. The Inflectional Base.**—The simple *inflectional base* or *root* of a verb is the form it has in the present infinitive

or in the first person singular of the present indicative. These, for a few verbs, are as follows:

INFLECTIONAL BASE	}	<i>Ind. Pres. 1st Pers. Sing:</i> I go, come, report, write, rule
		<i>Present Infinitive:</i> to go, come, report, write, rule

From these root forms the various modes and tenses are derived; the most important of all the derived forms are the past indicative and the perfect participle. For the verbs given above, these two forms are as follows:

*Past Indicative:* went, came, was, reported, wrote, ruled  
*Perfect Participle:* gone, come, been, reported, written, ruled

The perfect participle may be recognized by the fact that it is the last element in present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect verb phrases.

has *gone*, had *seen*, will have *come*, may have *sailed*

It will be noticed that the root or inflectional base is retained in the past tense and perfect participle of only two of the foregoing verbs. These two are *report* and *rule*, and their derived forms are made by adding *ed* to *report* and *d* alone to *rule*. All the remaining verbs form their past tense and perfect participle in some other way. Verbs are divided into two classes, according as they do or do not make these two forms, viz., the past tense and the perfect participle, by adding *d* or *ed* to the inflectional base. These two classes into which verbs are divided are *regular* verbs and *irregular* verbs.

**5. Principal Parts of the Verb.**—In the inflection of the English verb, only four different forms are used to express all the various modes and tenses, active and passive. These four forms are called the **principal parts**. By using with the principal parts the various auxiliaries, *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, etc., the different tenses are formed. The principal parts are the following:

1. The *root form*, seen in the present indicative; as, *love*, *see*, *write*, *work*, *swim*.

2. The *past tense form*; as, *loved, saw, wrote, worked, swam* or *swum*.

3. The *present participle*; as, *loving, seeing, writing, working, swimming*.

4. The *perfect participle*; as, *loved, seen, written, worked, swum*.

**6. Regular and Irregular Verbs.**—A verb is said to be **regular** or **weak** if it forms its past tense and its perfect participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the root form. The following are some examples of regular verbs:

	ROOT	PAST TENSE	PERFECT PARTICIPLE
<i>Principal Parts</i>	turn	turned	turned
	snap	snapped	snapped
	live	lived	lived
	steady	steadied	steadied
	parley	parleyed	parleyed
	smile	smiled	smiled

In changing the root form into the other forms, the rules of spelling must be observed, as is illustrated in *snap* and *steady*.

An **irregular** or **strong** verb is a verb that does not form its past tense and its perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to its root or present tense form. The following are some examples:

	ROOT	PAST TENSE	PRES. PART.	PERF. PAR.
<i>Principal Parts</i>	go	went	going	gone
	sing	sang <i>or</i> sung	singing	sung
	come	came	coming	come
	grow	grew	growing	grown
	freeze	froze	freezing	frozen
	ring	rang <i>or</i> rung	ringing	rung

The irregular verbs are about two hundred in number. The regular verbs are many thousands in number. All new verbs added to the language are regular.

**7. Formation of Verb Phrases.**—The three forms given above, viz., the root form, the past indicative, and the perfect participle, together with the present participle, are

called the principal parts. They are so called because of their importance in forming verb phrases. They are used in accordance with the following rules:

1. The *root infinitive* preceded by the auxiliary *do* forms the *emphatic present* and *past indicative*.

I do work.  
He does study.  
We did go.

2. The *root infinitive*, preceded by (a) *may*, *can*, or *must*, forms the *present indicative*; (b) *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, forms the *past indicative*; (c) *shall* or *will*, forms the *future indicative*.

It should be remarked that (a) of the foregoing is the former *potential present* and (b) is the *potential past*. But, as has already been explained, these supposed auxiliaries are really not auxiliaries but principal verbs followed by an infinitive object with *to* omitted.

I may go = I may (to) go.  
I shall come = I shall (to) come.

3. The *present participle* as an element of a verb phrase makes the expressed action progressive or continuous.

I am working.  
We have been thinking.  
They should have been acting.

4. The *perfect participle* of the principal verb, when preceded by *have* in any of its forms, denotes completed action.

I have written.  
He has gone.  
They had loved.  
We should have spoken.

5. The *perfect participle* of the principal verb, when preceded by the auxiliary *be* in any of its forms, denotes passive action.

He is loved.  
We were chosen.  
They should have been arrested.

**8. Redundant Verbs.**—Some verbs form their past tense, or their perfect participle, or both, in two ways. Such verbs are both regular and irregular; and, since their principal parts consist of more than the usual number of words, the verbs are called **redundant**. A few of them are given below:

ROOT	PAST INDICATIVE	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
bereave	bereft <i>or</i> bereaved	bereaving	bereft <i>or</i> bereaved
dare	durst <i>or</i> dared	daring	dared
mow	mowed	mowing	mowed <i>or</i> mown
swell	swelled	swelling	swelled <i>or</i> swollen
weave	wove <i>or</i> weaved	weaving	weaved <i>or</i> woven

The most important redundant verbs are usually given in the list of irregular verbs.

**9. Defective Verbs.**—A few verbs called **defective** are used only as presents and as past indefinites, and they have their formation irregular. They are:

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT	PAST
can	could	quoth	quoth
may	might	shall	should
methinks	methought	will	would
must	must (?)	wis	wist
ought	ought (?)	wit	wot

Whether *must* and *ought* can properly be used as past indefinites is disputed. *Wis*, *wist*, and *wot* are old forms and are nearly obsolete. *Beware* also is defective—it is used only in the present tense.

**10. Old or Strong, and New or Weak, Verbs.**—The changes that go on among the people that speak a particular language compel them to be constantly inventing new words to express their thoughts. A large proportion of these new words are verbs, most of which are promptly rejected; but many of them are accepted by good authorities, and come into general use. As has been said, English verbs of this kind all follow, in their conjugation, the model of regular verbs; so that regular verbs are said to have the **new** conjugation. This is by many called the **weak** conjugation, perhaps because these verbs are not so forcible as

the old verbs that we use so much and have used so long—the irregular verbs, which have the old or strong conjugation.

**Definition.**—*The conjugation of a verb is a regular arrangement, oral or written, of all its modes, tenses, persons, numbers, and participles.*

**11. List of Irregular Verbs.**—If we desire to avoid error in using the English language to express our thoughts, there is perhaps no one thing so important as to be perfectly familiar with the principal parts of the irregular verbs. Therefore, the following list is given, and the student should not be content until he has mastered it. The present participle is omitted, since it is always formed from the root verb by adding *ing*. Of course the rules of spelling must be observed in forming all the principal parts. Many verbs in the following lists are both irregular and redundant. When two or more forms of a principal part are given, the preferable form occurs first.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	{awoke awaked	awaked
be or am	was	been
bear	{bore bare	{born borne
beat	beat	{beaten beat
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	{bent bended	{bent bended
bereave	{bereaved bereft	{bereft bereaved
beseech	besought	besought
bet	{bet betted	{bet betted
bid	{bade bad bid	{bidden bid
bind	bound	bound

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
bite	bit	{ bit bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blended	{ blended blent
bless	{ blessed blest	{ blessed blest
blow	blew	blown
break	{ broke brake	{ broken broke
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	{ built builded	{ built builded
burn	{ burned burnt	{ burned burnt
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	{ chid chode	{ chidden chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (to adhere)	cleaved	{ cleaved clave
cleave (to split)	{ cleft clove clave	{ cleft cloven cleaved
climb	{ climbed clomb	{ climbed clomb
cling	clung	clung
clothe	{ clothed clad	{ clothed clad
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	{ crowed crew	crowed
cut	cut	cut
dare	{ durst dared	dared
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	{ dug digged	{ dug digged



PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	{ dreamed { dreamt	{ dreamed { dreamt
dress	{ dressed { drest	{ dressed { drest
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	{ dwelt { dwelled	{ dwelt { dwelled
eat	{ ate { eat (ēt)	{ eaten { eat
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	{ got { gotten
gild	{ gilded { gilt	{ gilded { gilt
gird	{ girded { girt	{ girded { girt
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	{ graved { graven
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	{ hung { hanged (put to death)	{ hung { hanged (put to death)
have	had	had
hew	hewed	{ hewn { hewed
hide	hid	{ hid { hidden

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	{ held holden
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	{ knelt kneeled	{ knelt kneeled
knit	{ knit knitted	{ knit knitted
know	knew	known
lade	laded	{ laded laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leap	{ leaped leapt	{ leaped leapt
learn	{ learned learnt	{ learned learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (to recline)	lay	lain
light	{ lighted lit	{ lighted lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	{ mown mowed
pass	{ passed past	{ passed past
pay	paid	paid
pen	{ penned pent	{ penned pent
prove	proved	{ proved proven (legal term)
put	put	put
quit	{ quit quitted	{ quit quitted
rap	{ rapt rapped	{ rapt rapped
read	read	read

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	{rang rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	{riven rived
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	{sawed sawn
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shave	shaved	{shaven shaved
shear	{sheared shore	{sheared shorn
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	{shown showed
shred	{shred shredded	{shred shredded
shrink	{shrank shrunken	{shrunken shrunken
shut	shut	shut
sing	{sang sung	sung
sink	{sank sunk	{sunk sunken
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	{slid slidden
sling	slung	slung
slink	{slunk slank	slunk

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
slit	{ slit { slitted	{ slit { slitted
smell	{ smelled { smelt	{ smelled { smelt
smite	{ smote { smit	{ smitten { smit
sow	sowed	{ sown { sowed
speak	{ spoke { spake	spoken
speed	{ sped { speeded	{ sped { speeded
spell	{ spelled { spelt	{ spelled { spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	{ spilled { spilt	{ spilled { spilt
spin	spun	spun
spit	{ spit { spat	{ spit { spat
split	{ split { splitted	{ split { splitted
spoil	{ spoiled { spoilt	{ spoiled { spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	{ sprang { sprung	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	{ staved { stove	{ staved { stove
stay	{ stayed { staid	{ stayed { staid
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strew	strewed	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	{ struck { stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strow	strowed	{ strowed { strown
swear	{ swore { sware	sworn

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.
sweat	{sweat	{sweat
sweep	{sweated	{sweated
swell	swept	swept
	swelled	{swollen
		{swelled
swim	{swam	swum
	{swum	
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	{throve	{thriven
	{thrived	{thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	{trod
		{trodden
wake	{waked	{waked
	{woke	{woke
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed	{wedded	{wedded
	{wed	{wed
weep	wept	wept
wet	{wetted	{wetted
	{wet	{wet
win	won	won
wind	{wound	{wound
	{winded	{winded
work	{worked	{worked
	{wrought	{wrought
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

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**EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE**

1. Without referring to the table, write the principal parts of the following verbs; afterwards ascertain and check your errors: come, go, sing, write, see, begin, burst, eat, lie (to recline), lay (to place), ride, sit, set, stay, steal.

2. Write five verb phrases each consisting of three words, and in each phrase use as the principal verb one of the verbs given in 1 above.

**Model.**—might have *come*, shall have *gone*

3. Write five verb phrases each containing four words, and use as the principal verb in each phrase a verb selected from the list given in example 1.

**Model.**—might have been *singing*, will have been *written*

4. Write sentences in which some mode and tense form of the following verbs shall be used transitively: win, wear, bite, do, choose, climb, drive, eat, find, freeze.

5. Write five verb phrases that are active and ten that are passive, selecting suitable verbs from the list of irregular verbs.

6. Write all the active tense forms of the infinitive of the following verbs: give, fly, think, forget, go.

7. Write the passive infinitives of the following verbs: clothe, know, hide, hew, hang.

8. Write five sentences each containing a verb in the subjunctive mode.

9. Write sentences in which shall occur all the passive tenses of the indicative mode.

**12. Conjugation of Verbs.**—As has already been stated, the conjugation of a verb is an orderly arrangement of all its forms in the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons. In order to conjugate a verb correctly, its principal parts must be known; and then, by applying the rules given in Art. 7, the student will find the task an easy one.

For the purpose of guiding the student in the correct use of verb phrases, all that is usually required is the briefer form of conjugation, called a *synopsis*. This word is derived from the Greek, and means a "connected view." A synopsis generally consists of the first person singular in each tense of the indicative and subjunctive modes, and all the forms of the imperative, the infinitive, and the verbals. On account of the great importance of the auxiliaries *be* and *have*, the conjugation of the first and the synopsis of the second are given below.

**13. Conjugation of the Auxiliary Verb *Be*.**—Both with synopsis and conjugations the principal parts should always be given.

PRINCIPAL	{ <i>Pres. Inf.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
PARTS	{ (To) be	Was	Being	Been

## INDICATIVE MODE

## PRESENT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I am, <i>or</i> I may be	1. We are, <i>or</i> We may be
2. Thou art, <i>or</i> Thou mayst be	2. You are, <i>or</i> You may be
3. He is, <i>or</i> He may be	3. They are, <i>or</i> They may be

## PAST TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I was, <i>or</i> I might be	1. We were, <i>or</i> We might be
2. Thou wast, <i>or</i> Thou mightst be	2. You were, <i>or</i> You might be
3. He was, <i>or</i> He might be	3. They were, <i>or</i> They might be

## FUTURE TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I shall be	1. We shall be
2. Thou wilt be	2. You will be
3. He will be	3. They will be

## OR

1. I will be	1. We will be
2. Thou shalt be	2. You shall be
3. He shall be	3. They shall be

## PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have been, <i>or</i> I may have been	1. We have been, <i>or</i> We may have been
2. Thou hast been, <i>or</i> Thou mayst have been	2. You have been, <i>or</i> You may have been
3. He has been, <i>or</i> He may have been	3. They have been, <i>or</i> They may have been

## PAST PERFECT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I had been, <i>or</i> I might have been	1. We had been, <i>or</i> We might have been
2. Thou hadst been, <i>or</i> Thou mightst have been	2. You had been, <i>or</i> You might have been
3. He had been, <i>or</i> He might have been	3. They had been, <i>or</i> They might have been

## FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

*Singular*

1. I shall have been
2. Thou wilt have been
3. He will have been

*Plural*

1. We shall have been
2. You will have been
3. They will have been

OR

1. I will have been
2. Thou shalt have been
3. He shall have been

1. We will have been
2. You shall have been
3. They shall have been

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

## PRESENT TENSE

*Singular**Plural*

- |                 |                 |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. (If) I be    | 1. (If) we be   |
| 2. (If) thou be | 2. (If) you be  |
| 3. (If) he be   | 3. (If) they be |

## PAST TENSE

*Singular**Plural*

- |                    |                   |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. (If) I were     | 1. (If) we were   |
| 2. (If) thou were, | 2. (If) you were  |
| or wert            | 3. (If) they were |
| 3. (If) he were    |                   |

## IMPERATIVE MODE

## PRESENT TENSE

*Singular**Plural*

- |                             |                                 |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 2. Be (thou), or Do thou be | 2. Be (you or ye), or Do you be |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|

## VERBALS

INFINITIVES { *Present*  
To be

*Present Perfect*  
To have been

PARTICIPLES { *Present*  
Being

*Perfect*  
Been

*Pres. Perf.*  
Having been

**14. Remarks on the Foregoing Conjugation.**—In the third person singular of this verb *he* is used as the subject, though any singular noun or pronoun in the nominative case and third person would have done as well; as, *she is, it is, anybody is, Mary is*, etc.

There are some forms besides the subjunctives given above that must be regarded as in the subjunctive mode. Some of them are: *Were I, Should he be, Had I been, Could I be*, etc. Indeed all the forms of the indicative mode are used in subordinate clauses, and when so used they are in the subjunctive mode if they express doubt, uncertainty, or something contrary to the fact. Thus, the italicized verbs in the following sentences are subjunctive:



If I *should* not be there, wait for me.

*Should* he be innocent, the fact will be discovered.

If I *was* (or *were*) a bird, I should fly away.

If he *be* (or *is*) there, tell him I wish to see him.

*Had* I *foreseen* what was to happen, I would have taken precautions.

The verbal *being* is sometimes used as a gerund or verbal noun.

He called the earth into *being*.

We had our *being* in peace and comfort.

**15. Synopsis of the Verb *Have*.**—The verb *have* is used both as principal and auxiliary. No other verb in the language, except *be*, is of greater importance.

PRINCIPAL	<i>Pres. Inf.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
PARTS	{ (To) have	Had	Having	Had

#### INDICATIVE MODE

*Present:* I have, am having, do have; or I may, can, or must have, or be having

*Past:* I had, was having, did have; or I might, could, would, or should have, or be having

*Future:* I shall have, will have; or I shall or will be having

*Present Perfect:* I have had, or I have been having

*Past Perfect:* I had had, or I had been having

*Future Perfect:* I shall or will have had, or I shall or will have been having

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

*Present:* (If, unless, etc.) I have, do have, or be having

(If, unless, etc.) I had, were having, should have, or should be having

*Past:* Had I, were I having, should I have, or should I be having

#### IMPERATIVE MODE

#### INFINITIVE MODE

<i>Present:</i>	{ Have thou, you, or ye	<i>Present:</i> (To) have
	{ Do thou, you, or ye have	<i>Pres. Perf.:</i> (To) have had
	{ Be thou, you, or ye having	

#### PARTICIPLES

*Present:* Having; *Present Perfect:* Having had; *Perfect:* Had

**16. Conjugation of a Regular Transitive Verb.**  
The regular transitive verb *love* is conjugated in both the active and the passive as follows:

PRINCIPAL	<i>Pres. Inf.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
PARTS	{ (To) love	Loved	Loving	Loved

## INDICATIVE MODE

## ACTIVE

## PASSIVE

## PRESENT TENSE

*Singular*

1. I love
2. Thou lovest
3. He loves

*Singular*

1. I am loved
2. Thou art loved
3. He is loved

*Plural*

1. We love
2. You love
3. They love

*Plural*

1. We are loved
2. You are loved
3. They are loved

## PAST TENSE

*Singular*

1. I loved
2. Thou lovedst
3. He loved

*Singular*

1. I was loved
2. Thou wast loved
3. He was loved

*Plural*

1. We loved
2. You loved
3. They loved

*Plural*

1. We were loved
2. You were loved
3. They were loved

## FUTURE TENSE

*Singular*

1. I shall love
2. Thou wilt love
3. He will love

*Singular*

1. I shall be loved
2. Thou wilt be loved
3. He will be loved

*Plural*

1. We shall love
2. You will love
3. They will love

*Plural*

1. We shall be loved
2. You will be loved
3. They will be loved

## PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

*Singular*

1. I have loved
2. Thou hast loved
3. He has loved

*Singular*

1. I have been loved
2. Thou hast been loved
3. He has been loved

*Plural*

1. We have loved
2. You have loved
3. They have loved

*Plural*

1. We have been loved
2. You have been loved
3. They have been loved

ACTIVE	PAST PERFECT TENSE	PASSIVE
<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>
1. I had loved		1. I had been loved
2. Thou hadst loved		2. Thou hadst been loved
3. He had loved		3. He had been loved
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>
1. We had loved		1. We had been loved
2. You had loved		2. You had been loved
3. They had loved		3. They had been loved
FUTURE PERFECT TENSE		
<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>
1. I shall have loved		1. I shall have been loved
2. Thou wilt have loved		2. Thou wilt have been loved
3. He will have loved		3. He will have been loved
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>
1. We shall have loved		1. We shall have been loved
2. You will have loved		2. You will have been loved
3. They will have loved		3. They will have been loved

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

ACTIVE	PRESENT TENSE	PASSIVE
<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>
1. (If) I love		1. (If) I be loved
2. (If) thou love		2. (If) thou be loved
3. (If) he love		3. (If) he be loved
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>
1. (If) we love		1. (If) we be loved
2. (If) you love		2. (If) you be loved
3. (If) they love		3. (If) they be loved
PAST TENSE		
<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>
1. (If) I loved		1. (If) I were loved
2. (If) thou loved		2. (If) thou were loved
3. (If) he loved		3. (If) he were loved
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>
1. (If) we loved		1. (If) we were loved
2. (If) you loved		2. (If) you were loved
3. (If) they loved		3. (If) they were loved

IMPERATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE	Active	{ Common Form: Love (thou or you)
		{ Progressive: Be (thou or you) loving
	Passive	{ Common Form: Be (thou or you) loved
		{ Emphatic: Do (thou or you) be loved

INFINITIVES

ACTIVE	{ Present	{ (To) love
		{ (To) be loving
PASSIVE	{ Present Perfect	{ (To) have loved
		{ (To) have been loving
PASSIVE	{ Present	{ (To) be loved
		{ Present Perfect: (To) have been loved

PARTICIPLES

ACTIVE	{ Present	{ Loving
		{ Present Perfect
PASSIVE	{ Present	{ Being loved
		{ Perfect: Loved

**17. Conjugation of an Irregular Transitive Verb.**  
 The full conjugation, active and passive, of the irregular transitive verb *see* follows below.

PRINCIPAL PARTS	{ Pres. Inf.	{ Past Ind.	{ Present Part.	{ Perfect Part.
	{ (To) see	{ Saw	{ Seeing	{ Seen

INDICATIVE MODE

ACTIVE	PRESENT TENSE	PASSIVE
<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>
1. I see		1. I am seen
2. Thou seest		2. Thou art seen
3. He sees		3. He is seen
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>
1. We see		1. We are seen
2. You see		2. You are seen
3. They see		3. They are seen

ACTIVE	PAST TENSE	PASSIVE
<i>Singular</i>		
1. I saw		1. I was seen
2. Thou sawest		2. Thou wast seen
3. He saw		3. He was seen
<i>Plural</i>		
1. We saw		1. We were seen
2. You saw		2. You were seen
3. They saw		3. They were seen

## FUTURE TENSE

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>	
1. I shall see		1. I shall be seen	
2. Thou wilt see		2. Thou wilt be seen	
3. He will see		3. He will be seen	
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. We shall see		1. We shall be seen	
2. You will see		2. You will be seen	
3. They will see		3. They will be seen	

## PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>	
1. I have seen		1. I have been seen	
2. Thou hast seen		2. Thou hast been seen	
3. He has seen		3. He has been seen	
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. We have seen		1. We have been seen	
2. You have seen		2. You have been seen	
3. They have seen		3. They have been seen	

## PAST PERFECT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>	
1. I had seen		1. I had been seen	
2. Thou hadst seen		2. Thou hadst been seen	
3. He had seen		3. He had been seen	
<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. We had seen		1. We had been seen	
2. You had seen		2. You had been seen	
3. They had seen		3. They had been seen	

ACTIVE FUTURE PERFECT TENSE PASSIVE

*Singular Singular*

- |                        |                             |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I shall have seen   | 1. I shall have been seen   |
| 2. Thou wilt have seen | 2. Thou wilt have been seen |
| 3. He will have seen   | 3. He will have been seen   |

*Plural Plural*

- |                        |                             |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. We shall have seen  | 1. We shall have been seen  |
| 2. You will have seen  | 2. You will have been seen  |
| 3. They will have seen | 3. They will have been seen |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

ACTIVE PRESENT TENSE PASSIVE

*Singular Singular*

- |                  |                      |
|------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (If) I see    | 1. (If) I be seen    |
| 2. (If) thou see | 2. (If) thou be seen |
| 3. (If) he see   | 3. (If) he be seen   |

*Plural Plural*

- |                  |                      |
|------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (If) we see   | 1. (If) we be seen   |
| 2. (If) you see  | 2. (If) you be seen  |
| 3. (If) they see | 3. (If) they be seen |

PAST TENSE

*Singular Singular*

- |                  |                        |
|------------------|------------------------|
| 1. (If) I saw    | 1. (If) I were seen    |
| 2. (If) thou saw | 2. (If) thou were seen |
| 3. (If) he saw   | 3. (If) he were seen   |

*Plural Plural*

- |                  |                        |
|------------------|------------------------|
| 1. (If) we saw   | 1. (If) we were seen   |
| 2. (If) you saw  | 2. (If) you were seen  |
| 3. (If) they saw | 3. (If) they were seen |

IMPERATIVE MODE

- |               |         |                                      |
|---------------|---------|--------------------------------------|
| PRESENT TENSE | Active  | Common Form: See (thou or you)       |
|               |         | Progressive: Be (thou or you) seeing |
|               | Passive | Common Form: Be (thou or you) seen   |
|               |         | Emphatic: Do (thou or you) be seen   |

INFINITIVES

- |         |                 |                       |
|---------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| ACTIVE  | Present         | (To) see              |
|         |                 | (To) be seeing        |
| PASSIVE | Present Perfect | (To) have seen        |
|         |                 | (To) have been seeing |
| PASSIVE | Present         | (To) be seen          |
|         |                 | (To) have been seen   |

## PARTICIPLES

ACTIVE	{	Present: Seeing
		Present Perfect { Having seen Having been seeing
PASSIVE	{	Present: Being seen
		Perfect: Seen
		Present Perfect: Having been seen

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

In the manner shown in foregoing models, write the following:

- (a) The active verb phrases of *catch* in all the tenses of the indicative mode.
- (b) The verbals, active and passive, of *find* (including the infinitive).
- (c) All persons and numbers of the present and the past indicative of *lie* (to recline).
- (d) The passive of *love* in the first person plural in the six tenses of the indicative mode.
- (e) The emphatic forms of *go* in both numbers and all the persons of the present and the past indicative.
- (f) The progressive forms of *write* in the third person singular of the tenses of the indicative mode.
- (g) A synopsis of the passive forms of *choose* in all modes and tenses.
- (h) The verb *swim* in the interrogative forms of the first person singular in the tenses of the indicative mode.
- (i) The principal parts of ten of the most frequently used irregular verbs.
- (j) Use correctly in sentences the present perfect, active or passive, of the following verbs: swim, drink, come, go, ring, sing, see, begin, lie (to recline), lay.

**18. Use of *Shall* and *Will*.**—When *shall* and *will*, with their past forms, *should* and *would*, are used as auxiliaries in *promising*, *foretelling*, or announcing *future action*, they are conjugated as follows:

Singular	{	I shall, should	Plural	{	We shall, should
		Thou wilt, wouldst			You will, would
		He will, would			They will, would

*I shall come* unless *I should be sick*.

*I shall try* and my brother *will help* me.

They *will be* sorry some day.

When used interrogatively, they simply ask for *information* or *permission*, or they inquire concerning the *will* or

*purpose* of some other person or persons. Their conjugation in this use is given below:

Singular	{	Shall, should I? Will, wouldst thou? Will, would he?	Plural	{	Shall, should we? Will, would you? Will, would they?
----------	---	--	--------	---	--

*Will it rain?*

*Shall I call tomorrow?*

*Would the teacher permit you to go?*

*Should we come earlier?*

*Determination*, strong *purpose* of the speaker, and *obligation*, are expressed by the following conjugation:

Singular	{	I will, would Thou shalt, shouldst He shall, should	Plural	{	We will, would You shall, should They shall, should
----------	---	---	--------	---	---

*I will come and he shall not prevent my doing so.*

*You shall obey orders.*

The foregoing are the common uses of these auxiliaries, but there are many nice distinctions that are best learned by reading the works of good writers.

**19. How to Parse Verbs.**—A verb is parsed by stating:

1. Its form—regular or irregular, and why. If it is irregular, give its principal parts.
2. Its class—transitive or intransitive, and why. If transitive, state whether it is active or passive.
3. Its inflections—mode, tense, number, and person.
4. Its syntax—its agreement with its subject in number and person.

**20. Model for Oral Parsing.**—In order to illustrate oral parsing of the verb, let it be required to parse the verbs in the following sentences:

When the war closed, the soldiers were sent home.

If it rain tomorrow, I shall not go.

*Closed* is a verb; regular, because it forms its past tense and perfect participle by annexing *d* to the root form; intransitive, because the action expressed is not received by an object; indicative mode, because it states a fact; past



tense, because it denotes indefinite past time; third person, singular number to agree with its subject *war*.

*Were sent* is a verb; irregular, because it does not form its past tense and perfect participle by annexing *d* or *ed* to the root form; principal parts, *send, sent, sending, sent*; transitive and passive, because the persons denoted by the subject *soldiers* receive the action; indicative mode, because it states a fact; past tense, because it denotes past time; third person, plural to agree with *soldiers*.

*Rain* is a verb; regular, because it forms its past tense and perfect participle by annexing *ed* to the root form; intransitive, because the action expressed is not received by an object; subjunctive mode, because it is used in a conditional clause to denote an uncertainty; it has the form of the present tense, but refers to the future; third person, singular to agree with its subject *it*.

*Shall go* is a verb; irregular, because it does not form its past tense and perfect participle by annexing *d* or *ed* to the root form; principal parts, *go, went, going, gone*; intransitive, because the action expressed is not received by an object; indicative mode, because it states or declares; future tense, because it denotes future time; first person, singular to agree with the subject *I*.

**21. Abbreviated Oral Parsing.**—After the student has become able to parse and give the reasons in full without hesitation, he should use a shorter form in which only the facts are stated. The following model is sufficiently full for the verbs in the preceding article:

*Closed* is a verb, regular, intransitive, indicative, past, third, singular, agreeing with the subject *war*.

*Were sent* is a verb, irregular, *send, sent, sending, sent*, transitive, passive, indicative, past, third, plural, agreeing with the subject *soldiers*.

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#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

By the abbreviated method, parse, in writing, all the finite verbs in the following sentences:

- (a) The people told the sexton and the sexton tolled the bell.

(b) Saint Nicholas, the patron saint of boys, died at Myra, in Asia Minor, in the year A. D. 326.

(c) All that tread the earth are but a handful to the tribes that slumber in its bosom.

(d) You should have borne with my faults more patiently.

(e) 'Tis true, this god did shake; his coward lips did from their color fly.

(f) A friend would not have seen such trifling faults.

(g) Honor and shame from no condition rise;  
Act well thy part,—there all the honor lies.

(h) Should the eagle mate with the crow, even then I would not marry the son of the earl.

(i) Which of our Presidents is believed to have been poisoned?

(j) Kings may be blest, but Tam was glorious.

(k) There is none so blind as the man that will not see.

(l) My story being done, she gave me for my pains a world of sighs.

(m) If the "Maine" had not been blown up, the Spaniards might now be in possession of their American colonies.

(n) We had lain for many days in the quiet bay, when at last we began the long voyage across the Indian Ocean.

**22. Model for Written Parsing of the Verb.**—In order to illustrate a method of written parsing of the verb, let it be required to parse the verbs in the following sentences:

- The children were sent home through the rain.
- If a man die, shall he live again?
- Listen to the birds under the eaves of the barn.
- He was buried in the ocean by his shipmates.
- We departed an hour after the moon had risen.

Verbs	Form	Class	Mode	Tense	Person	Number	Subject
were sent	irreg.	tr. pass.	ind.	past	third	plur.	children
die	reg.	intran.	subj.	pres.	third	sing.	man
shall live	reg.	intran.	ind.	fut.	third	sing.	he
listen	reg.	intran.	imp.	pres.	second	sing. or plur.	(you)
was buried	reg.	tr. pass.	ind.	past	third	sing.	he
departed	reg.	intran.	ind.	past	first	plur.	we
had risen	irreg.	intran.	ind.	past perf.	third	sing.	moon

**23. How to Parse Infinitives and Verbals.**—An infinitive or a verbal is parsed by stating:

1. What it is—a verbal noun, a participle, or an infinitive.
2. From what verb it is derived. If the verb is irregular, its principal parts should be given.
3. Whether it is simple or compound.
4. Whether it is transitive or intransitive. If transitive state whether it is active or passive.
5. What its function is.

**24. Model for Parsing Infinitives and Verbals.**  
Let it be required to parse the infinitives and verbals in the following sentences:

He was engaged in reading a letter.

The boy was directed to explain the example.

The army, having been defeated, fell back.

His courage, unsubdued by disaster, sustained him through the gravest perils and disasters.

We ought not to have gone.

*Reading* is a simple verbal noun, derived from the irregular transitive verb *read*; principal parts, *rēad*, *rēad*, *reading*, *rēad*; active, in the objective case, being the object of the preposition *in*; the prepositional phrase, *in reading a letter*, is an adverbial modifier of the verb *was engaged*.

*To explain* is a simple active transitive infinitive, derived from the regular verb *explain*, present tense; the phrase, *to explain the example*, is an adverbial modifier of the verb *was directed*.

*Having been defeated* is a compound transitive passive participle, derived from the regular verb *defeat*, in the present perfect tense; it is an adjective modifier of *army*.

*Unsubdued* is a participle, simple, transitive, passive, derived from the regular verb *subdue*; perfect; it is an adjective modifier of the noun *courage*.

*To have gone* is a compound intransitive infinitive derived from the irregular verb *go*; principal parts, *go*, *went*, *going*, *gone*; present perfect tense; adverbial modifier of the verb *ought*.

**25. Model for Written Parsing.**—The written parsing of the infinitives and verbals in the following sentences is shown in the form below.

One should eat to live rather than live to eat.

The train was just on the point of starting.

No one is entitled to merit for merely doing his duty.

His clothes, torn in many places, had been neatly mended.

The prisoner admitted having stolen the goods.

Words	Kind	Derived	Class	Used As	Syntax
to live	pres. inf.	live	simp. intrans.	adverb	modifies <i>should eat</i>
to eat	pres. inf.	eat	simp. intrans.	adverb	modifies <i>should live</i>
starting	verb. noun	start	simp. intrans.	noun	object of <i>of</i>
doing	verb. noun	do	simp. trans.	noun	object of <i>for</i>
torn	perf. part.	tear	simp. passive	adjective	modifies <i>clothes</i>
having stolen	verb. noun	steal	comp. trans.	noun	object of <i>admitted</i>

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

As in the model, parse the verbs in the following:

- (a) It is said that good Americans go to Paris when they die.
- (b) He that has once done you a kindness will be more ready to do you another than he whom you yourself have obliged.
- (c) Then shall the nature that has lain blanched and broken rise into full stature and native hues in the sunshine.
- (d) I see in thy gentle eyes a tear;  
They turn to me in sorrowful thought;  
Thou thinkest of friends, the good and dear,  
Who were for a time, but now are not.
- (e) To pity distress is but human; to relieve it is godlike.
- (f) When the son swore, Diogenes struck the father.
- (g) You hear that boy laughing? You think he's all fun;  
But the angels laugh too at the good he has done.  
The children laugh loud as they troop to his call,  
And the poor man that knows him laughs loudest of all.
- (h) Boston State-House is the hub of the solar system. You couldn't pry that out of a Boston man if you had the tire of all creation straightened out for a crowbar.
- (i) I have very frequently regretted having spoken; never, having kept silent.
- (j) To be silent is an insignificant virtue; but to keep silent concerning the secrets of others is worthy of the highest praise.
- (k) To be or not to be; that is the question.

## TABLE OF VERBS

Verbs as to	1.	ACTION	Transitive	{ Active
				{ Passive
			Intransitive	{ Active
				{ Neuter
2.	FORM	Regular:	Love, walk	
		Irregular:	Go, come, drink	
		Defective:	Ought, can, beware	
		Redundant:	Dive, dream	
3.	USE	Principal	{ Walk, go, walked	
			{ went, walked, gone	
		Auxiliary	{ Do, be, have, will	
			{ shall, may, can, must	

## INFLECTIONS OF VERBS

Mode	Tense	Number	Person
indicative	present, present perfect, past, past perfect, fu- ture, future perfect	singular plural	first second third
subjunctive	present past	singular plural	first second third
imperative	present	singular plural	second
infinitive	present present perfect	wanting	wanting
verbals participles	present perfect present perfect	seeing seen having been seen	have neither person nor number

## THE ADVERB

**26. Functions of the Adverb.**—The adverb has been defined as a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Both the modifier and the element modified may be a word, a phrase, or a clause. This fact makes it specially important that the student should endeavor to become expert in deciding what each element of a sentence does, in order that he may know what it is.

**27. Parts of Speech Used as Adverbs.**—Almost any part of speech may be used adverbially:

1. A noun.

He is *six feet* tall. (Six feet tall = tall to the extent of, or by, six feet.)

We waited an *hour*. (During an hour.)

I care *nothing* for his opinion. (Nothing = by nothing, or to the extent of nothing.)

It cost a *dollar*. (A dollar = to the amount of a dollar.)

This is the use of a noun as an adverbial objective. Nouns used to denote measure of time, distance, value, weight, etc., are the fragments of adverbial phrases, and being used with the functions that the entire phrases would have, they must be regarded as adverbs.

2. A pronoun.

*What* with labor and worry he was completely worn out. (Here what = partly, or some such adverb.)

3. An adjective.

*The* richer he gets *the* stingier he seems. (The . . . the = by how much . . . by so much, or equivalent correlative adverbial elements.)

The sentence in full would be nearly, *In proportion as* he gets richer, *in that proportion* he seems stingier.

4. A verb.

*Clink, clank*, go the hammers now.

*Bang* went the gun.

## 5. A verbal.

We were *dripping* wet.  
 'Twas *passing* strange.

## 6. A preposition.

The tide came *in* during our stay.  
 He walked *before* and his wife *behind*.

## 7. A conjunction.

Could he *but* understand, he would act differently.  
 We are *but* gathering flowers in your meadow. (But = only, or merely.)

**28. Adjectives and Adverbs With Certain Verbs.**

It has been explained that all verbs express in varying measure both action and the corresponding state of the actor. Thus, in the sentence, *The man walks*, the verb *walks* is equivalent to *is walking*, in which *walking* describes the state of the acting subject, as if we should say, *He is a walking man*. In such cases the participle is an exact equivalent of a predicate adjective. Hence, *walks* expresses action and implies an accompanying state or condition of the actor.

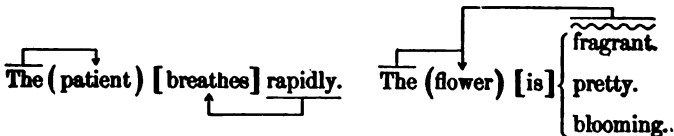
Sometimes the action is so prominent that the state is not even noticed. In such case, if a modifier is associated with the verb, it must be an adverb used to modify the action side or function of the verb.

She walks *gracefully*.  
 The fish swims *rapidly*.

Again, it may be the state that is to be especially noticed; in this case an adjective is used with the verb.

The ship arrived *safe*.  
 We found him *sick*.  
 He stood *still* and remained *silent*.

The following diagrams will make clear the distinction between these two uses of the verb:



Besides these extreme cases, there are verbs that express

both action and state so strongly that modifiers of both kinds are used with them. In such cases the adverbial modifiers are generally phrases or clauses.

He lies in the hospital sick. We arrived safe and sound in New York.

Here, the adjectives *sick*, *safe*, and *sound* denote the condition of the actor, and not the manner, time, nor place of the action. The phrases, *in the hospital*, and *in New York*, are adverbial modifiers denoting place.

Many verbs in which the action is prominent are followed by adjectives denoting a state of something named by a noun or denoted by a pronoun. Some examples follow:

They looked <i>sick</i> .	She sat <i>erect, serene, and quiet</i> .
We reached home <i>safe</i> .	The milk turned <i>sour</i> .
Our blood ran <i>cold</i> .	Shut the door <i>tight</i> .
Open your eyes <i>wide</i> .	Lie <i>still</i> and keep <i>quiet</i> .

**29. Adverbs Classified According to Use.**—Classified according to use, adverbs are of four kinds: (1) *simple*, (2) *interrogative*, (3) *conjunctive*, (4) *modal*.

**Definition.**—A *simple adverb* is an adverb consisting of a single word and used as an ordinary modifier.

Go *quickly*.  
Come *here*.  
*Gaily* to burgeon and *broadly* to grow.

**Definition.**—An *interrogative adverb* is an adverb used to inquire concerning the time, place, manner, cause, etc. of an action or a state.

<i>When</i> did you come?	<i>How</i> is your father?
<i>Wherefore</i> did you return?	<i>Whither</i> did they go?
<i>Whence</i> came you?	<i>Why</i> did you leave?

**Definition.**—A *conjunctive adverb* is an adverb that has the double function of an adverb and a conjunction.

Do *as* you are told.  
I know a bank *whereon* the wild thyme grows.  
*Where* thou goest, I will go.  
*When* I die, put near me something that has loved the light.  
*Whither* I go ye cannot follow.



The conjunctive adverb modifies the verb in the clause it introduces. The clause itself may have the function of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Thus, *as you are told*, in the first sentence, is an adverbial clause modifier of *do*, and *as* modifies *are told* and joins the clause to the verb *do*. In the second sentence, the clause is an adjective modifier of *bank*, and *whereon* modifies *grows*. In the sentence, *Tell us when you are going*, the conjunctive adverb *when* modifies *are going*, and the entire clause is the object of *tell*.

**Definition.**—*A modal adverb is an adverb that modifies the meaning of an entire sentence.*

*Perhaps* I shall be in New York tomorrow.  
 He has *doubtless* repented his action by this time.  
 I shall *certainly* see him.  
 He will *not* go.

Here *perhaps* modifies *I shall be in New York tomorrow*. Any word used in this way to narrow or restrict the meaning of an entire sentence or clause is a modal adverb. The sentences given above may be narrowed or limited in meaning by many expressions similar in function to *perhaps*. They all change the total effect or mode of the sentences upon the mind, and are for that reason modal adverbs.

**30. How to Distinguish the Modal Adverb.**—It is not always easy to recognize the modal adverb. In doing this, the student may be aided by knowing that the modal adverb has some marked peculiarities besides modifying or changing the meaning of the entire clause or sentence in which it is used. These peculiarities are:

1. *The modal adverb may be placed almost anywhere in the clause or sentence it modifies.*

This is not the case with an ordinary adverb, which must be placed as near the modified element as possible. Indeed, one of the most important matters in composition is the correct placing of modifiers, especially those that are adverbial. In the case of the modal adverb, while it may occupy any one of several places in a sentence, there is

usually one position where its effect is best. In the following sentences, the modal adverbs *fortunately* and *perhaps* may be put in any one of the places indicated by carets:

*Fortunately*, my employer ^ understands ^ all the facts of the case ^.

*Perhaps*, a sharp tongue ^ is ^ the only edged tool ^ that grows keener with constant use ^.

2. *The connection between a modal adverb and the sentence in which it occurs is not close.*

In consequence of this fact, the modal adverb should usually be set off by commas. When this punctuation is not required, it is owing to the fact that the adverb is used, not as purely modal, but as in some measure simple. The following illustrations will make the difference of use clear:

*Modal* { *Decidedly*, the scientists are wrong in their opinion.  
*Positively*, no one can be permitted to enter.

*Simple* { The scientists are *decidedly* wrong in their opinion.  
 He was so badly frightened that he was *positively* sick.

In the first example, *decidedly* modifies the meaning of the entire sentence—changes its general effect by making it strongly emphatic. In the third example, it is a mere adverb modifying the meaning of the single word *wrong*—it is intensive, telling how or in what degree the scientists are *wrong*. A similar explanation applies to the remaining examples.

It should be noted that almost any modal adverb may be used as a simple adverb; and on the other hand, many adverbs ordinarily simple may be used with modal value or effect.

**31. Classes of Modal Adverbs.**—Modal adverbs may be divided into various classes. Some of these follow:

1. General emphasis; as, *manifestly*, *clearly*, *decidedly*, *doubtless*, *undoubtedly*, *positively*, *evidently*, *plainly*, *unmistakably*, *palpably*, *apparently*, *obviously*.

2. Affirmation; as, *aye*, *yea*, *yes*, *verily*, *indeed*, *certainly*, *surely*, *unquestionably*, *by all means*.

3. Negation; as, *no, nay, not, by no means, in nowise, not at all.*

4. Doubt; as, *perhaps, peradventure, probably, possibly, perchance.*

5. Inference; as, *hence, consequently, therefore, whence, then, wherefore, accordingly.*

**32. Adverbs Classified By Meaning.**—With respect to *meaning*, simple adverbs have been divided into many classes. Some of the most important of these are:

1. Adverbs of time; as, *ever, now, never, lately, today, still, instantly, henceforth, already, hereafter, presently, soon, once, yesterday, often, seldom, always, since.*

2. Adverbs of place; as, *here, there, near, yonder, hence, thence, down, off, back, above, below, hither, thither, away.*

3. Adverbs of manner; as, *gladly, slowly, well, respectfully, truly.*

4. Adverbs of degree; as, *much, little, very, quite, greatly, more, less, least.*

5. Adverbs of comparison; as, *so, as, the . . . the, too, rather.*

I am *so* sick that etc.

He is *as* good as his accuser.

The first *as* modifies *good*; the second is a *conjunctive* adverb. The sentence in full would be:

He is *as* good *as* his accuser is good.

In both uses *as* is an adverb of comparison; taken together, the words are *correlative adverbs*.

*The more the merrier.* This old saying when in full sentence form would be somewhat as follows: *The more they are the merrier they are = By what they are more by that they are merrier.* It is clear, therefore, that *the . . . the = by what . . . by that*—two adverbial phrases, the first of which modifies *more*, and the second, *merrier*. Hence, *the . . . the* are correlative adverbs of comparison.

**33. The Responsives.**—The words *yes, no, ay or aye, nay, amen, certainly*, and some others, together with certain phrases, such as *by all means, by no means, not at all, certainly*

*not*, *decidedly not*, are used in answering questions, and when so used are called **responsives**. They are usually called *adverbs*; but they are really substitutes for entire sentences. Like interjections, they have no grammatical relation to the sentence to which they reply, but they have a logical relation to it; that is, they relate to it in thought.

Shall you vote tomorrow? Yes. Certainly. By all means.

The answers to the foregoing question are each equivalent to the sentence, *I shall vote tomorrow*. They differ only in the matter of emphasis. In parsing such expressions, it is sufficient to call them responsives, give as nearly as possible the sentence for which they are a substitute, and say that they are usually classed as adverbs.

Among other expressions used as responsives are *perhaps*, *probably*, *perchance*, *nearly*, *quite*, *surely*, *possibly*, *exactly*, *precisely*, *verily*, etc. Indeed, almost any of the modal adverbs may be used as responsives, which is another test of modality.

**34. Comparison of Adverbs.**—Many adverbs derived from adjectives of quality are compared. A few have real inflections, but the comparison is usually made by prefixing *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*; as,

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
calmly	more calmly	most calmly
earnestly	more earnestly	most earnestly
fast	faster	fastest
soon	sooner	soonest

The following adverbs are of irregular comparison:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest
ill <i>or</i> badly	worse	worst
late	later	last <i>or</i> latest
much	more	most
nigh <i>or</i> near	nearer	next <i>or</i> nearest
well	better	best

A great many adverbs, on account of their meaning, cannot be compared. Such are certain adverbs of time and

place, and many others; as, *then, now, sometimes, always, never, here, there, hither, whence, so, as, thus.*

**35. The Adverb *There*.**—The word *there* is properly an adverb of place, but it is much used with the notion of place nearly or quite gone from the meaning of the word.

*There* was once a king.

*There* sat by the door an old man.

*There* lived many years ago a very wise man.

In such sentences, *there* is an *expletive*; that is, a word redundant or unnecessary; for in all such cases, the subject may be placed first and *there* omitted.

A very wise man lived etc., An old man sat etc.

When the construction is interrogative or relative, the expletive follows the verb; as,

When went *there* by an age since the great flood but it was famed for more than one man?

What need was *there* unsatisfied?

From denoting place, the word *there* has come to imply mere existence, although it usually carries with it some faint notion of *in that place*. In parsing, the student should state that *there* is an *adverbial expletive* used to anticipate the subject.

This construction is one of the idioms of our language; so called, because it is peculiar to English—exactly the same usage not being found in any other language.

**36. Phrase Adverbs.**—Several words taken together may be used as adverbs. The following are a few of the many phrase adverbs: *Now or never, by and by, sooner or later, once upon a time, long ago, forever and ever.*

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Copy the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell the class to which each belongs and what it modifies:

(a) He always acted generously and considerately, even to his enemies.

(b) They laugh best that laugh last.

(c) Solemnly, mournfully, dealing its dole,  
The curfew bell is beginning to toll.

- (*d*) Warmly and broadly the south winds are blowing  
Over the sky.
- (*e*) One after another the white clouds are fleeting.
- (*f*) Then some one said, "We will return no more";  
And all at once they sang, "Our island home  
Is far beyond the wave; we will no longer roam."
- (*g*) Surely, surely, slumber is more sweet than toil, the shore  
Than labor in the deep mid-ocean.
- (*h*) Low and soft, O, very low and soft,  
Crooned the blackbird in the orchard croft.
- (*i*) Certainly, there can be but one opinion about a matter so simple.

2. As illustrated by the model, underscore the clause and phrase adverbs, and connect them by means of lines and arrows with the elements they modify.

**Model.**—Years and years ago, while the country was still young,  
an old colonial mansion stood in solitary grandeur on this spot.

- (*a*) Every now and then their carriage rolled up to the house in grand style.
- (*b*) How often the chance to do ill deeds causes ill deeds to be done.
- (*c*) In giving freedom to the slave we assure freedom to the free.
- (*d*) Men are more satirical from vanity than from malice.
- (*e*) The mountain summit sparkles in the light of the setting sun.
- (*f*) Beneath me flows the Rhine, and like the stream of time, it flows amid the ruins of the past.
- (*g*) From hence let fierce contending nations know,  
What dire effects from civil discord flow.
- (*h*) Read from some humbler poet, the poem of thy choice,  
And lend to the rhyme of the poet the beauty of thy voice.
- (*i*) A man ought to read just as inclination leads him; for what he reads as a task will do him little good.
- (*j*) Large streams from little fountains flow,  
Tall oaks from little acorns grow.

**37. Parsing the Adverb.**—An adverb is parsed by mentioning:

1. The class in which it belongs—simple, interrogative, conjunctive, modal.

2. The element it modifies. It should be stated also in what respect the element is modified; that is, whether with respect to time, place, manner, inference, etc.

3. Its degree of comparison—positive, comparative, superlative.

An adverb consisting of a phrase or clause may be mentioned as being simply an adverbial phrase or clause, modifying the meaning of some other element of the sentence.

#### EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

Analyze the following sentences, by means of diagrams, and parse the adverbs:

- (a) I was a poetess only last year.  
 (b) Make me a child again just for tonight.  
 (c) Over my heart in the years that are flown,  
 No love like mother-love ever has shone.  
 (d) There is a yard dog, too, that barks at all comers.  
 (e) Suddenly a hand seized the beetle, and turned him round and round.  
 (f) Without, the ground was entirely covered with snow, and the wind blew in sudden gusts, sharply and fiercely.  
 (g) There was once a woman that lived all alone with only one child, a very beautiful little daughter.  
 (h) It may indeed happen, and, in fact, often does happen, that the very poor are much happier than the very rich.  
 (i) Therefore, first of all, I tell you earnestly and authoritatively that you must get into the habit of looking intensely at words and of assuring yourself of their meaning.  
 (j) Think carefully and bravely over these things, and you will find them wholly true.

#### TABLE OF THE ADVERB

Adverbs	1. SIMPLE	Time: When, then, soon
		Place: Where, there
		Manner: Quickly, kindly, slowly
		Degree: Quite, very, nearly
		2. INTERROGATIVE.—When? where? how?
	3. MODAL.—Perhaps, certainly, therefore	
	4. CONJUNCTIVE.—Where, how, why	
	5. ADVERBIAL OBJECT.—Worth a dime, rest an hour	

## THE PREPOSITION

**38. Function of the Preposition.**—Most of the prepositions were originally adverbs, and many of them are still frequently used as such. When this is the case, the object is omitted and the preposition does duty as an adverbial modifier.

Turn *to* (the work), my men.

Is the doctor *in* (his office), John?

All went *aboard* (the ship).

He is a good man to have *around* (?).

We were led *inside*, shown *around*, and bowed *out* very promptly.

Let us walk *around*.

The house stands just *above*.

Many words that are usually given in the lists of prepositions are still used as adverbs. Even when the preposition has an object, it often has in itself a strong adverbial value.

We lived *near the river* and often rowed *across it*.

*Near* in this sentence does the greater part of the adverbial work of the phrase *near the river*. This is shown to be the case by our readiness to accept *near* or *across* alone as an adverb, without demanding that it shall be followed by a noun or a pronoun specifying in what the relation ends. Thus, *They live near*. *He jumped across*.

Notwithstanding this strong adverbial function of the preposition and its frequent use as an adverb, these words, to the number of nearly one hundred, are called prepositions if they have with them an object; in such case they form a prepositional phrase having the value of an adjective or an adverb.

*Adjective Phrases:* a letter *from home*, a rose *without thorns*, a house *with seven gables*

*Adverbial Phrases:* ran *against the fence*, quiet *during the service*, floating *with the current*

Besides its function as an adverb, which the preposition has not entirely lost, its chief work is to bring unrelated



words into relation. This has been fully illustrated in another place, and need not be enlarged upon here.

**39. The Object of the Preposition.**—The preposition is said to govern the noun or pronoun with which it forms an adjective or adverbial phrase. By this is meant that the preposition has, with respect to case, a kind of governing or compelling power over its noun or pronoun; the object of the preposition must be in the objective case. The pronoun shows this fact by its form; but, since the form of a noun is the same in both the nominative and the objective case, we must judge of its case from that of a pronoun used in the same way.

They took the book *from John* and gave it *to me*.

Here the pronoun *me* is in the objective case; and the noun *John* is in the same case, since it is used in exactly the same way as the pronoun.

**40. List of Prepositions.**—The following is a list of the most commonly used prepositions:

aboard	beyond	pending
about	by	regarding
above	concerning	respecting
across	down	round
after	during	save
against	ere	saving
along	except	since
amid	excepting	through
amidst	for	throughout
among	from	till
amongst	in	to
around	into	touching
at	mid	toward
athwart	midst	towards
bating	near	under
before	notwithstanding	underneath
behind	of	until
below	off	unto
beneath	on	up
beside	out	upon
besides	over	with
between	overthwart	within
betwixt	past	without

**41. Phrase Prepositions.**—Many phrase prepositions are in use. Like verb phrases, they are parsed and in all other respects treated as if they were single words. The following are examples of compound prepositions: *in accordance with, in opposition to, in consideration of, with respect to, in spite of, with reference to.*

**42. Classes of Prepositions.**—With reference to their adverbial value, prepositions have been divided into several groups:

1. Place. This class includes: (a) mere rest in a place; as, *in, on, at, near, by*; (b) place, with motion and direction; as, *to, into, toward, from*; (c) place, with direction; as, *up, down, through, above, below, across.*

2. Time; as, *since, till, until, during, after, pending, past.*

3. Agency or means; as, *with, by, through, by means of, by virtue of.*

4. Cause, end, or purpose; as, *for, from, for the sake of, on account of.*

There are many other classes of prepositions, but it is not necessary to mention them. The matter of chief concern is that the student shall be able to recognize the preposition and determine the work it does in each place where it is used.

**43. Various Objects of Prepositions.**—The object of a preposition may be any equivalent of a noun—any expression used with the value of a noun. Hence, the object of a preposition may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

1. A noun or a pronoun.

He went with *me* to the *market*.

2. A verbal.

I am tired of *sowing* for others to reap.

We protested against *being detained*.

3. An adjective or an adverb.

The taste is between *sweet and sour*.

His strength comes from *above*.

It has lasted from *then* until *now*.

## 4. A phrase.

The snake crept from *under the house*.

The noise comes from *over the way*.

They returned after *visiting Rome*.

He gloried in *having been President*.

## 5. A noun clause.

They inquired concerning *where we had been*.

Judging from *what he said*, we are wrong.

**44. Parsing the Preposition.**—A preposition is parsed by stating:

1. That it is a preposition.
2. That it brings certain elements into relation.
3. That the phrase in which it is the leading word modifies the meaning of a certain other sentential element.

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**EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE**

1. Construct sentences containing the following words used as prepositions, and afterwards construct other sentences in which the same words occur as adverbs: near, over, through, above, by, off, under, before.

2. Write five sentences each containing a prepositional phrase used as an adjective; also, five other sentences each having a prepositional phrase used as an adverb.

3. Write two sentences containing a clause object of a preposition.

4. Find suitable objects of the prepositions: to confer upon, to confer with; to die of, to die for; to share in, to share of; to strive for, to strive against; to choose between, to choose among, to choose for; to have confidence in, to have confidence of; convenient to, convenient for.

5. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences; also, by means of diagrams, analyze the sentences themselves:

(a) How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood.

(b) She sought her lord, and found him where he strode  
About the hall, among his dogs.

(c) \* \* \* \* \* the shameless noon

Was clashed and hammered from a hundred towers.

(d) Man comes and tills the soil and lies beneath,  
And after many summers dies the swan.

(e) Through the shadow of the globe we sweep into the younger day.

(f) If, through years of folly you misguide your own life, you must not expect Providence to bring around at last everything for the best.

- (g) The sunset glow of the maples met the sunset glow of the sky.  
 (h) Many a summer the grass has grown green,  
 Blossomed and faded our faces between,  
 Yet with strong yearning and passionate pain  
 Long I tonight for your presence again.  
 (i) Among the beautiful pictures that hang on Memory's wall  
 Is one of a dim old forest that seemeth the best of all.  
 (j) The perfect life develops in a circle and terminates where  
 it begins.
- 

## THE CONJUNCTION

**45. Functions of the Preposition and the Conjunction Compared.**—The preposition is usually defined as a word used to connect words, and to show the relation between them. It is, therefore, a connective, but its most important function is to denote relation, and this it generally does very definitely. The conjunction also is a connective, and it usually indicates more or less distinctly some relation between the elements it unites. Both the conjunction and the preposition have something adverbial in the work they do; and, in the case of the conjunctive adverb, its adverbial function is generally stronger than its connective value.

During the growth and improvement of language, the conjunction was one of the last parts of speech to appear, and its first use was in connecting very simple expressions, such as a noun with a noun, an adjective with an adjective, a verb with a verb, etc.

The most useful of the conjunctions are those that have nearly or quite lost their adverbial value, such as *and, or, nor, if, lest, than, for, also*, and a few others. The equivalents of these conjunctions are found in all languages, and, without their aid, connected speech would be impossible.

When it became necessary to connect phrases and clauses and to indicate at the same time some relation between the connected elements, other conjunctions were made, generally from adverbs, and most of them retained much of their adverbial value.

Be careful *lest* you fall.  
 I shall go, *though* it rain.

Look, *before* you leap.  
 He may go *if* he asks permission.

In all these cases, the clause introduced by the conjunction modifies the meaning of the other clause, or of some element in it. *Lest you fall* denotes a reason or a purpose; it is very nearly equivalent to *not to fall*, which would plainly be an adverbial modifier of *careful*. In a similar way *though it rain* has very nearly the value of the adverb *certainly*.

I shall certainly go. \_\_\_\_\_

### CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS

**46.** Conjunctions are divided into two principal classes—*coordinating* and *subordinating*.

**47. Coordinating Conjunctions.**—The word *coordinating* means “making of equal rank or importance.” The conjunctions of this class are so called because they unite two elements without at the same time reducing one of them to the inferior rank of a mere modifier of some other element. Hence, these conjunctions have very little of the adverbial quality left in them, and serve mainly to connect. This is wholly true of *and* and nearly so of all the other coordinating conjunctions.

**Definition.**—*A coordinating conjunction is a conjunction used to connect two sentential elements so as to make them of equal grammatical rank or value.*

Bread *and* meat.

Wise *or* foolish.

To sleep, *likewise* to dream.

He was a partner; *besides*, he was fully trusted.

You have seriously blundered; *moreover*, you have violated the law.

Coordinating conjunctions are subdivided into several groups:

1. *Copulative.*—The word *copulative* means simply “uniting”—adding something to something else. These conjunctions have very much the effect of the sign of addition in arithmetic. Examples are: *and*, *both*, *also*, *likewise*, *besides*, *moreover*, etc.

2. *Alternative.*—Alternative conjunctions are such as imply alternatives or a choice, either granted or denied.

They are *or, nor, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, whether . . . or*, and some others.

*Either* do as I direct *or* do nothing.

*Neither* the good *nor* the bad escape his injustice.

*Whether* he was sick *or* not we could not tell.

3. *Adversative*.—These imply something adverse or in opposition. The following are the most common: *but, yet, still, only* (when nearly equivalent to *but*), *nevertheless, however, for all that, after all, at the same time*.

He is sick, *only* he does not like to admit it.

You have done much damage; *still*, we will overlook that fact.

4. *Illative*.—The conjunctions of this class include such as are used in reasoning to denote *reason, inference, conclusion, result*, and the like. *Therefore, hence, so, thus, consequently, accordingly, wherefore, then*, are examples.

He did not obey the law; *therefore*, he should be punished.

You escaped the first time; *hence*, you thought it would be so always.

He was faithful; *so that* promotion came at last.

**48. Subordinating Conjunctions.**—We have seen that coordinating conjunctions may connect words, phrases, or clauses. This, however, is not the case with the *subordinating* conjunction, for it is almost invariably used to unite or introduce clauses. It does this in such manner as to make one of the clauses a mere modifier; and in consequence of this inferior or subordinate relation of the modifying clause, the conjunction that introduces it is called a *subordinating* conjunction.

You will fall **IF** you are not careful.

He was dismissed **BECAUSE** he was incompetent.

He still lives **THOUGH** he is dead.

In the foregoing sentences, the subordinate clauses have the value of adverbs, and, like modal adverbs, they usually modify the meaning of the entire independent or principal clause.

Subordinate clauses are often much abbreviated; and for this reason they may often look like phrases. But the omitted elements must always be very plainly implied.

*If contradicted, he becomes extremely angry.  
He works steadily, though without valuable result.*

**Definition.**—*A subordinating conjunction is a conjunction used to introduce a clause that modifies an independent clause, or some element of an independent clause.*

Subordinating conjunctions, in consequence of differences in meaning or use, are subdivided into the following classes:

1. Of place; as, *where* and *whence*, and their compounds with *ever* and *soever*.
2. Of time; as, *when* and its compounds, also *while*, *as, till, until, ere, before, after, since*.
3. Of cause and reason; as, *because, whereas, inasmuch as, since, as, for, if, unless, except, notwithstanding, though*.
4. Of purpose; as, *that, so that, in order that*.
5. Of comparison; as, *than, as . . . as, so . . . as*.

In analyzing sentences that contain correlative pairs, it is necessary to consider separately each word of each pair. For example, in the sentences, *He is AS good AS he is brave*, and *He is not SO sorry AS I am*, the first element in each pair is an adverb merely, and the second a subordinating conjunction or a conjunctive adverb. It is more in their adverbial functions than in their character as conjunctions that the pairs given above are correlatives.

**49. Correlatives.**—Many pairs of words are called **correlative** conjunctions, or, more briefly, **correlatives**, because each word points or relates to the other in a way that is called *mutual*. The following is nearly a complete list of them: *as . . . as, as . . . so, both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, so . . . that, though . . . yet, if . . . then, whether . . . or, so . . . as, such . . . as, such . . . that, not only . . . but also*.

*As many as are going will raise the right hand.*

*As two is to four so is three to six.*

*You should so behave that all men will respect you.*

*You should so act as to win the esteem of men.*

*It was such a surprise as he never before experienced.*

## EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE

1. Write five sentences each consisting of clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions.

2. Write five sentences each containing one or more subordinating conjunctions.

3. Unite the following separate statements by means of (*a*) coordinating conjunctions; (*b*) subordinating conjunctions:

(*a*) The earth is round. Men have sailed around it.

(*b*) The ship sailed around Cape Horn. It entered the Pacific Ocean.

(*c*) John went fishing. He had been sent to school. He was punished.

(*d*) Jane prepared for school. Mary washed the dishes. Mary swept the floor.

4. Use the following words as subordinating conjunctions: provided, so, as, than, for, because, except, since, after, while, though.

5. Write sentences containing the following words as adverbs; then write other sentences containing the same words as conjunctions: before, since, so, how, only, but, where, whence, hence, then.

6. Make a list of the conjunctions in the following and give the class of each:

(*a*) I shall never forget as long as I live the look of despair that came into his face.

(*b*) Since he gives so good an account of the matter, it is perhaps safe to trust him.

(*c*) Let him have the goods if he can give good and satisfactory security that he will pay the bill when it becomes due.

(*d*) He has talent and industry; therefore he will succeed even where his predecessor failed.

(*e*) Yet Ernest had had no teacher, save only that the Great Stone Face became one to him.

(*f*) So the people ceased to honor him while he lived, and quietly consigned him to forgetfulness after he died.

(*g*) Creation was not finished till the poet came to interpret and so finish it.

(*h*) "The tent is mine," said Yussouf, "but no more  
Than it is God's; come in and be at rest."

(*i*) For time at last sets all things even—  
And if we do but watch the hour  
There never yet was human power  
Which could evade, if unforgiven,  
The patient search and vigil long  
Of him who treasures up a wrong.



(7) And besides, there were pear trees that flung down bushels upon bushels of heavy pears; and peach trees, which in a good year tormented me with peaches, neither to be eaten nor kept, nor, without labor and perplexity, to be given away.

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**50. Parsing the Conjunction.**—The conjunction is parsed by stating:

1. That it is a conjunction; this should be followed by mentioning whether it is coordinating or subordinating.
2. What it connects; if it is subordinating, the student should tell which is the modifying, and which the modified, element.

If the connective is a conjunctive adverb, it not only introduces a modifying clause, but modifies the meaning of the verb in this clause. These particulars should all be stated.

**51. Complex and Compound Sentences.**—It is important to distinguish between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, for the connective determines whether a sentence is complex or compound. Coordinating conjunctions connect elements of equal rank, and when these elements are independent clauses, the resulting sentence is compound. If, however, there is only one independent or principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses, the sentence is complex.

The student should remember that subordinate clauses may be connected by coordinating conjunctions. The union of such clauses is illustrated in the following sentences:

When the night is dark *and* the air is biting cold, *as well as* when the moon is shining *and* the air pleasant, we must set out on our regular trip.

If he has the money *and* can spare it, he should certainly pay you.

Any connective used in joining clauses, which has a strong adverbial or pronominal value must, in consequence, be a subordinating connective.

## TABLE OF THE CONJUNCTION

Classes	1. COORDINATE	{	<i>Copulative:</i> And, also, likewise
			<i>Alternative:</i> Or, nor, either
			<i>Adversative:</i> But, yet, still
			<i>Illative:</i> Consequently, therefore
	2. SUBORDINATE	{	<i>Place:</i> Where, whence
			<i>Time:</i> When, as, until, since
			<i>Cause:</i> Why, because
			<i>Purpose:</i> That, so that, in order that
			<i>Comparison:</i> Than, so . . . as

## THE INTERJECTION

**52. The Interjection as a Part of Speech.**—We have seen that the sentence is the “unit of thought,” and that it is composed of elements each having some part or function to fill. Such words are called, for that reason, *parts of speech*. The **interjection** does not have such a work to do. Frequently, it does not enter the sentence, but stands alone; it is not related to other words—it is independent. In a kind of way, it is a substitute for an entire sentence. Strictly, therefore, the interjection is not a part of speech, although it is perhaps best to regard it as such.

**53. Use of the Interjection.**—As people advance in refinement and education, emotional expression diminishes in intensity and frequency, and the expression of thought becomes more formal and exact. The interjection is never found in scientific and other works in which pure thought, exposition, and argument are the chief requisites. We should be much astonished to find it in a legal treatise, in the charge of a judge, or in the opinion of a physician or an engineer. Allied to the use of the interjection is the practice of *slang*, which most people of refinement avoid for reasons very similar to those that are given above against the excessive use of interjections.

**54. Thought Expressed By Interjections.**—The pure interjection is almost entirely empty of meaning in itself, and is dependent for significance upon the tone of voice and the

circumstances in which it is uttered. For example, the interjection *oh*, which is found in many languages, may express joy or sorrow, surprise or fear, pain or pleasure, or almost any other emotion; but the thought to be inferred must be gathered from the tones, the gestures, and the manner of the speaker, as well as from the occasion on which it is used. The same is true of many other interjections.

Many words regularly used in sentences as parts of speech are often employed as interjections. Some examples follow:

*Nouns:* Nonsense! Folly! Glory! Horror! Shame! Heavens!  
*Adjectives:* Good! Bravo! Sad! Absurd! Ridiculous! Excellent!  
*Verbs:* Hist! Hush! Hark! Behold! See! Look! Hail!  
*Adverbs:* Well! Indeed! Why! What! How!

Many expressions imitative of natural sounds are used as interjections; as,

Baa! Bow-wow! Whippoorwill! Buzz! Bang! Crash! Pop!

These last are usually empty of meaning, but nearly all interjections made of the regular parts of speech carry with them something of their usual meaning. The interjection is often the most significant word that would occur in a sentence when given in full. Interjections derived from verbs should usually be regarded as verbs.

**55. Exclamatory Phrases.**—Interjections often consist of several words in combination, but always without full sentential structure. Such expressions are parsed simply as interjections. Some examples are:

O dear me!	Poor fellow!
Alas the day!	O Rome!
O King, live forever!	How sad!

In parsing an ordinary interjection, it is enough to state that it is an interjection, and that it is independent in construction.

**56. Exclamatory Series.**—A gradual increase or diminution of feeling may be indicated by a series of interjections, each successive one having after it one more or one less exclamation mark than the preceding.

Thieves! Police!! Help!!! Murder!!!!  
 "Oh! Oh!! Oh!!! Ah!! Ah-h-h!"—the tooth was out.

# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 7)

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## CORRECT AND FAULTY DICTION

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### THE ARTICLES

**1. Frequent Misuse of *A*, *An*, and *The*.**—No other words in our language are used so much as the articles, and no other words are so often misapplied. Any person desiring to become a correct writer of English must be perfectly familiar not only with the approved uses of these important words but also with their erroneous application.

**2. *A* and *An*.**—The articles *a* and *an* are usually spoken of by grammarians as the **indefinite article**—two forms of the same word. The article *a* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound; *an*, before words beginning with a vowel sound.

a man, a door, a star, a ewe, a youth, an apple, an egg, an item,  
an oak

The article *an* should be used before words beginning with silent *h*; if the *h* is sounded, *a* is required.

an hour, an honor, a hermit, a humorist, a historian

Before words beginning with *h*, some authorities use *an* when the accent falls on the second syllable.

an habitual truant, an historical novel, an hermetically sealed box,  
an heretical opinion, an heroic deed, an herculean athlete

This usage is in little favor at present. The accent so placed was at one time supposed to weaken the *h* so much

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that the word was to be regarded as beginning with a vowel. The fact is, however, that no such pronunciation is now admissible, for the *h* must be distinctly sounded. The article *a* is, therefore, to be preferred.

a habitual smoker, a historical event, a heroic deed, etc.

### 3. Effect of *A* or *An* on the Meaning of a Noun.

The article *a* or *an* denotes one of several or many; one out of a class; any one belonging in some class, no matter which one of the class; as, *a man*, meaning *one man, any man*. This is the effect of *a* or *an* on the meaning of a class name.

When this article is prefixed to a proper name, the effect is to convert it into a class name. Thus, *a Nero* means, not the bloodthirsty Roman emperor, but one of the class of cruel tyrants of whom Nero was the type—any similar monster. Any proper name with *a* or *an* prefixed is said to be used *typically*.

a Washington, a Shakespeare, a Cæsar, an Alexander

4. **Specific Uses of *A* and *An*.**—The indefinite article *a* or *an* is used in the following ways:

1. To denote an individual as unknown, or as not specifically distinguished from others of the class to which that individual belongs.

A man met us in the road.

A star peeped through a rift in the clouds.

2. Before an abstract noun used concretely.

There is a divinity that shapes our ends.

There is a charming modesty in her manner.

3. Before a collective noun; as, *an army, a multitude*.

A collective noun preceded by *a* or *an* must be regarded as singular.

A labor congress was in session.

An army was marching.

4. After an adjective preceded by *so, too, how, as*; also, in certain cases, after *many, such, and what*.

so good an apple, too great an effort, how fine a day, many-a man, such an annoyance, what an excuse

5. Before *few*, *great many*, and *good many*, when they precede plural nouns.

a few visitors, a great many years, a good many employers

6. Before an adjective of number followed by a plural noun. In this case the article has a collective effect on the meaning of the noun.

a hundred men, a thousand dollars

The article so used may be replaced by *one*.

one hundred soldiers, one thousand dollars

**5. The Definite Article *The*.**—The article *the* has a demonstrative effect on the meaning of a noun very much like that of the demonstratives *this* and *that* and their plurals, *these* and *those*—only it is weaker. It points to some particular person or thing, or to some particular group or groups, and it does this in a way that distinguishes the thing or things named from all others. If a thing has been previously mentioned, if the hearer is assumed to be familiar with it, or if it is made specific by subsequent words, the fact is denoted by using the definite article. The demonstrative effect of *the* is stronger with a singular noun than with a plural. For example, *the student will notice* is stronger and more specific than if the plural *students* were used. Unless the purpose be to point to something distinctly, the definite article should never be used. It cannot be used interchangeably with *a* or *an*.

**6. Rules for the Use of Articles.**—The following directions and cautions will be found of practical value:

1. *A or An With Plurals.*—*A* or *an* should never be so used as to relate or seem to relate to a plural noun.

A mother and *children* were crossing the ferry. *Say*, A mother and her children were crossing the ferry.

He did not go a great *ways*. *Say*, He did not go a great way.

A storm and flying *clouds* filled the sky. *Better*, Flying clouds and a storm filled the sky.

2. *Connected Nouns.*—When nouns having different modifiers are joined in construction, when nouns are contrasted,

and when they have different dependence, the article, if used at all, must be repeated.

The landscape is filled with the music of birds and the fragrance of flowers.

Not a word was spoken or a sound made.

The perfect participle and the imperfect tense should not be confounded.

The beauty as well as the intelligence of the student was striking.

3. *Connected Adjectives*.—When adjectives denoting qualities that belong to different things are connected, the article should be repeated.

A black and a white horse—means two horses.

A north and a south line—means two lines.

A wise, a good, and a patient man—means three men.

There are three genders: the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter. The Atlantic and the Pacific ocean.

4. *Connected Adjectives Relating to the Same Thing*.—When connected adjectives relate to the same thing, the article must not be repeated.

A black and white horse—means one horse.

The yellow and red flower—means one flower.

When the modified noun is plural the sense is often ambiguous. The *black and white stockings* may mean that some of the stockings are entirely black and some entirely white; or that each stocking is partly black and partly white. The same may be said of the following:

Sad and thoughtful faces were seen in the assembly.

Gold and platinum chains are expensive.

5. *Articles or Plurals*.—When no ambiguity results, the modified noun may be pluralized and the articles, after the first, omitted.

The nominative and objective cases.

The first, second, and third stanzas.

The plan of uniting the French and Spanish peoples was abandoned.

The present, past, and future tenses are called the primary tenses.

6. *Correspondent Terms*.—When two phrases of a sentence have special correspondence with each other, the article, if used with the former, should be repeated.

The avalanche slid from the summit to the base of the peak. *Or*, from summit to base of the peak.

I recognize neither the man nor the boy.

Both the writing and the signature are mine.

7. *Special Correspondence of Adjectives*.—When special correspondence or contrast exists between two adjectives, the noun should not be pluralized.

Both the first and the second edition are exhausted.

I want neither the sweet nor the sour fruit.

The word is used in both the nominative and the objective case.

He is familiar with the Old Testament as well as with the New.

We may, however, say:

Neither the early nor the late statutes are in force.

Both the old and the new laws are operative.

In both these cases the articles modify plurals, *early statutes, old laws*.

8. *A Series of Terms*.—If an article is used with any term of a series, it should generally be repeated before every term, or used only with the first.

The father, the mother, a son, and a daughter were killed.

English nouns have three cases: the nominative, possessive, and objective.

English nouns have three cases: the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The repetition of the article has the effect of emphasis, and for this reason the third sentence is preferable to the second.

9. *Words Formally Defined*.—The article *the* should precede any singular noun used to represent a genus or class of natural objects.

The horse is a mammal with solid hoofs.

The diamond is the hardest of gems.

10. *No Article After Sort, Kind, and Species*.—The article *a* or *an* should never be used after *sort, kind, species*, and words of similar import.

The lime is a kind of lemon (not *a* lemon).

That bird is a sort of hawk (not *a* hawk).



I cannot use that variety of apple.  
 He was a sort of overseer or director.  
 What manner of man is he?  
 What fashion of hat did he wear?

The expressions *those sort*, *those kind*, which we frequently hear, are inexcusable vulgarisms.

11. *Titles, and Names Regarded as Mere Words.*—When titles are mentioned merely as titles, or when names of things are employed merely as names or words, no article should be used before them.

The employes all call him President.  
 Should a teacher address a pupil as boy?  
 He deserves the title of gentleman.  
 Cromwell assumed the office of Protector.  
 The highest official rank in the state is that of governor.  
 Remember that oak, pine, and ash are names of classes of objects.

12. *Comparisons and Alternatives.*—In comparisons or alternatives, with two nouns both referring to the same person or thing, the article should not be used before the second noun; but if both nouns refer to different persons or things, the article should not be omitted.

He is a better scholar than teacher—means one person.  
 He is a better scholar than the teacher—means two persons.  
 I should rather have an orange than an apple.  
 The earth is a sphere or globe; or more exactly, it is a kind of flattened sphere.  
 An adjective is a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.  
 The verb or action word is inflected for person and number.

13. *Antecedent of Relative in Restrictive Clauses.*—The article *the*, or some other word more strongly definitive, such as *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, is usually required before the antecedent of the relative in a restrictive clause.

All the money that is stored in the Bank of England would not tempt him.  
 The guns that were used in the Revolution were clumsy affairs.  
 Those actions which require an apology were better unperformed.  
 The thoughts (that) we are thinking our fathers would think.

14. *Nouns Made Definite by Modifiers.*—When added modifiers render the use of a noun concrete and definite, the article *the* should usually precede the noun.

She was a great favorite at receptions.

She was a great favorite at the receptions in Washington.

Here, the modifying phrase *in Washington* makes the word *receptions* have a definite or concrete meaning. In the first sentence receptions in general are meant.

15. *Verbal Nouns.*—The article *the* is regularly required in the frequent construction that consists of a verbal noun ending in *ing*, followed by *of*; if the preposition *of* is omitted, the article should not be used.

The *raising* of children is a great responsibility.

The *signing* of a note has ruined many a man.

In *giving* out the hymn, he made a mistake in the number.

The boy was reproved for *paying* no attention.

In the last two sentences the words in Italics are participles; in the first two, *raising* and *signing* are verbal nouns. This construction is awkward and frequently ambiguous.

16. *Proper Names in the Plural.*—The definite article almost always precedes proper names of plural form and meaning, such as the names of mountains, nations, tribes, religious sects, and proper names used typically.

the Alps, the Romans, the Japanese, the Wesleys, the Cæsars

17. *Both and Few.*—The definite article *the* is omitted after *both*, except before contrasted nouns.

Both men were guilty. *Not*, Both the men, *nor* Both of the men.

Both sides were worn smooth.

We may say, however,

Both the men were busy, but all the boys were idle.

Here men are contrasted with boys.

The word *few* may or may not be preceded by an article, the meaning being different for each usage.

Few that we bought were good.

Only a few could be used.

The few birds we saw were beyond the range of our guns.

### THE NOUN

**7. Singular Nouns.**—There are some thousands of nouns in the English language that are permanently singular. They can take neither the indefinite article nor, without change of meaning, the plural form. Some of these singulars are the following:

1. The constituents of the globe; as, *wood, flint, sulphur, zinc, tin, lime, water, oxygen, air.*

2. The raw material of commerce; as, *jute, oakum, cotton, marble, wheat, beef, potash.*

3. Many of the products of manufacture; as, *alcohol, paper, sugar, canvas, gunpowder, starch, linen, thread, varnish.*

**8. Professor Bain's Plurals.**—In his "Higher English Grammar," Professor Bain gives a list of nouns that, he says, are used only in the plural. Inasmuch as he is recognized throughout the English-speaking world as an eminent authority on our language, we give his list. It should be stated, however, that good usage in Great Britain and good usage in the United States are not always the same.

aborigines	filings	premises
amends	forceps	proceeds
annals	gallows	scissors
antipodes	hustings	shambles
archives	ides	shears
ashes	lees	snuffers
assets	matins	spectacles
banns	measles	sulks
barracks	molasses	thanks
bellows	mumps	tidings
billiards	mustaches	tongs
bowels	news	trappings
breeches	nones	trousers
calends	nuptials	tweezers
credentials	obsequies	vespers
drawers	odds	victuals
dregs	pincers	vitals
entrails	pliers	wages

**9. Remarks on the Foregoing List.**—The following singulars are in use with the same meaning as their plurals

in the foregoing list: *antipode, archive, asset, bowel, credential, hustling, measles, trapping, thank.*

*News* as a plural is no longer in good use. The plural forms *measles, mumps, odds, gallows, alms, and amends* are sometimes treated as singulars.

We may say, *Billiards are* expensive, or *Billiards is* a game requiring much practice. It is better, however, to avoid debatable usage whenever possible; thus, *The game of billiards is* one that requires much practice.

*Wages* was formerly a singular, but its singular, *wage*, has recently been revived and much used, so that *wages* is now fully established as a plural.

**10. Some Other Plural Forms.**—Names of sciences or of subdivisions of sciences often appear in the plural form. Some examples are:

athletics, mathematics, physics, optics, politics, ethics, polemics, statics

To treat these words as singulars is regarded as better than to construe them as plurals. Occasionally, however, we meet *mathematics* and *athletics* as plurals, the usage being perhaps due to the fact that the former comprises many distinct subjects with specific names; as, *arithmetic, algebra*, etc.; and that *athletics* is a collective name of many varieties of physical exercise. In defining the word *mathematics*, the "Standard Dictionary" treats it as a singular—"Mathematics embraces pure mathematics and applied mathematics." Professor Bain says that all nouns in *ics* that are the names of sciences should be treated as singulars, and the greater weight of authority seems to favor his view.

When the word *means* denotes an expedient or instrument, it is singular; but when it refers to income, it is plural.

Wealth should be regarded, not as an end, but as *a means* to an end.

*My means do not admit* of a house so expensive.

The word *summons* is always singular.

*A summons was sent* by the magistrate.

There has always been much disputing as to whether *United States* should be regarded as singular or as plural. Before the Civil War the name was plural. The Union was then considered by many to be merely a loose aggregation of political units. Since that time, it has been urged that inasmuch as the states have been firmly united, *United States* should be singular. This view, however, has been abandoned. All state papers, and even the language of the decisions of the Supreme Court, use the name of the country as plural.

**11. The Plural of Compound Nouns.**—The plural of compound nouns is usually formed by inflecting the principal noun.

sons-in-law, step-children, courts-martial, knights-errant, hangers-on, man-clerks, man-milliners, chimney-corners, maid-servants, three-percents

In King James' translation of the Bible, *man-servants* and *men-servants* are both found, but the former is now preferred; the same may be said of *woman-servants* and *women-servants*. There is good authority for writing without hyphens compounds that have *man* and *woman* as their first element.

An eminent authority suggests that *male* and *female* as the first element of such compounds would prevent all doubt and dispute. Thus, *male clerks*, *female servants*, *male birds*, etc.

The "Standard Dictionary" authorizes both *attorney-generals* and *attorneys-general*, giving preference to the former.

After a compound has become solid by the disappearance of the hyphen, its plural is formed regularly.

cupfuls, bucketfuls, manstealers, manslayers, outpourings

**12. Feminines in *ess* and *ix*.**—About the middle of the last century there were in good use a great many feminine nouns ending in *ess* or *ix*. Only a few of them have any currency at present. Instead of *authoress*, *poetess*, *patroness*, etc., we are now using *author*, *poet*, *patron*, etc. as either masculine or feminine. The titles *baroness*, *countess*, *empress*,

*duchess, marchioness*, etc. are still in good use. Besides these, we occasionally meet in modern literature *heiress, goddess, hostess, Jewess, actress, enchantress, governess, mistress, negress, murderess, seamstress, tigress, executrix, testatrix*, and a few others. The tendency to avoid feminines in *ess* and *ix* is increasing.

**13. Clipped Words and Slang.**—The clipping of words, especially of long words, is a natural tendency of languages. These shortened forms are at first slang, but many of them succeed in gaining currency in refined conversation, and a small percentage of them sooner or later find admission to the company of words of the most respectable lineage. The following are some examples of clipped words:

1. *In Good Usage.*

cab, *from* cabriolet  
 chum, *from* chamber-fellow or chamber-mate  
 mob, *from* mobile vulgus (the fickle rabble)  
 van, *from* vanguard (a contracted form of the French *avant guard*)  
 fence, *from* defence  
 gin, *from* Geneva  
 rum, *from* rumbullion  
 proxy, *from* procuracy  
 wag, *from* waghalter (deserving to be hanged)  
 curio, *from* curiosity  
 proctor, *from* procurator  
 piano, *from* pianoforte  
 gill, *from* Gillian (i. e., Juliana)  
 kilo, *from* kilogram

2. *In Colloquial Usage.*—The students in our colleges and in the naval and military academies have a rich fund of clipped words and slang. Some of them are:

supe, *for* superintendent  
 prex, *for* president  
 prof, *for* professor  
 exam, *for* examination  
 prelim, *for* preliminary examination  
 sat, unsat, bone, plug, flunk, bilge, spuds, gym, varsity, co-ed,  
 preps, plebe, *for* plebeian

Besides these, there are thousands of clipped and slang

words that are never seen in good composition. Some examples are the following:

hypo or hyp, *for* hypochondria  
 ad, *for* advertisement  
 cute, *for* acute  
 pants, *for* pantaloons (trousers is better)  
 phiz, *for* physiognomy  
 gents, *for* gentlemen  
 cits, *for* citizens  
 fib, a corruption of fable  
 zoo, *for* zoological garden  
 loony, middy, auto, biz, coon, possum, pub, confab, phone

**14. Collective Nouns.**—To decide whether a collective noun used as the subject of a verb is in the singular or in the plural is sometimes not easy. Both the meaning of the noun and the sentence in which it occurs must be carefully considered; its meaning may be singular and its form plural, or the reverse may be true. Some illustrations follow.

The council were divided in opinion.  
 The council was in session until late.

In the first sentence the individuals composing the council are thought of, while in the second sentence the council is regarded as a unit.

The jury were not able to agree.  
 The jury was discharged at the close of the day.  
 The gentry were scattered all over the country.  
 The gentry was the most influential body in the state.

From the preceding examples, it is clear that:

1. When a collective noun is used in a way that requires individual action by the units that make up the collection, the noun must be treated as plural.

The public are requested to register their names.  
 The congregation are invited to assemble in the lecture room.

The registering of names and the assembling of a body of people both require individual action.

2. When a collective noun is used in a way requiring united action, the noun must be treated as singular.

The army of the invaders was defeated.

The nation has assumed a leading place among the powers of the earth.

**15. Periods of Time and Sums of Money.**—Periods of time, even when expressed in plural form, are often treated as singular. The same is true of sums of money.

With Thee, a thousand years is as one day.

A hundred years seems a very short time.

I was told that six dollars was still owing.

Five dollars was fair pay for the service rendered.

The last fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of wonderful progress.

One hundred and fifty thousand dollars was in the safe.

If, however, periods of time or sums of money are referred to distributively, they must be treated as *plural*.

The last fifty years of the Roman empire were filled with disaster.

More than one hundred dollars in silver were scattered over the floor.

**16. Some Apparent Plurals That Are Singular.** Many expressions denote combinations plural in form, but really singular. The following are illustrations:

Bread and butter *is* the staff of life.

All work and no play *makes* Jack a dull boy.

Little and often *fills* the purse.

The long and the short of the matter *is* that you are wrong.

One king, one law, one faith *was* still their creed.

The power and value of English literature *was* thereby impaired.

The last example is from Matthew Arnold. By omitting the article before *value* he shows that he regards the word as virtually a synonym of *power*. The verb should, in that case, be singular, as if the sentence were:

The power—the value—of English literature *was* thereby impaired.

Macaulay has the following examples and many others like them.

All the furniture, the stock of shops, the machinery which could be found in the realm *was* of less value than the property which some single parishes now contain.

The sound, the rhythm, the modulation, the music, of the language *was* one entirely new.



In the last sentence there are four names for the same thing: *sound, rhythm, modulation, music*. If *and* had been put before *the music*, the verb should have been *were*.

### 17. The Avoidance of Doubtful Constructions.

Constructions whose correctness is open to question should, if possible, be avoided. This is usually easy to accomplish; sometimes by employing a verb form that does not reveal the number of the subject; again, by arranging the sentence differently. Suppose that on looking over a manuscript, such sentences as the following are found:

Cards *were* invented to amuse an insane king.

Two languages at once *is* too much to study.

None of the invaders *were* captured.

His remains *were* buried yesterday.

The three angles of a triangle *are* together equal to two right angles.

The most quieting news *have* been received.

Now, the question whether these sentences are correct or not is of much less importance than that they should be so written as not to lead to dispute. Recognizing the truth of this statement, we reconstruct them as follows:

{ The game of cards was invented to amuse an insane king.

{ Some one invented cards to amuse an insane king.

{ The study of two languages at once is too great a task.

{ No one can, with advantage, study two languages at the same time.

The invaders all escaped capture.

{ His body was buried yesterday.

{ They buried his remains yesterday.

The sum of the three angles of a triangle is equal, etc.

### 18. Omission of *s* From Certain Possessives.

There seems to be a growing tendency to simplify the possessive singular of certain nouns ending with the sound of *s* or *z*. The reason for this is that the regularly formed possessive of some words is not only hard to pronounce but it has too many hissing sounds together. However undesirable it may be to vary from the general rule, there is already excellent authority for sometimes doing so. The most careful speakers and writers are now using such forms as the following:

for Jesus' sake, for conscience' sake, Dickens' works

The tongue is more and more refusing to utter words that are not euphonious. The following are examples to which *s* should not be added after the apostrophe:

Demosthenes' orations, Xerxes' flight, Moses' anger, Miltiades' stratagem, Burns' poetry, Socrates' wife, Dr. Briggs' skepticism

**19. The Possessive Case, or the Phrase Construction.**—It is a rule that the names of unimportant inanimate objects should not be put in the possessive case.

Thus, we should not say:

the house's roof, the street's length, the sugar's sweetness, the triangle's base, the book's cover

The *of* construction is preferable:

the roof of the house, the length of the street, etc.

Where there is personification or great energy, importance, or other notable quality, the possessive construction is admissible.

the sun's heat, *or*, the heat of the sun  
 the moon's diameter, *or*, the diameter of the moon  
 the ocean's roar, *or*, the roar of the ocean  
 the flowers' fragrance, *or*, the fragrance of the flowers

In all such cases the ear is the best guide.

With appositives, the *of* construction is to be preferred. Thus,

the sword of Alexander the Great, *not* Alexander the Great's sword  
 the choice of Hercules the demigod, *not* Hercules the demigod's choice

The phrase construction is preferable with names compounded of several elements. The following are awkward:

the International Correspondence Schools' system of teaching; the Merchants and Mechanics Bank's messenger; Brown, Jones, and Smith's store; the President of the United States' inaugural; men, women, and children's shoes

Better say:

the method of teaching employed by the International Correspondence Schools; the messenger of etc.; the inaugural of etc.; shoes for men, women, and children.

With shorter compounds this construction is less objectionable.

the emperor of Germany's yacht, by the commander-in-chief's order

Better, however, are

the yacht of the emperor of Germany, the yacht of the German emperor, by order of the commander-in-chief

**20. Partial and Joint Ownership.**—If two or more persons own an aggregate jointly, the fact is denoted by making possessive only the last-mentioned name.

These are Smith and Brown's houses = These houses are owned by the firm, Smith and Brown.

These are John's and Henry's books = Some of these books belong to John, the rest are Henry's.

It is better to avoid such uses of the possessive inflection. If possible, never use a construction the meaning or correctness of which can be disputed.

**21. The Possessive With Verbals.**—Grammarians have disputed much as to whether or not the following sentence and others like it are correct: *Much depends upon the RULE'S BEING OBSERVED, and error will be the consequence of ITS BEING NEGLECTED.* No positive conclusion seems to have been reached, but the very fact that the construction has been seriously questioned should be a sufficient reason for avoiding it. One grammar in the writer's possession has both *Its being he* and *Its being him*. One of these forms is certainly wrong, and both are awkward. It would not be easy to determine with certainty the case of *scholar* in the sentence, *John's being a scholar was a great advantage.* At best, the construction is clumsy, and it is always possible to substitute for it a faultless expression. The following are additional examples:

Much depends on the *river's being* navigable.

*His going* away was not expected.

We counted on his *father's seeing* the judge.

The nonsense about *which's having* no declension needs no refutation.

The doctrine of the *pope's being* infallible is believed by many persons.

The mistake came from the *book's having been* hastily printed.

The student should have no difficulty in recasting sentences like the preceding and avoiding this questionable construction.

**22. The Pluralizing of Mere Characters.**—Symbols or mere characters are pluralized by adding to them 's. No period is required after them, as is the case with common abbreviations.

The many *s*'s in English speech give it a disagreeable hissing effect.

The blackboard was covered with characters of all kinds: *x*'s, *y*'s, and *z*'s;  $\Delta$ 's,  $\odot$ 's, and  $\square$ 's; + 's, = 's, and  $\surd$ 's.

More than a dozen A. M.'s, D. D.'s and LL. D.'s were present.

The names *em* and *en*, as used in printing, form their plurals regularly,—*ems*, *ens*.

**23. Omitted Objects.**—If a verb is transitive, its object should not be omitted; nor should the object of several transitive verbs be expressed only after the last verb. The following are illustrations:

I must at the same time caution (*you*) against a servile imitation of any author whatever.

The boy bought and ate a quart of peanuts. *Better*, The boy bought a quart of peanuts and ate them.

Though you will not acknowledge, you cannot deny the fact. *Say*, Though you will not acknowledge the fact, you cannot deny it.

The violation of this rule tends so much to perplex and obscure that it is safer to err by too many short sentences. *Say*, to perplex the reader and obscure the meaning.

He simply reasons on one side of the question, and then finishes. *Better*, He reasons on but one side of the question and then closes his argument.

**24. Objectives of Time or Measure.**—The following sentences illustrate a redundant construction that is common:

The king invaded their country with an army *of* one hundred thousand *strong* (omit *of*, or write *men* for *strong*).

The world must seem strange to an infant *of* only two or three years *old* (omit *of*).

He measured the distance with a rule *of* twenty-four inches *long* (omit *of*, or say, *a two-foot* rule).

A lad *of* about twelve years *old* was taken captive.

Let a gallows *of* fifty cubits *high* be made.

Where lies the fault that boys *of* ten years *old* cannot be made to understand the subject?

**25. The Nominative Absolute.**—The objective case should not be used for the nominative in the independent or absolute construction. The following sentences are from well-known writers:

Me being young, they deceived me (say, *I being young*).

Them refusing to comply, I withdrew (*them* should be *they*).

The child is lost; and me, whither shall I go (*me* should be *I*)?

Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings (say, *we*).

"Thee, too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cæsar, overcome (say, *thou, too*).

How swiftly our time passes away; and us, how little we are concerned to improve it (say, *and we*).

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### THE PRONOUN

**26. Misuse of Pronouns With the Verb *Be*.**—The most common misuse of pronouns is that with the various forms of the verb *be*. Indeed, it is but rarely that we meet a person who uniformly avoids error with this construction. We are constantly hearing such expressions as the following:

It was *me*.

It is *him*.

It wasn't *us*.

It was *them*.

I thought it was *her*.

It isn't *him*.

These objective case forms should be replaced by the corresponding nominatives:

It was *I*.

It wasn't *we*.

I thought it was *she*.

It is *he*.

It was *they*.

It isn't *he*.

**27. The Pronoun and Its Antecedent.**—So far as possible, the pronoun must agree with the noun or the pronoun it represents—its antecedent—in person, number, and gender. In the following examples the correct pronouns are in parentheses:

Every one must judge of *their* (*his*) own feelings.

Every person in the family should know *their* (*his*) duty.

There is no one righteous in *their* (*his*) natural state.

His form had not yet lost all *his* (*its*) youthful grace.

In such expressions the adjective so much resembles the adverb that *they are* (*it is*) usually regarded as such.

No one will answer as if I were their (*his*) friend or companion.

Now these systems, so far from having any tendency to make men better, have a manifest tendency to make *him* (*them*) worse.

When the gender of the antecedent is uncertain, or when it includes both sexes, if a singular pronoun is required, the masculine forms *he*, *his*, or *him* are to be preferred to the double *he* or *she*, *his* or *her*, etc.

If any member of the congregation wishes to retire, *he* will please to do so during the singing.

If any pupil loses *his* books *he* will be required to pay for them.

These sentences apply to both sexes; but it is better to avoid the construction. This can usually be done.

Members of the congregation that wish to retire will please to do so during the singing.

Pupils that lose their books will be required to pay for them.

**28. Wrong or Needless Pronouns.**—Superfluous pronouns are of frequent occurrence.

John is a studious boy; but Charles *he* is idle and thoughtless (omit *he*).

Or what man is there of you, *whom* if his son ask bread, will *he* give him a stone (omit *he* and write *who* for *whom*)?

Whatever a man conceives clearly, he may, if he will be at the trouble, put *it* into distinct propositions and express *it* clearly (omit both italicized pronouns).

John Smith, *his* book. *Say*, John Smith's book.

*It* is without any proof at all what he subjoins. *Better*, What he subjoins is entirely without proof.

But to that point of time *which* *he* has chosen, the painter being entirely confined, *he* cannot exhibit various stages of the same action. *Better*, The painter, being confined to his chosen point of time, cannot exhibit various stages of the same action.

Whoever believeth not therein, *they* (*he*) shall perish.

**29. Non-Correspondence in Number.**—The singular pronouns *thou*, *thy*, and *thee* should not be used with *you* in the same sentence or paragraph. The following sentences are from well-known writers:

"Harry," said my lord, "don't cry; I'll give *you* something towards *thy* loss."

*You* have my book and I have *thine*.

So do *thou*, my son: open *your* ears and *your* eyes.

**30. Collective Nouns.**—Collective nouns, unless they denote persons as such, should not be represented by *who*.

The family *that* (not *whom*) I visited.

He instructed and fed the crowds *that* (not *who*) surrounded him.

Nor does he describe classes of sinners *that* (not *who*) do not exist.

When such nouns are strictly of the neuter gender, *which* should represent them if the relative clause is coordinate or resumptive; but if the relative clause is restrictive—is a mere modifier—*that* should be used.

The committees *that* (not *which*) were appointed meet today.

The immense crowd, *which* (not *that*) included nearly every nationality, surged into the exhibition grounds.

Such members of the convention *that* (not *which*) framed the constitution as were willing to sign it, were admitted.

When the idea of rationality is strongly marked, *who* or *whom* may represent the collective noun.

The conclusion of the Iliad is like the exit of a great man out of company *whom* (or *that*) he has entertained magnificently.

**31. Confusion of Antecedents.**—The pronoun should so agree with its antecedent as always to represent the same idea, and so as not to confound a name with the thing named.

The *possessor* should take a particular form to show *its* case. *Better*, The *name* of the possessor should take etc.

*Boston* is a proper noun, *which* distinguishes it from other cities.

Here the name Boston is confounded with the city Boston. The sentence should be recast.

So that *gh* may be said not to have *their* proper sound (say, *its* proper sound).

*Time* is always masculine on account of *its* mighty efficacy.

Here the word *time* is confounded with time itself.

**32. The Relative *That*.**—The relative *that* should, in the following cases, be preferred to *who*, *whom*, or *which*, unless a preposition is required before the relative:

1. After a superlative when the relative clause is restrictive.

He was the *first that* we saw.

Saturday is the *earliest date that* will suit.

The Greeks were the *greatest* reasoners *that* ever appeared in the world.

2. After the adjective *same* when the relative clause is restrictive.

He is the *same man that* we met yesterday.

3. After *who* used as an antecedent.

*Who that* saw him failed to be charmed?

4. After two or more antecedents that denote both persons and things.

He spoke of the *men* and the *sights that* he had seen.

5. After an antecedent unmodified except by a restrictive clause.

*Thoughts that* breathe and *words that* burn.

Theocritus sometimes descends into *ideas that* are gross and mean.

*Music that* charms the savage beast.

6. After an antecedent introduced by *it*.

It was money *that* he wanted, not food.

It was not *I that* he was seeking.

7. After *only* and *all*.

He was the *only person that* could restrain the mob.

Avoid *all amusements that* savor of vice.

8. After a negative.

There has *never* yet been a philosopher *that* could patiently endure toothache.

He wrote on *no subject that* he did not enrich.

*No man that* has written so much is so seldom tiresome.

There is *no person that* is always in the right.

*Nothing that* he saw pleased him.

*None that* deserved praise failed to receive it.

9. Analogous to the negatives are such terms as *scarce*, *scarcely*, *merely*, *hardly*, *few*, *rare*, *seldom*, etc. All these require *that* in restrictive clauses.

*Scarcely* a day passed *that* did not bring misfortune.

It was *merely* a jest *that* he uttered.



There was *hardly* a pupil *that* could speak correctly.

*Few that* went to the war returned.

*Rare* was the day *that* saw her unemployed.

*Seldom* did news reach us *that* was true.

**33. Connected Relative Clauses.**—When two or more relative clauses connected by conjunctions have a similar dependence on the antecedent, the same pronoun must be used in each clause.

O thou *who* art, and *who* wast, and *who* art to come!

A noun is the name of *whatever* we conceive in any way to subsist, or of *whatever* (not *which*) we have any notion.

Had he exhibited *such* sentences *as* contained ideas inapplicable to young minds, or *which* (better, *such as*) were of a trivial or injurious nature.

The remaining parts of speech, *which* are called indeclinable parts, or *that* (say, *which*) admit of no variations, will not detain us long.

**34. The Relative and Its Governing Preposition.** The relative and its governing preposition should not be omitted when they are necessary to the sense of the sentence or to the proper connection of its parts.

He is still in the situation he was a year ago. *Better*, He is still in the situation *in which* he was a year ago.

The following are additional examples illustrating this caution:

He is in the temper of mind he was then. *Say*, He is in the temper of mind *in which* he then was.

In the sense <sup>^</sup> it is sometimes taken (insert *in which*).

To read in the best manner *it* is now taught. *Better*, To read in the best manner *in which* reading is now taught.

Professor Bain condemns the *in which* construction as "cumbersome and unnecessary" and advises that the same idea be otherwise expressed. Instead of the above, he recommends something like the following, which are undoubtedly better:

In his temper of mind at that time.

In the sense sometimes *understood*.

To read as well as the present teaching of reading will admit.

**35. Conjunctive Adverbs for Relatives.**—After certain nouns denoting time, place, manner, or cause, the

conjunctive adverbs *when*, *where*, *how*, and *why* may serve as relatives, unless the relative construction with *which* or some other is better.

There was no *time when* the nation was not ready for war.  
 He fell on the *field where* he had fought so well.  
 No one knew *how* the burglar effected an entrance.  
 Can you explain *why* you spoke so hastily?

The first two of the following sentences are incorrect:

There is no rule given *how* (say, *by which*) truth may be discovered (or, for discovering truth).  
 That darkness of character *where* (say, *in which*) we can see no heart.  
 He assigns the principles *whence* (or, *from which*) their power of pleasing flows.

**36. Repeating the Noun.**—If a pronoun may have any one of several possible antecedents, the antecedent intended should be repeated or the construction should be changed.

We see the beautiful variety of color in the rainbow, and are led to consider the cause of *it*.

Here one cannot tell which of the words, *variety*, *color*, *rainbow*, is the antecedent of *it*. Say, the cause of *that* variety, or, We see the beautiful colors in the rainbow, and are led to consider the cause of *their* variety.

Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, and *his* descendants are called Hebrews. *Better*, Isaac, Jacob, and all other descendants of Abraham are called Hebrews.

This sentence, however, fails to say that Abraham himself is a Hebrew. *Still better*, Abraham and all his descendants, including Isaac and Jacob, are called Hebrews.

**37. Place of the Relative.**—To prevent ambiguity or obscurity it is necessary to place the relative as near to its antecedent as possible. The following sentence is faulty with respect to the position of the relative:

He is like a beast of prey *that* is void of compassion.

It is not clear which of the words, *he* or *beast*, is the antecedent of *that*. The sentence should read, He *that is*

*void of compassion* is like a beast of prey. Some additional examples follow:

It gives a meaning to words *which* they would not have. *Better*, It gives to words a meaning *that* they would not have.

There are many words in the English language *that* are sometimes used as adjectives and sometimes as adverbs. *Say, rather*, There are in the English language many words *that* etc.

You are the person and not your friend *that* is in the wrong. *Better*, You and not your friend is the person *that* etc.

**38. The Use of *But What*.**—The employment of *but what* for *that . . . not* is very common.

Think no man so perfect *but what* he may err.  
The postboy is not so weary *but what* he can whistle.  
He had no intimation *but what* the men were honest.  
There is no doubt *but what* they will be successful.

In all these cases substitute *that . . . not* for *but what*.

**39. Adjectives as Antecedents.**—An adjective should never be used as the antecedent of a pronoun.

Be *attentive*; without *which* you will learn nothing. *Better*, Be attentive; for without attention (*or*, otherwise) you will learn nothing.

In narration, Homer is always *concise*, *which* renders him lively and agreeable. (For *which* write *and his conciseness*.)

Additional examples of this vulgarity follow:

Some men are too ignorant to be *humble*, without *which* they are unteachable.

Be *accurate* in all you say and do, for *it* is important in all the concerns of life.

They accounted him *honest*, *which* he certainly was not.

**40. Sentences Used as Antecedents.**—Though the relative *which* may rightly have for its antecedent a phrase or a sentence, it should never represent an indicative assertion. The following sentences are therefore, incorrect:

The man opposed me, *which* was anticipated. *Better*, As was anticipated, the man opposed me.

The accent falls on the last syllable of a word, *which* is favorable to the melody. (Say, *thus enhancing the melody*.)

The soldiers refused obedience, *which* has been explained. *Better*, As has been explained, the soldiers refused obedience.

Cæsar overcame Pompey, *which* was greatly lamented. (For *which*, write *an occurrence that*, or *a triumph that*.)

**41. Repetition of the Possessive Pronouns.**—The possessive pronouns *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, and *their* should be repeated as often as the sense or construction requires.

The city of Scranton and *its* vicinity.

The husband, *his* wife, and *their* children.

Many verbs vary both *their* signification and *their* construction.

Every measure in which either *your* personal or *your* political character is concerned.

Esau thus carelessly threw away both *his* civil and *his* religious inheritance.

**42. Concord of the Antecedent and Its Pronoun.** In changing a construction so that there may be no discord between an antecedent and its pronoun, it is sometimes a question which of the two to change. Thus, in the following sentence the antecedent is singular and its pronoun is plural:

Let us discuss what relates to each *particular* in *their* order.

This sentence may be corrected either by pluralizing *particular* or writing *its* for *their*; the preferable method is not very evident—probably the former:

Let us discuss in *their* order what relates to *the several* particulars.

The following are additional illustrations of discord between the pronoun and its antecedent:

Where all the attention of *man* is given to *their* indulgence, etc. (change *their* to *his* or to *his own*; or write *men* for *man*).

If any *person* is inclined to disagree, the author takes the liberty to suggest to *them* that etc. *Better*, If any person is inclined to disagree, the author takes the liberty of suggesting to *him* that etc.

**43. The Distributives *Each*, *Every*, *Either*, and *Neither*.**—These distributives are sometimes used alone, and sometimes they are joined to singular nouns. In either case they should be regarded as in the singular number.

*Each* brother saw *his* wealth wrested from him.

*Every* tree is known by its fruits.

The following sentences from Thackeray are incorrect:

*Neither* of the sisters *were* (*was*) very much deceived.

*Neither* of my brothers *do* (*does*) anything to make this place amusing.

When these words are applied to one gender no difficulty need ever arise.

England expects *every man* to do *his* (not *their*) duty.

*Neither sister* did well in *her* studies.

But when *two genders* are implied, there is frequently much trouble in securing proper concord. Grammarians are divided on the question of the correctness of sentences like the following: EVERY ONE *must judge of THEIR own feelings*. Some authorities would write for *their* the expression *his or her*; others insist that *his* alone is better, for the construction with *his or her* is cumbrous and awkward, and the construction with *their* includes only one gender.

It is best, perhaps, to avoid both constructions, which can usually be done. If one of these faulty forms must be used, the latter is undoubtedly to be preferred. The writer would advise the following:

*Each* pupil will take *his* (not *his or her*, and not *their*) seat.

*Every* person's happiness depends in part on the respect *he* (not *they*) meets in the world.

This accords with the general practice of including both sexes by such terms as *mankind*, *man*, etc.

**44. Pronouns Connected By Alternative Conjunctions.**—When two or more pronouns of different persons are joined by the conjunctions that denote alternation, the concord of pronoun and verb is sometimes not easy to decide.

Doctor Latham, an eminent grammatical authority, says:

1. When the pronouns are singular and are preceded by *either* or *neither*, the verb is in the singular, third person. He gives the following examples:

Either *he* or *I* *is* in the wrong.

Neither *he* nor *I* *is* in the wrong.

2. When the pronouns are not preceded by *either* or *neither*, the verb must agree with the first pronoun. His examples are:

*I or he am* in the wrong.

*He or I is* in the wrong.

*He or you is* in the wrong.

This view, however, is strongly condemned by many grammarians. Professor Bain insists that the verb should agree with the nearer pronoun, or that some uninflected verb form, like *can*, *must*, *may be*, should be used, thus avoiding the difficulty. The sentences might be changed as follows:

Either he is in the wrong or I am.

Neither he nor I can be wrong.

He or I must be in the wrong.

He is in the wrong or I am.

You are in the wrong or he is.

Doctor Latham's order of pronouns is inadmissible, for polite usage will not allow such combinations as *I or he*, or *he or you*. So that such questions of concord as are created in the sentences given above need never arise.

**45. Precedence of Pronouns.**—Usage has established a certain order of precedence in pronouns.

*Pronouns representing the person addressed should come first.*

*Pronouns representing persons spoken of should precede pronouns denoting the speaker and should follow pronouns denoting the person addressed.*

The following sentences will illustrate:

Were *you*, and *he*, and *I* all in the wrong?

*They* and *we* were at the circus yesterday.

Let *you* and *me* (not *I*) go to the theater tonight.

Between *you* and *me* (not *you and I*), it is a great secret.

In using pronouns denoting gender, very polite people give precedence to the feminine. Even the name of the person addressed, if a male, takes second place. This usage, however, is not well established.

**46. *Either* or *Any One*; *The Latter* or *The Last*.** When several things are spoken of we may refer to certain

of them as *the first, the last, any one of them, or any of them*. When, however, only *two* things are concerned the proper words are *the former, the latter, either one, or either of them*.

Several men were tried during the forenoon; the *first* was convicted of robbery, the *last*, of assault, and the others were acquitted.

*Any one* in that mob knew better than to aid in breaking the law.

There are many horses in the stable; you may take *any one* (not *either*) of them.

Smith and Jones were both appointed, the *former* as a policeman, the *latter* as a watchman.

You may take *either* of the two packages, and I will take the *other*.

**47. *It* or *That*.**—The pronoun *it* is sometimes improperly used for the more emphatic *that*.

There was but one thing he wanted, and *that* (not *it*) was to be let alone.

He wanted to borrow, and to pay when he pleased, but *that* (not *it*) was more than we could permit.

**48. *That* as an Adverb.**—A very common error is the use of *that* as an adverb. Even careful writers are sometimes guilty of this blunder. The following are some examples:

I was *that* tired I could scarcely stand.

He must not remain away from his work *that* long.

I do not feel able to pay *that* much money for the book.

In the first sentence, say *so tired that*; in the second sentence, for *that*, write *so long* or *so long as that*; in the third sentence, substitute for *that much* either *so much* or *so much as that*.

**49. Singular Nouns Distinguished.**—When two singular antecedents connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished, both the pronoun and the verb should be singular.

The good man, *and* the sinner too, *has his* (not *have their*) reward.

The butler, *and* not the baker, *was restored to his* office.

The sense in which a word is used, *and* not the letters of which it is composed, *determines* the part of speech to which the word belongs.

**50. Antecedents Preceded by *Each, Every, and No*.**—When two or more antecedents connected by *and* are

preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately and do not require a plural pronoun.

*Every* plant and *every* tree produces others after *its* (not *their*) own kind.

*Each* man and *each* boy was faithful to *his* pledge.

*No* harsh word and *no* cruel deed ever *fails* to react in some way upon *its* author.

**51. Antecedents of Different Persons.**—When antecedents are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third. The following are illustrations:

*Mary* and *you* and *I* have been praised for *our* rapid progress at school.

*You* and *John* have forgotten to bring *your* books.

*He* and *I* were on *our* way home.

**52. Antecedents Connected by *Or* or *Nor*.**—When antecedents are connected by *or* or *nor*, and are of different persons, numbers, or genders, the pronoun representing them must agree with each of them. The following sentences, therefore, are faulty:

Either *John* or *I* am mistaken in *our* opinion.

Neither this *man* nor any other respectable person would disgrace *themselves* by such conduct.

Every man or woman of intelligence can fairly be expected to regulate *their* conduct by reason.

Better, *Either John is mistaken in his opinion, or I am in mine.* In the second sentence put *himself* for *themselves*, and in the third, put *and* for *or*.

**53. Change of Pronoun.**—Different pronouns are sometimes wrongly used to represent the same person or thing.

*One* is frequently astonished at the rapidity with which *his* money vanishes.

The construction with *one* is at best vague and awkward. The sentence above should be recast. *We are frequently astonished at the rapidity with which our money vanishes.* If,



however, *one* is retained as subject, *one's* should take the place of *his*. Again,

The man *whose* debts are all paid, *whose* (not *his*) health is good, and *whose* conscience is at peace, ought to be happy.

If the antecedent is *some one*, *no one*, *each one*, or *every one*, the pronoun may be changed.

*Every one* should be willing to pay *his* share.

*Some one* has left *her* purse in the seat.

A not uncommon fault in the use of pronouns is to begin with them in one person and then suddenly change to another person. The following will exemplify this fault:

The *superintendent* would say to the children that *he* would like *them* to remain in *their* seats for a few minutes. If any of *you* are unable to do so *I* wish *you* would raise *your* right hand.

**54. The Omission of Necessary Pronouns.**—Pronouns that are necessary to the full sense are frequently omitted. This is especially true of business and other letters. Such omissions indicate scant courtesy on the part of the writer toward his correspondent.

Referring to yours of the fifth, would say that will be in New York next week when expect to see you. *Better*, Referring to your letter of the fifth, I would say that I shall be in New York next week, and that I shall probably see you at that time.

**55. Antecedents of the Same Gender.**—Ambiguity from pronouns that refer to two or more singular antecedents of the same gender is very common.

Henry told John that *he* had just seen *his* father leave for the station with *his* wife.

Here it is impossible to know whose father was seen, and by whom, or whose wife accompanied.

Mary told *her* sister that *she* was to blame for the mishap to *her* hat.

This is a type of verbal tangle not always easy to prevent or undo. If the hat was Mary's and if her sister was blamed, we might say:

For the mishap to Mary's hat she blamed her sister.

Another method of avoiding ambiguity in such cases is by changing to direct address.

Mary said to her sister: "*I* blame *you* for the mishap to *my* hat."

Henry said: "John, I saw your father and mother etc."

**56. Ambiguity From the Use of *It*.**—One of the most troublesome words in the language is the pronoun *it*. This will be illustrated by some examples.

The *tree* was blown down by the *wind*; *it* was very high.

If the antecedent is *wind*, say:

The tree was blown down by the wind, which was very high (or, by the very high wind).

But if *tree* is the antecedent of *it*, say:

The very high tree was blown down by the wind.

The tree, which was very high, was blown down by the wind.

The following examples are quoted by Professor Bain:

When men are thoroughly possessed with zeal, *it* is difficult to estimate *its* force; but *it* is certain that *its* power is by no means in exact proportion to *its* reasonableness.

The pronouns should all have the same antecedent, *zeal*. This, however, is not true of the pronouns in Italics. The sentence should read:

When men are thoroughly possessed with zeal, there is difficulty in estimating *its* force; but certainly *its* power etc.

An event is said to be conditioned, if *it* is assumed that *it* occurs under a certain condition.

Both pronouns should have *event* as their antecedent; the first does not. The sentence is better thus:

If the assumption is that an event occurs under a certain condition, *it* is said to be conditioned.

If by happiness be meant a continuity of highly pleasurable excitement, *it* is evident enough that this is impossible.

The pronoun is so placed in this sentence as to seem to refer to *happiness*, an inadmissible reference. Say rather:

If by . . . excitement, the impossibility of this is evident enough.

Tennyson's meaning sometimes goes so deep that *it* is impossible to discover *it*. Better, that it cannot be discovered.

*It* being this man's business to flatter and make sermons, *it* must be owned that he was most industrious in *it*. *Better*, This man's business being to flatter and make sermons, it must be owned that he was most industrious in *his calling*.

The excessive use of *it* is not only often ambiguous but also awkward and inelegant.

**57. Ambiguity of *They, Their, and Them*.**—These pronouns do not mark sex and so have the disadvantage of often confounding persons with things.

Many of *their* (the Teutons') chief settlements, and among *them* our own settlement in Britain, happened so late that we know a good deal about *them*.

Here it is not certain whether the last *them* refers to *Teutons* or to *settlements*. *Better* thus:

Many of the chief Teutonic settlements, and among *these* our own settlement, happened so late that we know a good deal about them.

The Presbyterians were secured by the appointment of the Assembly of Divines to reform the church after *their* model.

Here the antecedent of *their* is *Presbyterians*, but *divines* is nearer and creates ambiguity. *Better* thus:

The Presbyterians were secured by the Assembly of Divines appointed to reform the church after the Presbyterian model.

They (the Greeks) called *them* barbarians even though *their* blood and speech were nearly akin to *their* own, if only the difference was so great that *their* speech was not understood.

Here the ambiguity is not of easy remedy; the entire construction should be changed.

#### THE ADJECTIVE

**58. Comparisons.**—In comparisons, care must be taken to adapt the terms properly. The superlative requires that the object to which it is applied shall belong in the class with which the object is compared. Thus, we may say, *Eve was the fairest of women*; but not, as Milton has it, *Eve was the fairest of her daughters*—a construction that makes Eve one of her own daughters.

Iron is more useful than *all the metals* (all the other metals, *or*, any of the other metals).

He was the oldest of *all* his associates.

He was older than any *other* of his associates.

Each of these sentences makes him one of his own associates. Better thus:

He was older than any of his associates.

A fondness for show is of all *other* follies the most vain.

Of all *other* simpletons he was the greatest.

Omit *other* from both sentences. Still better:

Fondness for show is the vainest of follies.

He was the greatest of simpletons.

The English tongue is the most susceptible of sublime imagery of *any* language in the world. *Better thus*, Of *all* languages in the world the English tongue is the most susceptible of sublime imagery.

Now Israel loved Joseph more than *all* his children. *Better thus*, more than *any other* of his children.

**59. Ambiguity of *Any*.**—The adjective *any* is a very troublesome word. To illustrate:

TEACHER.—John, can you solve *any* example in the book?

JOHN.—Yes, ma'am, I can solve the fifth on the 45th page.

The teacher's question may mean, *Is there an example in the book that you can solve?* or, *Can you solve every example in the book?* The word *whatever* after *example* makes the meaning to be *every* example. The questions should be:

John, is there in the book *an* (or *one*) example that you can solve?

John, can you solve *every* example (or *all the examples*) in the book?

**60. Former and Latter.**—The construction with *former* and *latter* with backward reference should be shunned as cumbrous and difficult. The reader is presented with two subjects, but is not warned that the order in which they are mentioned must be remembered; so that when he reaches the pronouns, he must refer back to their antecedents. The following examples, quoted from Gibbon by Professor Bain, will illustrate this clumsy construction:

The successors of Cæsar and Augustus were persuaded to follow the **example** of the former rather than the precept of the latter. *Better*,

Succeeding emperors were persuaded to follow the example of Cæsar rather than the precept of Augustus.

We have computed the *inhabitants*, and contemplated the *public works* of the Roman Empire. The observation of the number and greatness of its cities will serve to confirm the former and [to] multiply the latter.

The backward reference here is extremely perplexing. The meaning might be better expressed in a single sentence:

Our statement of the population of the Roman Empire will be confirmed and our estimate of the public works of its great cities will be enhanced by a consideration of the number and greatness of those cities.

### 61. Concord of the Adjective and Its Noun.

When an adjective is plural in meaning, the noun to which it is joined should also be plural; when an adjective is necessarily singular, it should not be joined to a plural noun.

twenty feet, *not* twenty foot, six feet (not *foot*) high, forty years, *not* forty year

He has saved *this* (say *these*) pains.

The poem consists of two kind (better, *kinds*) of rhyme.

I have not been in London this five years (say *these five years*).

But it seems *this literati* had been very ill rewarded for *their* ingenious labors. (Change *this* to *these* to secure concord.)

During *that* (better *those*) eight *days* we were without water.

But if the adjective and the noun are used together as an adjective they need not agree in number. The following expressions are therefore correct:

I bought a *hundred-acre* farm.

We measured the distance with a *ten-foot* pole.

Can you change a *hundred-dollar* bill?

He won the *three-mile* race.

62. *Each Other* and *One Another*.—The expression *each other* should not be applied to more than two objects; *one another* requires more than two objects.

*Shall* and *will* may sometimes be substituted for *each other* (not *one another*).

Both orators use great liberties with *each other* (not *one another*).

Teachers like to see their pupils polite to *one another* (not *each other*).

**63. Equality and Inequality.**—When equality is denied or inequality is asserted, neither term of the comparison should include the other.

No writings whatever abound so much with bold and animated figures as the sacred books.

Here, the *sacred books* are *writings*. The remedy is to insert *other* after *no*.

Noah and his family outlived all the people that lived before the flood (insert *other* before *people*).

Without the insertion of *other*, the statement makes Noah outlive himself.

We have had no grammarian who has employed so much labor and judgment upon our language as the author of these volumes (insert *other* after *no*).

Never was sovereign so much beloved by his people. *Better thus*, Never was *another* sovereign so much beloved by his people.

**64. Inadmissible Comparisons.**—Adverbs of degree, such as *much*, *more*, *most*, *so*, etc., must not be joined to adjectives that do not admit of comparison. Double comparatives and double superlatives should be avoided.

Such adjectives as *infinite*, *universal*, *unutterable*, *illimitable*, *triangular*, and others of similar nature to these, should never have joined to them an adverb of degree, giving such combinations as the following:

so universal, more unspeakable, too triangular, most infinite, most divine, extremely uninhabitable, exceedingly sublime

In the time of Shakespeare and later, double comparatives and double superlatives were in good usage, but they are not so now. The following are examples:

That was the *most unkindest* cut of all.

To take the basest and *most poorest* shape.

We should now omit *most* from each of these sentences. Additional examples are the following, which are from the works of careful writers:

This is, I say, not the best and *most principal* evidence.

At every descent, the worst became *more worse*.

The power of the *Most Highest* guard thee from sin.

**65. Two or More Adjectives in Succession.**—Where adjectives in series are connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, the shortest and simplest should usually be placed first.

John is *taller* and *more graceful* than his brother.

It became the *plainest*, the *richest*, the *most elegant*, and the *most musical* of languages.

But if adjectives are so much used with certain nouns as to make combinations that resemble compound names, the adjectives cannot be separated from the nouns without affecting the sense.

An intelligent and most beautiful *young* lady accompanied us.

A loquacious, irrepressible, and most tiresome *old* gentleman bored us from a corner of the stage-coach.

The youth of the lady and the age of the gentleman are emphasized somewhat by the following constructions:

A lady, young, intelligent, and most beautiful, accompanied us.

A gentleman, old, loquacious, irrepressible, and most tiresome bored us etc.

The following are additional examples:

To receive that *more general* and *higher* instruction etc. (say, *higher* and *more general*).

We never had *such another* opportunity (say, *another such*).

The verb *hangs* is a *transitive active* verb. (Say, an *active transitive* verb.)

In this matter of the order of adjectives, the trained ear is usually a correct guide. Herbert Spencer's dictum that the order should be from the general to the specific—from the less concrete to the more concrete—is valuable in case of doubt.

**66. The Order of Ordinals and Cardinals.**—In using together adjectives denoting ordinal number, such as *first*, *last*, *fifth*, etc., and adjectives denoting cardinal number, such as *one*, *six*, etc., the ordinal should precede the cardinal. Some examples follow:

The *first three* (not *three first*) verses were sung.

The *first six* books of the Æneid are extremely beautiful.

The *last four* (not *four last*) parts of speech are commonly called particles.

**67. Use of *Them* as an Adjective.**—The pronoun *them* should never be used as an adjective instead of *those*. This is a gross blunder, yet it is not confined entirely to the conversation of the unlearned. The following sentences are quoted from several reputable authors:

Though he was not known by *them* letters, etc. (say, *those letters*).  
 In a gig or some of *them* things etc.  
 When cross-examined by *them* lawyers.  
 If you'd have listened to *them* slanders.  
 The old people were telling stories about *those* (not *them*) fairies.

**68. *This, That, These, Those.***—These words were formerly much used in the sense of *former* and *latter*, but they are rarely so employed at present. When so used, *this* and *these* should refer to the latter of two objects mentioned, and *that* and *those* to the former.

Hope is as strong an incentive to action as fear; *this* (fear) is the anticipation of evil; *that* (hope), of good.

Farewell my friends! farewell my foes!  
 My peace with *these*, my love with *those*!

This construction is awkward and antiquated; it should be avoided.

**69. *Whole, Less, More, Most.***—The adjective *whole* is sometimes used erroneously as a plural in the sense of *all*, and *less* in the sense of *fewer*. *More* and *most* also are often employed in such manner as to produce ambiguity. The following quotations illustrate these erroneous uses:

A messenger relates to Theseus the *whole* (say, *all the*) particulars.  
 There are no *less* (say, *fewer*) than twenty diphthongs in the English language.

Greater experience and *more* cultivated society are what he sadly needs to perfect his manner.

Here it is uncertain whether the meaning is *more society that is cultivated*, or *society more highly cultivated*.

No *less* (better, *no fewer*) than seven illustrious cities disputed the right [*claim*] of having given birth to (*of having been the birthplace of*) Homer.

Temperance, *more* than (better, *rather than*) medicine, is the proper means of curing many diseases.



Those rules and principles are of *most* practical advantage. *Better thus*: Those rules and principles are of the *greatest* (or *highest*) practical advantage.

This trade enriched *some people more* than them.

This sentence may mean either of the following:

This trade enriched some people (say, *persons*) besides them.

This trade enriched some others more than it enriched them.

In speaking of aggregates of *time, weight, distance, value,* etc., if they may be regarded as singular, *whole* and *less* are preferable to *all* and *fewer*. The following are correct:

The *whole* thousand dollars was lost.

He disappeared not *less* than ten years ago.

She weighs *less* than one hundred pounds.

He went the *whole* (or *entire*) hundred miles on foot.

The river had risen not *less* than twenty feet.

The *whole* (or *entire*) twenty-four hours had been wasted.

**70. The Use of Adverbs for Adjectives.**—Certain verbs usually require after them an adjective describing the state or condition of the person or thing denoted by the subject. Some of these verbs are: the various forms of the verb *to be*; viz., *is, are, was, were, has been, will be,* etc.; the verbs *appear, seem, feel, look, remain,* and many others. It is often difficult to determine whether we should use an adverb modifying the verb, or an adjective modifying the subject. The following sentences illustrate this distinction:

The children were hungry and thirsty.

Here the adjectives *hungry* and *thirsty* describe the state or condition of the children.

“How are you this morning?” “I am *nicely*, thank you.”

This is a gross and inexcusable blunder, yet we often hear it, even from educated people. In some parts of the country it has become a fixed form of answer to questions concerning the health. *I feel badly* is frequently heard, although no one would think of saying *I feel gladly* or *I feel sadly*. The proper form would be the adjective *bad*, and this word would doubtless be in common use if it did not have two meanings, one of them offensive when applied to persons. Thus,

*He looks bad* may refer either to physical appearance or to moral character—he may look or appear to be ill, or he may have the looks of a bad man. For this reason the expressions *looks bad*, *seems bad*, *is bad*, etc. are not in good usage, and they should be avoided except in conversation. Certainly, no one ought to use such ungrammatical and indefensible expressions as *I feel badly*, or *she looks badly*.

The word *well* is used sometimes as an adjective and sometimes as an adverb, and it is often the cause of ambiguity. Thus, the sentence *She looks well* may refer either to her health or to her personal appearance; that is, the sentence may have either of the following meanings:

She looks to be in good health.

She presents a fine appearance.

Some of these verbs are used both as active and as neuter; in the former use, adverbs and not adjectives must be employed with them as modifiers. The following are some examples:

<i>Active</i>	{	He looked me <i>over</i> very <i>keenly</i> .
		The blind man felt <i>carefully</i> over the table.
		When he was summoned he <i>quickly</i> appeared.
<i>Neuter</i>	{	He looked <i>tired</i> and sat <i>quiet</i> .
		The poor woman felt <i>sad</i> at her great loss.
		He appeared <i>angry</i> at the intrusion.

Therefore, to denote a state or condition of the person or thing named by the subject, an adjective is required with the verb. But, if the manner in which an action is performed is to be indicated, an adverb must be used. The following additional examples will aid in making this distinction clear:

Shut the door *tight* and open the shutters *wide*.

Sit *still* and keep entirely *quiet*.

How *sweet* the moonlight sleeps upon this bank.

The words in Italics are adjectives, each denoting the state or condition of the person or thing denoted by the modified word. The meaning is, Shut the door so that *it* shall be *tight*. The verb *shut* has no adverbial modifier, although it is an active verb, and is therefore capable of taking

an adverb to denote the time, the place, or the manner of the action.

QUICKLY shut the door *tight*, and THEN open the shutters *wide*.

Sit *still* IN YOUR CHAIR and keep entirely *quiet* FOR TEN MINUTES.

Here the words and phrases in small capitals are adverbial modifiers.

Whether to use an adjective or an adverb with verbs of this kind can usually be decided by a moment's thought. Suppose there is doubt concerning such sentences as the following:

The package arrived  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{safe} \\ \text{safely} \end{array} \right\}$  at its destination.

He stood  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{firm} \\ \text{firmly} \end{array} \right\}$  against all opposition.

In the first sentence, the reference is to the condition of the package after the act of arrival—it is *safe*. The phrase *at its destination* modifies the active function of the verb *arrived*. Similarly, *firm* is the correct modifier in the second sentence, just as *safe* is in the first. The verb *stood* denotes a state rather than an action. In the following sentences either of the italicized words may be used, but the meanings will not be the same.

The general faced the battery  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{calm and fearless.} \\ \text{calmly and fearlessly.} \end{array} \right\}$

The babe sleeps  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sweet and quiet in its cradle.} \\ \text{sweetly and quietly in its cradle.} \end{array} \right\}$

In both the foregoing sentences the adjective and not the adverb should usually be employed.

**71. Redundant Adjectives.**—Inexperienced writers are prone to use too many adjectives, and even good writers frequently employ them with nouns in such way as to result in tautology. William Black has *desperate hopelessness*, apparently not knowing that *desperate* means *hopeless*. The combination means *hopeless hopelessness*. Dickens named one of his books "Our Mutual Friend" when the meaning he intended was *our friend in common—his friend and mine*. The newspapers have many blunders of every kind; the language of the law courts, of legislation, and that

of the departmental reports from Washington are often strikingly bad.

The following are some of the blunders that the writer has noticed:

*Mutual reciprocity* in trade between the United States and the States of South America.

*Habitual custom* of the country, *usually customary*; *new recruits*, *old veterans* (from the Latin *vetus*, old); *heavy burdens* (all burdens are heavy); *morning matins* (from the French *matin*, morning); *young juvenile* (Latin *juvenilis*, young); *funeral obsequies*.

*Mere wealth alone* is not enough.

In all these cases more words are used than are needed to express the meaning intended. Thus, nothing is gained by joining *young* to *juvenile*, *morning* to *matins*, or *funeral* to *obsequies*; the result is tautology.

## 72. MISUSED ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Careful discrimination is required in the use of adjectives. The following are some of the many words of this class that are commonly misused:

1. *Both, Each, Every, and All*.—When two persons or things are thought of as acting or being together, of acting harmoniously, *both* is better than *each*. But if they act separately, first one and then the other, or if they are antagonistic or inharmonious, *each* is to be preferred.

*Each* day as it came brought hard work.

*Each* of the two had his work to do, and *both* were skilful.

*Every* day of my life is fully occupied, and *each* day brings its worry and disappointment.

*Both* sisters were beautiful, and *each* had many friends.

When more than two persons or things are referred to, *each* is used if they are taken distributively—first one and then another until all are taken. *Every*, like *each*, takes all without exception, but it is less specific and marks single individuals less distinctly than does *each*. *All* considers the units as making up a total that is treated as a unit; it takes the units collectively, not distributively like *each* and *every*.

*Each* person fared differently, although *all* were equally blamable.

*All* men are sinners and *every* man must answer for his sins.

*All* men love praise, but not *every* man deserves praise.

Nothing is gained by multiplying these words. The French say "all both of them," and we have in common use such expressions as the following:

each and every one of you, one and all of them, each and all of you. (*Say, rather, each of you, every one of you, all of you.*)

2. *Each, Either, and Both.*—These words are frequently confounded. *Either* properly means one of two, choice of one to the exclusion of the other being usually implied. A man may fire *either* barrel of a gun and reserve the load in the other barrel; or he may fire *each* barrel, first one and then the other; or, finally, he may fire *both* barrels, the implication being that they are discharged simultaneously. *Either* is frequently used erroneously for *each* or *both*.

There were book shelves at *either* (*say, both*) ends of the room.  
*Each* apple was sour and *both* were large.

Qualities in common require *both*. Thus,

*Both* apples were large and sour.

When a farmhouse was seen on *each* side of the river, we frequently landed with our wares.

Here *either* is the proper word.

*Each* horse in turn was led from the stable. I was informed that I might choose *either*; but it was difficult to choose, for *both* were beautiful.

3. *Many and Much.*—*Many* refers to number and *much* to quantity. In applying this principle, however, sums of money, weights, and measured quantity regarded as a singular aggregate should take *much* rather than *many* as a modifier.

I think there must have been as *many* as a hundred guests at the hotel.

He was willing to pay as *much* as one thousand dollars for the lot.

The regiment numbers as *many* as twelve hundred men.

We may escape *many* of the troubles of life by not anticipating troubles.

The pearl divers of the East Indies are said to be able to remain under water as *much* as six minutes.

4. *Different and Another.*—The conjunction *than* should not be used after *different* in comparisons, nor the preposition

*from* instead of *than*, after *another*. These are common errors even among careful writers.

He was quite *another* man *than* (not *from*) his brother.

He was *different* in all his tastes and habits *from* (not *than*) his brother.

The use of both *as* and *than*, or *so* and *than*, in comparisons often results in awkward sentences similar to the foregoing. The following are examples:

We have *as* much money, if not more, *than* they have.

He is *as* tall, if not taller, *than* his brother.

If she is not *so* beautiful, she is at least more charming *than* the reigning belle.

These sentences would be less faulty if rearranged and slightly changed in wording.

We have *as* much money *as* they have; perhaps, more.

He is *as* tall *as* his brother, probably taller.

If she is not *so* beautiful *as* the reigning belle, she is at least more charming.

5. *Above as an Adjective or a Noun.*—In the language of business, *above* is used both as an adjective and as a noun. This usage is convenient, but it has the weight of the best authorities against it.

If the *above* (say, *foregoing*) statement is correct you are in the wrong.

Should the *above* meet your approval I should be pleased to hear from you.

In every such case it is better to use one of the following more approved forms: *the foregoing opinion, paragraph, proposition, etc.*; *the statement made or given above*; *the preceding suggestion*; *the principle stated above*; etc.

6. *Misuse of Only.*—The word *only* is sometimes an adjective, as in *my only son*; sometimes it is an adverb, as in *only thinking, only tired*. Unless the word is correctly placed in a sentence ambiguity results. Take for illustration the following sentence:

John's brother chided him.

The word *only* may be placed in any one of several places and for each position of the word the meaning changes.

Only John's brother chided him. (No one else chided him, *or* the brother of no one else chided him.)

John's only brother chided him. (John had but one brother.)  
John's brother only chided him.

The last sentence is ambiguous. It is not certain with which of the words, *chided* or *brother*, *only* belongs. If *only* is a modifier of *chided*, the meaning is, *He chided him, but did nothing else*; but if *only* modifies *brother*, then the meaning is very nearly the same as if *only* were the first word in the sentence. Finally,

John's brother chided him only, *or*, only him. (He chided no one else.)

The rule of position of this useful but troublesome word is:

Place *only* next to the element it is to modify; then arrange the rest of the sentence so that no word capable of taking *only* as a modifier shall adjoin it on the other side.

Similar ambiguity results from the misplacing of *not only*, *not merely*, *not more*, *both*, and *not*. Some examples follow:

*Not only* is the man tired, but he is also hungry. *Better thus*, The man is *not only* tired, but he is hungry.

He could *not more* be expected to assist than to oppose. Put *not more* after *assist*.

All men are *not* willing to pay their just debts. Make *not* the first word of the sentence.

7. *Partially and Partly*.—These words are frequently confounded. *Partially* means *with partiality* and *partly* means *not wholly*. *Partially* is common in the sense of *not wholly*, but the best usage restricts the word to the meaning *with partiality*.

The teacher acted *partially* toward her pupils.  
The work was only *partly* done when we left.

8. *The Adverb Quite*.—Several incorrect phrases beginning with *quite* are in common use. Strictly, the word means *wholly*, *completely*; but it is loosely used with the meaning *very*, *considerably*. *Quite a few*, *quite some*, *quite*

*a lot, quite a good many, quite a number* are phrases for which no successful defense would be possible.

**73. The *That* of Construction.**—Instead of using *that of* or *those of* in comparisons, it is usually better to repeat the noun or some synonym of it. By this means we have the advantage of the balanced structure. The following sentences will illustrate:

The Knights of England found worthy rivals in the Knights of France (not *those of France*).

The history of Athens is far more pathetic than the history of Rome (not *that of Rome*).

The king's troops at first fought better than the soldiers of Parliament (not *those of*).

Though he wrote like an angel, his conversation was like that of poor Poll. *Say, rather,* Though he wrote like an angel he talked like poor Poll.

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#### THE VERB

**74. Concord of Verb and Relative Pronoun.** When the subject of a finite verb is a relative pronoun, care is necessary that the verb shall agree with its subject in the person and number of the true antecedent. The following sentence illustrates a violation of this caution:

The second book of the *Æneid* is one of the greatest masterpieces that ever was executed by any hand.

The antecedent is not *one*, but *masterpieces*; hence, the verb *was* does not agree in number with the relative. Say, *ever were executed*, or still better:

The second book of the *Æneid* is the greatest masterpiece ever executed by any hand.

Additional examples, with the corrections in parentheses, are the following:

Except *dwarf, grief, hoof, muff, etc.*, which *takes (take) s* to make the plural.

Of these affecting *situations* which *makes (make)* man's heart feel for man.

It is in order to propose *examples* of such perfection as *are (is)* not to be found in the real *examples* of society



This letter is one of the best that *has (have) been written* about Lord Byron.

The idea of such a *collection* of men as *make (makes)* an army.

**75. The Modifiers of the Subject of a Verb.**—The modifiers of a subject noun do not control its agreement with the verb.

The *advance* of the armies *was* (not *were*) prevented by the storm.  
I, your chairman, *direct* (not *directs*) that etc.

The following quotations are erroneous, the necessary corrections being in parentheses:

The literal *sense* of the words *are* (*is*) that the wrong had been done.  
The *mechanism* of clocks and watches *were* (*was*) totally unknown.

The *it*, together with the verb *to be*, *express* (*expresses*) states of being.

*Enough* of its form and force *are* (*is*) retained to render them uneasy.

The *general*, with his wife and eight children, *were* (*was*) expelled from the country.

By which means the *order* of the words *are* (*is*) disturbed.

**76. The Verb Before the Subject.**—When the subject of a finite verb comes, not before the verb but after it, failure of agreement is common.

In the motions made with the hands *consist* (should be *consists*) the chief part of gesture in speaking.

So by these two also *is* (*are*) *signified* their contrary principles.

In the first sentence, *part*, a singular noun, is the subject; the verb should therefore be singular. In the second sentence, the subject *principles* requires the verb to be plural. The following are additional examples; the corrections are in parentheses:

Whence *comes* (*come*) all the *powers* and *prerogatives* of natural beings?

What sounds *have* (*has*) *each* of the vowels?

But what *saith* (*say*) the *Scriptures* as to respect of persons?

There *is* (*are*) no *data* by which it can be estimated.

When there *is* (*are*) more than one auxiliary. *Still better*, When there *are* *several* auxiliaries.

**77. Phrase and Clause Subjects.**—If a phrase, clause, or other expression denoting one whole is used as the

subject of a finite verb, the verb must be in the third person singular.

To admit a God and then refuse to worship him *is* (not *are*) a modern and inconsistent practice.

The following are some examples that violate this principle of concord:

Many are the works of human industry, *which to begin and finish are* (say, *is*) hardly granted to the same man.

To profess regard and to act inconsistently with that profession, *betray* (*betrays*) a base mind.

While *wheat* has no plural, *oats have* (*has*) no singular.

To these *are* (*is*) given to speak in the name of the Lord.

**78. Verb Between Two Nominatives.**—When a neuter or a passive verb stands between two nominatives it should agree with the nominative that precedes.

A great *cause* of the low state of industry *was* (not *were*) the *restraints* put upon it.

This construction is sometimes harsh and awkward. For example, the sentence given above, though grammatically correct, would be smoother if written,

The restraints put upon industry *were* a great cause of its low state.

Additional examples follow.

The comeliness of youth *are* (*is*) modesty and frankness; of age, condescension and dignity.

*Merit* and good *works is* (*are*) the *end* of man's motion.

Technical *terms* injudiciously introduced *is* (*are*) another *source* of darkness of composition. Or, The injudicious *introduction* of technical terms *is* etc.

The *United States is* (*are*) the great middle *division* of North America. *Better thus*, The great middle division of North America *is* the United States.

Here two tall *ships becomes* (*become*) the victor's *prey*.

The *clothing* of the natives *were* (*was*) the *skins* of wild beasts. *Say*, The clothing of the natives *consisted* of the skins of wild beasts.

**79. Concord by Changing the Nominative.**—Agreement between a verb and its subject may often be made by changing the number of the subject. If the verb cannot

well be singular, make the subject plural; if the verb ought to remain singular, make the subject singular. Thus,

*Every one of you are earnestly urged to be present.*

Make the subject plural, thus,

*All of you are earnestly urged to be present.*

Other examples are,

Much *pains has been taken* to explain the matter. (Instead of *much pains, say great care.*)

Not less than three years *were spent* in attaining this result.

Here some singular nouns, such as *time*, must be understood after *less*, and the plural *are* is therefore wrong. We may pluralize the subject thus,

Not *fewer* than three years *were spent* etc.

*The whole* (say, *all for the whole*) in conjunction *make* a regular chain of cause and effect.

Where a *series* of sentences *occur*, place them in the order in which the facts occur. *Better thus*, Where several *sentences occur* in succession, place them etc.

And at our gate *are all manner* (say, *kinds*) of pleasant fruits.

**80. Omission of the Nominative.**—Every finite verb not in the imperative mode should have an expressed nominative, except when the verb is repeated for the sake of emphasis, or when it is connected with another in the same construction, or when the verb follows *but* or *than*.

The officer *caught him*—*caught him* in the very act.

Here the verb is repeated for emphasis, and the second *caught* does not require an expressed subject. The following are examples of sentences with subjects omitted; the needed words are supplied in parentheses:

Who is here so rude that (*he*) would not be a Roman?

Mr. *Prince has a genius* (*that*) would prompt him to better things.

There is scarcely a man *but would rejoice* at the downfall of his enemy.

There is no *man* (*that*) would be more welcome here.

No more came *than were required* for the work.

There were (*persons*) that made shipwreck of faith.

This improper omission of the subject and of other necessary words is common in letters:

DEAR SIR:—Letter just received. Congratulate you on success of enterprise. Expect to write you soon when will take up subject you mention.

The needed words having been supplied, the foregoing will read:

DEAR SIR:—Your letter has just been received. I congratulate you on the success of your enterprise. I expect to write to you again soon, when I will take up the subject that you mention.

**§1. Collective Nouns as Subjects.**—When the nominative subject of a verb is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural; but if the noun denotes a collection regarded as a unit, the verb must be singular.

The *college* of cardinals *are* (not *is*) the electors of the pope.

The *army* *was* (not *were*) compelled to retreat.

The *school* *was* dismissed at three o'clock.

When there is not a distinct implication that a collective noun denotes a singular aggregate, a plural verb is to be preferred, or the construction should be changed in such manner as to avoid the question of concord. Some examples follow, with corrections in parentheses.

In France, the *peasantry* *goes* (*go*) barefoot; the middle *sort* *makes* (*make*) use of wooden shoes.

So that all the *people* that *was* (*were*) in the camp trembled. (Better, to omit the words between *all* and *in*.)

A great *majority* of our authors *is* (*are*) defective in manner. (Substitute *most* for a great *majority*.)

More than *one-half* of the crew *was* (*were*) dead before succor came. (They died one by one.)

In the last sentence the question of concord may be avoided by putting *perished* or *died* for *was dead*. The other sentences may be changed. Thus,

By the middle class in France wooden shoes are worn; by the peasantry, no shoes at all.

The preceding sentence retains the balanced structure, and is in better form than the original.

Since last year the *number* of school districts *has increased*.  
*Has the assembly* power to prohibit the liquor traffic?

**82. The Verb After Joint Nominatives.**—When two or more nominatives denoting different persons or things are connected by *and*, their verb should usually be plural.

The *boldness*, *freedom*, and *variety* of our language *are* (not *is*) remarkable.

Wherever *space* and *time are* (not *is*) found, there God must be.

When, however, two nominatives connected by *and* denote the same person or thing, as well as when they are equivalent to one name, their verb should be singular.

The *hue and cry* of the country *pursues* (not *pursue*) him.

This philosopher and poet *was* (not *were*) *banished* from the country.

Whose icy *current* and compulsive *course*

Ne'er *feels* (not *fecl*) retiring ebb, but keeps due on.

If two nominatives connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished, they belong to different clauses and require their verb to be in the singular.

*Ambition*, and not the *safety* of the state, *was* (not *were*) *concerned*.

In full, the sentence would be somewhat as follows:

*Ambition* was concerned; the *safety* of the state was not concerned.

*Disgrace*, and perhaps *ruin*, *was* (not *were*) the consequence.

When two or more nominatives connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they must be taken separately, and their verb should be singular. (See Art. 50.)

When *no part* of their substance and *no one* of their properties *is* (not *are*) the same.

*Every* person and *every* occurrence *is* (not *are*) *beheld* in the most favorable light.

*Each* worm and *each* insect *is* (not *are*) a marvel of creative power.

When the verb separates its nominatives, it agrees with the nominative that precedes it, and is understood with the others.

Honor *crowns* his old age, and wealth and peace.

If two nominatives thus separated differ in number, the construction is not admissible, for the understood verb will not agree with the second nominative. Thus,

Honors crown his old age, and peace. *Better thus, Honors and peace crown his old age.*

**83. Plural Verb Unsuitable.**—When *and* between two nominatives requires a plural verb, the construction is sometimes awkward or erroneous. The remedy in such cases is to change the connective or recast the sentence.

There *are* safety and honor in this course.

Better than this would be any one of the following:

This course is one of safety and honor.

Safety *as well as* honor is in this course.

This is a course of safety with honor.

**84. Affirmation With Negation.**—When two subjects or antecedents are connected, one of which is taken affirmatively and the other negatively, the verb must agree with the affirmative subject and be understood with the negative.

Diligent *effort*, and *not* mere luck, *brings* success in this world.

*Not* a loud *voice*, but strong *proofs*, bring connection.

The following are quotations in which this rule of construction is violated:

Prudence, and *not* pomp, *are* (say, *is*) the basis of his fame.

*Not* her beauty, but her talents, *attracts* (say, *attract*) attention.

It is her talents, and *not* her beauty that *attracts* (say, *attract*) attention.

**85. The Conjunctions, *As Well As*, *But*, *Save*.**—When two subjects or two antecedents are connected by *as well as*, *but*, or *save*, the verb and the pronoun must agree with the subject that occurs first and be understood with the other. However, if a negative precedes one of the subjects, the verb must agree with the other. The following are illustrations of this construction:

These *principles*, as well as every just *rule* of criticism, *are founded* upon the sensitive part of our nature.

No mortal *man* save he (*him*) had e'er survived to say *he* saw.

The following quotations are erroneous. The corrections are in parentheses.

Common sense as well as piety tell (*tells*) us these are proper.

For without it, the critic as well as the undertaker, ignorant of any rule, have (*has*) nothing left etc.

But this passage, as well as the lines immediately subsequent, defy (*defies*) all translation.

The last sentence is awkward. It would be improved by *and* for *as well as*; *defy* would then be correct.

None but thou (*thee*) O mighty prince canst (*can*) avert the blow.

Naught save the gurglings of the rill were (*was*) heard. Better, Only the gurgling of the rill was heard.

**86. Subjects Taken Conjointly.**—When subjects are to be taken conjointly, so as to have a verb in the plural, the proper connective is *and* and not *with*, *together with*, *nor*, *or*, *as well as*, or any other. The following sentences are therefore erroneous:

One of them, the wife of Thomas Cole, *with* her husband were (*was*) shot down. (Say, Thomas Cole *and* his wife were shot down.)

The side A, *with* (*and*) the sides B and C, compose the triangle.

The stream, the rock, *or* (*and*) the tree must each of *them* stand forth etc.

Sobriety, *with* great industry and talent, enable (*enables*) a man to perform great deeds.

There Leonidas, the Spartan king, *with* (*and*) his chosen band fighting for *their* country were cut off to the last man.

**87. Distinct Subject Phrases.**—Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by *and* require a verb in the plural.

*This picture of my friend*, and *This picture of my friend's* suggest very different ideas.

The following are erroneous:

To promise and to perform *is* (say, *are*) very different.

To spin and to weave, to knit and to sew, *was* (say, *were*) once a girl's employment; but now, to dress and [to] catch a beau *is* (*are*) all she calls employment.

To be round or square, to be solid or fluid, to be large or small, and to be moved swiftly or slowly, *is* (*are*) all equally alien from (to) the nature of thought.

**88. Subjects Connected by *Or* or *Nor*.**—When a verb has two or more subjects connected by *or* or *nor* it must agree with them singly, not conjointly. If the subjects are of different persons or numbers, and if they are of equal importance, the verb must agree with the nearer.

Nor eye, nor listening ear an object *finds*; creation sleeps.

Neither *you* nor *he was* to blame.

The definite article *the* designates what particular thing or *things are* meant.

It should be stated that when two or more nominatives differ in person or number, the second principle given above often leads to constructions that are extremely awkward. It is usually better in such case to recast the sentence.

Neither *he* nor *I am* fully satisfied. *Say, rather,* He is not fully satisfied, nor am I.

Similarly, the second sentence above should be,

You and he were alike blameless. You were not to blame, nor was he.

The following quotations violate the principle stated above:

We do not know in what either reason or instinct *consist* (*consists*).

In the different pronunciations which [*that*] habit or caprice *give* (*gives*) rise to. *Better thus,* In the different pronunciations to which habit or caprice *gives* rise.

Neither knowledge nor eloquence *preserve* (*preserves*) the reader from weariness.

Their riches or poverty *are* (*is*) generally proportioned to their activity or indolence.

Recast the sentence, thus:

In proportion to their activity or indolence is in general their riches or poverty.

My lord, you wrong my father; nor he nor I *are* (*am*) capable of harboring a thought against your peace.

The last sentence can be improved thus:

My lord, you wrong my father; he is not capable of harboring a thought against your peace. (The disclaimer of the son should be in a separate sentence.)

If the subjects connected by *or* or *nor* are phrases, the



verb must be singular, and if a nominative comes after the subject phrases, it also must be singular.

To give an affront or to take one tamely *are* not *marks* (say, *is* not a *mark*) of a great mind.

To reveal secrets or to betray one's friends *is* (not *are*) contemptible perfidy.

Neither to live in such families nor to have such servants *is* (not *are*) *blessings* (a *blessing*) of God.

It is better to recast the sentence, thus:

It is not a blessing of God either to live in such families or to have such servants.

**89. Repeat the Subject or Insert a New One.** Unless verbs are alike in mode, tense, and form, it is better that each verb should have an expressed subject. In the following sentence the verbs are all concordant, hence the subject need not be repeated.

So Sennacherib, king of Assyria, *departed*, and *went*, and *returned*, and *dwelt* at Nineveh.

The following sentences, however, require the nominatives that are given in parentheses:

He *was* greatly *heated* and (*he*) *drank* with avidity.

A person *may be* great or rich by chance, but *cannot be* wise or good without taking pains for it (say, *no one can be wise* etc.).

*H* *is* only an aspiration or breathing; and sometimes at the beginning of a word (*it*) *is* not *sounded* at all.

Man *was made* for society, and (*he*) *ought* to extend his good-will to all men.

Were you not affrighted, and *mistook* (*did you not mistake*) a spirit for a body?

The amputation was exceedingly well performed, and (*it*) saved the patient's life.

**90. The False Passive.**—A verb is active when its subject represents the actor; it is passive when its subject represents the receiver of the action. The following are examples:

<i>Active</i>	{	The sun lights the world.
		The farmer bought a farm.
		The teacher will explain the example.
<i>Passive</i>	{	The world is lighted by the sun.
		A farm was bought by the farmer.
		The example will be explained by the teacher.

These are the only forms in which verbs can be used. There are, however, a few verbs that are frequently but erroneously employed in another way.

John was sent a copy of Tennyson's poems by his sister.  
The boy was told a great secret by his playmate.

The passive verbs in the two sentences given above seem to have objects—*copy* and *secret*. But passive verbs never have objects, so that the sentences are incorrect. They should be written:

{ John's sister sent him a copy of Tennyson's poems.  
{ A copy of Tennyson's poems was sent to John by his sister.  
{ The boy's playmate told him a great secret.  
{ A great secret was told to the boy by his playmate.

Other examples of this erroneous construction are:

He was offered a week's vacation.  
The farmer was sold some beautiful meadow land.  
Jennie was promised a reward for diligence.  
They were denied the privilege of landing.  
We must be allowed the privilege of making our own laws.  
Many persons are paid handsome salaries for doing nothing.

**91. Passive Verbs Wrongly Transitive.**—Passive verbs should never be made to govern the objective case.

His female characters *have been found fault with* as insipid. *Better thus*, His female characters have been condemned.

The disturbances *have been put an end to*. *Better*, The disturbances have been suppressed.

The idea *has not for a moment been lost sight of* by the Board. *Recast*, The Board has not for a moment lost sight of the idea.

It was voted that the widows and orphans *should be taken care of*. *Recast*, It was voted to care for the widows and orphans.

**92. Mixture of Styles.**—It is always inelegant to use the solemn and the familiar style in the same sentence or even in the same paragraph. The following are some examples:

What *appears* tottering and in hazard of stumbling *produceth* (*produces*) in the spectator the painful emotion of fear.

For if it be in any degree obscure, it *puzzles* and *doth* not *please* (*displeases*).

This truth he *wrappeth* (*wraps*) in an allegory and *feigns* that etc.

**93. Confusion of Modes.**—To use different modes under precisely similar circumstances is a serious blemish even when the verbs have separate nominatives.

If one *speaks* (*speaks*) and another *answers*, it is quite the same.

If one man *esteems* (*esteems*) one day above another, and another *esteemeth* (*esteems*) every day alike, etc.

Should you come up this way and I *am* still here, you need not be assured how glad I shall be to see you.

This sentence is better in either of the following ways:

If you *come* up this way and I *am* still here, etc. *Should* you *come* up this way and should I still be here, etc.

If a man *have* a hundred sheep and one of them *is gone* astray, etc.

**94. Omission of Parts of Verb Phrases.**—When two or more verb phrases are connected, such parts of them as are not common to all the phrases should be inserted in full. After the auxiliary *do*, however, this insertion is sometimes unnecessary. The following is therefore correct:

And then he *falls* as I *do*.

Some examples of improper ellipses follow:

I think myself highly obliged *to make* his fortune as he *has* mine (*has made mine*).

Every attempt to remove them *has*, and likely *will prove* unsuccessful (*has proved*).

Which they neither *have nor can do* (*have done nor can do*).

**95. Misuse of the Verb Do.**—The verb *do* is often used erroneously for verbs to which its meaning is not suited. It is usually better to repeat the first verb unless such repetition would be awkward.

And I would avoid it altogether if it could be *done* (*avoided*).

Besides making a deeper impression than can be *done* (*made*) by cool reasoning.

Yet a poet, by the force of genius alone, can rise higher than a public speaker can *do* (*rise*).

The pupil should commit the first section thoroughly before he *does* (*begins or undertakes*) the second.

**96. Verbs With Future Reference.**—Verbs of commanding, desiring, expecting, hoping, intending, wishing, and the like, usually refer to actions and events in the future.

Care must be exercised to have the concord of tenses correct. Even careful writers blunder with these verbs. We should say,

I meant to go, *not*, I meant to have gone.

We hoped you would come, *not*, We hoped you would have come.

Some quotations that are erroneous follow:

I found him better than I expected *to have found* (*to find*) him.

He would not have been allowed *to have entered* (*to enter*).

We planned *to have arrived* (*to arrive*) last night.

**97. Concord of Tenses.**—When words denote time, whether they are nouns, adverbs, or verbs, care should be observed that there may be a proper sequence of time and a concord of tenses. Thus, we may say, *I have seen him today*, but not, *I have seen him last week*. The following will illustrate this point more fully:

I have already told you, *not*, I told you already.

I finished my letter (not *had finished*) *before* the postman came.

*Or*, I had finished my letter *when* the postman came.

From what has been (*was*) *formerly* known.

Arts were *of late* (*have been*) introduced among them.

I continued to work until *the present moment* (say, *have continued*).

They have *anciently* done (say, *anciently did*) a great deal of hurt.

What I believe was hinted once *already*. *Better*, What I believe has *already* been once hinted.

I expected, from the promises of the noble lord, to have seen the banks paying in gold (say, *to see*).

**98. The Universal Present Tense.**—Certain things are always true. Facts of this kind should be expressed in the present tense.

He said that the square of six is thirty-six (not *was*).

It is said that honesty is (not *was*) the best policy.

The following quotations are erroneous:

Two young gentlemen have discovered that there was (say *is*) no God.

The ancients asserted that virtue was (*is*) its own reward.

I have already told you that I was (say, *am*) a gentleman.

**99. Omission of *To* Before the Infinitive.**—After the active forms of the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, *to*, the sign of the infinitive, is

usually not required; the same is the case after the imperative *please* used in polite requests. After other verbs *to* should always precede the infinitive. Some examples follow:

They *bade* him *enter* (not *to enter*).

*Darest* thou now, Cassius, *leap* (not *to leap*) into etc.?

We *felt* them *push* (not *to push*) against the door.

Pharaoh would not *let* the children of Israel *go* (not *to go*).

*Please* explain this example, or *Please to explain* etc.

The following quotations are erroneous:

I have *known* lords *abbreviate* almost the half of their words (say, *to abbreviate*).

So as neither *to embarrass* or *weaken* the sentence (say, *nor to weaken*).

Their character is formed and *made appear* (say, *to appear*).

When the passive forms of these verbs are followed by an infinitive, *to* is required before it.

He *was bidden to enter* the house.

We *were dared to engage* in battle.

They *were heard to call* for assistance.

There are many exceptions to the foregoing usage.

### 100. The Verb *Bid*, Meaning to Offer or to Promise.

When *bid* means to offer or to promise, and is followed by an infinitive, *to* should be inserted.

The boy *bids* fair *to become* a fine scholar (*bids fair* = promises).

Both of the merchants *bid* high *to get* the goods (*bid high* = offered a high price).

101. The Verb *Dare*.—When the verb *dare* is an infinitive and has another infinitive following it; also when it has an objective noun or pronoun, *to* must not be omitted.

What power so great *to dare to disobey*?

He *dared me to enter* the lists against him.

Also, if the verb *dare* has an auxiliary and is followed by an infinitive, the sign *to* should be inserted.

Who *would dare to* molest him?

Some *would even dare to die* for a friend.

*Do you dare to prosecute* such a creature?

When *dare* is in the present tense, the insertion of *to* is sometimes admissible.

Those whose words no one *dares to repeat*.  
The man who *dares to be* a wretch.

**102. The Verb *Feel*.**—*To* after *feel* is omitted only when the verb is used transitively and when it refers to a physical sensation. But when this verb is used intransitively with reference to a mental state, *to* should be inserted. The following examples illustrate these differences:

I felt something sting me.	} Physical sensation
I feel it move.	
I felt around to find the door.	} Mental state
I felt ashamed to ask.	
I feel glad to see you.	

**103. The Verb *Make*.**—It is often correct to insert *to* after *make* used transitively.

He makes the excellence of a sentence to consist in four things.  
He could make the dumb to speak and the lame to walk.  
Man was made to mourn.  
A pupil should be made to obey his teacher.

When, as in the third sentence, the verb *made* means *created*, the infinitive following it denotes purpose, and *to* must be inserted.

Some persons seem to have been made only *to prey* on others.

**104. The Verb *Need*.**—There seems to be equally good authority both for the omission and the insertion of *to* after *need*. In the emphatic construction with *do* or *did* it is usually better to insert the sign *to* of the infinitive. The following sentences are all correct:

He *need not worry* about the mishap.  
One *does not need to wonder* about the event.  
Their sex *need not be marked*.  
They *do not need to be specially indicated*.  
We *need only to mention* the facts of the case.  
No person *needs to be informed* of what has happened.

In the last example, *needs* is in the third person singular. There is good authority for both *need* and *needs* in this person and number. Thus,

Moral instruction *needs not to have* a more prominent place (or *need not have*).

**105. The Verb *See*.**—When *see* has an objective noun or pronoun after it, an infinitive following requires the omission of *to*; but when it is used intransitively, *to* should be inserted. Thus,

I saw him whip his horse most cruelly.

It was so dark that we could not see to write.

**106. The Verbs *Have*, *Help*, and *Find*.**—Good authorities use the infinitive both with and without *to* after the verbs *have*, *help*, and *find*. The preference, however, is that *to* should be inserted.

I will have him sing (or to sing) at your concert.

Will you help him solve (or to solve) the problem?

You will find the difficulty disappear (or to disappear) in a short time.

**107. Participles From Transitive Verbs.**—The preposition *of* should not be used after participles derived from transitive verbs. The following are some examples illustrating this erroneous usage. The *of* in each case should be omitted.

*preaching of* repentance, *keeping of* one day in seven

In *forming of* his sentences he was very exact.

The Arabians exercised themselves by *composing of* orations and poems.

After verbal nouns derived from transitive verbs *of* is required before a noun or a pronoun in the objective case. This construction, although grammatically correct, is nearly always harsh and is often ambiguous.

There was no *withstanding of* him.

The *mixing of* them makes a miserable jumble.

The action took place prior to the *taking place of* the other past action.

Better constructions of the foregoing are,

He could not be withstood.

A miserable jumble results from mixing them.

The action preceded the other past action.

**108. Adjective After Verbal Noun.**—Grammarians condemn the construction in which an adjective follows a verbal noun. Neither should an adjective phrase occur after a verbal noun.

Our belief in a thing's *being possible* is sometimes not warranted. *Better thus*, Our belief that a thing *is possible* etc.

His *being afraid* was clearly evident. *Say*, That he *was afraid* was clearly evident; *or*, It was clearly evident that he was afraid.

*Being witty* out of season is one sort of folly. *Say*, One sort of folly *is to be witty* out of season.

His *being in debt* was the excuse given. *Say*, The excuse given was that he *was in debt*.

**109. Compound Verbal Nouns.**—Verbal nouns that consist of more than one word are inelegant, and should therefore be avoided. Some examples follow:

The *being abandoned* by our friends is deplorable.

Our *being made* acquainted with pain and sorrow has a tendency to bring us to a settled moderation.

He mentioned a boy's *having been corrected* for his faults.

The *having been slandered* was no fault of Peter's.

Better:

It is deplorable to be abandoned by our friends.

Acquaintance with pain and sorrow has a tendency to bring us to a settled moderation.

He mentioned that a boy had been corrected for his faults.

That Peter has been slandered is not his fault.

**110. Substitutes for the Participle.**—It is a good rule not to use a participle where an infinitive, a verbal noun, an ordinary noun, or a phrase will better express the meaning. The following are examples of this faulty construction:

But *placing* an accent on the second syllable of these words would entirely derange them. *Better*, To place an accent etc.; *or*, The placing of an accent etc.; *still better*, An accent placed on etc.

She regrets not *meeting* him.



This sentence is ambiguous, for it may mean either of the following:

She regrets that she did not meet him.

She does not regret that she met him.

A severe critic might point out some expressions that would bear *being retrenched* (*bear retrenchment*).

But Artaxerxes could not refuse *pardoning* him (*to pardon him*).

It is often useless to attempt *proving* that a certain thing is right. *Better*, *The attempt to prove* that a thing is right is often useless.

**111. Participles After the Verb *To Be*.**—A participle instead of a nominative after *be*, *is*, *was*, etc., results in an expression that may be mistaken for a verb phrase.

Irony *is expressing* ourselves in a manner contrary to our thought.

Purity *is using* rightly the words of our language.

It *would be losing* time to attempt to illustrate it further.

Spelling *is combining* letters to form syllables and words.

All the foregoing sentences should be recast.

Irony *is the use of words* to convey a meaning contrary to our thought.

Purity *is a right use* of the words of our language.

It would be *a loss of time* to attempt to illustrate it further.

Spelling *is the combining of* letters to form syllables and words.

**112. Verbs of Preventing.**—Verbs of preventing should not be followed by a verbal in *ing* used as if in the objective case. If a verbal follows, the preposition *from* should be inserted before it. The following are erroneous:

I endeavored *to prevent letting* him escape (*say, to prevent his escape*; or, *to prevent him from escaping*).

We tried to prevent it *bursting* out with open violence (*say, to prevent it from bursting out* with open violence).

Yet this does not prevent *his being* great (*say, prevent him from being great*).

Does the present action hinder *your being* (*hinder you from being*) honest and brave?

**113. The Dangling Participle.**—In every sentence containing a participle there should be a word to which the participle belongs as a modifier. If this is not the case, we have a **dangling participle**. Some examples follow:

By *establishing* good laws our peace is secured.

There will be no danger of *spoiling* their faces.

*Viewing* them separately, different emotions are produced.

*Proceeding* from one particular to another, the subject grew under his hand.

*Having finished* his speech, the assembly dispersed.

The remedy for these errors is to reconstruct the sentences.

*By establishing* good laws *we* secure peace.

*They* will be in no danger of *spoiling* their faces.

*When they are viewed* separately, different emotions are produced.

*As he proceeded* from one particular to another, the subject grew under his hand.

*His speech having been finished*, the assembly dispersed.

**114. Verbals Used With Nouns.**—It is inelegant to use verbals and nouns together, especially when they are used in the same way. Thus,

*Of* denotes possession or *belonging* (say, *ownership*).

Some verbs denote *action* or *doing*; some others, *passion* or *suffering*. *Better thus*, Some verbs denote *action*; others, *passion*.

**115. The Split Infinitive.**—By *split infinitive* is meant a construction in which an adverb or an adverbial phrase is placed between the sign of the infinitive and the verb. The following are examples:

to *carefully* examine, to *better* accomplish, to *not* forget, to *rapidly* retreat

Prof. A. S. Hill in his "Foundations of Rhetoric" speaks of "the common fault of putting an adverb or an adverbial phrase between *to* and the infinitive—words so closely connected that they should not be separated."

Continuing, he says: "Its prevalence has led some students of language to insist that good use sanctions, or at least condones, the practice of putting adverbial expressions between *to* and the infinitive; and one well-known scholar has adduced what at first sight seems a formidable array of citations, ranging from the time of Wycliffe to the present day. On examination, however, it turns out that the names of some of the highest authorities on a question of good use [usage]—Addison, Goldsmith, and Cardinal Newman, for instance—are conspicuous by their absence, and that each of several other authors of highest repute is represented by

only one example . . . . On the other hand, unpracticed writers are precisely those who are most ready to misplace their adverbs.

"One thing to be said in favor of caging an adverb between *to* and the infinitive is that a writer can thus, with least trouble to himself, show that the adverb and the verb belong together. This consideration, which does not affect writers who know their business, would, even if good use [usage] were divided, be more than counterbalanced by the harshness of the construction, and by the danger that soon we may have expressions like Herrick's '*to incense burn*.'

"On the whole, the safest conclusion still seems to be that arrived at in the text, namely, that a careful writer will do well to avoid the construction which places the adverb between *to* and the infinitive."

De Vinne, in his "Correct Composition," says: "In some printing houses the reader is ordered by the master printer never to pass a split infinitive, as in this sentence:

The dog had been trained at a given signal to *immediately* raise himself on his hind legs.

The infinitive *to raise* must be kept together, and *immediately* may be put before or after the verb, as euphony dictates. The change is needed for good English; but there are writings in which the author purposely splits the infinitive to show an ordinary colloquialism."

The split infinitive has always been condemned by the best authorities as awkward and generally harsh. The "Saturday Review" mentions this construction as "The vile fashion of the *split infinitive*. Pray flog it out of all presentable literature."

Some examples follow:

The soldiers of the guard refused *to longer* fight (say, *to fight longer*).

His father directed him *to instantly return* (say, *to return instantly*, or *at once*).

The question is whether he will pledge himself *to loyally and faithfully support* the candidate of the party. *Better*, to support the candidate of the party loyally and faithfully.

# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(PART 8)

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## CORRECT AND FAULTY DICTION

(Continued)

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### THE ADVERB

**1. Position of the Adverb.**—Ambiguity, or even entire failure to express the writer's meaning, often results from misplacing an adverb. There is no established place in the sentence for this part of speech; in general it should be put where it will render the meaning clear and the sound agreeable. An adverb should not stand between two words if it may be taken as the modifier of the one as readily as of the other. The following are some examples of erroneous position of the adverb, with corrections in parentheses:

We are in no hazard of mistaking the sense of the author, though every word which he uses be *not* precise and exact (though *not every* word *that* he uses *is* precise and exact).

All that is favored by good use is *not proper* to be retained. (*Not all* that is favored by good *usage* is proper to be retained.)

Most men dream, but all men do *not*. (Most men, but not all men, dream.)

The words must be *generally* separated from the context. (*Generally*, the words must be separated from the context.)

They must be viewed *exactly* in the same light (viewed in *exactly* the same light).

**2. Adverbs in Place of Adjectives.**—Adverbs are often used wrongly instead of adjectives; especially when

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state or quality, and not manner, is to be expressed. Some examples of these errors are quoted below:

The *now* copies of the original text are entire (the *present* copies).

The arrows of calumny fall *harmlessly* at the feet of virtue (fall *harmless*).

Motion *upwards* is commonly more agreeable than motion *downwards*. (*Upward* motion . . . *downward* motion.)

This construction sounds rather *harshly* (sounds rather *harsh*).

It is the *often* doing of a thing that makes it a *custom*. (*Recast the sentence thus*: Frequent repetition of the same act results in the formation of a habit.)

The adjective is put *absolutely*, or without its noun (put *absolute*).

**3. Adverbs With Verbs of Motion.**—In formal composition, strict propriety requires with verbs of motion *hither*, *thither*, and *whither* rather than *here*, *there*, and *where*. In ordinary conversation the former three adverbs are rarely heard.

*Whither* are you going?

He has gone *thither*.

Come *hither*, my pretty maid.

It is reported that the governor will come *here* (come *hither*) tomorrow.

He sometimes gets a prospect of that lovely land *where* (*whither*) his steps are tending.

When we left Cambridge, we intended to return *there* (*thither*) in a few days.

**4. From Before Hence, Thence, and Whence.**—The expressions *from hence*, *from thence*, and *from whence* are tautological, for *from* is implied by each of these adverbs.

He went to the office and *thence* (not *from thence*) home.

*From whence* (*whence*) we may depart for the Holy Land.

They returned to the city *from whence* they came *out*. (They returned to the city *whence* they came.)

Who are you, and *whence* (not *from whence*) come you?

*From hence* (omit *from*) he concludes that a constitution etc.

**5. The Adverb How.**—The adverb *how* should not be used before the conjunction *that*, nor as a substitute for *lest*, *that not*, or *that*.

He declared *how* (*that*) he would triumph in the end.

You see *how that* (*that*) not many wise men or good men secure political office.

Be careful *how* you offend him (*that you do not*).

**6. The Adverbs *When, While, and Where*.**—After the verb *is* in definitions, *when, while, or where* should not be used to introduce a noun clause.

The reason for this rule of composition is that *when* and *while* denote identity in time, and *where* denotes identity in place; but a definition requires identity in being, which amounts to substantial equivalence.

Concord, in grammar, *is when* one word agrees in some respect with another. *Better*, Concord, in grammar, *is the agreement*, in some respect, of one word with another.

Bombast *is when* high-sounding words with no meaning are used. *Say*, Bombast *is the use of* high-sounding words etc.

Metonymy *is where* the cause is put for the effect etc. *Say*, Metonymy *is a figure of rhetoric that consists* in putting etc.

Fusion *is while* some solid substance is converted into a fluid by heat (*Fusion is the conversion of etc.*).

**7. *No* Used for *Not*.**—The adverb *no* should not be used with reference to a verb or a participle as a substitute for *not*. Some examples of this erroneous usage follow:

I do not know whether I shall go or *no* (*not*).

We must work whether we will or *no* (*not*).

He cares not whether the world was made for Cæsar or *no* (*not*).

**8. Double Negatives.**—A negation should contain but one negative word; if two negatives are used in the same clause, they usually contradict each other and leave the clause affirmative.

For my part I love him *not, nor* hate him *not*. (For my part I love him *not, and* hate him *not*.)

I haven't got *none*. (I have *none*.)

There is *nothing* more admirable *nor* more useful. (*Nothing* is more admirable *or* more useful.)

*No* skill could obviate, *nor no* remedy dispel, the terrible infection (*and no* remedy dispel).

Where there is *no* marked *nor* peculiar character in the style (*or* peculiar character).

There can be *no* rules laid down, *nor no* (*and no*) manner recommended.

**9. The Adverbs *Ever* and *Never*.**—These adverbs are frequently confounded.

We *seldom or ever* see an indolent man become wealthy. (*We seldom or never, or seldom if ever.*)

If Pompey shall but *never so little (ever so little)* seem to like it.

More than sufficient both to strengthen us, be we *never so weak*, and to overthrow all *adversary* power be it *never so strong*. (More than sufficient both to strengthen us, be we *ever so weak*; and to overthrow all adverse power, be it *ever so strong*.)

The two adverbial expressions, *ever so* and *never so*, are often misused. The former is a near equivalent of *very* or *extremely*; the latter is much stronger, meaning *inconceivably, enormously, exceedingly*.

**10. Adjectives for Adverbs.**—One of the most common of errors is the use of adjectives where adverbs are required. The following quotations will illustrate:

We can much *easier* form the conception of a fierce combat (much *more easily* form).

When he was restored, *agreeable (agreeably)* to the treaty, he was a perfect savage.

How I shall acquit myself *suitable (suitably)* to the importance of the trial.

Can anything show your Holiness how *unworthy (unworthily)* you treat mankind.

Attentive only to exhibit his ideas *clear and exact (clearly and exactly)*, he is always dry.

**11. *Since* for *Ago*.**—*Since*, when used with reference to time, should not refer to time long past; *ago*, however, may be used for any past time. The following examples will show the distinction:

“Some one called while you were away.” “How long *since?*” or “How long *ago?*” “Only a few minutes *since.*” “Only a few minutes *ago.*”

He came to this country several years *ago* (not *since*).

Many, many years *ago* (not *since*) there was a very rich king called Cræsus.

**12. *Most* or *About* for *Almost* or *Nearly*.**—These words are frequently misused.

Are we *most* there?

*Most every* writer agrees with you.

*About* all writers on geology etc.

He ran so hard that he was *most* dead.

We had *about* reached the end of our journey when the coach overtook us.

All the foregoing sentences are erroneous. Substitute *almost* or *nearly* for the words in Italics.

**13. Adverbs Absolute in Meaning.**—Many adverbs and their corresponding adjectives are absolute in meaning, and for that reason should not be compared. For example, we cannot say *most unique*, *very shameless*, *more invariable*, *more totally*. For though a poem may be *unique* (the only one of its kind), it cannot be *more unique* or *less unique*; and though a person may be *shameless* (without shame), he cannot be *too*, or *very*, or *more*, or *less*, *shameless*. Other absolute adverbs follow: *absolutely*, *axiomatically*, *completely*, *conclusively*, *continually*, *entirely*, *essentially*, *exclusively*, *extremely*, *faultlessly*, *fundamentally*, *impreguably*, *incessantly*, *incredibly*, *indispensably*, *inseparably*, *intangibly*, *intolerably*, *illiterately*, *sufficiently*, *unccasingly*, and many others.

It should be mentioned, however, that the desire for forcible statement or for exaggeration often leads to the use of comparative or superlative forms of adverbs absolute in meaning; so, too, we often meet them preceded by such intensive words as *so*, *too*, *very*, *quite*, etc.

**14. *Almost* as an Adjective.**—*Almost* is sometimes erroneously used as an adjective.

His *almost* impudence of manner gave offense.

Such an *almost* Christian should amend his ways.

The expressions *almost no* and *almost nothing* have enemies among the critics, and should be avoided by careful writers. For, *almost no* money is *some* money, and *almost nothing* is *something*.

**15. *At Length* and *At Last*.**—These two phrases are by careless writers sometimes used interchangeably. *At last* should refer to some action regarded as a *finality*, and



*at length*, to action or state as *continuing*, or *intermediate* between a beginning and an end.

He was sick for a long time {and *at last* he died.  
but *at length* he began to mend.

### THE CONJUNCTION

**16. The Wrong Conjunction.**—Care must be exercised to use the right conjunction, as well as to omit the conjunction when it is not required.

References are often marked by letters *and* (*or*) figures.

A conjunction is used to connect words *and* sentences *together*. (Use *or* instead of *and* and omit *together*.)

English grammar is miserably taught in our district schools; the teachers know *but* little or nothing about it. (Omit *but*.)

An emphatic pause is made after something has been said of peculiar moment, *and* on which we desire to fix the hearer's attention. *Better thus*: An emphatic pause is made after something of peculiar moment has been said on which we desire to fix the hearer's attention.

An imperfect phrase contains no assertion, *or* (*and*) does not amount to a proposition.

*Whether* (*If*) we open the volumes of our divines, philosophers, historians, *or* (*and*) artists, we meet the same difficulty.

**17. Two Terms With Wrong Reference.**—When two connected terms have a common dependence on some subsequent term, the dependence must be right for both of the connected terms. The following quotations are erroneous in this respect. The corrections are in parentheses.

I answer, you *may* (*use*) and *ought to use* stories and anecdotes.

I *have* (*been*) and *pretend to be* a tolerable judge.

He is a much better grammarian *than they* are (*than any of them*).

Any person (*from whom*) *or* place *where* (*whence*) certain decisions are obtained etc.

Antony, coming alongside of her ship, entered it without seeing (*her*) *or* being seen by *her*.

Some other that only resembles (*it*) *or* is akin *to it*.

He was more beloved, *but* not so much admired as Cinthio (more beloved *than* Cinthio, but not so much admired).

Lincoln always *has* (*been*) and doubtless always *will be revered* by his countrymen.

The silver age is reckoned *to have begun* on the death of Augustus and (*to have*) *continued* to the end of Trajan's reign.

**18. Likeness of Connected Terms.**—Connected terms should, so far as possible, be of the same kind. Such likeness gives balance and symmetry to sentences.

Athens saw them *entering* (*enter*) her gates and *fill* her academies.

We have neither *forgotten* his *past* nor *despair* of his *future* success. (We have neither forgotten his success in the past nor despaired of his success in the future.)

Whether he *should* or *not* be made to meet this exigency (*should* or *should not* be made etc.) is open to question.

He gained *nothing* further than *to be commended* (*nothing but commendation*).

They very seldom *trouble* themselves with inquiries or *making* (*make*) useful observations of their own.

**19. The Conjunction *Than*.**—In comparisons in which *else*, *other*, *otherwise*, *rather*, or an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, is used, the second member of the comparison should be introduced by the conjunction *than*. After *else* or *other*, however, the preposition *besides* is sometimes used, and it is often better than the usual construction with *than*.

A metaphor is nothing *else but* a short comparison (nothing *else than*, or nothing *but*).

Those classics contain little *else but* histories of murders (little *else than*, or little *else besides*).

He no sooner accosted her *but* he gained his point (*than*).

Does he mean that theism is capable of nothing except being opposed to atheism? (Does he mean that theism is capable of nothing *besides* opposition to atheism?)

**20. Relative Pronouns Exclude Conjunctions.** Because relative pronouns are connectives, conjunctions should not be used with them, unless there are two or more relative clauses in succession to be connected. The following sentences illustrate this point:

The principal and distinguishing excellence of Virgil, *and which* in my opinion he possesses beyond *all poets*, is tenderness. (The principal and distinguishing excellence of Virgil is tenderness, *which*, in my opinion, he possesses beyond all *other poets*.)

Has this word, which represents an action, an object after it, *and* on *which* (omit *and*) it terminates?

He left a son of a singular character, *and* (omit *and*) who behaved so ill that he was put *in* (*into*) prison.

**21. Anomalous Use of *That*.**—The following sentences exemplify a use of *that* to which grammatical authorities object.

It will greatly facilitate the labors of the teacher at the same time *that* it will relieve the pupil of many difficulties. (Substitute *while* or *and* for *at the same time that*.)

This is one reason *that* (*why*) we pass over *such smooth language* (*language so smooth*), without suspecting that it contains little or no meaning.

The verb must also be of the same person *that* (*as*) the nominative *is* (omit *is*).

The brazen age began at the death of Trajan, and lasted till the time *that* (*when*) Rome was taken by the Goths (or substitute *until* for *till the time that*).

**22. Corresponsives.**—Certain conjunctions, adverbs, and relative pronouns are used in pairs. Care should therefore be exercised that such pairs are authorized corresponsives. The following are most of the pairs in common use, with illustrative sentences:

1. As . . . as.

He was *as* true *as* steel.

2. As . . . so.

*As* a tree falls *so* it must lie.

3. As well . . . as.

One might *as well* go to prison *as* to run an elevator.

4. Both . . . and.

*Both* the wise *and* the unwise received benefit.

5. Either . . . or.

He is *either* guilty *or* innocent.

6. Neither . . . nor.

They do *neither* sigh *nor* sing.

7. Not only } . . . { but, but also,  
Not merely } . . . { but even.

In heroic times smuggling and piracy were deemed *not only not infamous, but* (or *but even*) honorable.

These are questions *not* of prudence *merely, but* of morals *also*.

8. So . . . as.

He should not have been *so* careless *as* to leave the door unlocked.  
No one believed that he would be *so* weak *as* to yield.

9. So . . . that.

*So* live *that* when thy summons comes etc.

10. Such . . . as.

May her future be *such as* I would have it.

11. Such . . . that. In this construction, *that* introduces a clause expressing a consequence.

*Such* was the strength of the current *that* we were carried into the rapids.

The weather was *such that* we all suffered.

12. Though, or although, . . . yet.

*Though* he deceived me, *yet* I will trust him.

Either the former or the latter of this pair may be omitted.

*Though* I was not a stranger to books, I had no acquaintance with men. (I was not a stranger to books, *yet* I had no acquaintance with men.)

13. Whether . . . or.

*Whether* he *come* or not, we shall set out.

*Whether* he *is* right or wrong, I care not.

The following quotations exemplify errors either in the choice or in the position of corresponsives. Corrections are in parentheses.

A neuter verb expresses *neither* action or (*nor*) passion.

The author is apprehensive that his work is not *as* (*so*) accurate and *as* (*so*) much simplified *as* it *may* (*might* or *should*) be.

There is no language *so* poor *but* it has (*as not to have*) two or three past tenses.

*Not only* his estate, his reputation *too* (*but also his reputation*), has suffered by his misconduct.

That would be a matter of *such* nicety as (*that*) no degree of human wisdom could regulate (*it*).

Definiteness was required to *that* degree as to give (*such a degree as*) proper names to rivers.

A teacher is confined, not more than a merchant, and probably not as (*so*) much.

**23. Improper Ellipses After Conjunctions.**—When correspondives are used, the verb or the phrase that precedes the first of them applies also to the second; but no word following the first correspondive can be understood after the second.

Tones are different both *from* emphasis and (*from*) pauses.

Though both *the* intention and (*the*) purchase are now past, the debt must be paid.

Whether of *a* public or (*a*) private nature, the same rule holds.

The subject afforded a variety of scenes, both of *the* awful and (*of the*) tender kind.

Restlessness of mind disqualifies us both *for* the enjoyment of peace and (*for*) the performance of duty.

He sendeth rain both *on* the just and (*on the*) unjust.

**24. *Nor* or *Or* After *No* or *Not*.**—*Nor* or *or* used after *no* or *not* should be carefully discriminated. If the alternatives are regarded as two names for the same thing, *or* should separate them; but if the alternatives are to be sharply distinguished, *nor* should be used. The following are illustrations:

The object we see is *not* human *nor* brute.

*No* person, living *nor* dead, ever saw the like.

*No* manager *or* superintendent was in the place.

I have *no* will *or* disposition for the enterprise.

We had *no* guide *or* leader.

In the last three examples the pairs of nouns separated by *or* are in each case different names of the same thing. The construction with *nor* is the more emphatic, but less so than that with *neither . . . nor*.

They are *neither* man *nor* woman,

They are *neither* brute *nor* human,

They are ghouls.

### THE PREPOSITION

**25. The Right Preposition.**—It is sometimes not easy to find a preposition that will denote exactly the relation intended. The following sentences exemplify some of the common errors in the choice of prepositions. Corrections are in parentheses.

But to rise *beyond* (*above*) that, and overtop the crowd, is given to few.

This also is a good sentence, and gives occasion *to* (*for*) no remark. Independently *on* (*of*) the rest of the sentence.

How different *to* this (*from* this) is the life of Fulvia.

In this period, language and taste arrive *to* (*at*) purity.

You should aspire *at* (*after*) distinction in the republic of letters.

His abhorrence *to* (*of*) the superstitions of the age.

**26. The Omission of Prepositions.**—It is a general rule that prepositions should not be omitted except in such cases as have been fully established by long usage, as, for instance, before an indirect object or before certain infinitive constructions. In the following quotations, prepositions should be supplied.

Ridicule is banished France (*from* France), and is losing ground *in* England.

I passed it as a thing unworthy my notice (*of* my notice).

You may think this worthy your attention (*worthy of*).

It was covered *with* trees *of* twelve inches diameter, and *round* the base was an excavation *of* five feet depth and width (trees twelve inches *in* diameter . . . excavation five feet *in* depth and *in* width).

I was prevented reading the letter (insert *from* after *prevented*).

What use can these words be until their meaning is known? (*Of* what use etc.)

The army must of necessity be the school, not *of* honor, but (*of*) effeminacy

**27. Needless Prepositions.**—Care should be exercised not to insert needless prepositions; especially, should they not be put before the object of a transitive verb. The following are some examples illustrating this fault:

It is to you *to whom* I am indebted for this favor. (I am indebted to you for this favor.)

His servants ye are *to* whom ye obey (omit *to*).

*At* about the same time the subjugation of the Moors was completed (omit *at*).

That a man should afflict his soul for a day and *to bow down* his head like a bulrush (for *to bow down* substitute *should bow*).

In this respect Tasso yields to no poet except *to* Homer (omit *to* before *Homer*).

**28. Two Prepositions With the Same Object.**—When two different prepositions have the same object, the object should be placed after the first preposition, and some noun or pronoun representing the object should usually follow the second. The following sentences illustrate this rule of composition:

She quarreled *with*, and soon afterwards was divorced *from*, her husband. (She quarreled *with* her husband and was soon afterwards divorced *from* him.)

The army advanced *against*, and was victorious *over*, the enemy in a bloody engagement. (The army advanced *against* the enemy and *in* a bloody engagement *with* them was victorious.)

This construction is less objectionable when the prepositions are close together.

We expect to live *in* or *near* the city.

His entire life was passed *on* or *near* the ocean.

However, even in such sentences, it is better that each preposition should have its own object.

We expect to live *in* the city or *near* it.

His entire life was passed *on* the ocean or *near* it.

**29. Between and Among.**—These two prepositions are often confounded. The former should refer to *two* persons or things, the latter to *more than two*.

The relations *among* (not *between*) the members of the family were at all times pleasant.

There has never been the slightest trouble *between* (not *among*) the twins.

There were just thirty palings *between* every post (*between* each pair of adjacent posts).

*Between* every sentence of his story he uttered a groan (*With* every sentence).

It should be stated that there is some authority for interchanging *between* and *among*. This usage is not good, however, and should be avoided.

**30. *In* and *Into*.**—The preposition *into* is used with words denoting motion real or ideal; *in* is used with words denoting rest.

He went *into* (not *in*) the house; he is *in* the house now.  
We looked *into* the matter with great care.

When *in* is used with verbs of motion, the motion must be within something regarded as enclosing the motion.

The children run and romp *in* the attic.  
The man drove a team *in* New York.  
The farmer drove his team *into* the city.

**31. Prepositions With Certain Words.**—Good usage requires that certain words shall be followed by special prepositions. The choice is usually determined by the meaning of the prefix of the word, but often by the meaning of the entire word. The following is a partial list of such words and their appropriate prepositions:

abhorrence *for* a person or thing that one hates  
abhorrence *of* something that one dreads; as, snakes, spiders  
absolve *from* a promise  
abstract *of* a document—an outline of its contents  
abstract money *from* a cash drawer  
accomplish *by* diligence, *with* difficulty, *under* hard conditions  
accord *with* another's opinion; two or more persons accord *in* an opinion  
accord *to* others their rights or privileges  
acquire *by* labor, *with* difficulty  
acquit *of* a charge (not *from*, as formerly)  
adapted *to*—fitted or adjusted to intentionally  
adapted *for* by nature, *for* grazing, *for* food  
affinity *between* friends or ideas (Carbon has an affinity *for* oxygen.  
My marriage brought me into affinity *with* my wife's relatives.)  
agree *with* a person, *to* a proposal or a stipulation  
averse *from* or *to* (Great minds are averse *from* criticizing others. He is averse *to* study.)  
bestow *upon* or *on*, to bestow affection *on* (or *upon*) one's children  
betray a secret *to* a person, a person *into* a snare or *to* his enemies



bind *by* a contract, *with* a rope, *in* chains, *under* a penalty; bind the hands *to* the sides, *behind* the back, etc.  
 change cars *for* New York; change seats *with* some one; *in* conduct, *of* circumstances  
 choice *between* two, *among* several, *for* president  
 complain *against* one, *for* trespass, *to* the authorities, *of* a nuisance, *about*, *concerning*, *regarding* misconduct  
 comply *with* rules  
 confer a favor *on* or *upon* some one; *with* some one *about*, *concerning*, *regarding* a matter  
 conference *between* two persons or groups of persons; *of* one or several *with* others *about*, *concerning*, *regarding* something  
 confide *in* a person's honesty; something *to* a person's care  
 confident *of* her charm, *in* the correctness of an opinion  
 confirm *in* an opinion, *by* argument  
 convenient *to* a place, *for* a purpose  
 conversant *with* a subject (*in* was formerly used after *conversant*)  
 correspond *with* a person, *to* or *with* a thing  
 dependent *on* or *upon* a person's good faith (but independent *of*)  
 derogatory *to* a person's character or reputation; but derogation *from* the inspiration of the Bible  
 die *of* fever, *by* violence, *for* one's country, *to* the world  
 differ *from* or *with* a person in opinion, *from* a person or a thing  
 different *in* some respect *from* what was thought  
 disappointed *in* love, *at* failure, *of* something hoped for  
 dissent *from* an opinion or a statement  
 exception *to* a remark, *from* a rule  
 fall *into* confusion, *under* suspicion, *from* grace, *upon* an enemy

The foregoing examples are sufficient to show that great care in the choice of prepositions is of the highest importance. When in doubt on this subject, consult a good dictionary.

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### THE CHOOSING OF WORDS

**32. Synonyms.**—It has been said that no two words in our language are so closely allied in meaning that they can be used interchangeably. The statement is not strictly correct. It would be difficult, for instance, to use the word *begin* where *commence* could not be substituted for it without changing the sense. The only difference between the two words is that *begin* is from the Anglo-Saxon and *commence* is from the Latin through the French.

The fact is, however, that between most pairs of synonyms there are fine shades and distinctions of meaning that in some cases are extremely difficult of explanation. A knowledge of the origin of the words we use in speaking and writing—their roots and the primitive meaning of those roots—is indispensable, if we are never to use them incorrectly. It is not meant by this that in order to write correct classical English we must be familiar with Greek, Latin, French, Anglo-Saxon, and the many other languages from which the words of our tongue have come. Every good unabridged English dictionary gives the derivation of words and the meaning of the roots, together with the present sense of words and the distinction in meaning of synonymous terms. In every case of doubt with regard to a word, a writer should either not use the word or he should look it up in a good dictionary. A certain writer on the subject of rhetoric says that no one has the right to use a word unless he can use it rightly.

The following are given as examples of words that are commonly misused:

1. *Abbreviate, Abridge, Contract.*—A word or a phrase may be abbreviated or contracted; a sentence, a paragraph, a sermon, a document of any kind, a book, may be *abridged*. An *abbreviation* is a shortened form of a word; a *contraction* of a word is made by omitting intermediate letters. Thus, *Co.* is the abbreviation for *company*; *acc't* is the contraction for *account*. All contractions are abbreviations, but not all abbreviations are contractions.

2. *Ability, Capacity.*—Physical or mental power, especially the power to plan and execute, is *ability*. *Capacity* is power to receive. A mind or a cask has *capacity*, from Latin *capax*, roomy, spacious. Sentences like the following, though very common, are not strictly correct:

He has a great *capacity* (*faculty*) for mimicry and story-telling.

The following is a correct use of *capacity*:

He has a great *capacity* for dates, scientific names, and mathematics.

3. *Accept, Except.*—These two words are frequently confounded. The former term means to take willingly when offered; as, to *accept* a favor, or an office. *Except*, as a verb, means to leave out or exclude.

He is forbidden to *except* (*accept*) presents.

The word *except* means also to object, and in this sense it is followed by *to*; as,

Do you *except* to my statement? Do you *take exception* to my decision?

4. *Access, Accession.*—The former of these words means admission or entrance, from Latin *ad*, to, and *cedo*, go. The latter means increase or attainment. The following sentences exemplify correct uses of these words:

The Amazon affords easy *access* to the heart of Brazil.

A great *accession* of new members brought prosperity to the society.

On the *accession* of the young German emperor, the greatest statesman and diplomat of Europe received his dismissal.

It is not easy to gain *access* to the czar of Russia.

5. *Acts, Action.*—These two words should be carefully distinguished from each other. In speaking of things considered as done or finished, *acts* is the correct word to use; but if the process or manner of doing is to be indicated, *actions* should be used.

We watched his *actions* for a long time and were much puzzled.

Men are judged by their *acts* rather than by their words.

6. *Adhesion, Adherence.*—These two words are rarely interchangeable. *Adhesion* is usually and preferably employed when physical *sticking to* is meant, and *adherence* when ideal attachment is to be denoted.

The loyal *adherence* of those states to the Union was a great disappointment to the Confederate leaders.

The *adhesion* of wax to wood is sometimes very strong.

The word *adhesion* is sometimes used with the meaning of *consent*.

Germany has given her *adhesion* to the treaty.

7. *Advance, Advancement.*—We speak of the *advance* of prices or wages, the *advance* of an enemy, his *advance* in learning; *advancement* is usually employed in the sense of promotion or furtherance.

His *advancement* brought with it a welcome *advance* in salary.

8. *Aggravate, Irritate.*—The word *aggravate* is frequently used instead of *irritate*. *Aggravate* comes from Latin *ad*, to, and *gravis*, heavy; *to aggravate* is therefore to make more serious, to intensify; *irritate* means to cause annoyance or fretting, from Latin *irrito*, to excite.

The prattle of children *irritates* the sick.

Sickness greatly *aggravates* the ills of poverty.

The nettles *irritated* the hands and feet of the children.

9. *Alleviate, Relieve.*—To lighten a burden for some one is to *alleviate* it. We may *alleviate* pain or sorrow or other form of suffering, and thus *relieve* the sufferer. The word *alleviate* is etymologically the opposite or antonym of *aggravate*; it is derived from *ad*, to, and *levis*, light.

10. *Allude, Mention.*—These expressions are by many persons wrongly used interchangeably. The literal meaning of *allude* is to treat lightly, merely to hint at; *mention* is a stronger term and means specific naming.

The speaker *alluded* to the remissness of certain officials, and though he *mentioned* no names, every one knew to whom he referred.

11. *Appreciate.*—The exact meaning of this word is to be fully aware of the value or importance of something. It is derived from *ad*, to, and *pretium*, price.

I *appreciate* your *gift*, your kind *words*, and *what you have done*.

English and American writers are greatly *appreciated* in Russia.

The word has recently come into use as an intransitive verb with a meaning exactly opposite to that of *depreciate*.

Since the war, the price of all kinds of goods has *appreciated*.

12. *Argument, Plea.*—The use of *plea* for *argument* is common, but careful writers distinguish between the two words. The following sentences are correct:

The defendant's *plea* was that he was starving when he took the bread.

The defendant's *plea* was more effective with the jury than the lawyer's *argument*.

The boy made a touching *plea* for forgiveness.

13. *Avocation, Vocation*.—These words are frequently used as synonymous but they are not so. The latter denotes a *calling* (Latin, *vocatio*, a calling), an *occupation*; the former means a *calling from* or *away* (Latin, *a*, from), a diverting the attention, diversion. *Vocation* strictly means the main calling or business of life; *avocation* means a diversion from one's business—music, society, the theater, etc.

14. *Balance, Rest, Remainder*.—Richard Grant White says: "*Balance* in the sense of *rest, remainder, residue, remnant* is an abomination." *Balance* is correctly used to denote the difference between the credit and debit sides of an account; but we should not employ the word as in the following sentences:

With a *portion (part)* of his inheritance he purchased an estate; the *balance (rest, remainder)* he invested in bonds.

The *balance (remainder)* of the session was wasted in idle debate.

15. *Cause, Reason*.—These two terms are loosely used interchangeably. The *cause* of any event, act, or fact is the power or agency that makes it to be; the *reason of* or *for* it is the explanation formulated by the human mind. In sentences like the following, the second clause is called the *reason*:

Cæsar deserved death *because he was a tyrant*.

We are sure that the earth is round, *for it has been circumnavigated*.

The following sentences exemplify correct uses of the two words:

Bacteria are the *cause* of most zymotic diseases.

The *cause* of his return was an urgent letter from his father.

The teacher's *reason* for punishing the boy was that he had disobeyed her.

16. *Contemptible, Contemptuous*.—The former of these words means *deserving contempt*; the latter, *showing or expressing contempt or disdain*.

The fellow behaved in a *contemptible* manner.

A *contemptuous* sneer added to the repulsiveness of his face.

17. *Consciousness, Conscience*.—The state of being aware of the existence of some object, action, or sensation is *consciousness*; the power or faculty by which we distinguish between right and wrong conduct is *conscience*.

The divinity that is said to have whispered approval or disapproval into the ear of Socrates, when he was about to perform any act, was only his *conscience*.

The meaning of the word *consciousness* is best understood by remembering that its exact opposite is usually *unconsciousness*.

18. *Convince, Convict*.—A person is *convinced* by evidence or argument addressed to the intellect; he is *convicted* of sin or guilt by argument addressed both to the intellect and the conscience. *Convict* means also to find guilty.

In order to persuade a man of sense, you must first *convince* him.

If any man says that he understands women, he is *convicted* of folly by his own speech, seeing that they are altogether incomprehensible.

Before a man can be *convicted* of sin he must be *convinced* that he is a sinner.

After a long trial the accused was *convicted* of the crime.

19. *Credible, Creditable*.—The word *credible* means capable of being believed as neither impossible nor absurd; *creditable* was formerly used in the same sense, but its present meaning is, deserving or worthy of credit, praiseworthy.

His story was entirely *credible* and we all believed it.

No one would regard such an act as honorable or even *creditable*.

20. *Difficulty, Obstacle, Obstruction, Impediment, Encumbrance*.—A *difficulty* may be a physical or a mental hindrance, or both; an *obstacle* stands in the way; an *obstruction* is an obstacle purposely placed in the way; an *impediment* entangles the feet (Latin *in + pedes*, feet), or hinders physical action; an *encumbrance* burdens, as a load.

To a marching soldier the steepness of his road is a *difficulty*; trees lying in the road are *obstacles*; if placed there by the enemy, they are *obstructions*; his baggage is an *encumbrance*; mud, briers, or dense undergrowth in his way are *impediments*.

We surmount or overcome *difficulties*, remove or avoid *obstacles* and *obstructions*, get rid of or throw off *encumbrances* and *impediments*.

21. *Dismissal, Dismission.*—The former of these words is the correct term when discharge from place or office is meant; it is used also with the meaning of liberty or permission to go away. The term *dismission* is sometimes used in the first sense given above, but for this use *dismissal* is to be preferred. The act of permitting or ordering to depart is better expressed by *dismission*. The following sentences are correct:

The investigation resulted in his summary *dismissal* from his place.  
He was kept a long time impatiently awaiting his *dismissal*.  
After *dismission*, the members remained to elect deacons.

22. *Disposal, Disposition.*—These terms may sometimes be used interchangeably, but they should be carefully discriminated. *Disposal* should be used when the meaning, power of control, is required; *disposition*, when arrangement is meant.

What *disposition* of the troops was made by the general?  
My time is entirely at your *disposal*.  
There is more in the *disposition* of shrubbery than in its varieties.  
The *disposal* of his wealth by his will was for the benefit of orphan children.

23. *Egoism, Egotism.*—*Egoism* is a word recently introduced into ethical writings. On account of its close resemblance to *egotism* it is often mistaken for that word; yet the meanings of the two terms are widely different. *Egoism* is the exact opposite of *altruism*; it is the name of the theory that man's chief good and the supreme end of each man's effort should be his own happiness; it denotes absolute, uncompromising selfishness. *Egotism* is self-conceit, self-exaltation.

The loud, loquacious, vulgar *egotist*;  
Whose *I's* and *me's* are scattered in his talk  
Thick as the pebbles on a gravel walk.

To say that each individual shall reap the benefits brought to him by his own powers is to enunciate *egoism* as an ultimate principle of conduct.

24. *Elemental, Elementary.*—The second of these words is much used in the sense of *rudimentary*.

elementary education, algebra, grammar, principles

*Elemental* is sometimes used with the same meaning, but more properly in the sense of fundamental, essential.

the elemental constitution of matter, the elemental principles of conduct, the elemental laws of nature, the elemental forces

The word *elemental* is frequently used in the sense of pertaining to an element or the elements.

elemental action, affinities, valences

25. *Estimate, Estimation*.—An *estimate* is a rough valuation placed on a thing.

an *estimate* of the capacity of a bin, the amount of a man's wealth, the speed of a train

*Estimation* denotes the act of fixing an approximate value and sometimes the conclusion arrived at. When the regard in which one is held by others is meant, *esteem* is a better word than *estimation*.

The man was held in high *estimation* (*esteem*) by his neighbors.  
The *estimation* was difficult and the *estimate* was low.

26. *Feminine, Female, Masculine, Male*.—*Feminine* and *masculine* are grammatical terms and should not be used instead of *female* and *male*. We say that a noun or a pronoun is of the *feminine* or the *masculine* gender; that a woman or a man is of the *female* or the *male* sex. The following sentences are therefore erroneous:

A charming young person of the *feminine gender* gave us a hearty welcome. (A charming young *lady* gave us a hearty welcome.)

His conduct was a disgrace to the *masculine sex* (*to his sex*).

27. *Insuperable, Insurmountable*.—We may use either of these words to modify *objections, difficulties, dislike*, and many other terms denoting ideal obstacles; but with words denoting physical barriers, *insurmountable* is the word.

An *insuperable* craving for drink led to his ruin.

A range of *insurmountable* hills and mountains barred the advance of the army.

28. *Invention, Discovery*.—Although these two words may sometimes be used interchangeably, they require to be



carefully discriminated. *Invention* implies fabrication—the making of something; *discovery* is the bringing to light of something previously hidden.

The *invention* of the cotton-gin did much to fasten slavery on the South.

The *discovery* of America by Columbus was made more than four centuries ago.

The *discovery* of gunpowder is attributed to the Chinese.

the *invention* of printing; the *discovery* of the laws of gravitation, of the planet Neptune; the *invention* of the mariner's compass, of the steam engine

29. *Likely, Liable*.—*Likely* refers to a contingency regarded as probable; *liable*, to a contingency regarded as unfavorable.

You are *liable* to arrest for speeding your bicycle, and if arrested, are *likely* to be fined.

The ship was *liable* to sink at any moment.

In such cases the defendant is *liable for* damages.

Ladies passing along that street are *liable to* insult.

We are *likely* to have a severe winter.

30. *Limits, Limitations*.—The usual application of *limits* is to physical things, and of *limitations*, to ideal things. Thus, we speak of:

the *limits* of a prison, the *limits* of an estate, the *limitations* of the franchise, the *limitations* of hotel life, of poverty

An executive upon whom no *limitations* are imposed soon becomes a tyrant.

Upon the happiness of a young married couple, the *limitations* in a boarding-house are onerous.

In a country like ours, a policeman should understand the *limitations* upon his powers and duties.

31. *Neglect, Negligence*.—The distinction between these words is that *neglect* refers to acts, while *negligence* applies to character. *Negligence* is a habitual failure to do that which ought to be done; *neglect* is the failure to do some particular thing that should be done.

The accident was owing to the engineer's *neglect* of the signals.

Everything about the mansion bore the marks of *neglect*.

The janitor was dismissed for *negligence*.

The trouble with this young man is incurable *negligence*.

32. *No, Nothing.*—These words are sometimes preceded by *almost, nearly, about*; the result is a contradiction of terms.

One can have *no* money, *no* resources, *nothing*; but it is not easy to comprehend how one can have *almost no* money, *nearly nothing* to eat. (See Art. 14.)

The expressions are very similar to *quite some, quite a few, quite a little*.

33. *Number, Quantity.*—*Number* has reference to *how many*; *quantity* to *how much*.

Great *quantities* (*numbers*) of bison used to roam over the prairies of the West.

Russia despatched great *quantities* of troops to the far East (*great numbers*).

The Colosseum of Rome was capable of seating the prodigious *quantity* (*number*) of 87,000 spectators.

34. *Part, Portion.*—A *portion* is a *part* viewed with reference to some one for whom it is intended, or with reference to some specific purpose to which it is to be applied; a *part* is an amount less than the whole of something, either separated from the whole or thought of or mentioned as separate from it.

Having received his *portion* of the land, he sold *part* of it and farmed the rest.

The crew divided into five *portions* the food and water that remained.

35. *Person, People, Party.*—The use of *party* in the sense of *person, individual*, is inexcusably vulgar. We may speak of a *political party, an evening party, a fishing party, a party to a sale or to a lawsuit*, but not, *The party with whom I was seen was my uncle*. A *person* is an individual, a *people* is a community. The word *people* is correctly used for *persons* collectively, and when so used in the nominative case, it takes a plural verb.

Many *people* are unaware of the fact that the earth **is** round (*persons*).

A great crowd of *people* was at Coney Island yesterday.

In the first sentence the *persons* are not thought of as forming an assembly or a collection; in the second sentence, *people* is the better word.

*People* do not like to have their faults criticized.

36. *Plenty, Plentiful.*—*Plenty* is the state of having an abundance, particularly of comforts and necessities; *plentiful* means existing in great quantities.

Cherries and other small fruits will be *plenty* (*plentiful*) this season.

Our people have been living in peace and *plenty*.

The more *plenty* (*plentiful*) paper money becomes, the more likely are people to incur debt.

Persons that believe such nonsense are *plenty* (*plentiful*, or better, *numerous*).

37. *Preference, Preferment.*—*Preferment* is promotion or advancement to higher rank; *preference* is the choosing of one thing rather than another, or it is the state of being estimated more highly than something else.

The better your mental, moral, and physical equipment, the more likely you are to gain *preference* (*preferment*).

There is in this establishment no *preference* for anybody unless he earns *preference* (in both cases say *preferment*).

I have no *preference*; the one is as good as the other.

38. *Proposal, Proposition.*—The word *proposition* has recently come into a vulgar or colloquial use with the meaning of a business undertaking or an institution or enterprise of any kind. The word should not be so used.

A *proposition* is submitted for consideration, a *proposal* for acceptance or rejection.

a *proposal* of marriage, a *proposition* in geometry, a *proposal* of terms of sale or purchase, a *proposition* for the surrender of a fort

Have you heard of the enormous success of our *proposition* (meaning, our *business undertaking*)?

Our *proposition* is a mail-order business. (We are conducting a mail-order business.)

39. *Recourse, Resource, Resort.*—*Recourse* is a *resort* to something or somebody for help; *resource* is that which is resorted to, relied upon, or available for help. The plural

*resources* signifies also the total of one's available funds or property—the opposite of *liabilities*.

When the young man became involved, his *recourse* was to gambling.

There was no other *resource* in his trouble than to have *recourse* to the courts.

Most millionaires have won their millions by getting about them strong subordinates—men of *resources*.

Saratoga is a delightful summer *resort*.

*Resort* to war (or *recourse* to war) is rapidly coming into disfavor.

40. *Relatives, Relations*.—These terms were formerly applied to persons connected by blood or marriage. At the present time the former term alone is so used.

The *relations* among the boarders were in every respect pleasant.

The *relatives* of persons great or wealthy are extremely prone to inform others of the *relationship*.

41. *Requirement, Requisite*.—The first of these words implies some one as making a demand; the second, that the need for something arises from the nature of things or from circumstances.

Health and strength, both mental and physical, are *requisites* to successful effort.

That a man shall have reached the age of twenty-one is a *requirement* for voting.

A *requisition* is a formal imperative demand in speech or writing.

A *requisition* for supplies was sent to the quartermaster.

Air and exercise are indispensable *requisites* to health.

Speed and safety are important *requisites* of travel.

A *requirement* of this church is that baptism shall precede actual membership.

The courses of study of the school systems of many of our large cities are full of absurd *requirements*.

42. *Reverse, Converse, Obverse*.—These words are frequently confounded. *Obverse* and *reverse* are used in speaking of coins and medals. The *obverse* is the side bearing the face or main device,—opposed to *reverse*, the less important side.

The *reverse* of a thing is the opposite or antithesis of that thing.

*plus* is the reverse of *minus*; *differentiation* is the reverse of *integration*; *involution* is the reverse of *evolution*

The *converse* is an opposite reciprocal proposition, formed by transposing the terms of a proposition so that subject becomes predicate and predicate, subject. Thus, the converse of the proposition, *Every equiangular triangle is equilateral*, is, *Every equilateral triangle is equiangular*.

43. *Same, Similar*.—The first of these words should be used when there is absolute identity; the second, when there is mere likeness.

He is the same man that called yesterday.

Your plans are similar to mine (not *the same as mine*).

44. *Sewage, Sewerage*.—*Sewage* is often used erroneously for *sewerage*. The former term means the waste matter carried off by sewers; the latter means systematic drainage by means of sewers.

No system of *sewerage* yet devised supplies an economical method of disposing of *sewage*.

45. *Speciality, Specialty*.—*Speciality* is the state or quality of being unique or peculiar; or it is a distinguishing characteristic or feature of some person or thing. A *specialty* is activity or production limited to one particular line of work; or it is an article of a peculiar kind, or one dealt in exclusively by one person or firm.

The *speciality* of Byron's writing is its passionateness.

A *speciality* of function, by calling forth a corresponding *speciality* of structure, produces an increasingly efficient discharge of that function.

The tea trade is our *specialty*.

No young man can hope to be entirely successful without making himself a perfect master of some industrial or professional *specialty*.

46. *Staying, Stopping*.—The verbs *stay* and *stop* in some of their meanings are frequently confounded. In the sense of having a temporary abode, to be a guest, *stopping* is the correct word; *staying*, used in this sense, is colloquial. It is

colloquial also to speak of the *staying* power of a swimmer, a pugilist, or a horse.

While visiting the Pan-American Exhibition we *stopped* (not *stayed*) at the Iroquois Hotel.

Prince Henry *stayed* (not *stopped*) in the country for several weeks.

The wind and *staying* power of the horse enabled him to win the race (*wind and endurance or stamina*).

47. *Visitor, Visitant*.—The distinction between these words is that *visitor* applies only to persons, while *visitant* is a poetical word applying to both persons and things.

Pleasure is oft a *visitant* only, while pain clings cruelly to us.

Our *visitors* were much interested in Biela's comet, that strange celestial *visitant*.

**33. Propriety in the Use of Words.**—From the foregoing discussion of synonyms, it is obvious that perfectly good English words may be so employed as to convey either no sense at all or a wrong sense. In good writing, every word and phrase must be used in the sense that etymology or established usage requires. Propriety and precision in the use of words can be acquired in no other way so well as by much exercise in speaking and writing, in conjunction with the study of good writers. A good dictionary, together with works on synonyms, grammar, and rhetoric, should be at hand for daily use. Correctness and clearness of style depend more on the author's success in discriminating the fine shades of meaning among words than on anything else.

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#### MISCELLANEOUS

**34. Place of the Adverb.**—The place of adverbs with respect to verbs and verb phrases depends on several circumstances.

1. *Intransitive Verbs*.—(a) The adverb follows an intransitive verb that consists of one word.

He skates *gracefully*.

Speak *distinctly*.

(b) Some adverbs of time and of place may either precede or follow the verb, but the general rule is that the adverb comes first.

*Here* he lies.

*There* they come.

He *soon* returned.

They *soon* sickened and *finally* died.

(c) In the case of intransitive verb phrases of two or more words, the usual place of the adverb is after the verb.

You have done *well*; no one could have done *better*.

She might have been sleeping *sweetly* if you had not entered *so noisily*.

He has been skating *gracefully*.

(d) Certain adverbs of time and of degree may follow the first auxiliary in intransitive verb phrases. When two adverbs are joined to the same intransitive verb phrase, and one of them denotes time or place, it should follow the verb.

The patient will *probably* die *tomorrow*.

They will *certainly* return *soon*.

You have *seriously* blundered *here*.

You have *lately* been coming to your work *on time*.

He should *certainly* have gone *there earlier*.

2. *Transitive Verbs*.—Transitive verb phrases may be *active* or they may be *passive*.

(a) If a transitive verb phrase is *active*, the adverb follows the first auxiliary.

Courage has *always* commanded esteem.

You have *recklessly* squandered your patrimony.

One might *easily* have foretold the consequences.

(b) If a verb phrase is *passive*, the adverb should follow the last auxiliary.

The invading force had been *utterly* routed.

They should have been *severely* punished.

He had been *recently* promoted to the chief command.

(c) Verb phrases, whether active or passive, should not be broken by adverbial *phrases* or *clauses*.

He had been *with distinguished consideration* treated.

They had been *when we arrived* waiting more than an hour.

Such suspensions of the sense are extremely common in German, but the genius of the English language requires that they be avoided. It is scarcely necessary to say that the foregoing sentences should be written thus:

He had been treated with distinguished consideration.

When we arrived they had been waiting more than an hour.

(d) Certain adverbs of time, degree, and negation do not follow the last auxiliary in passive verb phrases.

If the engine had *not* been stopped *promptly*, he would *certainly* have been killed.

The man had *never* been *implicitly* trusted by the officials of the bank.

**35. Adverbs of Time and of Manner With the Same Verb.**—When two adverbs, one denoting time and the other manner, are used with the same verb, the adverb of time precedes the adverb of manner.

We were *often hospitably* entertained at the old mansion.

The girl had *always* been *perfectly* satisfied with her lot.

Similarly, adverbs of *time* should precede adverbs of *place*.

The governor has *frequently* been seen *there* with his bodyguard.

**36. Misplacement of Relative Clauses.**—A frequent cause of ambiguity in sentences is a wrong position of relative clauses. The general rule is to place the relative pronoun that introduces such clauses as near as possible to its antecedent. Some illustrations follow showing the uncertainty of meaning that is caused by misplaced relative clauses.

It is folly to pretend to arm ourselves against the accidents of life by heaping up *treasures*, *which* nothing can protect us against but the good providence of God.

The antecedent of *which* is *accidents*, but from the arrangement the antecedent seems to be *treasures*.

It is folly to pretend by heaping up treasure to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, for nothing can protect us from them but the good providence of God.

He must endure the follies of others, *who* will have their kindness.



Life with him has ended in a sad mistake, *which* began with such bright prospects.

Mr. Greeley denied that he had ever used profane language in an interview *which* a certain newspaper reporter had put into *his* mouth.

Did you take that book to the library, *which* I *loaned* to you?

All the foregoing sentences should be reconstructed, thus:

He that would have the kindness of others must endure their follies.

Life, which for him began with such bright prospects, has ended in a sad mistake.

Mr. Greeley denied that he had in an interview used the profane language put into his mouth by a certain newspaper reporter.

Did you take to the library the book that I *lent* you?

**37. The Unity of Sentences.**—However many modifying words, phrases, and clauses may enter a sentence, it ought to contain only one main assertion—the backbone of the sentence—to which everything else is contributory. This subordination of function among sentential modifiers is essential to sentence unity—is indispensable to perspicuity and precision. The following are the principal rules for preserving unity in sentences:

**Rule I.**—*Do not change the nominative or the construction within the limits of the same sentence.*

The following sentences illustrate violations of this rule:

A short time after this injury *he* came to himself, and the next day *they* put him on board a ship *which* conveyed him first to Corinth and thence to the island of *Ægina*.

In this sentence *he* should not be displaced by *they* or *which*.

A short time after this *he* came to himself, and the next day *he* was put on board a ship and conveyed to etc.

After *we* came to anchor, *they* put me on shore where *I* was welcomed by all my friends *who* received me with the greatest kindness. *Better*, Our ship having come to anchor, I was put on shore, where I was welcomed by all my friends and was received with the greatest kindness.

The following is a paraphrase of one of Macaulay's sentences selected from his description of Burke's oration at

the trial of Warren Hastings. The paraphrase was made by one of our writers on rhetoric.

The highly raised *expectation* of the audience was more than satisfied with the exuberance of his thought and the splendor of his diction, while the *character* and *institutions* of the natives of India were described by him; the *circumstances* in which the Asiatic empire of Britain had originated were recounted; and the *constitution* of the Company and of the English Presidencies was set forth.

Four different subjects are here used. Notice what Macaulay accomplishes with *one* subject.

With an exuberance of thought and a splendor of diction which more than satisfied the highly raised expectations of the audience, *he* described the character and institutions of the natives of India; recounted the circumstances in which the Asiatic Empire of Britain had originated; and set forth the constitution of the Company and of the Presidencies.

**Rule II.**—*Use parentheses either not at all or as rarely as possible.*

The unity of a sentence is always seriously marred by the introduction of parenthetical matter. If parentheses are unavoidable, they should be as brief as possible and correctly placed. Never put one parenthesis within another. It rarely happens that the matter of a parenthesis cannot be made a part of the sentence in which it occurs. The following will illustrate:

Never delay till tomorrow [for tomorrow is not yours; and though you should live to enjoy it (and remember how uncertain this is), you must not overload it with a burden not its own] what reason and conscience tell you ought to be performed today.

These parentheses may be avoided thus:

Never delay till tomorrow what reason and conscience tell you ought to be performed today. Tomorrow is not yours; and though you should live to enjoy it, remember the uncertainty of life, and do not overload it in advance.

**Rule III.**—*Do not introduce too many modifying elements into the same sentence.*

One of the most difficult things in English composition is the proper disposition of modifiers—words, phrases, and

clauses. The difficulty rapidly increases with the increasing number of modifiers, and the most serious objection to having many qualifying circumstances added to the central thought in a sentence is that they destroy unity. Loose sentences filled with verbal odds and ends are usually harsh, awkward, and without force. The following is such a sentence:

Here it was found of absolute necessity to inflame or cool the passions of the audience, especially at Rome, where Tully spoke, and with whose writings young divines (I mean those among them who read old authors) are more conversant than with those of Demosthenes, who by many degrees excelled the other, at least as an orator.

The remedy here, as in all similar cases, is to break up and recast the sentence.

Here, and especially at Rome where Tully spoke, it was necessary to inflame or cool the passions of the audience. Young divines that read old authors were more conversant with the writings of that Roman than with those of Demosthenes, who, as an orator at least, was greatly superior to Tully.

Herbert Spencer quotes from Doctor Whately the following as a sentence having so many modifying elements that they are extremely difficult to dispose of properly:

We came to our journey's end, at last, with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads, and bad weather.

Mr. Spencer suggests the following as the best possible arrangement:

At last, with no small difficulty, and after much fatigue, we came, through deep roads and bad weather, to our journey's end.

Doctor Whately's arrangement is:

At last, after much fatigue, through deep roads and bad weather, we came, with no small difficulty, to our journey's end.

Such sentences should always be broken up into two or more shorter sentences.

We came at last to our journey's end. Owing to deep roads and bad weather the journey had been one of no small difficulty and much fatigue.

**Rule IV.**—*Do not unite in one sentence parts that have no natural connection.*

Several distinct propositions that ought to form as many separate sentences are often joined in one sentence. The result in every such case is a sentence without unity, force, or harmony. The following quotation illustrates this extremely common fault:

Boast not thyself of tomorrow; thou knowest not what a day may bring forth; because of this it is that we cannot rely on it; and, for the same reason, despair not of tomorrow, for it may bring good as well as evil, which is a ground for not vexing thyself with imaginary fears; for the cloud may pass by harmless; or though it should discharge the storm, yet before it breaks thou mayst be lodged in that mansion which no storms ever touch.

This should be given in several sentences, thus:

Boast not thyself of tomorrow; thou knowest not and canst not rely on what a day may bring forth. Despair not of tomorrow, for it is just as likely to yield good as ill. Therefore, vex not thyself with imaginary fears. The cloud may pass; and though it should discharge the storm, yet before it breaks thou mayst be lodged in the mansion that no storms ever touch.

**Rule V.**—*Avoid clauses that are subordinate to other subordinate clauses.*

There is no objection whatever to a sentence that contains two or more subordinate clauses having dependence on the same element. The following are examples:

It was John Smith *who* saved the colony at Jamestown, *who* changed the hostility of the Indians into friendship, and *who* was as wise and just as he was fearless.

Here the three dependent clauses are introduced by relatives that have the same antecedent, *John Smith*. The following is a similar sentence:

In the spring, *when* the leaves appear and *when* the first flowers bloom, the earth is very beautiful.

If, however, a first subordinate clause has a second depending on it, a third depending on the second, and so on, we

have a construction that is condemned by the best authorities. The following are illustrations:

Cicero was opposed by a new and cruel affliction, the death of his beloved daughter Tullia; *which* happened soon after her divorce from Dollobella; *whose* manners and humors were entirely disagreeable to him. (Put a period after *Tullia* and change *which* to *This*.)

As we rode to town we met a man with a flock of geese, *who* was talking to a little girl in a pink sunbonnet, *who* was carrying a basket on her arm. *Better*, As we rode to town we met a man driving a flock of geese and talking to a little girl in a pink sunbonnet who carried a basket on her arm.

**Rule VI.**—*Avoid supplementary clauses.*

A clause added to a sentence after it has apparently ended is a *supplementary clause*.

There is to be a grand wedding next week to which we are all to be invited, *so I hear*.

I am entirely determined, under any circumstances, to make the journey, *unless it rains*.

For such sentences the remedy is to rearrange the parts.

*I hear* that there is to be a grand wedding etc.

Under any circumstances, except that it should rain, I am determined to make the journey.

**38. Periodic and Loose Sentences.**—A periodic sentence is one in which the sense is suspended until the close. The main point of the sense is not expressed until all the subsidiary elements have been presented. The most emphatic element comes at the end. A loose sentence is one to which additions are made at the end after the sense is complete. The following are loose sentences:

It is certain that some of our so-called Captains of Industry have been marvelously successful in accumulating wealth, whatever may be said of the morality of their methods.

He would still have had a moderate competence, if he had practiced a strict economy.

Gathering up lately a portion of what I had written, for publication, I have given it as careful a revision as my leisure would allow, have indeed in many parts rewritten it, seeking to profit by the results of the latest criticisms, as far as I have been able to acquaint myself with them.

The first two of the foregoing sentences may be made periodic by putting the last clause first in each sentence. The last sentence may be changed into two sentences, both periodic, thus:

Gathering up lately for publication a portion [*part*] of what I had written, I have given it as careful revision as my leisure would allow. Seeking to profit by the results of the latest criticisms as far as I have been able to acquaint myself with them, I have in many parts rewritten it.

### 39. Need for Both Loose and Periodic Sentences.

In a perfect style, loose sentences are just as necessary as periodic sentences. Composition consisting entirely of periodic sentences soon becomes stiff and monotonous, and is nearly as faulty as composition made up wholly of loose sentences. Most writers have too many loose sentences, the result usually of carelessness. Macaulay is remarkable for the rare judgment and skill with which he mingles these two constructions. In scientific treatises requiring exact specific statement, loose sentences should rarely occur, but in fiction, newspaper articles, and other light literature, they give a certain charm and piquancy.

**40. Balanced Sentences.**—A balanced sentence is composed of clauses of similar construction and contrasted meaning. Balanced sentences are rarely loose, though they are not necessarily periodic, for each of the contrasted clauses usually expresses a complete meaning. Dr. Johnson's writings abound in balanced sentences. The following are some examples:

The style of Dryden is capricious and varied, that of Pope is cautious and uniform. Dryden obeys the motions of his own mind, Pope constrains his mind to his own rules of composition. Dryden is sometimes vehement and rapid, Pope is always smooth, uniform, and level. Dryden's page is a natural field, rising into inequalities, and diversified by the varied exuberance of abundant vegetation; Pope's is a velvet lawn, shaven by the scythe, and leveled by the roller.

Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist; in the one, we most admire the man; in the other, the work. Homer hurries us with a commanding impetuosity; Virgil leads us with an attractive majesty. Homer scatters with a generous profusion; Virgil bestows with a careful magnificence.

In technical and scientific writings, the balanced sentence should not be employed. Its proper use is in satire and epigram, and especially in the delineation of character. Plutarch's "Lives" abounds in balanced sentences. In oratory and declamation this construction should be used sparingly; in narrative and description it looks like an attempt at "fine writing"; in elaborate and finished essays on ethics, religion, politics, and similar subjects, the balanced sentence is not only unobjectionable but ornamental.

**41. The Squinting Construction.**—If any element of a sentence is so placed as to look both ways, that is, if it may be as readily connected in meaning with what precedes as with what follows, the construction is said to be *squinting*. This construction is a source of frequent ambiguity, and although the meaning intended may usually be made out, the fault is none the less serious. In speech, ambiguity from misplaced words is usually prevented by the tones of the voice, but a writer has no such assistance. He should arrange the parts of his sentences in such a manner that his meaning cannot be misunderstood.

The following are some examples of the squinting construction:

Remember *always* to observe the golden rule.

Tell him *in the morning* to report at my office.

Are these designs which any man who is born a Briton, *in any circumstances*, ought to be ashamed to avow?

Ask him, *if he is in the building*, to consult with the superintendent.

In each of these sentences, the italicized modifiers may be understood as modifying either an element that precedes or one that follows. The remedy, of course, is to put the modifier where it belongs.

**42. Short and Long Sentences.**—It is a rule that unless two or more thoughts are closely related they should be expressed as distinct sentences. A succession of short sentences is easier to understand and is much more forcible than when they are fused into long sentences by means of connectives. Short sentences give animation to style, but if

there are too many of them, they produce a sense of monotony. No rule can be given for the ratio of long sentences to short sentences. The nature of the subject should have much to do with this matter. Short sentences usually predominate in oratory, and contribute much to its impressiveness. Extremely long sentences should be avoided entirely, for they are fatiguing and have little force. The distinguishing excellence of a good style is variety, and to secure this quality, sentences of every kind—periodic and loose, balanced and unbalanced, short and long—must be employed.

**43. *Who or Which Instead of That.***—Many authorities insist that *who* or *which* should not introduce restrictive clauses; that is, clauses that are mere modifiers. For such clauses, the proper relative is *that*. It should perhaps be explained that clauses are either *restrictive* or *coordinate*. Coordinate clauses are of equal rank. Any sentence consisting of two or more independent coordinate clauses is a *compound* sentence; and any sentence that contains only one independent clause and one or more restrictive or modifying clauses is a *complex* sentence. Some examples will make the distinction clear. The following sentences contain independent coordinate clauses:

Homer, *who* is said to have composed the Iliad, was blind.

The dog, *which* is a relative of the wolf, is man's faithful friend.

The clauses set off by commas are independent coordinate relative clauses, and the sentences are therefore compound. The relatives *who* and *which* are each equivalent to *and he*. The following sentences contain dependent restrictive clauses:

The house *that stood by the seashore* was burned yesterday.

The cave *that contained the robbers' treasure* was opened by Ali Baba.

In the first sentence the clause in Italics is a mere adjective modifier of *house*; similarly, the italicized clause in the second sentence is an adjective modifier of *cave*. Clauses so used are restrictive, and as a general rule they should



begin with the relative *that*. To this rule, however, there are some exceptions.

1. When the antecedent has a demonstrative adjective modifier, the restrictive clause should begin with *who* or *which*.

*This man who* asks for an interview is a foreigner.

*Those potatoes which* were dug yesterday are for sale.

*That train which* just swept by is the "Empire State Express."

*Yonder mountain which* you see in the distance is Pike's Peak.

In such sentences the antecedent is sufficiently definite.

2. When a relative clause is separated from its antecedent by intervening elements, it should begin with *who* or *which*.

The *debt* of lasting gratitude *which* I owe you for many favors can never be repaid.

A *gentleman* of the old school *who* was acquainted with Henry Clay resides in that house.

The *house* of seven gables *which* you built by the sea shore can be seen from this point.

Such sentences are likely to be ambiguous on account of the distance of the relative from its antecedent.

3. When a noun not the antecedent of the relative that introduces a clause is liable to be mistaken for the antecedent, use *who* or *which*.

That girl *petting* the dog, *who* looks so happy, is my niece.

The tree *loaded* with fruit, *which* shades the house, is a pear tree.

It is the demand of the buyer *which* regulates the supply of a commodity.

These sentences are objectionable on account of faulty arrangement. They would be better thus:

That girl *who* is *petting* the dog *and who* looks so happy is my niece.

The tree *that* shades the house and is *loaded* with fruit is a pear tree.

The supply of a commodity is regulated by the buyer's demand.

4. Use only *who* or *which* clauses after proper nouns.

Cæsar, *who* was both an orator and statesman, was also a great military leader.

Have you read the story of Socrates, *whom* the Athenians poisoned with hemlock?

He praised the city of Boston, *which* many persons believe to be the Athens of America.

5. To avoid a succession of words beginning with *th*, use *who* or *which* in preference to *that*.

I do not enjoy *those things which* (not *that*) must be obtained by unfair dealing (better still, *things that must* etc.).

*Those who* (not *that*) are never sure that they put upon paper what they mean to put upon paper etc.

We are not at liberty to reveal *that which* (not *that that*) was done. (Better, *what* was done.)

Have you read *that book which* (not *that*) lies on the table? (Better, *the book that* etc.)

There are many cases in which the question of preference as to relative pronouns must be determined by the ear rather than by rule. In general, it is better that restrictive clauses should be introduced by *that*; but when no ambiguity results from the use of *who* or *which* in such clauses, and when to use one of these relatives gives smoothness and harmony to a sentence, *who* or *which* should be preferred to *that*. As a general rule, however, it is better to use relatives as little as possible.

**44. Two *Thats* to Introduce a Clause.**—The error of using *that* twice to introduce a dependent clause is very common. The following are examples:

He promised *that* as soon as all his preparations were made *that* he would begin the advance movement.

The speaker asserted *that* if honesty is the best policy *that* the world is filled with persons that are practicing the worst policy.

The second *that* in both of these sentences should be omitted and a comma inserted.

**45. *Than Who* or *Than Whom*.**—There has been much disputing among grammarians concerning the use of *who* or *whom* after *than*. The weight of authority favors *than whom*, but the general opinion is that the construction is awkward and pedantic, although it is found in the writings of such masters of style as Milton, Pope, Byron, Landor, and Thackeray. The following are examples:

For a while, Clive thought himself in love with his cousin; *than whom* no more beautiful girl could be seen.

Which, when Beelzebub perceived, *than whom*, Satan except, none higher sat etc.

I refer to Washington, *than whom* no purer patriot has lived.

This antiquated construction should be avoided.

**46. *Who* or *Whom*.**—These two pronouns are frequently confounded, especially in interrogative sentences. In the following sentences the correct pronoun is in parentheses.

*Whom* (*who*) did you think he was?

*Who* (*whom*) did you think him to be?

*Who* (*whom*) did the convention nominate?

You could never guess *whom* (*who*) it was.

Do you know *who* (*whom*) that book belongs to? *Better*, Do you know *to whom* that book belongs?

**47. Subject and Predicate Reversed.**—When the subject of a sentence is placed after the verb, care is required in order to have the verb agree with its nominative. The following quotations exemplify errors due to the inversion of subject and predicate.

Textbooks, by which *is meant those* that form the basis of class instruction, represent the ideas of many men.

In this sentence *those* is the subject of *is meant*, a singular verb. We cannot, of course, say *those is meant*. Besides, the sentence is clumsy; for a definition is interjected between *textbooks*, the subject of the principal clause, and the verb *represent*. Better thus:

The textbooks that form the basis of class instruction represent the ideas of many men.

There *is* possibly several exceptions to this rule. *Better*, To this rule there are possibly several exceptions.

Our politicians, by whom *is* not to be understood our *statesmen*, are a menace to the safety of the republic.

Here *comes* (*come*) for trial the *persons* that were indicted yesterday.

There *is* (*are*) in the city a great many *persons* not entitled to vote.

In such cases it is often best to use a verb form that is the same whether the subject is singular or plural. Thus,

Our politicians, by whom *must* not be understood our *statesmen*, are a menace to the safety of the republic.

**48. Subject a Relative Pronoun.**—When the subject of a verb is a relative pronoun the verb must agree in number with the antecedent of the pronoun. This rule is very frequently violated.

This is *one* of the most valuable *books that has* appeared in the nineteenth century.

The antecedent of *that* is *books*, not *one*; the verb should therefore have the plural form, *have appeared*.

This is the epoch of one of the most singular *discoveries that has (have)* been made among men.

I resemble one of those *animals that has (have)* been forced from *its (their)* forest to gratify human curiosity.

**49. The Expression, *As Follows*.**—Ever since the subject of English grammar has engaged the attention of thinkers, there has been disputing as to the correctness of the expression *as follows* after a plural antecedent. The following are illustrations:

My reasons are *as follows*.

There are many grades of office, in order from highest to lowest, *as follows*.

Lindley Murray, whose celebrated grammar was published in 1795, confesses doubt as to whether *as follows* is correct or whether it should be *as follow*. He advises students to find some other expression. Gould Brown, a half century later, condemns *as follows*, and gives much space to a discussion of the subject. In his "Higher English Grammar," published in 1879, Professor Bain says: "The phrase *as follows*, applied to a plural antecedent, is now a settled usage. If *as* were a true relative pronoun, there would be a breach of concord; but we must consider the expression as now substantially adverbial like 'as regards,' or 'so far as concerns.' . . . It is not uncommon for speakers and writers to seek the appearance of grammatical correctness by using *as follow*. The writer's practice is to find some other expression—an expedient that is never difficult."

**50. Connected Subjects With *Every*.**—When two or more subjects are each modified by *every* the verb should be

singular, even when the connective is *and*. This is owing to the strong individualizing effect of *every*.

Every clergyman, every physician, and every lawyer in the town *is assumed* to be a gentleman.

Every emotion and every operation of the mind *has* a corresponding expression of the countenance.

Every soldier, every officer, and every private citizen *loves* the old flag and *rejoices* in its triumph.

This construction, although correct, has the appearance of being a violation of the general rule of concord of the verb and its subject. It should be avoided if possible, for it leads to disputes, many and profitless.

**51. Connected Subjects That Name the Parts of a Whole.**—When some entire thing is denoted by the names of its parts, these names being connected as the subjects of one verb, the verb must be in the singular.

The *locomotive* and *train* *was* quickly stopped.

The *wheel* and *axle* *serves* many useful purposes.

A *thread* and *needle* *was* needed for the work.

*Hanging* and *beheading* *was* formerly the English method of punishing treason.

In the first three sentences, the subjects name united parts of a whole. The last sentence denotes that traitors were first hanged and then beheaded.

If an article is placed before the second subject in each of the first three sentences, a plural verb becomes necessary.

The locomotive and the train *were* quickly *stopped* (the locomotive was not connected with the train).

The wheel and the axle of the wagon *were* both in need of repairs.

A thread and a needle *were* found on the floor, and the needle was at once threaded.

**52. Two Adjectives With the Same Noun.**—When two adjectives are coupled with the same singular noun so as to mean different things, a plural verb is required.

The *innocent* and the *guilty man* *were* involved alike in the catastrophe.

The *morning* and the *evening train* *are* usually on time.

The *logical* and the *historical analysis* of a language generally *go hand in hand*.

In all these sentences the article occurs before each adjective; but even when this is not the case, if two things are distinctly implied, the verb must be plural.

*Religious and moral conduct are* not usually easy to distinguish.  
*Stormy and sunshiny weather are* both to be expected.

**53. *As Well As* in the Sense of *And*.**—*As well as* is sometimes used as a substitute for *and*, when it is intended to predicate the same thing of two or more persons or things named separately. The verb in this construction should agree with the first subject.

Lee *as well as* Grant was a skilful strategist.

Industry *as well as* frugality *is* essential to success.

Europe *as well as* the United States *is* interested in the Panama Canal.

**54. *If* for *Whether*.**—The conjunction *if* is frequently employed for *whether*, a usage that is condemned by the best authorities. The following are examples:

I do not know *if* he will come or not (say, *whether*).

No one can say with certainty *if* it will rain (say, *whether it will rain or not*).

The alternative that belongs after *whether* is often omitted in colloquial language; it should, however, be expressed in careful composition. This alternative can be put either before or after the first alternative, the latter position being preferable.

I cannot tell you *whether or not* the train has arrived (I cannot tell you *whether* the train has arrived *or not*).

**55. Omission of the Relative.**—When the restrictive relative pronoun *that* is in the objective case it may usually be omitted.

I can lend you the money *that* you want.

Here *that* is the object of the verb *want*, *you want that*, and may be omitted.

It was all ( ) they had.

These are the fish ( ) I caught.

Also, when *that* is used as a conjunction it may often be omitted, especially in colloquial language.

He said ( ) he met you in the city.

I believe ( ) it will rain today.

Did you say ( ) he was sick yesterday?

It is, however, a rule that a relative pronoun used in a dependent clause as the subject of a finite verb should not be omitted.

Which is the one struck him (insert *that* before *struck*)?

It is ambition prompts men to strenuous effort (say, *that prompts*).

There was not one had a clear notion of what he wanted (*that had*).

When a relative is the object of a preposition it should be expressed.

The ladies we went with were very charming (say, *with whom we went*).

Yonder is the man I spoke of (*of whom I spoke*).

**56. Pronoun *None*.**—The pronoun *none* being derived from *no* and *one* is by some authorities regarded as always singular. The weight of authority, however, is in favor of construing it as either singular or plural according to the meaning.

Did you get the cherries? There *were none* on the tree.

Have you a letter for me? There *was none* in your box.

None of us *knows* (or *know*) what is to happen tomorrow.

**57. Conjunctions *And* and *But*.**—An eminent linguistic authority says of these two conjunctions:

“These two little words are the most abused words in the language; they are employed by careless writers on all occasions, without the slightest regard to precision and force. The result is chronic vagueness and tameness of expression.”

1. *And*.—It is a rule in mathematics that only like quantities can be added; the same rule prevails in language. If *and* is, as has been said, the plus sign of language, it follows that the expressions connected by the word should be closely related in sense and structure.

Subordination, the relation of cause and effect, of time

or place, should not be expressed by this conjunction. Its proper function is to mark addition, coordination, the union of the parts that make a real whole.

The following are some examples of the incorrect use of *and*:

He entered his office at exactly nine o'clock, *and* his private secretary was always found waiting, alert and ready.

The relation of place expressed by the second clause requires *where* as a connective instead of *and*.

Carlyle is particularly happy in the choice of illustrative figures of speech, *and* they give clearness and vigor to his style.

Here the relation between the two clauses is that of cause and effect. The sentence should be reconstructed.

Carlyle's style is marked by clearness and vigor *because* of his happy choice of illustrated figures of speech.

Or as a periodic sentence:

Because of a peculiarly happy choice of figures of speech Carlyle's style gains in clearness and vigor.

The sun went down behind the mountain *and* the moon rose silvery and beautiful.

The relation of *time* rather than that of addition is denoted by the second clause.

*When* the sun went down behind the mountain the moon etc.

The foregoing examples are sufficient to show the importance of choosing the right connective, as well as scrutinizing every *and* in your composition.

2. *But*.—This is the strongest of the conjunctions that denote opposition, exception, contrast. It is properly used when something that is said would naturally suggest or imply some conclusion or inference that does not follow in the given case. Thus, consider the sentence,

He had everything that the heart could desire, *but* he was not happy.

Any one hearing the first clause would be likely to think the man happy. The conjunction *but* arrests this mental tendency in the hearer, who waits for the opposing fact.



Professor Bain calls the expressions that thus prevent a natural conclusion or inference, *arrestive adversative conjunctions*. They are the following: *but, but then, yet, still, however, only, nevertheless*; also the phrases, *for all that, at the same time*.

The careful writer does not use *but* for every shade of opposition, contrast, exception, difference, or variety; the entire list given above is drawn upon for the exact word required in each case. When the exception or opposition expressed in the adversative clause is very unusual, unexpected, surprising, *but* is the word to use. When the arrestive effect is to be less strong, *yet, still, only, however*, or some weaker term should be chosen. The following sentences may be helpful toward making this important matter clear:

The story is a strange one, *nevertheless* it is true.  
 I shall probably fail in the attempt, *still* I shall try.  
 The woman lived in a hovel, *yet* she was happy.  
 I shall lend you the book, *only* you must not forget to return it.  
 The stuff was horribly bitter, *but then* it was medicine.

**58. Double Negatives.**—Two negatives in the same clause usually have the effect of destroying each other and of leaving the clause affirmative. One of the negatives may be *only, hardly, but, scarcely, barely*.

They *couldn't never* learn to be prompt (*could never*).  
 The governor *shouldn't* have *but* one term (*should have*).  
*Nobody* *couldn't* imagine the horror of the situation (*nobody could imagine*).  
 I *can't* (*can*) *scarcely* make out what they are doing.  
 His language, though inelegant, is *not ungrammatical* (*is grammatical*).

**59. Predicate Noun or Pronoun.**—A noun or a pronoun following the verb *to be* in any of its finite modes must be in the nominative case. This rule is frequently violated, especially in conversation.

Who is there? It is *me* (say *I*).  
 It wasn't *me* (It wasn't *I*).  
 It was *they*, not *we*, that did it.

If you were *I*, you would do the same thing.  
 Had I been *he*, I would have gone.  
 It wasn't *them* of whom I spoke (wasn't *they*).  
 If I had been *her*, I would have gone (*had been she*).

**60. Pronouns After Prepositions.**—The rule of grammar that prepositions govern the objective case should be observed both in speech and in writing. The following sentences exemplify some of the common mistakes:

Between you and *I (me)* he is no more honest than he should be.  
 If you had been with *he* and *I* (with *him* and *me*), you would have had a good time.  
 No one was in the house except *he* and *they* (*him* and *them*).  
 Besides *you* and *I*, nobody knew about the trouble (*you* and *me*).

**61. Than in Comparisons.**—The conjunction *than* should be used only in express comparisons. After such negative words as *hardly*, *scarcely*, *barely*, etc., not *than*, but *when* or some other conjunctive adverb should be employed. Neither should *than* follow the word *different*: *from* is the correct term. The following sentences illustrate what is meant:

We had *no sooner* reached the shore *than* we were attacked by the natives.  
 The sun had *scarcely* risen *when* (not *than*) the journey began.  
 The news of the war in the Orient given by the Russians is very *different from* (not *than*) the news furnished by the Japanese.  
*Hardly* more than an hour had passed *when* (not *than*) my creel was full of the speckled beauties.  
 We had gone *barely* a mile *when* we were overtaken by a man on horseback.  
 The calla lily belongs to an entirely *different* botanic group *from* (not *than*) that to which the lilies properly so-called belong.

**62. Participles Modified by Very.**—The adverb *very* should never be joined directly to a participle unless the participle is used as a mere adjective. Thus, we may say *very tired*, *very pleasing*, *very saving*, but not *very pleased*, *very disturbed*, *very satisfied*, *very loved*. Such expressions as these last require that an adverb be interposed, of which *very* becomes a modifier; as, *very much pleased*, *very annoyingly disturbed*, *very soon satisfied*, *very tenderly loved*.

This misuse of *very* is frequent in England.

**63. Don't for Doesn't.**—One of the commonest errors, both in speech and writing, is the use of *don't* for *doesn't*. For the first and second persons, both in the singular and the plural, *don't* is the correct abbreviation; in the third person singular, *doesn't* should be used. *I don't, you don't, he doesn't, she doesn't, it doesn't, John doesn't*; these are the correct forms. The following sentences exemplify some of the incorrect uses of these abbreviations:

Mary *don't* (*doesn't*) know her lesson today.

It *don't* (*doesn't*) make any difference which method you employ.

He *don't* (*doesn't*) live in this neighborhood.

**64. The Superlative Degree for the Comparative.** When two things are compared the comparative degree should be used; when three or more, the superlative.

John is the *taller* of the two.

John is the *tallest* boy in the school.

It should be stated, however, that in the writings of many of the best authors the superlative is frequently found where this rule requires the comparative.

**65. The Attraction Construction.**—In the Latin language, the verb in a sentence, instead of agreeing in number with the subject, sometimes takes the number of some noun or pronoun nearer to it than the subject. This is called the *attraction construction*, owing to the fact that by the nearness of the noun or the pronoun the verb is attracted out of concord with the subject. The construction is not permissible in English. The following are some examples:

A train of heavily laden *cars were* (*was*) thrown from the track at this point.

The influence of many of the most prominent *members were* (*was*) sufficient to defeat the measure.

**66. Relative With No Real Antecedent.**—A relative pronoun should never be left without an antecedent. The antecedent may be a clause, but when this is the case the clause must have the value of a noun. Neither can the

relative so used be replaced by one of the demonstrative pronouns *this*, *that*, *these*, or *those*, for they also require antecedents.

The boy fell from a second-story window, *which* resulted in a broken arm (*and broke his arm*).

He was severely reprimanded for his neglect, *which* mortified him very much. *Better*, He was mortified very much by being severely etc.

Whitney was the inventor of the cotton-gin; *this* brought him fame, though but very little money (for *this* substitute *the invention*, or *an invention that*).

**67. *But That* or *But What* for *That*.**—Do not use *but that* or *but what* for *that*, as in the following examples:

I had no doubt *but what* he would be on time (*no doubt that*).

We have no fear *but that* they will win the game (fear *that* they will lose the game).

**68. Place of the Pronoun.**—The pronoun should be so placed that there can be no mistake as to its antecedent. No rhetorical rule is more frequently violated than this. The most frequent cause of ambiguity consists in putting between the pronoun and its antecedent another noun that may be mistaken for the antecedent.

Jones secured me a good place in Brown's establishment by representing that *he* and I had been college friends. *Better*, Jones, by representing that he and I had been college friends, secured me a good place in Brown's establishment.

An antique clock ticked against the wall *which* was beautifully decorated.

Here it is not possible to determine whether the clock was decorated or the wall. If the former is meant, say,

An antique clock, beautifully decorated, ticked against the wall.

**69. Progressive Passive Forms of Verbs.**—Many critics have strenuously objected to such passive forms as *is being built*, *was being built*, urging that they are recent and without the warrant of good authority. One argument against these expressions is that it is absurd to join the present participle *being* to the perfect participle *built*. On this subject Richard Grant White says:

"To say, therefore, that a thing *is being done* is not only

to say (in respect of the last two participles) that a process is going on and is finished, at the same time, but (in respect of the whole phrase) that it exists existing finished; which is no more or other than to say that it exists finished, is finished, is done; which is exactly what those who use the phrase do not mean. It means that if it means anything; but in fact it means nothing, and is the most incongruous combination of words and ideas that ever attained respectable usage in any civilized language."

On the other hand, many eminent authorities defend this construction, and insist that it meets a real want in our language. Certain it is that even if it is an incongruous combination, as Mr. White says, nobody misunderstands the meaning intended to be conveyed by it. *I was shaving* and *I was being shaved*, *He is bleeding* and *He is being bled* are perfectly intelligible, and after all is said, intelligibility is the important thing to be sought in the use of language. The forms, *He was being shaved*, *The house is being built*, *The work was being done* are certainly better than the colloquial, *He was getting shaved*, *The house is getting built*, etc., which we so often hear.

The other tense forms of the progressive passive are of course inadmissible: *has been being built*, *will be being built*, *will have been being built*, *had been being built*, *may have been being built*, etc.

It is perhaps better that a careful writer should not aid in giving currency to forms against which strong objections may be fairly urged. The resources of our language are such that any thought can be expressed in language entirely above criticism.

**70. *Directly* as a Conjunctive Adverb.**—The use of this adverb in the sense of *as soon as* is a British colloquialism that has recently been introduced into the United States. The same may be said of *immediately*. The following sentences illustrate these errors:

*Directly* he entered the room all conversation ceased.

*Immediately* he met me he assailed me with much bitterness.

Better thus:

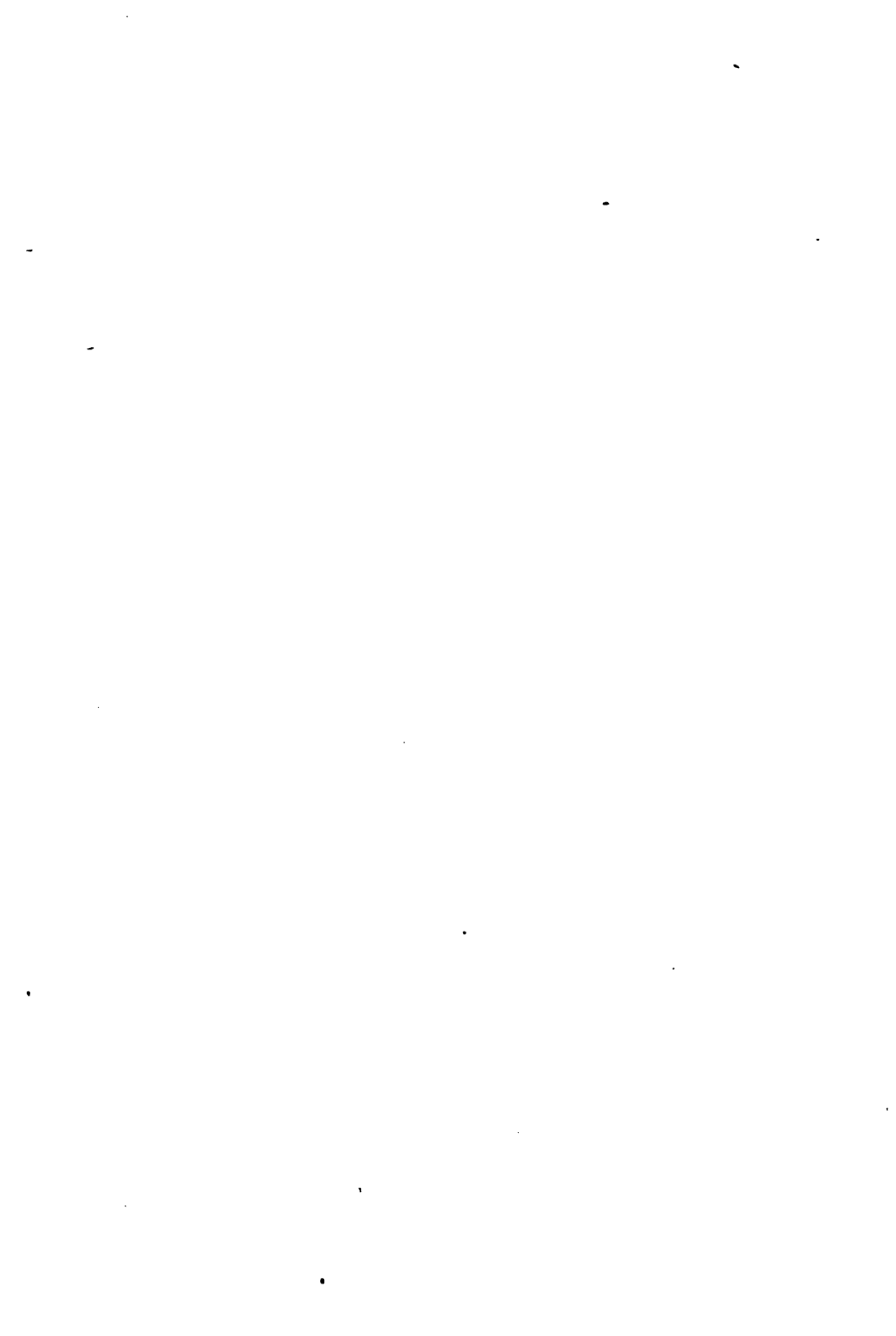
*When* he entered the room all conversation *at once* ceased.

*As soon as* he entered the room all conversation ceased.

*As soon as* he met me he assailed me with much bitterness.

**71. *Had Rather, Had Better.***—For several centuries authorities have been disputing as to the correctness of *had* followed by *rather* or *better*. The majority of the critics have pronounced in favor of *should* or *would* instead of *had*, and yet nearly every eminent writer has shown a preference for the stronger idiomatic forms with *had*. This is perhaps due to the fact that it is not always easy to decide between *would* and *should*. Both *rather* and *better* indicate the preference of the writer or speaker, and so, bar the use of *would*; so that both *would rather* and *would better* must be regarded as tautological. A certain critic says:

*Had rather* and *had better* are thoroughly established English idioms having the almost universal popular and literary sanctions of centuries. . . . In all ordinary cases *had rather* has the advantage of being idiomatic and easily and universally understood.



# PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION.

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## PUNCTUATION.

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### GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

**1. Punctuation.**—Punctuation (Latin, *punctum*, “a point”) is the division of written or printed matter by significant marks or points to indicate the connection and dependence of its parts. The chief purpose of punctuation is to render clearer and more definite the meaning to be conveyed. The system of punctuation in use, at the present time was entirely unknown to the ancients. An imperfect scheme devised by Aristophanes, a grammarian of Alexandria, is said to have been introduced among the Greeks a little more than two centuries before Christ. No improvement upon this was made until the year 1500, when Aldus Manutius, a learned printer of Venice, perfected our present system and exemplified it in the celebrated and beautiful “Aldine” edition of the Greek and Latin classics.

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### DIVISIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

**2.** Considered with respect to use or purpose, punctuation may be logical, rhetorical, grammatical, etymological, and for emphasis and reference.

**3. Logical Punctuation.**—In a printed or written document of any kind, those elements that serve to connect its



sentences and paragraphs into one whole—to give *unity*—are logical in character. This unity or continuity is secured by the use of a great variety of expressions that point backwards to something that has been said before. Thus, consider the sentence,

We may be very sure, therefore, that heat is motion.

The word *therefore* is grammatically unnecessary; its effect is to establish a logical connection between this sentence and some arguments or illustrations that precede. Expressions of this kind may be considered as belonging to a paragraph or an entire composition rather than to a sentence; their function is *logical* (λόγος, *logos*, “a discourse”) rather than *grammatical*. Examples of these are such as the following: *indeed, moreover, consequently, whence, first, secondly, finally, in fact, at all events*, and innumerable other words, phrases, and clauses. Many others are used to prepare the mind for something that is to follow—they are *anticipative*. Such are, *to wit, namely, as follows, as, thus, viz., etc., hence, yet, in fine*. Most of these elements point in both directions. As has been said, these transitional or logical elements form no necessary part of the sentences in which they occur; they are, in a sense, independent, and their independence or separateness should generally be indicated by punctuation.

**4. Rhetorical Punctuation.**—Closely allied in function to these logical elements are others called *rhetorical*. They are used, not to establish unity among the sentences composing a paragraph or a discourse, but to denote some peculiarity in the way the meaning expressed by a sentence is to be taken. Their general effect is to render the style lively, earnest, amusing, colloquial, familiar, affectionate, etc. Some of the many expressions for this purpose are the following: *now, you see, well, indeed, truly, so, there, you know, so then, why*. Nearly all of these elements are parenthetical; and being, therefore, more or less independent, generally require to be separated by punctuation from the rest of the sentence. That a sentence is a question, an exclamation,

a quotation, or a mere parenthesis, is also a rhetorical fact, and the punctuation necessary is for that reason rhetorical.

**5. Grammatical Punctuation.**—The flow of thought in language is not uniform and unbroken; if it were so, punctuation within the body of a sentence would be unnecessary. As explained above, logical and rhetorical elements are constantly introduced into sentences in such manner as to break their continuity, and these stand related to other elements in different degrees of remoteness. Among grammatical elements also, there are interruptions of continuity. Words, phrases, and clauses do not unite their meanings in regular, uniform sequence; but breaks of unequal lengths occur after long and short intervals. Now, the only method of indicating such breaks is to punctuate; and, on account of the great variety of these interruptions, punctuation is a matter requiring the nicest judgment.

**6. Etymological Punctuation.**—Besides the punctuation of sentences for logical, rhetorical, and grammatical reasons, words and letters, considered as such, often require to be marked or punctuated. Thus, the fact that a word is compound, abbreviated, or contracted; that it is grammatically inflected, is composed of separate syllables, or that certain vowels do not form diphthongs; that certain syllables have a particular pronunciation, accent, or quantity, or a letter has some definite vocal value: these and other facts are shown by marks within or about separate words. Such punctuation is *etymological*, since it aids in fixing more exactly the true or root meaning of words (*ἐτυμολογία*, *etymologia*, "the true sense of a word as determined by its origin"). The *diacritical* marks of the dictionaries are almost all used for etymological punctuation; and, since scientific uniformity and exactness have been nearly or quite attained in the use of these marks, the subject requires very little attention in a work on general punctuation.

**7. Punctuation for Emphasis and Reference.**—A great variety of marks are used for miscellaneous purposes. These purposes are so numerous and varied as not to

#### 4 PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION. § 20

admit of accurate classification; but nearly all of them serve for emphasis, or to refer the reader to something else in the composition. A few of them might be included under *logical* punctuation; as, the *paragraph* (¶) and the *section* (§), when used to mark divisions. Others again are *rhetorical*; as, the *question* mark when placed in marks of parenthesis to express doubt or incredulity, and the *exclamation* mark when employed to denote that something is surprising or absurd. The rules and methods that regulate the use of these marks are so definite and well known that, like those relating to etymological punctuation, they may be omitted from this treatise.

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#### CLASSIFICATION OF THE POINTS.

**8. Grammatical** punctuation employs the following marks:

1. *Comma* (,)
2. *Semicolon* (;)
3. *Colon* (:)
4. *Period* (.)
5. *Dash* (—)

**9. Logical and rhetorical** punctuation require the five marks given above, besides the following:

1. *Interrogation* (?)
2. *Exclamation* (!)
3. *Marks of Quotation* ("") or ('')
4. *Marks of Parenthesis* ( )
5. *Brackets* [ ]

**10. Etymological** punctuation is indicated in general by the following marks:

1. *Caret* (^)
2. *Hyphen* (-) or (=)
3. *Apostrophe* (')
4. *Accents* (´), (ˆ), and (ˆ)
5. *Quantity Marks*: (a) *Macron* (¯); (b) *Breve* (˘)
6. *Dieresis* (¨)

**11. Punctuation for reference** employs many marks besides letters and figures. The principal characters that have names are the following:

- |                                    |  |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>Asterisk</i> (*)             | 5. <i>Parallel</i> (  )                |
| 2. <i>Asterism</i> (* *) or (* **) | 6. <i>Index</i> or " <i>Fist</i> " (☞) |
| 3. <i>Paragraph</i> (¶)            | 7. <i>Dagger</i> (†)                   |
| 4. <i>Section</i> (§)              | 8. <i>Double Dagger</i> (‡)            |

**12. Technical Marks.**—The marks mentioned above are of general use—they may be employed in written or printed matter relating to any subject whatever. But besides these, each art and science has its system of special marks, generally for the purpose of abbreviation. Thus, astronomy employs a large number; mathematics, chemistry, botany, music, and many other subjects would be almost impossible of satisfactory exposition without the help of arbitrary symbols. These symbols must perhaps be regarded as belonging to the general subject of punctuation, but such as pertain to special arts and sciences should be studied in connection with those subjects. It is only punctuation of general application and utility that will be considered in this treatise.

**13. Taste and Judgment in Punctuation.**—It must not be assumed that punctuation has been reduced to an exact science. No two writers or printers could be found that would punctuate a long paragraph, much less a magazine article or a book, in exactly the same way.

The varieties possible in sentence structure and in style are practically endless, and each person will interpret expressed thought a little differently from every other person. What to one person seems important or emphatic, will usually strike another person differently. These differences in interpretation inevitably lead to differences in what is conceived to be the appropriate or necessary punctuation. Hence, taste and judgment will determine in large measure the excellence and consistency of each person's practice of this art. It is clear therefore that no system of rules alone, however elaborate and precise, can be applied with uniformity or produce equally good results. Even a taste that has been informed by wide reading, close observation, and much reflection, must be aided by exact grammatical knowledge

and by a quick and accurate sense of logical relation and arrangement. So important in this art are grammatical terms and principles, that a few of them will now be briefly explained and illustrated.

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### GRAMMAR IN PUNCTUATION.

**14. Sentential Elements.**—Sentences are primarily made up of single words. When, however, these separate elements are carefully considered with respect to the work they do, it is at once seen that they do not always enter the sentence as individual words each representing a separate idea; on the contrary, they often occur in groups of closely related words that must be taken together as signs of compound ideas. Each group has a function—does a work—exactly similar to that done by single words. These group elements are of two kinds; *phrases* and *clauses*.

**15. Phrases and Clauses.**—A *phrase* is a group of words having a single function, but not expressing a complete thought. The following are some examples:

In the spring, by the river, in fact, side by side, seeing the multitude, without hesitation, having been accused.

The use of phrases in sentences is commonly either adjectival or adverbial. Their functions are to modify, narrow, restrict, the meaning of nouns and pronouns and other parts of speech. To show their functional unity and to separate them from neighboring elements the meaning of which they might otherwise improperly modify, it is often necessary to set them off by punctuation.

A *clause* is one of two or more sentential elements, each expressing not a mere *compound idea*, but a *complete thought*; it must therefore contain a finite verb, and when separated from the rest of the sentence in which it is used, it must *say something completely*. A sentence may consist of several such clause elements united by *connectives*.

The sun came out again *when* the rain ceased.  
Each man must expect to reap *what* he sows.

**16. Three Important Principles.**—Whether or not a word, a phrase, or a clause should be separated by punctuation from other elements, depends largely on three circumstances :

1. *Its Length.*—*The longer a sentential element, the more likely is it to require separation by punctuation.*

2. *Its Connection.*—*The need for punctuating an element increases with the remoteness of its connection with other elements.*

3. *Its Position.*—*When a word or a longer expression is removed from the place in which the natural and orderly flow of the thought requires it to be, it should usually be set off by some kind of punctuation.* This transposition is usually for the purpose of emphasis, or it is the result of interruption or afterthought.

*Frequently, but not always, are the wicked punished in this life.*

This sentence, regularly arranged, would require no punctuation.

The wicked are frequently but not always punished in this life.

**17. A General Rule.**—The modern tendency is towards the avoidance of unnecessary punctuation. Many persons get into the practice of putting in some kind of mark wherever it appears that a pause would be necessary in reading. This is all wrong. Such punctuation renders grammatical punctuation impossible.

Others, again, always set off their *how, when, and where* clauses. This is very frequently unnecessary. Even those clauses that begin with such conjunctions as *if, unless, except, although, because,* etc. should not be separated by punctuation unless for reasons that are very obvious. The inexperienced writer may safely observe the following :

*Punctuate too little rather than too much. When to punctuate does not render the meaning plainer or effect some definite advantage, do not punctuate.*

**18. Origin of the Marks of Punctuation.**—The names of most of the marks used for grammatical punctuation were

borrowed from the names of the sentential elements set off by them.

1. The **period** (*περίοδος*, *periodos*, "a way around") marked a complete circuit of words—an entire sentence. The picture in the word is the circular track of a race course.

2. The **colon** (*κῶλον*, *kōlon*, "a limb," "half of a race course") was one of two main divisions of a long compound sentence. From the part or division the name was transferred to the *mark* used in indicating the divisions.

3. Strictly, the **semicolon** should be used in separating a sentence into *fourths*; but, for obvious reasons, no such limitation is possible. It indicates a degree of separation next less than that made by the colon; but only in name, not in reality, is it a *half-colon*.

4. The **comma** (*κόμμα*, *komma*, "a segment"; *κόπτειν*, *koptein*, "to cut") denotes the shortest separation in ideas or construction between written or printed sentential elements.

5. The **mark of interrogation** is said to have been made from the initial and final letters of the Latin word *Questio*, the *Q* being written above the *o*; thus, *Q*.

6. The **mark of exclamation** is believed to have been formed from the letters of the Latin interjection *io*, expressing *joy*; thus, *!*.

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## RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

**19. Insufficiency of Rules.**—No code of rules for punctuation can be devised that will provide for every possible sentence form, for the number of these is practically infinite. Much must be left to the judgment, taste, and intention of the writer. It may be taken as a general principle that the objects of punctuation are to aid in bringing out the exact meaning of the writer, and to prevent ambiguity. There should not be more punctuation than is required for the first, or less than will accomplish the second.

The following rules will be found to cover all the cases that have been determined by the general practice of the best authorities.

### THE COMMA.

**20. General Principles.**—The comma is used more frequently than any other mark of punctuation; but, almost without exception, these various uses may be included under one of the three following heads :

1. *The Interpolation of Elements.*—The flow of thought in language is not uniform and unbroken like the current of a deep river; it is more like that of a stream filled with obstructions. These obstructions to the flow of the sentence are indicated by punctuation. When an element not really necessary to the thought is introduced in such way as to break the continuity, it is commonly set off by commas.

2. *The Ellipsis of Elements.*—In the expression of thought, elements are often so clearly implied that they need not be repeated. This is particularly the case with the *verb*, though the ellipsis of other parts of speech, as for example the *conjunction*, is very common. These ellipses are usually marked by commas.

3. *The Transposition of Elements.*—Usage has established certain positions for the various sentential elements, which are often put in other places, generally for emphasis or euphony; and since in their unusual positions they obstruct in some measure the flow of thought, the fact must often be marked by punctuation.

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#### RULE I.

**21. Logical Elements.**—*Logical connective and transitional elements, if the interruption from their use is very marked, should be set off by commas.*

*Besides, he is our father; therefore, we should show him respect. Moreover, the white man was the aggressor.*

**22.** Although these elements, being in the nature of modal adverbs (adverbs that modify entire sentences), may be placed almost anywhere in a sentence or a clause, their usual place when truly parenthetical is at the beginning. If



they occur near an element the meaning of which they may be conceived as modifying, they lose their logical value, take on mere grammatical function, and require no punctuation.

*Besides*, he is our father; we should *therefore* show him respect.

*Finally*, he was successful. He was *finally* successful.

*However*, we are extremely sorry. *However* sorry we may be, is of no avail now.

**23.** The following are in common use as logical parenthetical elements:

then	besides	secondly	in fact
too	again	wherefore	in fine
also	therefore	consequently	in conclusion
now	moreover	further	after all
hence	finally	accordingly	as stated
whence	first	however	continuing

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**RULE II.**

**24. Rhetorical Elements.**—*Rhetorical elements that are parenthetical should generally be set off by commas.*

*Assuredly*, Burns was a poet of real genius.

*Well*, honor is the subject of my story.

*Nay, now*, you do not really believe such nonsense.

These words, *assuredly*, *well*, *nay*, and *now*, are modal adverbs. Each modifies the meaning of the entire sentence in which it is used, and their functions are distinctly rhetorical.

**25.** When rhetorical elements stand at the beginning of a sentence or a clause, the rule requiring them to be punctuated must generally be observed; in other positions, however, they usually lose in some measure their rhetorical value and become ordinary modifiers requiring no punctuation. This is especially the case when they stand near a verb or other element the meaning of which they are capable of modifying.

*Surely*, a day of retribution will come. A day of retribution will *surely* come.

*In reality*, no such creature as a dragon ever existed. No such creature as a dragon ever existed *in reality*.

**26.** The following are examples of elements that are usually set off by commas when used with rhetorical value:

ay	really	verily	in a manner
yes	clearly	truly	as it were
no	briefly	forsooth	so to speak
may	surely	honestly	so to say
now	indeed	to be sure	no doubt
well	certainly	you see	to be candid
then	assuredly	in a word	in passing
so	obviously	in reply	to resume
pray	manifestly	you know	to be frank

**27.** When two or more rhetorical elements are used together in close connection they are usually not separated from one another by punctuation.

Really then, I am much disappointed.

When therefore a new edition of my "Lectures" became necessary once more, I insisted on the destruction of the old plates.

The same is true of expressions composed of logical, rhetorical, and grammatical connectives. But when one of the elements is *ay*, *yea*, *yes*, *no*, or *nay*, it is set off by a comma. It should be added, however, that there is no uniformity among our best writers in punctuating such expressions. It is closeness of connection that must determine the punctuation suitable in each case; provided always that *the comma should be omitted when it does not clearly aid in expressing the thought or in preventing ambiguity.*

The following are examples of such combinations:

and then	yes, indeed	surely now	by all means, then
nay, now	but surely	truly then	well, at any rate
well then	briefly then	frankly, indeed	obviously, therefore
why then	now truly	so that now	though certainly
and again	so indeed	to resume, then	but doubtless
but now	then again	surely, however	well truly, then

Almost any of these combinations may sometimes require an intervening comma and sometimes not. They are however most frequently punctuated as indicated above. Of course a comma is almost always placed after the last word of such a group.

**28.** Parenthetical elements when differently used generally require to be differently punctuated. The following examples will illustrate this principle:

*Well then*, I'll go. *Well, then* he surrendered. Well, then, no more need be said.

*Nay, now*, don't be cruel. *Nay, now* he sees your meaning.

*Though certainly* honest, he was unfortunate. *Though, certainly* we must all die. *Though, certainly*, if need should be, he would come.

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RULE III.

**29.** Parenthetical Grammatical Elements.—*Grammatical elements loosely connected are usually set off by commas, especially if they are long modifying phrases or clauses not directly joined to the expression they modify.*

The ancients accounted a man wise, *if he was not too wise.*

This fact, *though embarrassing*, is unavoidable.

Suppose, *for example*, that the earth were flat.

**30.** Strictly speaking, every term or expression found between the extreme words of a sentence is parenthetical ("placed within" or "between"). But, as here used, the term is intended to include only such elements as the following:

1. *Modifying elements*, although indispensable to the expression of nice distinctions and shades of thought, are not necessary to the sentential structure, and they often break in a marked degree the uniform flow of the thought.

The boy, *when school time came*, was frequently taken suddenly ill.

It is said that, *on a borrowed horse*, a beggar always rides very fast.

If such expressions are placed so as not to interrupt, punctuation is not required.

*When school time came* the boy was frequently taken suddenly ill.

The boy was frequently taken suddenly ill *when school time came.*

It is said that a beggar *on a borrowed horse* always rides very fast.

2. Elements introduced in the way of explanation or afterthought.

The sweet violet, *hardy here but tender northward*, is a native of Europe.

The moon seems, *to me at least*, more beautiful than the sun.

RULE IV.

**31. Transposed Expressions.**—*Elements that for emphasis or any other reason are placed out of their natural or usual order are usually set off by commas.*

*Respectfully*, we insisted upon our rights.  
*To the man thoroughly honest*, stringent conditions are easy.

**32.** Transposed elements should always be set off by commas under the following circumstances:

1. When the transposition brings together the *same parts of speech*.

In dealing with the *foolish, wise* men rarely act with wisdom.  
Towards *women, men* are generally considerate.  
What we did not *have, gave* us more trouble than what we had.  
When one deals with *you, you* are not always just.

2. When the transposition brings together a *noun* and an *adjective*, or an *adverb* and a *verb* or *participle*, or any element and a modifier suited to it, but really relating to some other element.

Where the current was *swift, boats* were towed by horses.  
On stormy *days, cheerful* books entertained us.  
When the snow *disappeared, soon* came the birds again.  
While he *slept, there* came an enemy.  
They rubbed their stomachs, with howls of agony = With howls of agony they rubbed their stomachs.  
We saw some boys, wandering along the street = We, wandering along the street, saw some boys.

In cases like the last two the meaning is better expressed by careful arrangement than by punctuation.

3. When the transposed element is long, or when it contains a restrictive clause element.

That Bacon and not Shakespeare wrote that wonderful tragedy, he firmly believed.

By forgetting injuries that may be inflicted upon us by the malice of others, we declare our own nobility of character.

**33.** The comma should be omitted in the following cases:

1. When the main part of the sentence begins with a verb,

or when it contains a verb the object of which is in the transposed part.

On the shore of the loud-sounding sea *stood* the home of the old fisherman.

Many of the *plays* that Shakespeare wrote we *read* during the idle days of vacation.

2. When the transposed portion begins with a preposition dependent on some word in the other part.

*In* the poetry of Homer he felt no *interest*.

*Of* the money received for our labor we had no difficulty in *disposing*.

3. When the transposed portion begins with *it is* or with *only*.

*It is* generally when success is merited that it is achieved.

*Only* when the birds return from the South is it certain that spring has begun.

4. When no ambiguity would follow the omission of the comma.

In the following sentences the comma must be inserted to express the meaning intended:

In everything, honorable men consider honor.

By all these, different creeds were held.

Every moment, neglected opportunities were recalled.

---

RULE V.

**34. Dependent Clauses.**—*Dependent clauses, unless the connection is close, should be set off by commas.*

Although the planet Venus closely resembles the earth, it may be without inhabitants.

If you would succeed in the thing that you undertake, you must give it close attention.

Until the preliminaries have all been settled by the interested parties, nothing can be done.

**35.** Dependent clauses are, as a rule, punctuated only when they are transposed. The examples just given illustrate this.

Nothing can be done until the preliminaries have all been settled by the interested parties.

**36.** Clauses denoting *time, place, or manner*, unless transposed and long, or very loosely connected, need not be set off by commas. Such clauses begin with *when, where, how, until, before, after*, etc.

**37.** Clauses introduced by *than, as, and so that* are not punctuated unless they are out of their natural and usual place.

You should always do *as* you are told = As you are told, you should always do.

He is in reality no wiser or better than he should be = No wiser or better than he should be, is he in reality.

---

RULE VI.

**38. Relative Clauses.**—*When not restrictive, relative clauses should be set off by commas.*

This state, which was named after Queen Elizabeth, was settled in 1607.

The members, who were much dissatisfied, left the church.

Homer, who is said to have composed the Iliad, was blind.

The function of a restrictive clause is merely to *modify*; that of a relative clause is to *explain* or to add some *circumstance* or *afterthought*.

**39.** Restrictive relative clauses are preferably introduced by *that*. When *who* and *which* are used for this purpose, ambiguity is likely to result.

The train that leaves in the morning is very fast = The *outgoing morning* train is very fast (restrictive clause, complex sentence).

The train, which leaves in the morning, is an express = The train is an express *and it* leaves in the morning (coordinate clause, compound sentence).

The soldier that disobeyed orders was arrested = The *disobedient* soldier was arrested (clause an adjective in function, sentence complex).

The soldier, who disobeyed orders, was arrested = The soldier was arrested, *for he* disobeyed orders (the soldier = *some particular soldier* before referred to).

**40.** A restrictive relative clause that modifies each item in a series should be set off by commas.

Books, papers, and magazines, that had not been read, littered the floor = *Unread* books, papers, and magazines littered the floor.

In the first form of the sentence the comma would often be omitted after *magazines*, but the result is always ambiguity. The meaning then is that only the *magazines* had not been read.

**41.** When relative clauses, whether restrictive or coordinate, are broken by parenthetical elements, they are punctuated as follows:

*Restrictive.*—He is the best man *that*, under the circumstances, *could* be found.

*Coordinate.*—A caller, *who*, I think, *is an old friend of yours*, is in the parlor.

The same distinction should be observed in punctuating clauses introduced by *whose*, by *whom* or *which*, and by *whose* following a preposition.

The President, *to whom I am much indebted*, passed a moment ago. A man *by whose experience we might profit* cannot be found.

The first clause is *coordinate*, the second is *restrictive*.

---

RULE VII.

**42.** *Apposition.*—*Elements in apposition, unless short and closely connected, are set off by commas.*

*Milton*, the *Homer* of England, was blind.

*John* the *evangelist* was the beloved disciple.

*John*, the beloved *disciple*, wrote the Revelation.

**43.** When the less specific appositive precedes and is used like an attributive adjective, punctuation is omitted.

The great *orator Cicero* was slain at the instance of Cæsar's *friend Antony*.

If, however, the appositives are separated by intervening elements, punctuation is required.

The great *orator* of Rome, *Cicero*, was less eloquent than *he* of Athens, *Demosthenes*.

**44.** When the more general element of compound names precedes, punctuation is required, except in the case of scientific names.

Smith, Geo. W.    *Lilium auratum.*    *Canis familiaris.*

**45.** A pronoun used in the manner of an adjective before a noun is not separated from it by punctuation; but, when used like a noun in apposition, punctuation is required. The former use is called *adjunctive* or *attributive*, and the latter *appositive*.

*You men* are more vain than *we women*.    *Ye men* of Athens.

*We old soldiers* are now of but little use to the country. They showed *him*, a *senator*, the door.

*You, boys*; I mean *you*. And thus to *me*, an old *Castilian*, he spoke.

**46.** The adjunctive use of a noun is distinguished from its appositive use by punctuation.

One *son*, *John*, went to the Klondike; another *son*, *William*, was killed in Cuba (appositive).

*My son John* is dead, and *my daughter Mary* is married (adjunctive).

**47.** Adjectives are distinguished as adjunctive or appositive by means of punctuation.

It was a horrible night, *stormy*, *tempestuous*, when we set out for home (appositive).

One *dark*, *stormy*, and *tempestuous* night we set out for home (adjunctive).

If an adjective used appositively is unemphatic, the punctuation is omitted.

A form more *fair* and a face more *sweet*.

A sound *sweet* and *low* reached our ears from within.

**48.** Terms of equal generic value, made appositive for the sake of explanation or emphasis, should be set off by commas.

It is certain that all *energy*, *power*, *force*, originates in the sun.

Send *food*, *money*, *clothes*,—anything.

In each of these sentences the italicized words are different names for the same thing or intended for the same use—they have equal *class*, or *generic*, value.



## RULE VIII.

**49. Contrast.**—*Contrasted elements are set off by commas.*

*Gold, not silver, is what they sought.*

Not merely *in prosperity*, but *in adversity* also, was he your friend.

## RULE IX.

**50. Omitted Connectives.**—*Similar elements not connected by conjunctions are separated from one another by commas.*

*Come, tell me what you wish.*

*Lend, lend your wings.*

*Softly, sweetly she crooned, she sang to her darling.*

Genius is but *patient, persistent, indefatigable* industry.

**51.** When the items of an emphatic series are similarly related to an element that precedes or follows, this element should usually be separated from the series by a comma.

All that was *loved*, all that was *hated*, all that was *feared by man*, he tossed about.

If he could only *see, understand, experience, what I suffer*, he would behave differently.

*To blunder stupidly, grossly, rashly*, is inexcusable.

To offer no opposition to the orders of his official superiors; to formulate against them neither argument nor objection, even in the secrecy of his own mind; to know, in fine, nothing but blind unreasoning obedience, *seem the chief glory and excellence of a soldier.*

In the last sentence the items of the series are separated by semicolons, yet the common italicized part is preceded by a comma, as in the other sentences.

**52.** When the last two elements of a series have a connective between them, a comma is required before the connective; but when connectives occur between every two elements, commas should not be used.

Oranges, lemons, limes, and grapefruit belong to the **same family**.

Day nor night nor sunshine nor storm affected him.

**53.** Compound series consisting of groups of similar items require a comma between each two groups.

They had picture books about simitars and slippers and turbans, and dwarfs and giants and genii and fairies, and bluebeards and beanstalks and riches and caverns and Valentines and Orsons,—and all new and all true.

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RULE X.

**54. Disjunctive Connection.**—*When two elements are united by conjunctions that are strongly adversative or disjunctive, they should usually be separated by commas.*

Work rapidly, *but* let your work be thorough.

His offense was very serious, *still* he was forgiven.

The case was critical, *yet* we were not without hope.

Shall we come today, *or* can you wait a day or two?

**55.** Conjunctions with a strongly marked disjunctive value are the following: *or, nor, yet, still, but, best, albeit, though, although, unless, however, whereas, provided, nevertheless, notwithstanding.*

**56.** The connection between two elements increases in remoteness as they take on adjuncts. It follows, therefore, that a comma may be required for this reason even when the connective is not disjunctive.

A tall handsome boy with black eyes and wavy hair, *and* a very beautiful girl, met us at the gate.

**57.** Two elements that are disjunctive from the fact that they are equivalent or alternative names, are usually set off by commas. When the conjunction is omitted, such elements are said to be *in apposition*.

A large *opening*, or *inlet*, led to the ample bay within.

*Meter*, or *measure*, is the number of poetical feet that a verse contains.

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RULE XI.

**58. Independent Clauses.**—*Independent clauses should be separated by a comma if the conjunction between them*

*might be understood as connecting, not the clauses, but words or phrases.*

Life is very short, but delightful and precious are the sunny days of youth.

Be careful to speak always with moderation, and in honesty deal thou with all men.

---

RULE XII.

**59. Address.**—*An element independent by address is set off by commas.*

I rise, *Mr. President*, to a point of order.

*Time*, you thief, who love to get sweets into your list, put that in.

Come, *Antony*, and young *Octavius*, come.

**60.** A pronoun in the second person used like an attributive adjective or before a relative or an indefinite pronoun, is not set off by commas.

*Thou* moon that roll'st above.

*You* blocks, *you* stones, *you* worse than senseless things.

O *thou* whose love can ne'er forget its offspring, man.

---

RULE XIII.

**61. Absolute Constructions.**—*An element used absolutely or independently should commonly be set off by commas.*

There are several varieties of this construction:

1. *The Participial.*—In this the characteristic word is a participle.

Honor *being lost*, everything is lost.

Such, *speaking frankly*, is my honest opinion.

2. *The Infinitive.*

*To be sure*, we might have done worse.

Now, *to make a long story short*, this is what we will do.

3. *The Imperative.*

I say, *believe me* or not, that the story is false.

We shall go, *be sure* of that, at the earliest opportunity.

4. *The Adjectival.*

*Good at heart* himself, he thought men better than they **are**.

His one daughter, *beautiful* as ever, was still at home.

5. *The Pleonastic.*—This construction commonly consists in the mere *mention* of something *concerning* which a grammatically complete sentence follows. The pleonastic construction is one that is *overfilled*.

*Day*, it brings him no delight; *night*, he has no rest or peace at night.

---

RULE XIV.

**62. Informal Introduction.**—*A short quotation or similar element informally introduced should generally be set off by commas.*

Plato's definition, "Man is a biped without feathers," was ridiculed by Diogenes.

The oracle answered, "No man is sure of happiness before he is dead."

Tennyson's saying, "Death is the end of life," is an unpleasant reminder.

**63.** When the element introduced is one word or the introduction is very close, the commas should be omitted if no ambiguity results.

The Greek name *Agamemnon* means *great memory*.

Horace's "While we live let us live" has led to much dissipation.

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RULE XV.

**64. Ellipsis of the Verb.**—*In continued sentences where a common verb is expressed in only one of the clauses and understood in the others, the omitted verb is usually indicated by a comma.*

Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist.

Semiramis built Babylon; Dido, Carthage; and Romulus, Rome.

---

RULE XVI.

**65. Dates.**—*Dates and other expressions consisting of a series of related groups require commas between their component groups.*

Washington was born on Friday, February 22, 1732, in Westmoreland Co., Va.

See Green's "History of the English People," vol. i, book iii, chap. ii, pp. 423-425.

Killed in an accident at 1239 Fifth ave., New York, Tuesday, June 7, 1891.

**66.** Commas should not be placed between B. C., A. D., A. U. C., etc., and the number denoting a year.

Cæsar invaded Britain, B. C. 55 (or, in the year 55 B. C.).

Done at Washington, D. C., July 10, A. D. 1899.

Arabic numbers, except where used to denote dates or street or page numbers, are separated by commas into periods of three figures each, beginning at the right. In the case of mixed decimals the place of beginning is the decimal point.

10,129,475.68;            \$36,902.7325+;            \$1,049.6851;            £12,985.

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## THE SEMICOLON.

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### RULE XVII.

**67. Added Clauses.**—*When a clause complete in itself is followed by one expressing a reason or consequence, an explanation or inference, the clauses should usually be separated by a semicolon.*

We might have guessed our immortality; for Nature, giving instincts, never fails to give the ends to which they point.

The fear of heresy did what the sense of oppression could not do; it changed men into devoted partisans and obstinate rebels.

**68.** Even when the connective is omitted, the semicolon is used unless the clauses are very long and their connection not close. In this latter case a colon may be required, or the sentence may be broken into two sentences.

The wisest are liable to error; even Jupiter sometimes nods.

History cannot be perfectly true; it may tell the truth, but not the whole truth.

**69.** When there is doubt as to the degree of separation, preference should be given to a point denoting less separation of parts. When it is not clear which is better, a comma or a semicolon, use a comma.

RULE XVIII.

**70. Subdivided Clauses.**—*United clauses that contain elements set off by commas should generally be separated by semicolons.*

Arrogance is generally, though not always, born of wealth and the consciousness of power; but true humility, of real wisdom and genius.

---

RULE XIX.

**71. Coordinate Clauses.**—*United clauses of equal rank, slightly connected and without intervening connectives, should be separated by semicolons.*

Stones grow; vegetables grow and live; animals grow, live, and feel.

If the clauses are short, unbroken, and closely connected, they should be separated by commas.

Everything grows old, everything passes away, everything disappears.

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RULE XX.

**72. Dependent Particulars.**—*When each of a series of expressions is dependent on the same elements, they should generally be separated by semicolons.*

Macaulay says of Herodotus that he has written an incomparable book; that he has written something better perhaps than the best history; that he has not, however, written a good history; that he is, from the first to the last chapter, an inventor.

If we think of glory in the field; of wisdom in the cabinet; of the purest patriotism; of the highest integrity, public and private; of morals without a stain—the august figure of Washington presents itself as the personification of all these ideas.

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RULE XXI.

**73. Appositive Particulars.**—*A general term should be separated by a semicolon from the particulars under it when they are very short; and the particulars themselves should be separated from one another by commas.*

In solid geometry are considered, among other things, four of the most interesting of solids; the *prism*, the *cylinder*, the *cone*, and the *sphere*.

74. If the appositive items are formally introduced, or if they themselves are long or broken by punctuation, they should be preceded by a colon and separated from one another by semicolons.

Grammar consists of the following parts: first, *orthography*; second, *etymology*; third, *syntax*; and fourth, *prosody*.

---

RULE XXII.

75. **Introductory Expressions.**—*A semicolon should commonly precede as, viz., namely, to wit, i. e., that is, e. g., and like expressions, when used to introduce an example or a list of particulars.*

A pleonastic construction is one that contains words grammatically superfluous; as, The skies *they* were ashen and sober.

Shakespeare has many instances of mixed metaphor; for example, "to take arms against a sea of troubles."

There were five persons present; namely, Lincoln, Stanton, Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan.

---

RULE XXIII.

76. **Compound Series.**—*The groups of a series should be separated from one another by semicolons if the items composing some or all of the groups require commas between them.*

Discriminate the following: *refined, polished; urbane, civil, rustic, polite; contemptuous, contemptible.*

The English has many words derived from Oriental languages: Malay, *gong, sago, rattan*; Chinese, *tea, junk*; Polynesian, *tattoo, boomerang*; Hindu, *calico*.

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THE COLON.

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RULE XXIV.

77. **Subdivided Members.**—*Colons should separate members of a sentence if one or more of those members are themselves subdivided by semicolons.*

As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not see it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such minute steps, are perceivable only by the distance.

**78.** If the elements separated by semicolons have no interposed commas, a semicolon should take the place of the colon and commas should be used instead of the semicolons.

A sovereign almost invisible, a crowd of dignitaries minutely distinguished by badges and titles, rhetoricians that said nothing but what had been said ten thousand times, schools in which nothing had been taught but what had been known for ages; such was the machinery provided for the government and instruction of the most enlightened part of the human race.

This sentence exemplifies the rule for appositive particulars (see rule XXI).

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**RULE XXV.**

**79. Formal Quotations.**—*A direct quotation or any similar matter should be preceded by a colon when formally introduced.*

Horace boasted of his poetical work in the following terms: "I have erected a monument more enduring than bronze."

Do not forget this important fact: if you show the people with whom you have dealings that you do not trust them, they will soon reciprocate your suspicious treatment.

**80.** This rule applies to a series of particulars formally introduced.

In the prisoner's possession were found the following articles: two watches, six silver spoons, a diamond ring, and two pairs of new kid gloves.

**81.** When the matter following the introduction consists of several sentences or begins a new paragraph, a dash may follow the colon to indicate the broken connection. This punctuation is preferred by many after the salutation in a letter; others very properly omit the dash on the ground that there is no break in the sense or in the connection;



others again use a comma with or without a dash, but this usage is scarcely defensible.

		Mr. Wm. Kegan,
Dear Sir:	Dear Sir:—	London, England.
Your letter etc.	Your letter etc.	Dear Sir: Your letter etc.

**82.** If the quotation is a mere short saying or is informally introduced, a comma alone is sufficient.

Some one says, "The good die young"; but, nevertheless, the good are not discriminated against by the insurance companies.

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**RULE XXVI.**

**83.** "Yes" and "No."—*When the words "yes" and "no," in answer to a question, are followed by a continuation of the answer or by an explanation of it, a colon is required between the answer and its continuation.*

May we trust to the intelligence and patriotism of the President?  
Yes: that has been fully demonstrated.

Do you live here, my boy? Yes, sir: I was born here.

A semicolon is often used in place of the colon in such cases as the foregoing.

---

**RULE XXVII.**

**84.** **Title Pages.**—*If the main title of a book is followed by a second title in apposition, and no connective intervenes, the two should be separated by a colon.*

Mnemonics: The Art and Science of Remembering.

If *or* is used between the two titles, the connective should have a semicolon before it and a comma after it.

Logic; or, The Laws of Reasoning, Including Fallacies.

The colon is used on title pages, and in catalogues of books, between the name of the place of publication and the name of the publisher.

Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

**THE PERIOD.**

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**RULE XXVIII.**

**85. Complete Sentences.**—*A complete statement or command, unless very strongly exclamatory, should be followed by a period.*

History is philosophy teaching by means of examples.  
 Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.  
 I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.

**86.** A sentence beginning with *and, or, for, but,* or a similar connective is in reality a part of the preceding sentence; yet such sentences are often separated by periods from what precedes. In this way, long and complex constructions may be avoided, with a gain in force and in ease of comprehension.

The period is to be preferred to the exclamation point at the end of an exclamatory statement or command, unless the emotion to be expressed is exceptionally strong.

---

**RULE XXIX.**

**87. Abbreviations.**—*A period should be used after every abbreviated word, but not after contracted words when the missing elements are replaced by a dash or an apostrophe.*

*MSS., p., pp., Dr., Ph. D., LL. D., and Co.* are abbreviations.  
*Rec'd, can't, pay't, J—n S—th,* and *Rev'd* are contractions.

**88.** Arabic figures when used to number paragraphs, examples, articles, etc., and letters of the alphabet when used for the same purpose, take a period after them. When, as part of a sentence structure, they become ordinal or are enclosed in marks of parenthesis a period is not required; as, (1), (a), 1st, 2d, 4th.

Roman numbers are by most authorities written with a period following; as, IV., XVIII. When used in paging,

Roman and Arabic numbers do not have the period after them. There is good authority for omitting the period in all cases after Roman numerals.

**89.** The symbols for chemical elements are written without periods; also, the letters used in geometry and other sciences to represent quantity of any kind, and certain other much used mathematical abbreviations.

Water consists of two atoms of *H* combined with one atom of *O*.

If *A* can do a piece of work in *a* days, etc.

$$\text{vers } a = 1 - \cos a = \frac{\sec a - \cos a}{\sec a}, \log x, \tan a + \cot b = x, \text{ etc.}$$

Sizes of books are indicated without periods; as, *4to*, *8vo*, *12mo*. These are hybrid contractions of *quarto*, *octavo*, *duodecimo*, etc.

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**RULE XXX.**

**90. Side Heads.**—*After a title or a side head that forms part of a paragraph, a period, or a period followed by a dash, should be used.* The dash alone is preferred by some authorities.

*Capital Letters.* Capital letters are used etc.

*Capital Letters.*—Capital letters are used etc.

*Note.* The student will observe etc. *N. B. Remark.*

*Note.*—An apparent exception etc. *N. B.—Remark.*

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**RULE XXXI.**

**91. Tabular Matter.**—*In tables and synopses, and in statistical or other matter in tabular form, the period should be used only after abbreviations, or where it will prevent ambiguity.* This rule applies also to other marks of punctuation.

**92.** In late books printed by the most reputable publishers, punctuation is almost entirely excluded from title pages. The same usage is well established with respect to the headings of chapters, running titles at the tops of pages, and in many similar cases. The theory is that punctuation

should be used only when it accomplishes a useful purpose. The following reduced title page will illustrate:

THE  
AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH

BY  
JAMES BRYCE  
AUTHOR OF "THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE"  
M. P. FOR ABERDEEN

IN TWO VOLUMES  
VOL. I  
THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT—THE STATE  
GOVERNMENTS

THIRD EDITION  
COMPLETELY REVISED THROUGHOUT  
WITH ADDITIONAL CHAPTERS

NEW YORK  
THE MACMILLAN COMPANY  
LONDON: MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.  
1897

*All rights reserved*

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THE INTERROGATION POINT.

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RULE XXXII.

**93. Direct Questions.**—*Every direct question should be followed by a mark of interrogation, but not an indirect question.*

*Direct:* If a man die, shall he live again ?

*Indirect:* { Tell me whether, if a man die, he will live again.  
He inquired when I intended to go to New York.

**94.** When several questions have a common dependence on a final element, only one mark of interrogation is required, and that should be placed at the end.

Whither now are fled those dreams of greatness; those busy, bustling days; those happy, festive nights; those veering thoughts, lost between good and ill, that charmed thy youth ?

When several questions have no common element, each question, even though grammatically incomplete, requires a separate mark.

What is education? Who are its apostles? When did they live? Where?

Shall a man succeed by theft? by dishonesty? by trickery? by bribery?

**95.** Questions are often put in the declarative form. In such cases they are known to be questions only by their punctuation.

You will come to-morrow? I may depend on that?

Well, sir? Sick? Since when? Yesterday?

Of late years there has come into pretty general use the practice of following the statements of a speaker with an interrogative *yes*. This is in very bad taste.

*Speaker.*—"We then went aboard the steamer, which immediately left the harbor." *Listener.*—"Yes?" *Speaker.*—"The voyage was at first very rough, and we were all seasick." *Listener.*—"Yes?"

This is a usage similar to the "Do tell!" of the New England States.

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**RULE XXXIII.**

**96. Doubt.**—*In order to denote doubt or incredulity or to suggest a correction, an interrogation mark may be inserted within the body of a sentence and enclosed by marks of parenthesis.*

Thomas Parr was born in 1488 (?) and died in 1635.

The augers (*augurs*?) were all in the temple of Jupiter.

Hypatia was murdered by the monks, instigated by Saint (?) Cyril of Alexandria.

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**RULE XXXIV.**

**97. Quotations Within Questions.**—*A quotation within a question must be punctuated so as to retain the individuality of each.*

Have you heard the head waiter say "dinner is served"?

Do you remember Tweed's "what are you going to do about it?"

Did not some one cry "murder! help!"?

Has the question, "whence came we?" ever been answered?

THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

RULE XXXV.

**98. Exclamatory Sentences.**—*An exclamation point should be placed at the end of a sentence expressing very strong emotion or implying loud outcry.*

What a burning shame! How dare you, sir!

"Come back! come back!" he cried in grief. "Rouse, ye Romans! rouse, ye slaves!"

Even when the feeling is strong, it is better to avoid, whenever possible, the use of the exclamation point. It is a mark found most frequently in weak writing. Mere tricks of punctuation cannot make up for lack of force; a refined and well balanced intellect avoids the show of emotion.

O, sir, forgive me.

O, I am utterly disgusted with him.

RULE XXXVI.

**99. Exclamatory Expressions.**—*An exclamation point should usually follow interjections and interjectional expressions.*

Alas! alas! what have I spoken? Listen! O listen!

Oh! how it hurts! O what a beauty!

Ha, ha, ha, ho, ho! Fie, fie, fie, good sir!

When an interjection is repeated the punctuation should be as in the last example above.

**100.** The interjections *O* and *oh* are generally discriminated thus: The former is used where the emotion colors an entire sentence; the latter as a mere ejaculation expressing sudden, strong, and explosive emotion. When *O* is used, the exclamation point should be written, if at all, at the end of the emotive expression; but *oh* should be directly followed by the point.

**101.** The interjection *O* is sometimes used to express mere earnestness, and in such cases the exclamation point should be displaced by ordinary punctuation.

What did you do then? O, I just walked away without replying.  
O, sir, may I not have the place?

Tennyson has the following:

“O sir, oh prince, I have no country: none.”

**102.** The interjection *eh* is usually followed by a question mark.

You are going, eh?

When so used an interjection is really a *modal adverb*, because it modifies the meaning of the entire sentence.

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RULE XXXVII.

**103.** *Graduated Emotion.*—*Emotion is represented as increasing or decreasing by using more or fewer exclamation points.*

Police! Help!! Murder!!! Murder!!!!  
Oh! Oh!! Oh!!! Ah!! Ah-h-h!—the tooth was out.

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THE DASH.

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RULE XXXVIII.

**104.** *Changes in Sense or Construction.*—*A sudden change in sense or in grammatical construction, or an abrupt pause, is indicated by the dash.*

My uncle—he was my best friend—died a week ago.

Honesty, they say,—here's your health, sir,—is the best policy.

That old teacher of yours—by the way, what ever became of him?—was an odd character.

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RULE XXXIX.

**105.** *Rhetorical Pause.*—*A dash is used to mark a rhetorical pause, or suspension of the voice for effect, where there is no change in the grammatical construction.*

He is shrewd, polished, unscrupulous, and—religious.

My friend devotes much time to charity and general benevolence—when there's money in it.

A—“Thou art a villain.” B—“You are—a senator.”

“You are very kind; I can never repay—” she was unable to proceed.

RULE XL.

**106. Rhetorical Repetition.**—*When the construction is broken and resumed for rhetorical effect, a dash should follow between the break and the part repeated.*

O those happy days of childhood!—childhood, the beautiful!—childhood, the innocent!—they are gone forever.

To me—me, his benefactor—me, his lifelong friend—to me he has been false.

Is there—is there balm in Gilead?—tell me,—tell me, I implore!

RULE XLI.

**107. Generalization.**—*When a series of terms is represented by a following generic expression, a dash should follow the series.*

Write a tale, a history, a poem,—*anything*,— only write.

He was chubby and plump—a right jolly old *elf*.

**108.** The generic term may precede the series.

Those old Greek *names*.—Demosthenes, Agamemnon, Epaminondas,—they have a suggestion of immortality in their resonance.

RULE XLII.

**109. Parenthetical Dash.**—*Parenthetical expressions that are too closely connected to be enclosed in marks of parenthesis may be placed between dashes.*

In those beautiful far-off June days,—and no days can be more beautiful,—she and I gathered flowers in the Kentish meadows.

What woman—was it your mother, I wonder?—taught you to reverence woman?

I live by myself, and all the bread and cheese I get,—which is not much,—I put upon a shelf.

**110.** Various degrees of connection of parenthetical elements are indicated by the manner of their punctuation. The following forms show how such matter is punctuated when introduced within the body of a sentence. The first indicates the least degree of remoteness, and the last, the greatest.

..... —.....— ;.....—  
 ;.....;— (.....) [.....]



Examples illustrating these forms of parenthetical elements may be found in many places in this work. (See Arts. 104 to 109, inclusive, and elsewhere.)

Of course, a dash should not displace a period, a question mark, or a mark of exclamation at the end of a sentence.

111. Questions and exclamations, being in their nature rhetorical or logical, have no determinate degrees of closeness in connection. When introduced in intermediate positions in sentences, they are punctuated in the following, among other ways :

,—.....?    —.....?—    ;—.....?—  
 (.....?)    [.....?]    ,—.....!—

---

RULE XLIII.

112. Omissions.—*The omission of letters or figures that are plainly implied may be marked by the dash (the em and the en dash respectively).*

D—n and P—s were noted for their great friendship.

The winter of 1837—38 was a very severe one.

Matt. 7:9—14. This means Matthew, 7th chapter, verses 9 to 14, inclusive.

In referring to pages no omissions of figures are allowable.

See letter X in "Standard Dictionary," pp. 2085—2087, inclusive.

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RULE XLIV.

113. Titles Run In.—*When a title begins the first line of a paragraph, a dash following a period should separate it from the text of the paragraph (see rule XXX).*

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RULE XLV.

114. For Introductory Words.—*The dash may be used as a substitute for certain words of formal introduction, such as viz., namely, e. g., i. e., that is, etc.*

In his library were editions beautifully bound of all the great poets—Homer, Virgil, Dante, Milton, Shakespeare, etc.

RULE XLVI.

**115. Authorities.**—*When an author's name immediately follows a citation it should be separated from the quoted passage by a dash.*

"Beware when the great God lets loose a thinker on this planet. Then all things are at risk."—*Emerson.*

**116.** If the author's name is placed on a line by itself no dash is required.

"Nothing is so dangerous as an ignorant friend; a wise enemy is more helpful."

*Voltaire.*

**117.** If both the writer's name and the writing in which the quotation is found are given, they should be separated by a dash and be printed in different type.

"Language is only the instrument of science, and words are but the signs of ideas."

JOHNSON—*Preface to "English Dictionary."*

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THE MARKS OF PARENTHESIS.

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RULE XLVII.

**118.** *Words inserted in the body of a sentence or paragraph, and nearly or quite independent, so that they may be omitted without changing the sense or construction, should be enclosed in marks of parenthesis.*

Great rifts or spots sometimes appear on the surface of the sun (a picture of solar spots is thrown upon the screen), which are never seen at the poles, but always in a narrow belt along the sun's equator.

Another theory (that of Weissman) is that acquired aptitudes cannot be transmitted from parent to offspring.

This subject will be found more fully treated in another place (see pp. 125-137) and admirably illustrated.

**119.** A distinction should be observed between *parenthesis* and *marks of parenthesis*. The former should mean the *enclosed matter*; the latter, the *enclosing marks*. The

plural, *parentheses*, should be used to denote the *matter* enclosed within several pairs of marks of parenthesis.

Too many parentheses greatly weaken the force of every form of composition.

Enclose all the adjectives in marks of parenthesis.

A parenthesis should, in general, not begin with a capital, unless the first word is a proper name, but should be treated as a mere inferior part of the sentence within which it occurs, even though it is itself a complete sentence.

**120.** Such punctuation as a parenthesis requires should be wholly within the enclosing marks. If the parenthesis is a declarative sentence, it usually takes no period at the end ; but if it is a question or an exclamatory sentence, the punctuation should denote this fact.

Kit's mother, poor woman, is waiting at the gate below, accompanied by Barbara's mother (she, honest soul! never does anything but cry and hold the baby), and a sad interview ensues.

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## BRACKETS.

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### RULE XLVIII.

**121.** *Brackets should be used to enclose (a) suggested corrections in grammar and spelling ; (b) stage directions in plays ; (c) derivation of words, plurals, principal parts, etc., in dictionaries.*

He was the subtlest [subtlest (?)] reasoner whom [that] the age produced.

*Macbeth.* [*Aside.*] Two truths are told,  
As happy prologues to the swelling act  
Of the imperial theme. [*Exeunt.*]

SPEED, *spid*, *v.* [SPED OF SPEED'ED; SPEED'ING.] [A. S. *spedan*, < *sped*;  
see SPEED, *n.*]

The principle governing the use of the brackets is that the matter enclosed by them shall have no grammatical connection with other words. Their purpose is simply explanatory or to supply an omission.

QUOTATION MARKS.

RULE XLIX.

**122. Direct Quotations.**—*Expressions that are cited or borrowed should, when written or printed, be enclosed between marks of quotation.*

Seneca makes this remark: "If you wish your secret kept, keep it yourself."

**123.** When a thought is borrowed, but not the exact language, the fact may be indicated by using single quotation marks to enclose it. This usage, however, is not well established. It is generally better to use the double marks or to omit them altogether.

His life was regulated by the rule of 'doing to others as he wished them to do to him.'

This would be improved by omitting the marks.

When the source from which the substance of a thought comes is distinctly noted, no quotation marks are ever required.

One of the last remarks of Socrates was that the soul is immortal.

Such quotations as this last are called *indirect*.

**124.** In citing language from another of one's own compositions, it is usual to employ quotation marks.

In my "Lectures on Electricity," written ten years ago, I made the following prediction: "The day will come when electricity will do for the eye what, by means of the telephone, it is now doing for the ear."

**125.** Foreign words and phrases, scientific names, and single words of our language, when quoted as mere words, are commonly printed in *Italic*. The same is done in a limited measure with titles and names of various kinds, though in the case of these last, quotation marks are to be preferred.

He was deficient in what the French call *savoirfaire*.

We found some fine specimens of trailing arbutus (*Epigæa repens*).

The word *advice* is the noun and *advise* the verb.

Macaulay says that Shakespeare's *Othello* is the greatest work in the world.

It would be better to use quotation marks—"Othello."

Certain foreign words and well known abbreviations are usually printed in Roman.

i. e., e. g., vice versa, etc., N. B., P. S., R. S. V. P., Q. E. D.

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RULE L.

**126. Quoted Quotations.**—*A quotation within another is enclosed in single, not double, quotation marks.*

Some one remarks: "Gladstone was for nearly fifty years the uncrowned king' of the British Empire."

Where a quotation is made within a second quotation that has the single mark, the double mark must be again used. But this, on account of its extreme awkwardness, should be avoided.

"The old doctor said to us one morning: 'You boys do not understand, I am sure, all that is implied by Huxley's "survival of the fittest.'""

It is better to put the last four words in *Italic* than to enclose them between marks of quotation.

**127.** If a quotation ends a sentence, judgment is often necessary in harmonizing the punctuation of the quotation with that of the entire sentence.

"Were you not all agreeably startled by the lookout's hail, 'Ship, ahoy!'"

"Have you ever considered Job's significant query: 'If a man die, shall he live again?'"

Is the old saying always defensible—"The end justifies the means"?

Did you hear any one ask the foolish question—"Where are we at"?

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RULE LI.

**128. Consecutive Paragraphs Quoted.**—*Inverted commas should be placed at the beginning of each of several consecutive quoted paragraphs, and apostrophes at the end of the last paragraph.*

**129.** If portions of the original are omitted at intervals from the quotation, each fragment that is complete in itself should be enclosed in quotation marks.

When a quotation ends with marks of continuation, or if its completion is prevented by interruption, the punctuation denoting its unfinished character must be included within the marks of quotation.

“What is your ——?” “I object, your honor,” shouted the plaintiff’s lawyer.

“Do you remember the Golden Rule: ‘Do unto others . . . . .?’”

Quite frequently in England, and to some extent in this country, inverted commas are placed at the beginning of each line of a quoted paragraph and apostrophes at the end of each paragraph. The objections to this are that it is unnecessary, and that it disfigures the page. This unsightly usage is not likely to become generally current.

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**THE APOSTROPHE.**

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**RULE LII.**

**130. Omission.**—*The apostrophe is used as a substitute for omitted letters or figures.*

I’ve, o’er, e’er, isn’t, doesn’t, don’t, can’t, shouldn’t, we’ll, I’ll, you’re, he’s, Jan’y 25, ’99.

The apostrophe is used to denote plurals of figures and letters; as, mind your *p*’s and *q*’s, etc.

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**RULE LIII.**

**131. Possessive Case.**—*The apostrophe is used to denote the possessive case of nouns and of a few pronouns.*

*Death’s* terrors, *John’s* hat, *New York’s* streets, the city of *Baltimore’s* monuments.

*One’s* own, *neither’s* share, *either’s* money, the *other’s* house, *others’* opinions, *some one’s* hat.

## LETTERS AND CHARACTERS.

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### SYSTEMS OF TYPE.

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#### THE OLD SYSTEM.

**132.** Until a few years ago there was no general standard for the sizes of type. There were, indeed, certain well known kinds of type, such as long primer, pica, brevier, nonpareil, etc.; but even when their names were alike, they were always slightly different in size if made at different foundries. No founder could be relied upon to keep his names and sizes constant from year to year. The result was that if pica, for example, bought at different foundries, was mixed and set together, neither lines nor columns could be made of exactly the same length. As the printers phrase it, the type would not "justify." To prevent letters, words, and even whole lines from dropping out after a form of type was "locked up" for printing from it, much tedious and troublesome filling in with bits of paper and cardboard was necessary. So serious were the obstacles to taste, expedition, and economy in printing, that the Type-Founders' Association of the United States finally adopted the scale of sizes now known as the "Point" system. The system leaves little to be desired. The old names are no longer used, except in a historical way, or for purposes of comparison with the new names. It makes no difference now where a printer buys his type, for the output of all foundries will "justify" when set together. Then, again, the strips of type metal called "leads," by which the distances between lines may be varied, are regulated in thickness by the system of points. As a consequence, the length of one page may be made exactly equal to that of another, no matter how many sizes of type may compose them. Since many persons do not understand this system thoroughly, although it is of much interest and importance, an explanation in detail is given here.

## THE "POINT" SYSTEM.

**133.** The fundamental unit of measure of this system is the "point." To obtain this, a length of 35 centimeters (almost exactly  $1\frac{3}{8}$  inches) is divided into 996 equal parts. A point is, therefore, .03514 centimeter, or .0138+ inch. This is taken among printers as  $\frac{1}{72}$  of an inch, but in reality, it is less by about  $\frac{1}{1384}$  of an inch. This is used to measure the height or *body* of type. Thus, 3-point type, which is the smallest type made, is very nearly  $\frac{3}{72}$ , or  $\frac{1}{24}$ , of an inch high; so that, if 24 lines of such type be set without "leads" between the lines, they will occupy 1 inch, very nearly, in the length of the page. Of 8-point type, the "body" is  $\frac{8}{72}$ , or  $\frac{1}{9}$  of an inch; 9 lines of this, without leads, would make 1 page-inch. Similarly, 6 lines of 12-point, 4 lines of 18-point, 3 lines of 24-point, etc. would each fill a page-inch. Hence, generally, if 72 be divided by the points that measure a given kind of type, the quotient will show the number of unleaded lines to a page-inch. (It must be remembered that an inch is not exactly 72 points, but 72.46+ points.)

The various kinds of type made under the "point" system correspond more or less nearly to the kinds with old-fashioned names. This correspondence is shown in the table below. Of these, the standard of measurement was *pica*, and this is so very closely represented by 12-point, that the name *pica* is now used among printers to mean 12-point, or type with  $\frac{1}{6}$  of an inch body. The thickness of leads and the length of lines are estimated in pica size. Thus, leads are spoken of as *4-to-pica*, *6-to-pica*, etc., meaning that 4, 6, etc. leads equal pica thickness—12 points, or  $\frac{1}{6}$  of an inch. Hence, one 6-to-pica lead is 2 points, or  $\frac{1}{36}$  of an inch in thickness. Again, a page 24 picas wide is 24 times  $\frac{1}{6}$  of an inch, or 4 inches in width.

Under this system, "justification," even when many different sizes of type are used, is no longer difficult or wasteful of time, as was the case under the old system. If properly set and "locked up," no type will slip from place or fall out.

The point system would be perfect if the thickness of type as well as the height or width of body were in points also. This is not yet the case generally, but doubtless it soon will



be, for at least one foundry is now advertising type made by the "point-set" or "lining" system. This means the establishment of a point ratio between the height and the width of type. The foundry referred to makes its Roman type so as to have a certain point-width for each letter or character as well as a point-height.

Thus, 10-point f, i, j, l, i, etc. are each 3 points wide; s, z, J, etc. are 4 points; a, g, o, v, y, etc. are  $4\frac{1}{2}$  points; and so on.

When this is done for type of all sizes, and done in the same way by all type foundries, and when quads and spaces are made from the point as a unit, the point system will be practically perfect.

**134. Old Style and Point Sizes.**—The following table gives the old names of type, with their approximate value in points:

Old Names.	Points, Nearly.	Body or Height, Inch.	Lines to Inch.	Roman.
Paragon.....	20	$\frac{5}{18}$	3.6	Paragon
Great Primer.	18	$\frac{1}{4}$	4	Great Primer
English.....	14	$\frac{1}{5}$	5.14	English
Pica.....	12	$\frac{1}{6}$	6	Pica
Small Pica....	11	$\frac{1\frac{1}{2}}{7\frac{1}{2}}$	6.55	Small Pica
Long Primer.	10	$\frac{1}{7}$	7.2	Long Primer
Bourgeois....	9	$\frac{1}{8}$	8	Bourgeois
Brevier.....	8	$\frac{1}{9}$	9	Brevier
Minion.....	7	$\frac{7}{72}$	10.3	Minion
Emerald.....	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{11}$	11.1	Emerald
Nonpareil....	6	$\frac{1}{12}$	12	Nonpareil
Agate or Ruby	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{13}$	13.17	Agate or Ruby
Pearl.....	5	$\frac{1}{14}$	14.4	Pearl
Diamond.....	4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{18}$ to $\frac{1}{16}$	16 to 18	Diamond
Gem.....	4—	$\frac{1}{18}$ —	18.5	
Brilliant.....	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{20}$	20.6	Brilliant
Excelsior....	3	$\frac{1}{24}$	24	

MISCELLANEOUS MARKS.

**135.** Many different marks, named and unnamed, are in use among printers. The most important of these are placed here in alphabetical order for convenience of reference.

**136.** *Accents.*—There are three marks of accents; the *acute* (´), the *grave* (`), and the *circumflex* (^, ˘, ˜). The acute is the accent most frequently used. It denotes that the vowel or syllable above or after which it is placed is to be pronounced with a marked stress of the voice; as, *a-cu'-men*. This accent is either primary as shown above or secondary (˘). The secondary acute accent is used to denote a less marked stress of the voice than the primary requires; as, *ac-cen˘-tu-a'-tion*. The *grave* accent denotes a falling tone; or it may show that a vowel not usually sounded is to be pronounced in a certain word. This frequently happens in poetry; as,

"Cæsar's ambition shall be glanced at."

The *circumflex* denotes that a vowel is to be sounded with both a rising and a falling inflection, as in sarcasm or irony. It is also used to mark a long vowel, as in *père*.

**137.** *Apostrophe.*—The apostrophe (') is used (*a*) to indicate an omission; as, *e'en*, and (*b*) to denote the possessive case; as, *man's duty*, *Moses's sayings*.

**138.** *Brace.*—The *brace* { } is used in grouping.

Homes	{	by over under	}	the sea.	{	$[a - (b + c)] - d$	}	Coin	{	gold silver copper	}
-------	---	---------------------	---	----------	---	---------------------	---	------	---	--------------------------	---

**139.** *Brackets.*—The *brackets* [ ] are used for enclosing other characters, indicated pronunciations, matter inserted in sentences but not closely connected, and for many other purposes.

**140.** *Caret.*—The *caret* (∧) marks the insertion of a word or a letter accidentally omitted; as, *se<sup>a</sup>prate*, Honesty is *best* the<sub>∧</sub> *policy*.

**141. Cedilla.**—The *cedilla* ( $\text{ç}$ ) is a mark placed under the letter *c* when it occurs before *a*, *o*, or *u*, in some Romance languages. It indicates that *c* is to be sounded like *s*; as, *garçon*, *façade*, *François*.

**142. Dieresis.**—A *dieresis* (¨) placed over the second of two adjacent vowels shows that they belong to separate syllables; as, *zoölogy*, *æërate*. This mark is usually omitted; as, *cooperate*, *zoology*, *reiterate*.

**143. Ditto Marks.**—These marks (‘‘) are used to denote that something is to be understood as repeated from immediately above. When any word or expression with its accompanying punctuation is to be repeated, the fact is indicated by writing ditto marks instead or by writing *do*. The word *ditto* is the Italian form of the Latin *dictum*, ‘‘a thing that has been said.’’ This abbreviation is much used in book-keeping. Excepting its punctuation, it is usually repeated for each separate part of an expression; or, it may stand for an entire expression. The following will illustrate:

Creditor by investment, February 1, 1893,	\$1,891.25
‘‘    ‘‘ ¼ net gain,                    ‘‘    ‘‘    ‘‘	296.88
Jan. 3, To 48 yd. Union gingham, @ .12½,	\$6.00
‘‘    ‘‘ 60 ‘‘ Amoskeag do.          ‘‘.15,	9.00

**144. Ellipsis.**—There are several kinds of marks that denote ellipsis or omissions. The principal of these are the following:

(\*\*\*\*\*), (. . . . .), (————); as, The P\*\*\*\*\*s formerly belonged to S . . . . n, but they have been ceded to the U——d S——s, owing chiefly to the vigorous action of Admiral D——y.

$$(a + b)^6 = a^6 + 6a^5b + \dots + 6ab^5 + b^6.$$

**145. Emphasis.**—Special attention to a statement is generally denoted by an *index*, or *fist* (☞). The term ‘‘fist’’ is preferred among printers; indeed, they rarely use the old name, *index*.

**146. Hyphen.**—The *hyphen* (-) has several uses: (1) to connect the elements of compound words, as, for instance,

*good-natured*; (2) to denote the syllabication of words; as, *re-al-i-ty*; (3) to show that a word is unfinished at the end of a line (see Art. 143 for an example).

**147. Paragraph.**—The *paragraph* (¶) is used in manuscript to denote that the matter following it should be separated by an interval from what precedes.

**148. Marks of Quantity.**—These are (1) the *mācron* (¯), used to denote the long sound of a vowel; as, *fāte*, (2) the *breve* (˘), denoting the short sound of a vowel; as, *ātōmic*; the *double* [ ¨ ], to denote common or doubtful quantity; as, *shōne*, *ĕat*.

**149. Reference Marks.**—Letters and numbers are now generally preferred for referring to notes or other matter not strictly belonging in the text. The following were formerly much used for this purpose: (a) the *star*, or *asterisk* (\*); (b) the *dagger*, or *obelisk* (†); (c) the *double dagger* (‡); (d) the *section* (§); (e) the *parallel* (||); (f) the *paragraph* (¶). When references are sufficiently numerous on a page to exhaust these marks, they may be doubled; as (††), (§§), etc. The section and paragraph were formerly much employed to indicate subdivisions of subject matter.

**150. Tilde.**—This mark (˜) is placed above *n* in Spanish words to denote that it is to be sounded like *ny*; as, *señor* [pro. *sē-nyōr'*], *mañana* [pro. *man-yah'-nak*], *cañon*.

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## USE OF CAPITALS.

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### CAPITAL LETTERS.

**151.** In order to give distinction to certain words, larger letters called *capitals* may be employed as initials. Before the invention of printing, when books were made entirely by writing, the first or *head* (*caput*, "head") letters of principal divisions were generally embellished, and were larger

and more conspicuous than those forms ordinarily used. The matter from one capital to the next was a *chapter* (*capitulum*, from *caput*).

In the German language every *noun* formerly began with a capital letter, but in late German literature this usage is falling into discredit. Indeed, the excessive use of embellishment in printing is offensive to refined taste, just as it is in the matter of dress and many other things. A very good general principle in such matters would be: *Too little decoration is better than too much; the best taste is the simplest.*

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RULE LIV.

**152. Headings.**—*Title pages of books, headings of essays and chapters, and of magazine and newspaper articles, should be wholly in capitals.*

So many varieties of display type have been devised of late years that printers often use them where plain capitals would be in better taste.

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RULE LV.

**153. First Words.**—*Begin with a capital, the first word of a note, letter, legal or other document; of a written or printed essay, preface, tract, lecture, magazine or newspaper article; of a book, chapter, section, or paragraph; of every direct quotation or question, and of every line of poetry.*

**154.** After the initial capital of the first word in a document of the kinds indicated in the rule, the remainder of the word is usually printed in *small capitals*. If the first word is an article or other short unimportant word, the second also should be in small capitals. The following are intended to represent such first words:

ONCE upon a time there was a great king etc.

A SWEEPING criticism upon the use and abuse of etc.

WHEN King Richard was returning from the Holy Land etc.

ORTHOGRAPHY IS NOW as well settled as it will probably etc.

**155.** This same use of capitals and small capitals is now increasingly common in the subdivisions of chapters. The following heading and subdivisions of a chapter are copied from a book lately published by a firm widely known for its excellent taste in the usages of good printing.

**CHAPTER XI.**

(Heading)           **COMPOUND WORDS.**

(Subheads) {	GENERAL PRINCIPLES
	COMPOUND NOUNS MADE OF TWO NOUNS
	SOME WORDS USED AS INSEPARABLE SUFFIXES

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**RULE LVI.**

**156. Examples and Numbered Items.**—*Begin with capitals the initial words of examples and of numbered items if they are complete sentences.*

A proverb is a wise saying; as, Honesty is the best policy.

**157.** When items are mere words, phrases, or clauses of no special prominence, capitals are unnecessary.

Letters are divided into two classes; (1) vowels, (2) consonants.

Astronomers tell us (1) that the surface of Jupiter is nearly red hot; (2) that it is incapable of supporting organic life; (3) that etc.

In technical and other treatises, subjects of chief interest, when given as numbered items, require capitals.

In the following chapter we shall treat; (1) of Exponents, (2) of Radical Quantities, (3) of etc.

With respect to matters that belong under this rule, usage is by no means uniform. Taste and consistency must determine what is best in each case.

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**RULE LVII.**

**158. Quoted Titles.**—*In quoting titles of books, essays, poems, etc., capitalize nouns, pronouns, adjectives (not articles), verbs and adverbs.*

Whitney's "Life and Growth of Language"; Tyndall's "Hours of Exercise in the Alps."

**159.** The foregoing is the rule in common use, but it is often inexpedient in practice. A late writer gives the following rule as better than that given above:

*In headings capitalize all important, emphatic, and contrasted words.*

When it is remembered that a common usage is not to capitalize *prepositions, conjunctions, and articles*, the need for the rule just given will be seen. In titles or heads of chapters, words usually unimportant become important on account of *emphasis, contrast, etc.*

Acting WITH and Acting AGAINST.  
Concerning the Use of "A" and "An."  
Should it be "Of" or "From" ?

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RULE LVIII.

**160. Names of Deity.**—*Names and titles of God and Christ should begin with capitals.*

Jehovah, Father, Creator, Son of God, Almighty, Supreme Being, First Cause, Infinite One, etc.

**161.** Adjectives used with names of Deity require no capitals unless they are to be regarded as a necessary part of the names. Hence,

The all-wise Father, the divine Master, the merciful Father, LORD God omnipotent.

The following are taken from a recent edition of the Bible:

Lord God Almighty (in address), the Most High, the Holy One, the King of glory, the God of heaven, I am the good shepherd, that great Shepherd, the God of peace, Son of man, Lord of lords and King of kings, etc.

These will serve to show that modifying phrases should not in general be capitalized.

A pronoun having as antecedent some name of Deity need not for that reason alone be capitalized. This is done to an absurd extent, especially in printed hymns and prayers.

RULE LIX.

**162. Roman Numerals.**—*Numbers required in referring to passages in books are sometimes denoted by capital letters.*

Spencer's "Sociology," Vol. II, Part V, Chap. VIII, § 494, p. 409.

Later usage seems to prefer small letters.

Whatley's "Logic," book ii, ch. iii, § v, p. 118.

References to passages in the Bible are now generally given in the following manner:

I Ki. 8:1; Judg. 8:8-10; Matt. 7:9, 12-15; 13:8-15.

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RULE LX.

**163. Proper Names.**—*Begin all proper names with capitals.*

Albert, Napoleon, Russia, the Pacific, August, Saturday, Easter.

**164.** When a name is made up of two or more elements one of which is an ordinary class name, only the specific element should be capitalized.

The Arctic ocean, the Spanish main, the Dead sea, Aleutian islands, Yukon river, Decoration day, the sabbath day or the Sabbath day, Wall street, Fifth avenue, etc.

Usage in this matter is by no means uniform, but economy in the use of capitals is generally better than the opposite practice. In naming streets, well known buildings or other structures, it is common to begin every element with a capital.

Washington Avenue, Park Row, Brooklyn Bridge, Bunker Hill Monument, etc.

**165.** When the specific element of a geographical name follows the generic, and no article precedes, both should usually begin with capitals; as, *Lake Como, Mt. Washington, Rio Grande* (*rio* = river), *Cape May*, etc. But we should write, the *river Thames*, the *lake Victoria Nyanza*, the



*peninsula of Arabia, the state of New Jersey, the land of the Midnight Sun or midnight sun, the land of Nod, of bondage, of promise, etc.*

Words denoting direction, when used to name countries or districts, should have initial capitals.

They live in the *South*, the trappers of the *Northwest*, the *Orient*, the *Occident*, the *Levant*, the *Far West*, the *Boreal* regions, etc.

**166.** The names of the chief of the evil spirits and the places and characters of mythology should begin with capitals when they are used strictly as proper names: the same is true of the constellations; as, *Satan, Zeus, Pluto, Hades, Gehenna, Sheol, Venus, Somnus, Belial, Orion, Libra, Elysium*, etc.

Exceptions to this are, *devil, heaven, hell, paradise, purgatory, pandemonium*, and some others of very frequent use.

**167.** When a compound word contains an element derived from a proper noun, that element should begin with a capital only when a hyphen precedes.

Antichrist or antichrist, post-Homeric, Preraffaelite, preadamite, antenicene, etc.

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RULE LXI.

**168. Sacred Writings.**—*Expressions used to denote writings regarded as sacred, or any portion of such writings, should be written with initial capitals.*

The Holy Bible, the Good Book, the Sacred Scriptures, the Old Testament, the Pentateuch, the Koran, the Zend-Avesta, the Vedas.

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RULE LXII.

**169. Derivations from Proper Names.**—*Words derived from proper names generally begin with capitals.*

Hebraic, Jovian, Romance, Brahminic, Teutonic, Mohammedan, Spanish, Elizabethan, etc.

**170.** Many words derived from proper names are now written with small initials.

Damask, china, simony, stentorian, herculean, tantalize, hector, philippic, boreal, argosy, cyclopean, hermetical, epicure, cashmere, champagne, oceanic, hymeneal, mercurial, volcanic, etc.

The names of the elements and of minerals, whether derived from proper names or not, should begin with small letters; as, *gallium*, *scandium*, *danaite*, *caledonite*, etc.

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RULE LXIII.

**171. Zoological Names.**—*In writing the double scientific names of animal organisms, only the first of generic element should be capitalized.*

*Crotalus horridus* (rattlesnake), *Salmo clarkii* (trout of Columbia river).

Even when a variety term is added it should always be written with a small initial.

*Athya ferina*, var. *americana* (Red-headed Duck).

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RULE LXIV.

**172. Botanical Names.**—*Generic names in botany should always begin with capitals, and specific names also, if they are derived from proper names.*

*Claytonia Virginica*, *Epigæa repens*, *Fragaria Virginiana*, var. *Illinænsis*.

**173.** It is unfortunate that there should be a difference in the matter of capitalization between botanical and zoological names. But it should be noted that some standard works are abandoning initial capitals for specific names in botany. Thus, in Loudon's "Encyclopedia of Botany" specific terms derived from the names of countries are written without capitals; as, *persica*, *japonica*, *californica*, *jamaicensis*, *chinensis*, etc. This is as it should be, and it is to be hoped that the usage in botany may soon conform with that in zoology. Specific botanical terms derived from the names of persons are, however, generally capitalized.

## RULE LXV.

**174. Personification.**—*In vivid personification, the personified noun should begin with a capital.*

“With eyes upraised, as one inspired,

Pale Melancholy sate retired.”—*Collins.*

“And Melancholy marked him for his own.”—*Gray.*

This usage is less common now than formerly, and is confined almost entirely to poetry. Even there, the best writers employ it but rarely. The following seem better as their authors give them, and yet the personification is strong in each:

“Friends depart, and memory takes them  
To her caverns, pure and deep.”—*Bayly.*

“Moping melancholy,  
And moon-struck madness.”—*Milton.*

It was formerly the rule to capitalize the following: *nature*, the *seasons*—*spring, summer, autumn, winter, time*, the *hours, dawn, night*, the *graces, the muses, music*, and many other inanimate things, especially in poetry. This, however, is not now considered in the best taste, unless the personification is peculiarly strong.

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 RULE LXVI.

**175. Terms Defined.**—*Words to be defined or explained are either capitalized or printed in heavy type or in Italic.*

A Verb is a word etc. A **verb** is a word etc. A *pronoun* is a word that denotes persons or things without naming them.

Under this rule may be included ordinary words occurring in the body of the text, and regarded as of extraordinary importance.

The region was in the heart of Ethiopia near the source of the river Zaire. Over the region there brooded a Presence—a Shadow, weird, intangible, oppressive.

It should be remarked that this is one of the tricks or devices employed in what has been contemptuously called “fine writing.” For true excellence the ordinary resources of expression are always sufficient [see, however, rule LXVIII].

RULE LXVII.

**176. Titles.**—*Titles of honor, respect, and office should begin with capitals.*

His Honor the Mayor, His Excellency the Governor, Your Royal Highness, Dear Sir, My dear Madam, etc.

When used in a specific sense, as in rules, reports, and documents, such words as *president, chairman, directors, committee, school, institution, congress*, etc. should be capitalized; in ordinary generic use, small letters should be used.

Official or honorary titles, when prefixed to proper names, should have initial capitals.

Professor Whitney, President McKinley, Admiral Dewey, Governor Roosevelt, Peace Commissioner Schurman, Pope Leo, Secretary of State John Hay.

Prefixed terms denoting mere relationship should begin with small letters; as, *cousin John, aunt Mary, uncle Smith*. When, however, these words do not denote real but official relationship, as is the case of officials in the Roman Catholic church, capitals are required; as, *Brother Azarias, Sister Dorcas*, etc.

RULE LXVIII.

**177. Important Words.**—*Words and expressions that for any reason are of special importance, are capitalized in the same manner as quoted titles.*

Such are the following:

(a) *Events.*

The Siege of Troy, the War of the Rebellion, the War of the Spanish Succession, Battle of Manila Bay.

(b) *Epochs.*

The Renaissance, the Age of Stone, the Reformation, the Christian Era.

(c) *Phenomena.*

The Milky Way, the Gulf Stream, the Aurora Borealis, the Midnight Sun.

When such matters are introduced informally, and without obvious intention to emphasize their importance, unneces-

sary capitals are to be avoided. It is by discriminating carefully in such cases that a writer may show his good taste.

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RULE LXIX.

**178. I and O.**—*The pronoun I and the interjection O should always be capitals.*

The interjection *oh* should not be written with a capital, unless, as is often the case, it begins a sentence or a line of poetry.

# LETTER WRITING.

(PART 1.)

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## HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION.

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But words are things, and a small drop of ink,  
Falling, like dew, upon a thought, produces  
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think.—*Byron.*

1. The antiquity of letter writing is undoubted. Since the very existence of an organized form of government depends on means of communication between the governing power and the governed, the sovereign, from the very remotest antiquity, has kept himself in touch with the ministers of his power and the agents of his authority by means of letters. Nor is there any room for doubt that commerce extended its influences and multiplied its benefits, even in the earliest ages, by like means. Learning, too, diffused its blessings not only within the confines of one state or country, but through various countries by means of letters exchanged between learned men and their disciples or admirers; while the ties of friendship and of kindred were, no doubt, also maintained and strengthened by letters despatched from city to city, from port to port, from country to country.

The civilization of ancient Egypt was strikingly benefited by this system of intercommunication between community and community, individual and individual. The Phenicians

carried their commerce and letters to every portion of the known world. The Greeks, who surpassed in point of culture all other peoples of antiquity, held close communication with one another ; and by means of letters the various Greek colonies of Asia Minor and of Italy were kept closely bound in thought, in trade, and in tongue to the mother land. The Roman empire owed much of its strength to its unrivaled system of roads, spreading throughout its vast extent, thus bringing its furthest dependencies into close contact with the imperial city on the Tiber. We know from Gibbon and other historians that the Roman government maintained frequent and regular communication with its representatives in all the provinces. We know, also, that the men of letters, who flocked to Rome from every part of the empire, kept themselves, by means of epistolary communication, at the command of disciples in every city yielding obedience to Roman sway. The literary remains of antiquity show, with remarkable unanimity, that the learned men of old excelled as letter writers.

Herodotus mentions that a system of couriers existed in the Persian empire, and Xenophon states that post stations or houses were established by King Cyrus. Marco Polo describes a similar system existing in China in the 13th century, the stations being only three miles apart, thus securing great rapidity of communication. Among the ancient Aztecs in Mexico a complete system of couriers was likewise maintained, the stations being about two leagues apart, and providing a rapid means of communication by foot-messengers. In all these cases the posts seem to have been set up for the government service only.

2. During the last few years the Babylonian collection of the British Museum has been enriched by the important addition of several thousand tablets obtained chiefly by Dr. Budge during his expeditions to the East. Among the principal objects are a large number of small tablets, many of them of the envelope, or duplicate, class, which were found at Tell-sifr, in South Babylonia, representing the ancient

city of Larsa (the Ellasar of Genesis xiv). The majority of these were contracts or legal documents, but among them are many letters, both private and official. This collection has been carefully arranged, and is found to contain one of the most important series of inscriptions ever rescued from oriental ruins. It is a group of fifty letters, written by King Khammurabi, king of Babylon, who reigned about 2300 B. C., and who is generally identified with the Amraphel of Genesis xiv. These tablets are certainly the oldest known letters in the world; they belong to a period one thousand years earlier than that of the famous Tel-el-Amarna tablets, which give the private correspondence between the kings of Syria, Mitanni, and Babylon, and may be dated about 1450 B. C.

The position of these Babylonian letters in oriental literature is of extreme importance. They reveal the existence of a regular system of correspondence between rulers and their subordinates, and indicate that writing was used not only to record events in royal annals, but also for ordinary purposes; they are, besides, manifestly the models for all succeeding letters, as in the case of the diplomatic correspondence in the Tel-el-Amarna tablets. The present find is indeed great; but one can only regard it as a prelude to still more important discoveries, which will probably put a new aspect on the vexed question of Hebrew origins. To possess letters of the time of Abraham is certainly an astonishing result of oriental exploration, and one that far exceeds the wildest dreams of those that first revealed to us the buried cities of Assyria and Babylonia.

3. Frequent mention is made in the Old Testament of letters sent and received. In II Samuel xi:14, we read that David wrote a letter to Joab; in I Kings xxi:8: "She [Jezebel] wrote letters in Ahab's name, and sealed them with his seal"; in II Kings v:5, the king of Syria said: "I will send a letter unto the king of Israel"; in II Chronicles xxx:1: "Hezekiah wrote letters also to Ephraim and Manasseh"; and in the 6th verse of the same chapter: "The posts went with letters from the king"; in Isaiah



xxxvii: 14: "Hezekiah received the letter"; and in Jeremiah xxix: 1: "These *are* the words of the letter that Jeremiah the prophet sent."

4. The greatest of letter writers, the Apostle Paul, employed at all times the flexible yet forceful Greek tongue in that marvelous manner which has made his words of life more potent and more fecund in each succeeding age. Witness, for instance, how in his letter to the Romans he wins his way to their hearts: "For I long to see you, that I may impart unto you some spiritual gift, to the end that ye may be established; that is, that I may be comforted together with you by the mutual faith both of you and me." Read his words of ringing, explicit good counsel to the Corinthians: "Now, I beseech you, brethren, by the name of our Lord Jesus Christ, that ye all speak the same thing, and that there be no divisions among you; but that ye be perfectly joined together in the same mind and in the same judgment." Then turn to his lucid yet kindly admonition to the Galatians: "I marvel that ye are so soon removed from him that called you into the grace of Christ unto another gospel: which is not another; but there be some that trouble you, and would pervert the gospel of Christ."

5. In the early ages of Christianity the teachers and preachers of Gospel truth kept themselves in close communication with their followers by means of letter writing. This custom was maintained long after pagan persecution had spent its fury.

In the monastic ages, letters from one religious house to another kept the brethren of each order in communication with their superiors, and with those living under the same rule in other portions of Europe. There are numerous evidences of letters in these troublous times from bishops to their flocks, from abbots to their subjects. The clergy were among the principal letter writers, and the mendicant friars among the chief letter bearers of those days. The era of the reformation gave the world a new impulse towards letters, which the discovery of printing had already quickened.

From what has been already stated, it may easily be inferred that the germ of the modern postal systems of the world is to be looked for in the earliest organized systems of the government couriers. When, or under what precise circumstances, such an establishment was first made available for the carriage of the letters of private persons, there is no satisfactory evidence to show. That there must have been, even in early times, a connection more or less authorized between the transmission of public and of private correspondence is highly probable.

In several Continental states the universities had inland postal establishments of a rudimentary sort at an early date. The University of Paris, for example, organized a postal service almost at the beginning of the 13th century, and it lasted, in a measure, until the year 1719. In various parts of England mercantile guilds and brotherhoods were licensed to establish posts for commercial purposes. But everywhere—as far as accessible evidence extends—foreign posts were under state control. As early as the middle of the 13th century entries occur in the wardrobe accounts of the kings of England of payments to royal messengers for the conveyance of letters to various parts of the country.

**6.** The rise of the postal service in England may be said to date from the accession of James I. The new royal orders of 1603 directed (1) that the postmasters at the various stages should enjoy the privilege of letting horses to "those riding in post with horn and guide," by commission or otherwise, and to that end they were charged to keep or have in readiness a sufficient number of horses; (2) that the lawful charge for the hire of each horse should be, for public messengers, at the rate of  $2\frac{1}{2}d.$  a mile. Finally, it was directed that every postmaster should keep at least two horses for the express conveyance of government letters, and to forward such letters within a quarter of an hour of their receipt, and that the posts should travel at the rate of not less than seven miles an hour in summer, and five miles in winter.

Between the date of the accession of James and the date of the Act of Anne, various systems of postal communications were established under the authority of the government. Among the persons prominent in postal affairs during this period were James and Charles Stanhope, who were appointed jointly to the postmastership of England in 1607; John Hill, who in 1653 placed relays of post horses between York and London and reduced the former postal rates by one-half; and William Dockura and Robert Murray, who jointly established the famous penny post in London.

The Act of Anne consolidated the various postal systems in the British empire, reorganized the chief letter office of Edinburgh, Dublin, and New York, and settled new offices in the West Indies and elsewhere. It established rates of single postage; viz., English, 3*d.* if under 80 miles, and 4*d.* if above, and 6*d.* to Edinburgh or Dublin. Nine years after the passing of the Act of Anne the cross-posts were farmed to the well known Ralf Allen, inventor of the cross-roads postal system. Allen's improvements were so successful that he is said to have netted, during forty-two years, an average profit of nearly £12,000 a year.

The first important impulse to the development of the latent powers of the post office, both as a public agency and as a source of revenue, was given by the shrewdness and energy of John Palmer. His notice was attracted to the subject in October, 1782. So habitual were the robberies of the post that they came to be regarded by its officials as among the necessary conditions of human affairs. At this period, in addition to the recognized perils of the roads, the postal system was characterized by extreme irregularities in the departure of mails and delivery of letters, the average speed being about three and one-half miles an hour. Palmer suggested that by building mail coaches of a construction expressly adapted to run at a good speed, by furnishing a liberal supply of horses, and by attaching an armed guard to each coach, the public would be greatly benefited and the post revenue increased. The experiment was made in August, 1784, and its success exceeded all expectation.

The interval between the development of Palmer's improved methods and the still more important reform, twenty-seven years later, by Sir Rowland Hill, is chiefly marked by the growth of the packet system, and by the investigations of the revenue commissioners of 1826 and the following years.

7. The beginning of a postal service in the United States dates from 1639, when a house in Boston was employed for the receipt and delivery of letters for or from beyond the seas. In 1672 the government of New York colony established "a post to go monthly from New York to Boston"; in 1702 it was changed to a fortnightly one. A general post office was established and erected in Virginia in 1692, and in Philadelphia in 1693. In 1789, when the post office was transferred to the new federal government, the number of offices in the thirteen colonies was only about seventy-five.

The following are the leading events in the history of the American postal service: The negotiation of a postal treaty with England (1846); the introduction of postage stamps (1847); of stamped envelopes (1852); of the system of registering letters (1855); the establishment of the free-delivery system and of the traveling post-office system (1863); the introduction of the money-order system (1864); of postal cards (1873); and, between the last two dates, of stamped newspaper wrappers, and of envelopes bearing requests for the return of the enclosed letter to the writer in case of non-delivery; the formation of the Universal Postal Union (1873); the issue of "postal notes" payable to bearer (1883); and the establishment of a special-delivery system (1885), in which letters bearing an extra 10-cent stamp are delivered by special messengers immediately on arrival.

The number of post offices in the United States is larger than in any other country; but as regards the number of persons employed the United States takes third rank. The United States provides a post office for every 1,003 persons, while in Great Britain the proportion is one to every 2,105 persons. The following table shows the progress of the

United States postal system during the past thirty-three years:

UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE STATISTICS.

Fiscal Year.	Number of Post Offices.	Extent of Post Routes in Miles.	Fiscal Year.	Number of Post Offices.	Extent of Post Routes in Miles.
1865. . . .	20,550	142,340	1886. . . .	53,614	366,667
1870. . . .	28,492	231,232	1887. . . .	55,157	373,142
1875. . . .	35,547	277,873	1888. . . .	57,281	*403,977
1876. . . .	36,383	281,798	1889. . . .	58,999	*416,159
1877. . . .	37,345	292,820	1890. . . .	62,401	427,991
1878. . . .	39,258	301,966	1891. . . .	64,329	439,027
1879. . . .	40,855	316,711	1892. . . .	67,119	447,591
1880. . . .	42,989	343,888	1893. . . .	68,403	453,832
1881. . . .	44,512	344,006	1894. . . .	69,805	454,746
1882. . . .	46,231	343,618	1895. . . .	70,064	456,026
1883. . . .	47,863	353,166	1896. . . .	70,360	463,313
1884. . . .	50,017	359,530	1897. . . .	71,022	470,032
1885. . . .	51,252	365,251	1898. . . .	73,570	480,462

In 1898, the revenue of the department was \$89,012,618; the expenditure, \$98,033,523; amount paid for salaries of postmasters, \$17,460,621; amount paid for transportation of the mail, \$51,780,283.

## DEFINITIONS: IMPORTANCE OF LETTER WRITING.

8. A letter is a written or printed communication from one person to another person or other persons.

Correspondence may be defined as the act of communication by means of letters.

There are two well defined classes of letters: (1) *private*, or *personal*, letters, which are of direct interest only to those to whom they are addressed; (2) *public*, or *open*, letters, which, though addressed to some particular person, are of general interest and are intended for the public.

\* Includes mail, messenger, and special office service. Of the whole number of post offices at the close of the fiscal year, June 30, 1898, 3,816 were Presidential offices and 69,754 were fourth-class offices.

Private letters may be divided into two general classes; viz., *business* letters and *social* letters.

**Business** letters are those relating to business affairs, such as are written by merchants, bankers, lawyers, manufacturers, etc., in connection with their occupation or profession.

Included under business letters are the so called **official** letters, those written to or by persons holding official positions or public office. Such letters are those written by army and navy officers, presidents, governors, and heads of departments of a national or state government.

**Social** letters are those written to relatives, friends, and acquaintances, and which originate in social and personal relations rather than in business relations. They include domestic or family letters, letters of congratulation, letters of condolence, letters of introduction, in short, all letters prompted by friendship or affection.

**Public** letters are chiefly essays on political and state affairs. They are given to the public through the medium of newspapers and magazines, and are usually addressed to the editor, though sometimes an open letter is addressed to some noted public character. The leading daily newspapers in New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago publish weekly public letters from their Washington and London correspondents.

**9. The importance of letter writing**, both in business and as an educational accomplishment, cannot be overestimated. Business must to a large extent be transacted by means of correspondence; and one of the leading requisites to business success is the ability to discharge the important duties pertaining to correspondence in a manner satisfactory to all concerned.

Samuel Smiles says: "Attention, application, accuracy, method, punctuality, and despatch, are the principal qualities required for the efficient conduct of business of any sort." These business qualities have in business correspondence a very large field of action.

Business habits, cultivated and disciplined, are found alike useful in every calling, whether in politics, literature,

science, or art. The best literary work has been done by men systematically trained in business pursuits—especially in business correspondence. The same industry, application, economy of time and labor, which have rendered them useful in one sphere of employment, have been found equally available in another. The business man must remember that it is by his correspondence that he must, to a large extent, be judged. For the young man entering, or about to enter, on a business career this is a consideration of vital importance. The young man that has already fluent and accurate command of language is very soon recognized not alone in business circles, but by his fellow citizens generally. His letters speak for him. He acquires the respect and confidence of those from whom he purchases, the esteem of those to whom he sells, and rapidly secures the favor of all his neighbors.

To the artisan, also, the art of letter writing is of inestimable value. By its means he may not only keep in touch with his fellow man in all the fraternal relations of social life, but may benefit himself by being thus enabled to express himself on paper with clearness and conciseness. He may have an application to make for promotion or advancement in salary. The mechanic who can set forth in a letter, correctly and concisely, his demands and purposes, stands much nearer to promotion and increase of salary than one who cannot do so. The mechanic known to be qualified in this direction is certain to be called on by his fellow workmen to occupy positions of trust and responsibility, either in their fraternal organizations, or in the civic community of which he forms a part.

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### THE FRAMEWORK OF THE LETTER.

**10. Introductory Remark.**—In this section we shall deal chiefly with the arrangement of the various essential parts that make up the structure or framework of the letter, and with the formalities to be observed in writing and posting the letter. The proper formation of sentences,

paragraphs, etc. and the construction of the body of the letter in accordance with rhetorical rules will receive consideration under "Invention and Expression."

Before entering upon a description of the parts of a letter, we shall consider briefly the materials used in letter writing.

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## MATERIALS.

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### PAPER.

**11. Varieties.**—Of the many varieties of paper manufactured, comparatively few are considered suitable for correspondence. In general, also, the style of paper depends in some degree on the character of the correspondence; paper suitable for business letters is not always permissible for social letters.

Formerly *note paper*, that is, paper with four pages to the sheet, was largely used both in business and social correspondence; at the present time, however, nearly all business letters, in this country at least, are written on *letter paper*, which is made only in single sheets. Probably the change from note paper to letter paper was due largely to the introduction of the typewriting machine.

In social correspondence, note paper is still used almost exclusively. The style and sizes generally used are: *billet*, 4 in. × 6 in.; *commercial note*, 5 in. × 8 in.; and *packet note*, about 5½ in. × 9 in. The latter variety is much used by gentlemen. Letter paper varies in size from 8 in. × 10 in. to 9 in. × 11 in. For short business letters, smaller sizes (5 in. × 8 in., 5½ in. × 8½ in., corresponding to commercial note and packet note) may be used. It may be noted that a sheet of 8" × 10" letter paper when once folded makes a sheet of 5" × 8" commercial note.

Never use less than a full sheet of paper no matter how



short the letter, and never use any form of *cap* paper for correspondence purposes.

**12. Color of Paper.**—In business correspondence the only color allowable for letters is white; however, bills, receipts, invoices, etc. are frequently written on colored paper.

In social correspondence, ladies frequently and with good taste use delicately tinted paper with envelopes to correspond. Gentlemen, on the other hand, show questionable taste in using any color other than white.

**13. Ruled and Unruled Paper.**—While it is in good taste to use ruled paper, unruled paper is generally considered preferable. Any one can with practice write straight and properly space the successive lines. If one cannot write straight, he may use a set of lines placed under the sheet; these lines are made heavy and show through the semitransparent sheet plainly enough to furnish a guide for the pen. It is much better, however, to learn to dispense with such artificial aids.

**14. Quality of Paper.**—The paper, and in fact all materials employed in letter writing, should be of good quality. People are judged largely by their surroundings, and by the appliances with which they work. A letter written on a cheap paper with pale ink is sure to give the recipient a disagreeable impression. On the other hand, a letter written on good paper, displaying neat and careful penmanship, is certain to redound to the credit of the writer. Applications for important positions have been thrown aside without consideration, merely because of the poor quality of the letter paper. A prospective employer reasons that one careless about his correspondence is likely to prove an undesirable employe.

For business correspondence, *bond* paper is very largely used. This paper is tough and durable and may be obtained in any desired thickness. Paper with a slightly roughened

surface is preferred by most writers. Avoid thick unsized papers that allow the ink to spread; and, above all, avoid the cheap glossy blue-white note paper with a stamped trade mark in one corner of the sheet.

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#### ENVELOPES.

15. The envelope should correspond in size, quality, and color with the paper. As regards size, the length of the envelope should be slightly greater than the width of the sheet of note paper; for example, an envelope  $5\frac{1}{4}$  inches long is used for  $5'' \times 8''$  commercial note. For letter paper, the length of the envelope should slightly exceed one-half of the length of the sheet; thus, for a  $9'' \times 11''$  sheet, the envelope should be, say, 6 inches long. The envelopes most commonly used in business correspondence are: No. 6,  $3\frac{3}{8}$  in.  $\times$  6 in., and No. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $3\frac{5}{8}$  in.  $\times$   $6\frac{1}{2}$  in. For legal documents, manuscripts, and official communications from the government, the official envelope (about 4 in.  $\times$  9 in.) is used.

In social correspondence, the *square* envelope is in general use. This envelope is made slightly larger than the sheet when folded once through the middle; thus, the envelope for commercial note (5 in.  $\times$  8 in.) should be about  $4\frac{1}{4}$  in.  $\times$   $5\frac{1}{4}$  in. The square-shaped envelope should never be used for business correspondence, but the ordinary oblong envelope may be and is used for social correspondence.

Always use an envelope sufficiently large to easily enclose the letter sheet when properly folded. It is irritating to the receiver of a communication to find difficulty in removing a letter from its envelope, either because it was partially stuck to the inside of the envelope when the envelope was sealed, or because the envelope is too small to allow the letter to be easily removed.

White is the prevailing color for envelopes, though for business purposes *buff* envelopes are quite freely used. When tinted paper is used, the envelope should have the same tint.

### INK.

**16.** The ink should flow freely and permit the formation of distinct lines and characters. Black ink is now almost universally used in all correspondence, and it is considered in much better taste than colored inks, one of the objections to the latter being their liability to fade. Letters that are to be copied are written with a special ink called copying ink, which will give one or more copies of the letter when it is placed in the letter press. In contact with moisture, copying ink smears and spreads; it should never be used, therefore, for letters that are not to be copied.

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### PARTS OF A LETTER.

**17.** The essential parts of a letter are:

1. The *heading*, including date.
2. The *address*.
3. The *salutation*.
4. The *body*.
5. The *complimentary close*.
6. The *subscription*, or *signature*.
7. The *superscription*, or *outside address*.

The incidental parts are:

1. The *postscript*, with its continuations or iterations, *paulo-postscript*, *post-paulo-postscript*, and so on.
2. The *nota bene*.
3. The *enclosure*.
4. The *stamp*.
5. The *return directions*.

The address and salutation together—when the address is placed at the top of the letter—constitute the **introduction**.

The complimentary close and subscription—and the address when placed at the close of the letter—constitute the **conclusion**.

**18. General Form.**—The following letter shows the usual arrangement of the various parts of an ordinary business letter:

(Heading and Date.)

540 Sewell St., PORTLAND, MAINE,

Feb. 22, 1899.

(Address.)

MR. JOHN W. PLAYFAIR,  
 President First National Bank,  
 558 Jackson Boulevard,  
 Chicago, Ill.

(Salutation.)

DEAR SIR:

(Body.)

Mr. George Williams of your city has called to interest me in the purchase of a large tract of timber and mining lands in Northern Wisconsin. Mr. Williams impresses me favorably, and his propositions appear quite reasonable on their face.

I have, however, deferred giving him a final answer till I hear from you regarding his standing in business circles in Chicago. He speaks of you as an acquaintance, and since I claim you as a friend, your advice will be as welcome as it must be valuable.

(Complimentary Close.)

I am, dear Sir,

Very sincerely yours,

(Signature.)

WILLIAM HUTCHESON.

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**THE HEADING.**

**19.** The heading includes both the place, which is the address of the writer, and the time of writing; as, "540 Sewell St., Portland, Maine, Feb. 22, 1899." The word "date" is correctly used in this technical sense when we say, "Your letter dated Portland, Maine, Feb. 22, 1899, is received."

In business letters the heading should usually occupy two lines; in social letters it may occupy two or three and sometimes four lines—two or three for the place, and one for the time. If the heading is short, it may be written in a single line as shown in Form 1, following. As a rule it is advisable to use as few lines as is possible without making the heading look crowded and awkward. The use of many lines in either heading, address, signature, or superscription is to be avoided.

In business letters the heading should begin about 1 inch,

and in social letters 2 inches from the top of the page, not far from the middle of the line, and should end at or very near the right margin.

Printed forms of a more or less elaborate and ornate design are so much in use for business letter headings that no cast-iron rule can be laid down to govern the precise form of the heading. In these printed forms the heading sometimes occupies several lines and often contains some brief statement or statements explanatory of the purposes, standing, and claims of the firm making use of the forms.

It is easy to see that the items of place should be in the order mentioned—the larger following the smaller, the container following the contained.

As to time, the form most generally employed in America is, "Feb. 22, 1899." We cannot, however, see any valid objection to the form, "22 Feb. 1899," often used in Great Britain and the British colonies.

All letters, notes, cards, missives epistolary of every kind, should be dated. To omit the date is or may be an inconvenience, and therefore a breach of propriety; in business it is sheer impertinence, and everywhere vulgar. In replying to an undated missive, especially if a business letter, it is proper to call attention to the absence of a date, in some way, so that if it were an inadvertence, the writer may avoid the error next time. A business letter in reply to an undated one may very properly begin in some such way as this: "In reply to your favor without date just received—"; and to a second from the same source: "In reply to your dateless letter just received—."

**20. Punctuation.**—The various parts of the heading are separated by commas; a period is placed after each abbreviation and at the end of the heading. All important words of the heading begin with capital letters. The numeral indicating the day of the month should not be followed by *d*, *st*, or *th* when the year is written; thus, "May 3, 1899," instead of "May 3d, 1899." In such an expression as "Your letter of the 15th inst. is at hand," the suffix is added.

**21. Specimens of Headings.**—Various forms of headings are shown in the following:

**FORM 1.**

FLINT, MICH., June 8, 1897.

**FORM 2.**

ELSIE, CLINTON CO., MICH.,  
Dec. 20, 1895.

**FORM 3.**

628 Washington Ave.,  
SCRANTON, PA.,  
Jan. 5, 1899.

**FORM 4.**

Lithia Springs,  
SHELBYVILLE, ILLINOIS,  
July 4, 1898.

**FORM 5.**

**PENNSYLVANIA.**  
OFFICE OF THE  
SECRETARY OF THE COMMONWEALTH,  
HARRISBURG.

October 22, 1898.

In case the writer and his correspondent live in the same city, the subjoined form may be used:

**FORM 6.**

528 JEFFERSON AVE.,  
March 1, 1899.

Sometimes the name of the residence of the writer is alone used, as:

**FORM 7.**

ELM PARK,  
March 9, 1899.

In the case of brief and informal notes from one person to another in the same town, it is quite customary and regular to use as a heading only the day of the week; for instance, "Tuesday," or "Thursday," or whatever the day of the writing may be. This simple date may be placed at the top or at the lower left-hand corner of the letter or note.

## FORM 8.

TUESDAY.

DEAR PAPA:

I shall see you tomorrow, etc.

## FORM 9.

THE COLLIERY ENGINEER CO.,  
Proprietors.THE INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS  
of Scranton, Pa., U. S. A.  
Industrial Science taught by Mail.

SCRANTON, PA., U. S. A.

Mar. 24, 1899.

## FORM 10.

E. L. KELLOGG & Co.,  
Educational Publishers,  
61 East Ninth Street, New York.

Dec. 29, 1898.

**22. Date at the End of a Letter.**—The writing of the place and date at the lower left corner, though quite admissible, and in some places customary in the matter of social letters, is, in the case of business letters, annoying to those that desire to note at once the date of the letter. It is better not to indulge in any eccentricities in such matters. For people that have nothing else to do, it may be allowable; but busy people do not have time to look in unusual places for headings, addresses, signatures, etc.

Here is an example of the heading placed at the end of a social letter:

Your very sincere friend,  
ANDREW JACKSON SMITH.920 Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.,  
April 6, 1899.

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**THE ADDRESS AND SALUTATION.**

**23.** The **address** when complete contains the name, title, and residence of the person to whom the letter is sent. The **salutation** is the greeting, as "Dear Sir," "Sir," "My dear George," and the like, with which it is usual to begin a letter.

An example of a complete introduction is shown in the letter of Art. 18. The first line contains the name and title, "Mr. John W. Playfair"; the third and fourth lines contain the residence, "558 Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Ill." By the term residence we do not necessarily mean the private residence of a person, but the place where he gets his mail; in other words, the post-office address. The residence given in the address should be the same as that given in the superscription or the address on the envelope. Additional remarks upon this point will be found under the heading "Superscription."

When a person holds a distinctive office or business position, the address is made more definite by including this office or position. In the example given, the gentleman addressed is president of a bank; hence, this fact is indicated by the second line, "President First National Bank." This feature of the address is shown in forms 4 and 5.

In business correspondence the address should never be omitted. The envelope may be torn or thrown away, and the letter must be consulted for the address to the reply. Every business letter should contain the full address of both the writer and the person to whom the letter is written.

**24. The Salutation.**—What the salutation shall be must be determined, of course, by the relation between the writer and the party addressed. Our most formal, private, or unofficial salutations are "Sir" and "Madam." These are almost impersonal, and belong to such persons as we may wish to accost with civility. In the correspondence from Government offices, in Washington and elsewhere, these are the regular salutations used to persons without official titles, and to many with such titles. In like manner, Sir is the correct salutation to use in addressing the civil officials of the Government, both general and state, that have no special title inherent in the offices they hold. The rigid brevity of the formal Sir is being replaced, gradually though slowly, in both official and private correspondence, by "Dear Sir"; and this, eventually, if it ever supersede Sir, must do so by



gradually taking on the meaning that Sir now has. When Sir is the salutation, the complimentary close should be "Yours respectfully," or something correspondingly distant. These forms are the ones most frequently used in our Government correspondence, both civil and military. The usage at Washington is followed generally in the Government sub-offices throughout the country, so that it is safe to use Sir in all such cases.

The epistolary plural of Sir is "Gentlemen," and this has its French *Messieurs*—always abbreviated "Messrs."—as a correlative. Messrs. is restricted in use as "Mr." is, and should rarely, if ever, be used alone in place of Gentlemen, and for the same reason that Mr. is so restricted. It is accordingly incorrect to use Messrs. as the salutation of a letter, in place of Gentlemen, or Dear Sirs. Between firms the salutation should be Gentlemen, with, under special circumstances of rare occurrence, Dear Sirs; the complimentary close—which must always correspond to the salutation—should be Yours respectfully, or something equivalent to it.

The character of the salutation should correspond with the writer's relation to the person addressed. Strangers may be addressed as "Sir," "Dear Sir," or "Madam"; acquaintances, as "Dear Sir," "Dear Mr. Smith," "Dear Miss Franklin," etc. Friends may be addressed, "Friend Maynard," "Friend Margaret," "Dear Friend," "My dear Eaton," etc. Near relatives and intimate friends may be addressed as "My dear Father," "My dear Edward," "Dearest Mary," etc. Good taste will usually dictate the proper salutation in any given case.

**25. Position of the Address.**—The address is placed either at the beginning or at the end of the letter. In this connection the following rules should be observed:

1. In *business* letters, the address should be placed at the beginning of the letter, preceding the salutation.
2. In *official* letters, the address may occupy either position.
3. In letters not of a business nature, the address should

preferably be placed at the top, if the person addressed is a stranger or even an acquaintance with whom the writer is not intimate.

4. Because of the formality involved in placing the address at the top of a letter, we should, in letters to intimate friends or near relatives, place the address at the bottom. In this case, the introduction consists of the salutation alone, as shown in forms 1 and 2.

The proper arrangement of the address is shown in the specimen addresses, Art. 28. The first line of the address begins at about  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch from the left edge of the sheet. The line should be the first or second below the date. No part of the post-office address should be written on the first line with the name.

**26. Position of the Salutation.**—If the address is placed at the end of the letter, the salutation occupies the position usually given to the first line of the address. If the address consists of two lines, the salutation may be started about 1 inch to the right of the initial letter of the second line of the address, as shown in form 3. When, however, the address consists of three or more lines, it is preferable to begin the salutation immediately under the initial letter of the first line of the address. See forms 4, 5, 6, 9, and 10, following. Some writers prefer to begin the salutation under the initial letter of the second line of the address.

**27. Punctuation.**—The items of the address are separated by commas, and the address as a whole, whether it contains the name alone or the name and residence, is followed by a period. Thus, in form 7 following, a period, not a comma, should follow the name "Mrs. George Williamson." The salutation is usually followed by a colon, though frequently the comma is used instead. The colon is rather more formal than the comma. If the body of the letter begins on the same line as the salutation (see form 3), the comma or colon, whichever is used, should be followed by a dash; when the letter begins on the line below the salutation, there is no occasion for the dash, and it should not be used.

All abbreviations are followed by periods.

All important words of the introduction begin with capital letters; but the word *dear* in "My dear Friend" and like expressions is not generally written with a capital.

**28. Various Forms of Introduction.**—The following are some specimens of the introductory portion of a letter:

FORM 1.

DEAR FRIEND HILL,

Your very much esteemed letter has given me genuine satisfaction, etc.

FORM 2.

MY DEAR IRENE,

We shall expect you without fail next Thursday, etc.

FORM 3.

MR. JOHN S. FORDEN,  
Bangor, Me.

DEAR SIR.—In reply to your favor, etc.

FORM 4.

T. J. FOSTER, ESQ., Manager,  
The International Correspondence Schools,  
Scranton, Pa.

DEAR SIR:—I have the honor to enclose, etc.

FORM 5.

G. W. PORTER & SONS,  
Contractors and Builders,  
Rochester, N. Y.

GENTLEMEN:—I beg to enclose plans, etc.

FORM 6.

THE HONORABLE M. S. QUAY,  
U. S. Senator,  
Washington, D.C.

SIR:

I respectfully beg to call your attention, etc.

FORM 7.

MRS. GEORGE WILLIAMSON.

DEAR MADAM:

Kindly accept our earnest congratulations, etc.

It is sometimes embarrassing to know how to address a lady with whom one may have no personal acquaintance whatever. In such a case it is permissible to use the following:

## FORM 8.

MISS RUBY CHAPMAN,  
Petersburg, Va.  
Your esteemed order of the 15th inst., etc.

A married lady with whom one has either no personal acquaintance or one that is very slight should be addressed as follows:

## FORM 9.

MRS. J. S. BARKER,  
Paris, Ill.  
MADAM:

## FORM 10.

THE COLLIERY ENGINEER CO.,  
Scranton, Pa.  
GENTLEMEN:  
In reply to your letter of October 22d, I beg to say, etc.

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**THE BODY OF THE LETTER.**

**29.** The **body** of a letter is the actual communication. It follows the salutation, and begins on the same line with the salutation or on the line below, according to the taste of the writer. As a rule, the body should begin on the same line if the address occupies three or more lines, and on the line below if the address occupies only one or two lines.

**30.** The **Margin**.—On the left-hand side of the sheet there should be a blank space or margin between the edge of the sheet and the beginning of the lines of writing. The width of this margin may vary from  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch to  $\frac{3}{4}$  inch, according to the width of the sheet. Care must be taken to make the margin of uniform width throughout the length of the page. Except the first lines of paragraphs, the first letter of every line, including the first line of the address and the

salutation, when the latter is begun at the margin, should start at the marginal line. If a writer has difficulty in keeping the margin even, the marginal line may actually be drawn with a lead pencil and afterwards erased. Such artificial aids are, however, to be avoided as much as possible. The first line of a paragraph should begin from  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch to 1 inch to the right of the marginal line. There should be no margin on the right-hand edge of the sheet.

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#### THE CONCLUSION.

**31.** The complimentary close follows the body of a letter and immediately precedes the signature. It is "I am, dear Sir, Very sincerely yours," "Yours respectfully," the "Faithfully yours," etc. with which we take leave of our correspondents. The place for it is one line or space below the last line of the body of the letter. It should generally begin one space, or about  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch—on letter paper,  $\frac{3}{4}$  inch—farther to the right than a paragraph. As to form, the complimentary close should correspond to the salutation; and like the salutation must depend upon the relation between the two parties to a letter, and must get its form from that relation. "Respectfully," "Very respectfully," "Most respectfully," etc. correspond to "Sir," "Madam," etc., and are the usual ones for formal or impersonal correspondence between individuals, both public and private. This, like the salutation, again, is to be softened, warmed, modified, and transformed to suit the relation of the two parties. "Dear Sir" and "Dear Madam" call for "Yours truly," "Yours sincerely," "Yours faithfully," and so on. The more familiar the salutation is, the more so should be the corresponding complimentary close. It would be incongruous if not absurd, for example, to begin a letter with "Sir" and close it with "Devotedly yours," as it would, on the other hand, to begin with "My dear Friend" and close with "Very respectfully yours."

The ordinary complimentary close used by the officials in Washington, and indeed in formal correspondence generally,

is "Yours respectfully." In personal letters this varies, wanes, and fluctuates through "Yours truly," "Yours faithfully," "Ever yours," "Yours till death," and a possible thousand or two others, all growing out of depth of feeling or of varied relations. In all cases of doubt, it is safer and in all respects better to err in the direction of too much than of too little ceremony or formality in this matter. Between firms in business, "Yours respectfully," or its equivalent in some form, is proper on all occasions, as is "Gentlemen" for a salutation.

To no portion of a letter should more exact attention be given than to its termination, for by no other portion may the writer be judged more accurately as to courtesy and good breeding.

**32.** Some of the most common forms of complimentary leave taking in letter writing are the following :

Yours truly,	Yours sincerely,
Yours very truly,	Very sincerely yours,
Faithfully,	Yours fraternally,
Very respectfully yours,	Affectionately yours,
Yours very faithfully,	Your loving father,
Cordially yours,	Your friend,
Most cordially yours,	Your affectionate son.
Yours gratefully,	

**33.** The **subscription**, or **signature**, should follow the complimentary close on the next line and should end at or near the right-hand edge of the sheet.

In regard to the signature two points should be observed: (1) write the name in full; (2) make the signature legible. The name should be written in full, so that, if through unforeseen circumstances the letter is sent to the dead-letter office, it may be returned to the writer. Of course, if a letter contains nothing of importance, it may be signed "John," or "Tom," or "Mary"; but if the letter has any value to the writer, particularly if it contains money, the full name and residence of the writer should be given. By the term full name we do not mean the unabbreviated name; thus, a person by the name of George Henry Adams may properly

write his signature "George H. Adams," "Geo. H. Adams," or "G. H. Adams"; and if he is familiarly known as Henry, he may write it "G. Henry Adams."

The writer should, of course, write all parts of a letter legibly; but the signature should receive particular attention in this respect. An illegible word in the body of the letter can usually be made out by its connection with the words preceding and following it; but there is no such assistance in deciphering an illegible signature. The recipient of a letter must use the signature for the address of his reply. If the signature is unreadable, the recipient, unless acquainted with the writer, may be compelled to cut out the signature and paste it on the envelope.

In writing to a stranger, a lady should indicate by her signature not only her sex, but whether she is married or single. This may be done by prefixing "Miss" or "Mrs." to the name. If the writer considers such a use of the title questionable, the title may be enclosed in parenthesis; thus: "(Miss) *Mary Saunders*." The Miss or Mrs. should not be used in writing to acquaintances or friends.

A person in an official or prominent business position may, and sometimes should, follow his name with an indication of his position; thus:

ALEXANDER WILLIAMS,  
Chairman of Executive Committee.

GEORGE LAMB,  
General Manager.

The *address* when written at the close of the letter forms part of the conclusion. It should in this case begin at the marginal line and on the line below the signature. The arrangement and punctuation of the parts of the address is the same as when it is written at the top of the letter (see Arts. 25 and 27).

**34. Punctuation.**—The complimentary close is followed by a comma and the signature is followed by a period. When the complimentary close is long and is arranged in

several lines, the parts are separated by commas. Each line of the complimentary close begins with a capital letter. In other respects, the ordinary rules are followed in the use of capitals.

**35. Forms of Conclusion.**—For the student's guidance, we submit some forms of conclusion:

**FORM 1.**

Very respectfully yours,  
GEORGE FIELD.

**FORM 2.**

Very truly yours,  
COOPER, COMMINGS & Co.  
Per D.

**FORM 3.**

Yours affectionately,  
SISTER IRENE.

**FORM 4.**

(Address at end.)

I am, Sir, with much consideration,  
Your obedient servant,  
NORMAN HOWARD.

The Reverend Dr. Lyman Abbott,  
Brooklyn, N. Y.

**FORM 5.**

Very faithfully yours,  
W. F. PRESTON,  
Elkhart, Ind.

**FORM 6.**

I have the honor to be,  
Your Excellency's obedient servant,  
M. C. CAMERON.

The Governor of New York.

**FORM 7.**

I beg leave, Mr. Mayor, to subscribe myself with profound respect,  
Yours faithfully,  
GEORGE ELIOT.

The Mayor of New York.



When the writer is personally unknown to the person or firm written to and solicits a reply, he may sign thus:

## FORM 8.

Very respectfully yours,  
ALEXANDER TAYLOR,  
64 York Street.

Or,

ALEXANDER TAYLOR.

64 York St.

The street and number may, however, be placed according to the writer's choice at the head of the letter.

## FORM 9.

I beg to remain, dear Father,  
Very affectionately,  
Your son,  
JOHN.

## FORM 10.

With all my heart, I am, my dear Frank,  
YOUR OWN MOTHER.

Terms of affection should never be abbreviated, as for instance, "Yours aff'tly," for "Yours affectionately"; "Your aff. Son," for "Your affectionate Son."

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 THE SUPERScription.

**36.** The superscription is the outside address—the one written on the envelope, and the one for the postmaster and letter carrier to note. Like the address, the superscription consists of three parts: the name, the title, and the residence.

**37.** Arrangement.—The first line of the superscription contains the name and title. It should be written near the middle of the envelope. If the person addressed has an official or business position, this may occupy the second line; otherwise, the first item of the residence will be placed there. In general each item of the residence should occupy a separate line, but if the superscription is long, it is permissible to write the abbreviation for the state on the line with the city. Each line should begin a little distance to the right of the

line above it, and the end of the last line should be near the lower right-hand corner of the envelope. Care should be taken to have the lines parallel to the lower edge of the letter and the same distance apart.

If a letter is addressed to one person in care of another, the words "Care of —" may occupy the second line, as in form 11, following.

**38.** The accompanying illustration shows a specimen superscription:

Return in 5 days to 540 Sewell St., Portland, Maine.	<p>Mr. JOHN W. PLAYFAIR,</p> <p>President First National Bank,</p> <p>558 Jackson Boulevard,</p> <p>Chicago, Ill.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto;">           STAMP.         </div>
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**39. Points to be Observed.**—The residence should be fully and clearly indicated in the address. Millions of pieces of mail matter are annually sent to the dead-letter office because of careless or illegible addresses. There are many post offices in the United States of America bearing the same name, but situated in different states. There is, for instance, a Clayton, New York, and a Clayton, New Jersey; Urbana, Champaign County, Ohio, and Urbana, Champaign County, Illinois. In such cases it is advisable to spell out the name of the state; in any case of doubt, an abbreviated form of the state's name should not be employed.

In addressing a letter to a small or obscure town or village, it is advisable to include the name of the county in the address. In the case of cities of national importance, as Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, it is not really essential to write even the name of the state, though it is perhaps better

as a rule to include it. It is always better to put too much on the envelope than too little.

When the post office is a city, it is generally desirable, and where there are letter carriers employed, it is necessary, to give the number and the street; and when a city is large enough to employ carriers, it is hardly, if ever, necessary to give the county; as,

A— B—, Esq.,  
123 Fifth Avenue,  
New York,  
N. Y.

In cases of this kind it is as unnecessary to write No. before the figures giving the number as it is in this case to write "City" after "New York."

In cities, it is sometimes desirable, in order to facilitate delivery, to give the part of the house; thus:

A— B—, Esq.,  
Room 10,  
470 Tremont St.,  
Boston,  
Mass.

Some streets contain the idea in the name, so that it is not necessary to add "St." to it; as,

A— B—, Esq.,  
567 Broadway,  
New York,  
N. Y.

Here "way" conveys the idea of street.

It would be absurd to give all the points of an address at the same time, in such cases as this:

A— B—, Esq.,  
Room 18,  
28 Fulton St.,  
New York,  
New York Co.,  
New York.

It is the custom in England to put a comma between the number of a street and the name of it; as, "46, Oxford St."

Theoretically, it would be better to reverse the order of the items in the address; that is, put the largest first and the smallest last. The item needed by the most distant post official—the postmaster that posts the letter—is the state, when in the states; and the country, when the letter is to go abroad. All that the postmaster looks for is the state; and succeeding officials will need the descending items. A rational address then would be:

California,  
San Diego Co.,  
San Diego,  
John Smith.

When a letter is registered, the sender writes his full address across the left margin of the back of the envelope; and this is all that should ever be written on the back, and this in the case of registered letters only. To write "In haste," "Deliver promptly," "By courtesy," and the like on an envelope letter—addressed apparently to whom it may concern, and it manifestly concerns nobody—is useless.

It was once thought necessary to write "To" before the name in the superscription of all letters, and many in England and a few in America do so still; but, except in very formal letters, it is superfluous, and for that very good reason falling into disuse. In all official correspondence, such as "To the Honorable the Secretary of State," the prefix may properly be used.

**40. The.**—This demonstrative appears in such titles as "The Reverend," "The Honorable," etc.; although it is frequently read with the titles, even when not written with them. It belongs to both pre-titles and post-titles, as in the examples given.

**41. Punctuation.**—The items of the superscription are separated by commas, and since each item occupies a separate line, there should be a comma at the end of each line except the last. A title following the name should be separated from it by a comma, and two or more titles in

succession should be separated by commas. See forms 7 and 10, following. As usual, all abbreviations should be followed by periods, and a period should be placed at the end of the superscription. In nearly all cases every word of the superscription begins with a capital letter. The student should observe carefully the punctuation and capitalization in the specimen superscriptions.

There is a growing tendency among writers to omit all punctuation from the superscription except the periods after abbreviations. It is not unlikely that the omission of punctuation on the envelope will in time become universal; but until the custom is better established than at present, it will be safer for the student to punctuate.

**42. Examples of Superscription.**—The following forms of superscription should be carefully studied:

FORM 1.

MESSRS. LEE, LINDSEY & Co.,  
315 Broadway,  
New York,  
N. Y.

FORM 2.

ALEXANDER BENNETT, ESQ.,  
Springfield,  
Ill.  
Box 81.

FORM 3.

MR. & MRS. E. W. WHITE,  
28 Madison Ave.,  
Dallas,  
Texas.

FORM 4.

MR. PETER PATERSON,  
Builder,  
Harrisburg,  
Pa.

FORM 5.

W. C. WELDON, ESQ.,  
Counselor at Law,  
St. Louis,  
Mo.

## FORM 6.

The Honorable  
 WILLIAM CONNELL, M. C.,  
 Washington,  
 D. C.

A physician may be addressed:

## FORM 7.

D—— E——, Esq., M.D.,  
 Clarksville,  
 Texas.

## FORM 8.

DR. E—— F——,  
 New Hope,  
 Kentucky.

## FORM 9.

The Reverend  
 DR. I. J. LANSING,  
 Scranton, Pa.

## FORM 10.

The Right Reverend  
 ETHELBERT TALBOT, D.D., LL.D.,  
 Bishop of Central Pennsylvania,  
 South Bethlehem, Pa.

It is now generally conceded to be better form not to abbreviate the titles Honorable, Reverend, Right Reverend, and the like.

## FORM 11.

MISS ETHEL ARMITAGE,  
 Care of S. E. Dobbs, Esq.,  
 Urbana,  
 Ohio.

## THE POSTSCRIPT.

**43.** This term comes from the Latin *post scriptum*, "written after"; its abbreviation P. S. is almost always used.

The ordinary and obvious use of the postscript is the addition to the letter of something thought of or occurring after the letter is written and signed. The postscript, however, may be, and often is, used for emphasis, especially in cases of diplomacy.

After writings falling under the head of postscripts may be indicated and arranged with these abbreviations:

P. S.—Postscript, as above.

P. P. S.—Paulo-postscript.

P. P. P. S.—Post-paulo-postscript; and this is quite far enough.

Perhaps a better designation would be:

P. S.—Postscript.

2d P. S.

3d P. S.

Try in general to say what you desire to say in the body of a letter, and avoid postscripts. The frequent use of postscripts lessens their power for any special service. Never write a message of affection, congratulation, or condolence as a postscript; for what might be a compliment or comfort in the body of a letter may prove an insult if written as a postscript.

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#### THE NOTA BENE.

**44.** Sometimes at the close of a letter occurs the form "N. B." followed by a sentence or two, or even more, of some special significance. The words *nota bene* are Latin and mean "note well" or "note specially." The abbreviation is N. B.—the usual and almost universal form in use. Like the postscript, the nota bene follows the completed letter; that is, it comes below both the signature and the address, and may come before or after the postscript. It may rhetorically qualify either the letter or the postscript. Like the postscript, the nota bene has two leading uses. The first and obvious one is to call special attention to a point or a view of the matter that the writer thinks his correspondent may by inadvertence fail to appreciate or to give its due weight to. The other use is to conceal, at first blush at least, in its apparent emphasis, the real object of the letter; thus letting the real object work its way gradually—percolate, as it were—into the correspondent's mind. The real object, in such case, must be a matter alien to the subject of the

nota bene. This device, as in the case of the postscript, is one of diplomacy and belongs to the domain of rhetoric.

A nota bene may have a postscript, but it should never have a nota bene.

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#### FOLDING.

**45.** Careless or neglectful folding gives the letter an appearance of disorder, which does not invite favorable consideration from the recipient. Take time to fold your letter neatly and carefully. See that it is adjusted to the envelope, and that no indication of an absence of neatness, order, or system be observable. The illustrations here given show the proper methods of folding for note sheets, letter paper, and legal cap.

To fold a note sheet, turn the bottom of the sheet upwards, making the crease at about one-third of the length of the sheet from the lower edge; then turn the top of the sheet downwards so that the top edge will nearly or quite reach the crease first made. By this

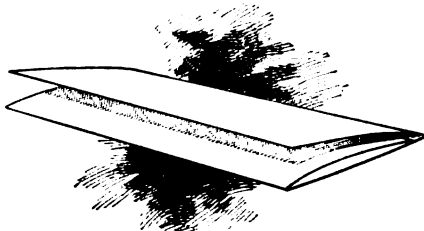


FIG. 1.

method, the sheet is divided into three nearly equal sections as shown in Fig. 1, and the writing on the first page is concealed.

The method of folding a letter sheet is shown in Fig. 2.

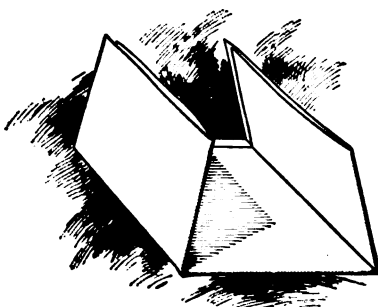


FIG. 2.

Turn the bottom of the sheet upwards so as to cover all but  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch or less of the sheet and form the crease near the middle of the sheet. Next turn the right-hand edge of the paper to the left, making the crease about one-third of the width of the sheet from the right-hand edge, and fold the remainder of the sheet



from the left so that the left edge will come about to the crease on the right.

When an official envelope is used for a letter sheet, fold the bottom of the sheet upwards and the top downwards, thus dividing the sheet into three nearly equal sections. The writing will then be concealed.

The usual method of folding a sheet of legal cap is shown in Fig. 3. Turn up the bottom of the sheet so that the lower edge meets the top edge; then fold the upper half of the doubled sheet down over the lower half.

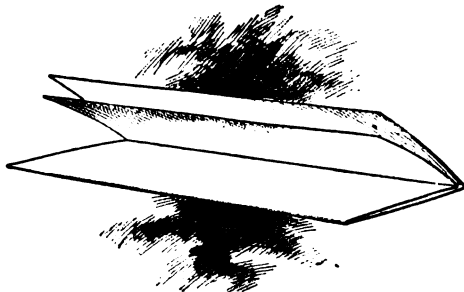


FIG. 3.

Small enclosures, like checks, receipts, etc., are laid on the

sheet and folded with it. If placed in the envelope separately, the enclosure is liable to be cut or torn when the letter is opened, or it may be overlooked when the letter is removed. Larger enclosures, as invoices and statements, are folded separately. Fig. 4 shows the proper method of folding a small enclosure in a letter sheet.



FIG. 4.

In folding letters, take care that the edges are even and that the folds are pressed down flat so as to give the letter a tidy appearance. A paper knife is to be preferred to the thumb or fingers in making the folds.

**46. The Insertion of the Letter.**—To insert the letter properly, take the envelope in the left hand with the opening to the right and the face down. Insert the folded letter with

the right hand, putting in the last folded edge first. If the letter is inserted in this manner, it can be removed from the envelope easily; if the folded edge is put in last, the corners are liable to catch when the letter is taken out.

The envelope should be opened by cutting or tearing open the top edge; then if the letter sheet has been properly inserted, it will, when removed, be right side up.

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#### THE STAMP.

47. The stamp is placed in the upper right-hand corner of the envelope about  $\frac{1}{8}$  or  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch from the end and an equal distance from the upper edge. In affixing the stamp, take care that it is right side up and that its edges are parallel with the edges of the envelope. To affix the stamp carelessly is a mark of disrespect to your correspondent, the more so as it takes no more time and is just as easy to put the stamp in its proper place.

Be careful that the amount of postage is sufficient; the collection of extra postage at the delivery post office is an annoyance to both the postal clerk or carrier and the recipient of the letter.

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#### THE RETURN DIRECTIONS.

48. To insure the return of a letter to the writer in case of non-delivery, the name or address of the writer should be written or printed in the upper left-hand corner or across the left margin of the envelope. The address of the sender on the envelope is tantamount to a request to return the letter if it fails of delivery in due time.

Business houses having extensive correspondence generally use *special-request* envelopes. These have printed on them the address of the sender with a request to return the letter in 5 or 10 days if not delivered. The stamped envelopes furnished by the post-office department have a printed special request with a blank for the address of the sender. If the return directions are omitted, the letter, if not delivered, must be sent to the dead-letter office.

We subjoin some forms of return directions that have fallen under our notice. A simple form is preferable to one more elaborate.

RETURN TO BOX 893  
CINCINNATI

Return to SECRETARY OF STATE,  
HELENA, Montana,  
If not delivered within 10 days.

CITY OF NEW YORK  
OFFICE OF THE CITY CLERK  
CITY HALL

FROM  
SUCCESS  
COOPER UNION,  
NEW YORK CITY.

RETURN IN TEN DAYS TO  
THE INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS.  
SCRANTON, PA.

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## TITLES: FORMS OF ADDRESS AND SALUTATION.

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### CLASSIFICATION OF TITLES.

**49. Preliminary Remarks.**—The proper use of the many titles employed in address and correspondence is a subject of sufficient importance to demand a somewhat full treatment in a separate section. In this section we endeavor to give the proper usage in regard to the titles of address ordinarily used in all kinds of correspondence, and the proper forms of address and salutation to be used in correspondence with those in official positions.

On account of the close relation existing between the United States and Great Britain, it has been deemed necessary to include the titles of rank used in the latter country, and the forms of address and salutation ordinarily used in correspondence with various officials and persons of rank.

**50.** According to their position, titles may be divided into two classes: **pre-titles**, such as Mr., Rev., Dr., etc., which precede the name; and **post-titles**, such as Esq., M.D., Jr., etc., which follow the name. There are some

pre-titles that on occasion must follow the name, generally in signatures and in descriptive mentions, but sometimes in addresses. Such are A— B—, General U. S. A., or To the Reverend Doctor C—, Dean of D—. These, however, are not post-titles, but pre-titles in exceptional use.

According to their use, titles may be divided into the following classes:

1. **Titles of address**, embracing prefixed words or phrases attributing rank, office, or distinction, terms of respect, either in direct address, or in mentioning a person; as, Mister, Madam, the Honorable, his Grace, his Excellency.

2. **Titles of honor**, such as belong to possessors of dignities, inherent or acquired; they include both nobility and rank, titles of courtesy, and official titles significant of special appointments held. Titles of honor are again subdivided into: (*a*) hereditary, such as prince, duke, marquis, earl, viscount, and baron, the six British titles of nobility; (*b*) civil, such as President, Governor, Senator, Judge, Mayor; (*c*) naval and military, as Admiral, Commodore, General, Colonel, Captain; (*d*) ecclesiastical, as Archbishop, Bishop, Dean.

3. **Titles of distinction or merit** that are either (*a*) life and honorary titles, such as Lord, Knight, Lady, or (*b*) scholastic titles, which are degrees and honors conferred by scientific schools, colleges, universities, and other institutions of learning, or acquired in the practice of the learned professions. Regular degrees are conferred upon those completing a prescribed course and passing a certain examination; honorary degrees on persons that have become distinguished in public life or in literary and scientific studies.

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#### TITLES OF ADDRESS.

**51. Mister.**—The contraction of this title is “Mr.,” and it rarely appears in any other form. It has always been a pre-title, and cannot be used apart from the name. When the occasion arises to use the appellative independently and (not

knowing the name) alone, we use Sir. Mr. is the most common of all titular appellatives applied to man. It is respectful, but it lacks distinction. It may be—and on occasion should be—used in almost every part of a letter; but the superscription and address are the important points, the use in both being exactly the same. The importance of Mr. in such use lies in its relations to and differences from “Esquire”; and these relations and differences are far more complex and confusing in the United States than in Great Britain, for the reason that the lines of distinction there are somewhat closely drawn, while here they are not. In this country Mr. has better standing than it has in the mother country, and the frequent ignorance of the social status of our correspondents render the safer title Mr. of more constant use, as an epistolary title at least. As a pre-title in the address of letters, it is fair to say, Mr. has far more respect shown it in America than in England. Few Americans have leisure to be vexed at so small a matter as that of being mistered, on letters or elsewhere. Still, Esquire is generally felt to be a higher title, and altogether a more desirable one where there is any feeling or room for feeling in the matter. The plural of Mr.—and of Esquire as well, as to titular use—is “Messrs.,” a contraction of the French *Messieurs*, “gentlemen.”

**52. Gentleman.**—This word means in its general application any man of intelligence not in some way degraded or in disgrace. In Great Britain the word has several specific meanings more limited and less flexible than in America. The British rule of the present day makes all men gentlemen that are not yeomen, tradesmen, artificers, or laborers; and each one of these defining words has several definitions.

**53. Esquire.**—This is the proper epistolary title of all untitled gentlemen, both in England and America. The contraction is “Esq.,” formerly “Esqre.”

In regard to Esq. and Mr., the title Esq. is somewhat more restricted in its application than is the title Mr. We can apply Mr. to any man, whatever his education or social position; but in general, we restrict the Esq. to men of some

intelligence and social standing in their community. In addressing a man of whom we know absolutely nothing except his sex, it is safest to use Mr. The title Esq. is always used in addressing in writing members of the legal profession just as "Dr." is used in addressing physicians.

**54. Master.**—In this country youths of all classes should be addressed in writing by the pre-title "Master." The boy that we may accost as "Sam" or "Dick," or even as "Boy," is entitled to "Master" when we address him in writing.

**55. Mistress** is the pre-title of a married woman. It is almost always used in the abbreviated form "Mrs.," and is pronounced *missis*. The word corresponds very closely to "Mister," and was derived from Mister, after that word had grown out of Master; otherwise, the corresponding form of Master would have been Masteress or Mastress. The use of Mrs. with the family name is generally well understood. There is diversity of usage, however, as to coupling it with a husband's titles; as in "Mrs. General A—," "Mrs. Senator B—," and the like. This use is convenient, but questionable. The places, if any, where it may be used with propriety are few. The plural of Mistress, *Mesdames*, is taken from the French.

**56. Mesdames.**—The permanent contraction of this word is "Mmes." It is the plural of the French *Madame*, and is used in English as the plural of "Mistress" (Mrs.); just as *Messieurs* (Messrs., a permanent contraction also), the plural of the French *Monsieur*, is used as the plural of the English "Mister" (Mr.).

Any number of spinsters associated in a business firm, in a committee, or in any other cooperative body, should be addressed in a letter by the pre-title of "Misses"; but if any one of them rejoices in the title of Mrs., then the pre-title of the body must be Mmes. The salutation, both oral and written, in any case—spinsters or not—should be "Ladies." That is to say, if Mrs. A— and another woman or other women, acting together in a firm or other collective capacity, are to be addressed, the pre-title must be Mmes.; and the salutation.

Ladies. In like manner, if Mr. A—— and another man or other men, acting as a firm or other collective body, are to be addressed, the pre-title should be Messrs., and the salutation, "Gentlemen" or "Sirs."

**57. Miss** is the pre-title of a girl or a spinster. Its use begins from infancy—almost as soon as the sex is distinguishable. In youth its masculine is "Master," and in adult age "Mister" (Mr.). It belongs to all ages and classes. It is a derivative by contraction of "Mistress," the feminine of "Mister." The title "Miss," in its adjectival use, is now a prefix—a pre-title—merely, and cannot be used as an independent appellative. In addressing a spinster, one must know either her given name or her surname; and with these one may say "Miss Mary" or "Miss Smith." It is as improper to address a spinster as "Miss" alone as it is to accost a man as "Mister" in the same way.

**58. Senior.**—This post-title should be written—as indeed should all titles—with a capital, whether abbreviated or not. The abbreviation is "Sr.;" it was formerly "Sen.," a form that is still occasionally used. This title is placed immediately after the name and before all post-titles, such as "Esquire."

**59. Junior.**—This is the Latin *junior*, "younger"; it is always abbreviated, as a post-title in correspondence, to "Jr." or "Jun." Formerly Jun. was universal, but now Jr. is almost so. This title, like Senior, comes immediately after the name and is separated from it by a comma; as, "A—— B——, Jr., Esq." It never displaces nor supersedes any other title, but goes with all. It denotes the younger of two persons—usually father and son—that have the same name. The older is designated Senior. Junior should always begin with a capital.

**60. Honorable.**—This title is, in this country, entirely honorary or given by courtesy; and yet it is very frequently used. It is accorded to the Vice President of the United States; to Members of Congress; to Judges, from the Chief

Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States down to the lowest grade of law judges; to Foreign Ministers and Envoys that have no title more distinguished, and to our own representatives abroad of the first and second grades; to Cabinet Officers; to State, Colonial, and Territorial Governors and Lieutenant Governors; to Heads of Departments generally; to State Senators and to State Senates collectively; to Speakers of State Houses of Representatives and Houses of Delegates; to Mayors; and to most corporate bodies, with very little discrimination. The title is often given, by what seems to be a stretch of this very elastic courtesy, to Assistant Secretaries, Comptrollers of the Treasury, Auditors, Clerks of the Senate and of the House, etc. All civil officers below the ranks complimented with Honorable are addressed, in the absence of official titles, as "Esquire."

**61. Right Honorable.**—This title belongs to several offices in Great Britain, such as the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, the Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, the Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer, and Members of the Queen's Privy Council.

**62. Reverend.**—This pre-title, often abbreviated "Rev.," designates in general a clergyman of any church, and is accorded to all priests below the rank of Very Reverend, those in Priests' or Deacons' orders, Pastors, Rectors, Preachers of all kinds, Vicars, Curates, Priors, Rabbis, Readers, etc. Abbesses, and other women at the head of religious houses, are entitled to this address.

**63. Reverend Doctor.**—This title belongs to a Doctor of Divinity, and is sometimes accorded as a personal courtesy to aged and learned divines that have not received the degree from any institution. Salutation: "Sir," "Reverend Sir," "Reverend Doctor," "Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Reverend Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To the



Reverend Dr. A— B—”; or, though rarely, “To the Reverend A— B—, D.D.”

**64. Very Reverend** is a title given to all church dignitaries below Patriarchs, Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, and Prelates (except Archdeacons, who are venerable), down to the class entitled to Reverend. This title is by courtesy given also to Priors of Monasteries over which Abbots preside, Rectors and Superiors of Religious Houses, Presidents of Catholic Colleges, and other high institutions of learning.

**65. Right Reverend.**—This title belongs to a Bishop, a Mitered Abbot, a Monsignor, an Apostolic Prothonotary, and a Domestic Prelate; and is usually accorded to an Abbot and an Abbess. Most Reverend is higher, and Very Reverend is lower. The Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Mr. Westlake states, prefer “Reverend” to “Right Reverend” for themselves.

**66. Lordship** is a title given to Earls, Viscounts, Barons, Bishops; to the eldest sons of Earls; and, by virtue of their offices, to the Mayors of London, York, Belfast, and Dublin; to Judges while presiding in court; and to certain other high official personages, as Lord Chancellor, Lord of the Treasury, Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer, etc.

**67. Grace.**—A title given to Dukes and Archbishops as “his Grace the Duke of Portland”; “his Grace the Archbishop of York.”

**68. Excellency.**—A title sometimes given to the President of the United States, and generally to Governors of States and Colonies, American and English, also to Foreign Ministers and to American Ministers abroad, including all Plenipotentiaries and Ministers Resident. In Massachusetts and South Carolina, Excellency is, or has been, the legal title of the Governors.

**TITLES OF HONOR.****HEREDITARY TITLES.**

**69. Emperor.**—No English-speaking sovereign has this title or form of royalty except Queen Victoria, who is Empress of India; but this does not, we believe, in any way affect matters of correspondence. The title belongs to official and state papers, but not to letters.

**70. King.**—The salutation to this functionary is "Sir" or "Sire," "May it please your Majesty," "Most Gracious Sovereign." The complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sire, your Majesty's most faithful servant." The address: "To the King's Most Excellent (or, Gracious) Majesty."

**71. Queen.**—The salutation due the Queen—there is but one Queen in the English-speaking world—is "Madam," "May it please your Majesty," or "Most Gracious Sovereign," or something to that effect. The complimentary close of a letter to her may be, "I have the honor to be, with profound veneration, Madam, your Majesty's most faithful servant." The divisions into lines should be gracefully arranged, and every line should begin with a capital, whatever the word may be. The address: "To the Queen's Most Excellent (or, Gracious) Majesty." In conversation, one may say, "Your Majesty" and "Madam." Relatively little formality hedges the Queen.

**72. Prince of Wales.**—Salutation: "Sir," or "May it please your Royal Highness." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your Royal Highness's most obedient servant." Address: "To His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales."

**73. Duke.**—Salutation: "My Lord Duke," or "May it please your Grace." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, my Lord Duke, your Grace's most humble servant." Address: "To His Grace the Duke of A—,"

or, when holding that rank, "To His Royal Highness the Duke of York."

The Duke is the highest order of nobility, next below the Prince of Wales. The order runs thus: Prince, Duke, Marquis, Earl, Viscount, Baron, Baronet, Knight.

**74. Marquis.**—Salutation: "My Lord Marquis." Superscription and address: "The Most Honorable the Marquis of Abercorn."

**75. Earl.**—Salutation: "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable the Earl of A——."

We communicate with the oldest sons of Dukes, Marquises, and Earls, in the same manner as with Earls, and with their wives, as with Countesses; with the younger sons of Earls, and with all the sons of Viscounts and Barons, as with untitled gentlemen; the address, however, being, "To the Honorable A—— B——." With the wives of these younger sons in the same manner, prefixing "Mrs." to the Christian name; thus, "To the Honorable Mrs. Henry A——."

**76. Viscount.**—Salutation: "My Lord." Superscription and address: "The Right Honorable the Viscount B——." The eldest sons of Viscounts and Barons have no distinctive title; they as well as their brothers and sisters being styled "Honorable Robert," "Honorable Mary," and so on.

**77. Baron.**—The Baron takes rank with a Viscount, and his epistolary salutation is "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Lordship's obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable the Lord A——."

**78. Baronet.**—Salutation: "Sir," "Dear Sir," "Dear Sir John," as the case may be. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir (or whatever corresponds to the salutation), your obedient servant." Address: "To Sir John

A—," etc. To this is added the title, usually abbreviated, "Bart." The wives of Baronets are addressed in the salutation and complimentary close as ladies ordinarily are; the address being "To Lady A— B—," etc.

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#### CIVIL TITLES, NOT HEREDITARY.

**79. President of the United States.**—The President of the United States is addressed, in epistolary salutation, as "Sir" and "Mr. President." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to subscribe myself, most respectfully, your obedient servant," or any other perfectly respectful formal closing. Address: "To His Excellency the President of the United States," or, with republican-democratic simplicity, "To the President, Executive Mansion, Washington, D. C." Mrs. Dahlgren suggests the former one.

There are, however, scores of forms in use. In the days of the first president it was customary to write always, "To His Excellency, George Washington, President of the United States." That degree of formality fell rapidly into disuse, however, and is very rarely seen on letters received at the White House today, and it has not been frequent for the last fifty years. In conversation, the Chief Magistrate is usually addressed as "Sir," or as "Mr. President," although one sometimes hears "Your Excellency."

**80. Vice President.**—The second officer of the United States ranks socially with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Officially, he is addressed in epistolary salutation as "Sir," "Mr. Vice President," or the like. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant." Address: "To the Honorable the Vice President of the United States," "To the Honorable A— B—, Vice President of the United States." The Chief Justice is addressed likewise: "To the Honorable the Chief Justice of the United States," "To the Honorable C— D—, Chief Justice of the United States."

**81. Governor of a State.**—Salutation: "Sir," or "Your Excellency." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your (or, your Excellency's) obedient servant." Address: "To His Excellency the Governor of A—"; or, "To His Excellency B— C—, Governor of the State of D—"; or, simply, "To His Excellency the Governor." In the states of South Carolina and Massachusetts, "Excellency" has been, and we believe now is, the legal title of the Governor. In other states it is accorded by courtesy; but its use is almost universal.

**82. Ambassador.**—We should accord to all Foreign Ambassadors very scrupulous titular respect. They are entitled to it at home, and we should be liberal in giving it to them here. All are accorded the title "Excellency." The salutation may be, "Sir," "Your Excellency"; and, if the individual is a Lord at home, "My Lord," or such title as will fit his home rank. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your Excellency's obedient servant," etc. The address, dependent on home rank, of course: "To the Marquis of A—, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from H. M. the King of A—," or "To the Honorable A— B—, Minister Resident," etc.

By British usage the wives of Ambassadors are entitled to "Excellency" in both complimentary close and in address. Resident Ministers rank with Ambassadors and Plenipotentiaries. An Envoy ranks second and a Charge d'Affaires third. Ministers and Ambassadors are permanent functionaries.

Our own Ministers abroad are accorded our best terms of respect. Salutation: "Sir," or "Your Excellency." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant," or "I have the honor to be your Excellency's most obedient servant." Address: "To his Excellency A— B—, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of A—," etc.

**83.** An Envoy is a second-class Minister; the first class embracing Ambassadors, Plenipotentiaries, and Resident

**Ministers.** The Envoy is not resident, and his standing is derived from his other offices. In general, when he has no other official title, the Envoy should be addressed as Honorable.

**84. A Charge d'Affaires** is a third-class Minister. The titular appellative is Esquire.

**85. Consul.** — Salutation: "Sir." Complimentary close: "I beg to remain, Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To A— B—, Esq., Consul at C—," etc.

**86. Cabinet Officer.**—This official is to be addressed, in epistolary salutation, as "Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, respectfully your obedient servant"; or any form that conveys the same sense. Address: "To the Honorable the Secretary of State," etc. Or, with equal propriety, "To the Honorable A— B—, Secretary of State," and likewise with other Cabinet officers. In general, the address in such cases should be directed rather to the office than to the officer. Cases may even arise wherein the name of the officer is not known, and the address should be made complete without the name.

**87. Attorney General of a State.**—This officer should be addressed the same as the Attorney General of the United States, as, "The Honorable the Attorney General of Texas, Austin, Texas."

**88. Senator or Representative in Congress.**—Salutation: "Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To the Honorable A— B—, Senate Chamber, etc."; or, better, "Senator A— B—." A representative is addressed: "Honorable C— D—, United States Congress, Washington, D. C.," and when absent from Washington, simply "Hon. C— D—," etc.

The President of the Senate should be addressed: "To the Honorable the President of the Senate of the United States," or "To the Honorable A— B—, President of the Senate of the United States." The Speaker of the House

is addressed "Sir," or "Mr. Speaker." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your most obedient servant," etc. Address: "To the Honorable the Speaker of the House of Representatives, Washington, D. C."

The Speaker of the Senate of Canada is addressed: "To the Honorable the Speaker of the Senate of Canada."

**89. Legislator.**—A State Senator is entitled, by universal consent, to the title of "Honorable"; as also is the Speaker of the House. The members of the House are also sometimes so addressed and spoken of, but the best usage accords them only "Esquire."

**90. Judge.**—The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States is to be addressed as "Sir," "Mr. Chief Justice," "May it please your Honor"; and, on the bench, "May it please the Honorable Court." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Honor's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Honorable A— B—, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States"; or, briefer and just as well, if not better, "To the Honorable the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Washington, D. C."

Associate Justices are entitled to the same salutation and complimentary close. Address: "To the Honorable A— B—, Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States," etc.

The Chief Justices and Associate Justices of State Supreme Courts usually are addressed as above, the state being named in place of United States.

All judges, below the grades above specified, are addressed as "Honorable," whether in the circuit, city, or county courts.

**91. Lawyer.**—In America, lawyers of all grades are accorded by courtesy the address title of "Esquire." The salutation is "Sir" or "Dear Sir," and the complimentary close corresponds. In England all Barristers of Law and Doctors of Law have a legal right to the title of Esquire,

both in superscription or address and in legal designation, and so have sheriffs of counties.

**92. Solicitor.**—The salutation is “Sir” or “Dear Sir”; the complimentary close, some form of “Respectfully yours.” The address is “Esquire,” a post-title.

**93. Justice of the Peace.**—Salutation: “Sir.” Complimentary close: “Respectfully, your obedient servant.” Superscription: “A— B—, Esq.”

**94. Mayor.**—In America, a Mayor is addressed as “Honorable.” Salutation: “Sir,” “Your Honor,” etc. Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be (or, to remain) your Honor’s obedient servant.” Address: “To the Hon. A— B—, Mayor of C—.”

**95. Sheriff.**—In America, the usual salutation of this officer is “Sir.” Complimentary close: “I beg to remain, respectfully yours;” or, “I have the honor to be,” etc. Address: “A— B—, Esq., Sheriff of C— County.”

**96. Alderman.**—Salutation: “Sir.” Complimentary close: “I beg to remain, your obedient servant,” or, “I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant.” Address: “To Mr. Alderman B—,” etc. As a body, Aldermen are “Honorable.”

**97. President of a Board.**—The President of a company, of a Board of Directors, or of Commissioners, or the like, should be addressed “To A— B—, Esq., President of —,” etc.

**98. President of a College.**—When he has no other office or degree, he may be addressed as “A— B—, President of C— College,” etc. Salutation: “Sir,” or “Dear Sir.” The complimentary close should correspond to the salutation, as, “I beg to remain, very respectfully yours,” etc.



## NAVAL AND MILITARY TITLES.

**99. Admiral.**—The first officer in the United States Navy corresponds in rank to the General in the Army. He commands the fleets of the United States. Salutation: "Sir"; and this is used in every grade of office in the Navy. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To Admiral A— B—, commanding the Fleets of the United States," etc.; "To Admiral A— B—, commanding United States Navy," etc.; or, more simple and equally respectful, "To the Admiral of the Navy of the United States," etc. The following, from the Navy Regulations, bears upon the matter in hand: "Line officers in the Navy, down to and including Commander, will be addressed by their proper title; below the rank of Commander, either by the title of their grade or Mr. Officers of the Marine Corps above the rank of First Lieutenant will be addressed by their military title, brevet or lineal; of and below that rank, by their title of Mr. Officers not of the line will be addressed by their titles, or as Mr. or Dr., as the case may be."

Officers of the Navy take rank in the following order: Admiral, Vice Admiral, Rear Admiral, Commodore, Captain, Commander, Lieutenant Commander, Lieutenant, Master, Ensign.

**100. General.**—There are four grades of this office—General, Lieutenant General, Major General, and Brigadier General. They are all entitled to the same forms of address, except that the inside address should give the specific rank of the officer. All army officers above Lieutenant should be addressed by their official titles. The salutation of a General is "General"—never abbreviated; but civilians may, and often do, use "Sir," and it is entirely proper for them, though there is no necessity for other than military forms. Army officers must use military forms. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, General, your obedient servant." Superscription: "General A— B—," etc., "General A— B—, commanding Army of A—," etc. The

address should give the special rank; as, "Major General A— B—." When the officer is in command, as is usual in the army, that fact should appear in both the superscription and the address: "To General A— B—, commanding the Department of the Gulf," etc. If the officer commands a point, the address containing the name of the place, then the word "commanding" is sufficient; as, "To General A— B—, commanding, Fort Bridger, Utah," where the mention of the fort defines the command.

In the War Department in Washington the custom prevails, and it is a good one, of addressing the office rather than the officer; thus, "To the General of the Armies of the United States," etc.; "To the Honorable the Secretary of State," etc.

The word General comes into the titles of several other offices than those named above, such as Adjutant General, Quartermaster General, Surgeon General, Commissary General; it is also used in non-military titles, as Postmaster General, Attorney General, Surveyor General, Consul General, etc.

**101. Colonel.**—Salutation: "Colonel," or, from a civilian, "Sir." The "Colonel" should never be abbreviated in such use. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Colonel, your obedient servant." Address: "Colonel A— B—, commanding First Cavalry, U. S. Army," or "Colonel A— B—, U. S. A., Fort C—," etc.

**102. Major.**—Salutation: "Major" or "Sir." The title may be abbreviated sometimes in the address, but never in the salutation. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be (or, to remain), Major (or, Sir), your most obedient servant."

**103. Captain.**—Salutation: "Captain," or "Sir." The salutation in this and all similar addresses should never be abbreviated. It is an impertinence to write "Capt." for

Captain. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Captain (or, Sir, according to the salutation), your obedient servant." Address: "Captain A—— B——, Company A, Seventh Regiment, U. S. Cavalry."

**104. Lieutenant.**—Salutation: "Sir." Complimentary close: "I beg to remain yours respectfully," "Respectfully yours," etc. In regard to the address due a Lieutenant, usage varies very much. It was once a discourtesy to address him as "Lieutenant," and "Mr." prevailed. In England, "Esquire" is the legal title, and is usually accorded, giving the specific rank and command after the name and the Esquire. Usage, in America, so far as we may be said to have any, is in favor of giving "Lieutenant"—usually abbreviated—as the pre-title, the post-title being, of course, omitted.

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#### ECCLESIASTICAL TITLES.

**105. Archbishop.**—The Anglican Archbishop is addressed in salutation as "My Lord," "My Lord Archbishop," or "May it please your Grace." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, with the highest respect, My Lord Archbishop, your Grace's most obedient servant." Address: "To his Grace the Lord Archbishop of A——," or "To the Most Reverend Father in God, A——, Lord Archbishop of B——."

The Roman Catholic salutation for their Archbishop is "Most Reverend and Respected Sir"; or, from a friend or clergyman, "Most Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Most Reverend Sir (or, to correspond to the salutation), your obedient servant." Address: "To the Most Reverend Archbishop A——," or "To the Most Reverend A—— B——, Archbishop of C——."

**106. Bishop.**—The Anglican Bishop is to be addressed in salutation as "My Lord," "My Lord Bishop," "May

it please your Lordship," etc. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, my Lord (following the salutation naturally), your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Reverend, the Lord Bishop of A——," etc.

In America, Bishops of Protestant Churches—except those of the Methodist Episcopal Church, who, we understand, prefer to be styled simply Reverend—are addressed as Right Reverend.

The Roman Catholic Bishop should be addressed as "Right Reverend Sir," or, less formally, "Right Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be (or, to remain), Right Reverend Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Reverend Bishop A——," or "To the Right Reverend A—— B——, Bishop of C——."

**107. Cardinal.**—Salutation: "Most Eminent Sir," or "Most Eminent and Reverend Sir." Complimentary close: "Of your Eminence, the most obedient and humble servant," or "I have the honor to remain, Most Eminent Sir, with profound respect, your obedient and humble servant." A Catholic belonging to the Cardinal's diocese may, if he is an ecclesiastic, add "and subject" to the complimentary close; and if a layman, may add "and son." Address: "To His Eminence Cardinal A——." If the Cardinal is also an Archbishop, a Bishop, or a Patriarch, it is proper to add the official title to the above; as, "To His Eminence Cardinal A—— B——, Archbishop of A——." A Cardinal should not be addressed with such titles as D.D. or S.T.D., these being included in the greater title Cardinal.

**108. Clergyman.**—In cases where the salutation differs—as it need hardly ever differ—from that of non-professional gentlemen, it is usually "Reverend Sir." This is very common in addressing the Clergyman—priest, parson, preacher, pastor, divine, minister of the gospel, rabbi, reader, and so on. The complimentary close corresponds to the salutation, as is usual in all cases of every degree and rank, and in the absence of all degrees and ranks. Address: "Reverend

A— B—," or "Reverend Mr. B—." In these cases, the abbreviated form, "Rev.," seems to be generally accepted. In conversation the Clergyman is usually accosted, as any other gentleman should be, as "Sir."

**109. Dean.**—In the Anglican Church the Dean is addressed, in salutation, as "My Lord," "May it please your Lordship." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Very Reverend Dean of A—," or "To the Reverend Doctor B—, Dean of C—."

**110. Pope** (*according to Prof. Westlake*).—Salutation: "Most Holy Father," or "Your Holiness." Complimentary close: "Prostrate at the feet of your Holiness, and begging the Apostolic Benediction, I protest myself now and at all times to be, of your Holiness, the most obedient son (or, daughter)." This, of course, for Catholics only. Address: "To our Most Holy Father, Pope A—," or "To His Holiness, Pope A—."

**111. Prelate.**—The Roman Prelates—Apostolic Prothonotaries and Domestic Prelates—are styled "Right Reverend," and are generally addressed as "Right Reverend Monsignor." Salutation: "Right Reverend Sir," "Right Reverend Monsignor"; or, informally, "Monsignor," or "Right Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "Right Reverend Sir, your most obedient servant"; or, informally, "My Dear Monsignor, your friend and servant." Address: "To the Right Reverend Monsignor B—," etc.; "To the Right Reverend Monsignor A— B—, Prothonotary Apostolic," or "To the Right Reverend A— B—, Domestic Prelate of His Holiness."

**112. Rabbi.**—In the Jewish Church, Rabbi embraces all ordained ministers, and all are addressed as "Reverend." The Moreh Tsedek, or teacher of righteousness, the Moranu, or teacher, and the Morch Moranu, or teacher of teachers, are the Hebrew titles of the clergy of that National Church. *Rabbi* in Hebrew means "my master."

### TITLES OF DISTINCTION.

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#### LIFE AND HONORARY TITLES.

**113. Lord.**—In Great Britain, a peer of the realm, especially a Baron, as distinguished from the higher orders of nobility.—*Worcester*. The word peer is limited to the members of the upper House of Parliament, and to Scotch and Irish noblemen of corresponding rank, qualified, on election, to sit in the upper House.—*Smart*. The title of Lord is extended by courtesy to the sons of Dukes and Marquises. It is also given to one that has the fee of a manor, and consequently the homage of his tenants; but, if not of noble birth, he is not addressed as a Lord.

A recent writer makes this point: "The title of Lord has not necessarily anything to do with peerage. All peers are lords, but there are many lords that are not peers. The King's Chancellor, his Treasurer, his Chamberlain, his High Admiral, the President of his Privy Council, certain of the high Judges, all English Judges when actually on the bench, Scottish Judges at all times, Lieutenants of Counties, the Lieutenant of Ireland and his deputy, the Mayors of London and York, the Provosts of several Scottish cities, the Rectors of Scottish Universities, the younger sons of Dukes and Marquises—all these are Lords by some rule, by law, or by courtesy, many of them without being peers; and, when they are peers, without any reference to their peerage."

**114. Lord Chancellor.**—Salutation: "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, with the highest respect, my Lord, your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable Lord A—— Lord High Chancellor."

**115. Lord Mayor.**—Salutation: "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, my Lord, your Lordship's obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable A—— B——, Lord Mayor of C——."

**116. Knight.**—Salutation, complimentary close, and superscription, the same as those of a Baronet. The wives of Knights, also, the same as those of Baronets.

**117. Lady.**—In Great Britain this title “is prefixed to the name of any woman whose husband is of rank not lower than Knight, or whose father was a nobleman not lower than an Earl.” Among English-speaking people generally the word Lady has two well known meanings or uses—the one above stated, and that formerly given the word gentleman, the correlative of gentleman. When gentleman came into use, the feminine of it was gentlewoman; but that feminine was gradually replaced with Lady, as we have the word now in this country.

**118. Princess.**—Salutation: “Madam,” or “May it please your Royal Highness.” Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be, Madam, your most obedient and faithful servant”; or, after “Madam,” one may insert, in place of “your,” “your Royal Highness’s.” Address: “To Her Royal Highness the Princess A——.”

**119. Duchess.**—Salutation: “May it please your Grace,” “Your Grace,” “Madam.” Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be, Madam, your Grace’s most faithful, obedient servant.” Address: “To Her Grace the Duchess of A——.”

**120. Countess.**—Salutation: “Madam,” “My Lady.” Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be your Ladyship’s most faithful and obedient servant.” Address: “To the Right Honorable the Countess of A——.”

**121. Baroness.**—Salutation: “My Lady.” Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be your Ladyship’s obedient servant.” Address: “To the Right Honorable the Lady (or, the Baroness) A——.”

## SCHOLASTIC TITLES.

**122. Degrees.**—In the following list are given the most common of the many degrees conferred by universities and colleges. Where the degree has more than one abbreviation, only the one most frequently used is given:

Bachelor of Divinity.....B.D.	Bachelor of Philosophy.....Ph.B.
Doctor of Divinity.....D.D.	Doctor of Philosophy.....Ph.D.
Bachelor of Laws.....LL.B.	Doctor of Science.....Sc.D.
Doctor of Civil Law.....D.C.L.	Bachelor of Science..B.S., or S.B.
Doctor of Laws.....LL.D.	Master of Science.....M.S.
Doctor of Medicine.....M.D.	Mechanical Engineer.....M.E.
Graduate in Pharmacy.....Ph.G.	Mining Engineer.....E.M.
Doctor of Dental Surgery..D.D.S.	Civil Engineer.....C.E.
Bachelor of Arts....B.A., or A.B.	Electrical Engineer.....E.E.
Master of Arts.....M.A., or A.M.	

Scholastic degrees are always abbreviated.

The bachelor's degrees, B. A., B. S., etc., are conferred upon students at the completion of the prescribed college course. The master's and doctor's degrees, M. A., Ph. D., etc., are conferred after one or more years of graduate study. In general, the same applies to the engineering degrees, C. E., M. E., etc.

Little importance is attached to degrees lower than M. A. or M. D., and they should not be used in address or superscription. In formal letters, the higher degrees, as D. D., LL. D., Ph. D., etc., may be used. It is customary in business correspondence with engineers to append the C. E., M. E., or E. E. to the name of an engineer entitled to it. These titles, and also the title M. D., are professional as well as scholastic and may properly be used in an address, superscription, or signature. It is in bad taste, however, to append a purely scholastic title, as M. A. or LL. D., to one's signature. The title M. D. belongs of right only to regular graduates of a medical college in good standing. A lady entitled to this degree may be addressed as "Margaret Dawson, M. D.," or "Dr. Margaret Dawson."

**123. Professor.**—This title properly applies to one elected by the proper authorities to a chair or professorship



in an institution of learning legally qualified to confer degrees. It is by extension applied also to any salaried graduate actually employed in teaching, and by courtesy is given to scholars and scientists that have become noted in special branches of knowledge, and to persons that have distinguished themselves as educators. The assumption of the title "professor" by balloonists, barbers, dancing masters, and others for the purpose of acquiring importance in the eyes of the ignorant, should be vigorously discouraged by intelligent people. This title—and all others as well—should be used with discretion, and should be applied only to those that have an indisputable right to it.

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#### PETITIONS.

**124.** Communications or petitions to an assembled body may be directed to the president of the body or to the body itself. The following are the forms of salutation and address used in such cases:

*United States Senate.*—Salutation: "Honorable Sirs," or "May it please your Honorable Body (or, the Honorable Senate)." Address: "To the Honorable the Senate of the United States in Congress assembled."

*House of Representatives.*—Salutation: "Honorable Sirs," "May it please your Honorable Body." Address: "To the Honorable the House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled."

*House of Lords.*—Petitions to the House of Lords are addressed, "To the Right Honorable the Lords, spiritual and temporal, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled." The petition commences, "My Lords," or "May it please your Lordships."

*House of Commons.*—Petitions to the House of Commons are thus addressed: "To the Honorable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled." The petition commences, "May it please your Honorable House "

*Canadian Parliament.*—The Senate of Canada is thus addressed: "To the Honorable the Senate of Canada in Parliament assembled." Petitions to the House of Commons of Canada are addressed, "To the Honorable the Commons of Canada in Parliament assembled." The petition commences, "May it please your Honorable House."

*Legislature.*—Address: "To the Honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the State (or, Commonwealth) of—." Salutation: "Honorable Sirs (or 'May it please your Honorable Body'): The undersigned respectfully represent (or submit or petition) that," etc. Complimentary close, when there are several signers: "And your petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray," etc., followed by the signatures.

*Court.*—A petition to a Civil Court should be addressed, "Your Honors," or "May it please your Honors," or "May it please the Honorable Court." Address: "To the Honorable the Judges of A— Court."

*Board of Education.*—A petition or memorial to a Board, say of Education, may begin with "Gentlemen," or, when it is a large or important corporation, "May it please your Honorable Body." Complimentary close: "All of which is respectfully submitted." Address: "To the President (or Chairman, as the case may be) and Members of the Board of Education of B—," etc. All other communications may be addressed to the President or Chairman officially; in some instances—as in imparting information—it is better taste to address the Secretary of the Board. Always ascertain definitely whether the head of the Board is a President or a Chairman.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND CONTRACTIONS.

**125.** Abbreviations, quotations, and contractions should be used sparingly in writing letters. Formal letters, indeed, should contain no abbreviations except those of titles of address and scholastic degrees. In business letters and familiar social letters, abbreviations may be used to some extent, but they

should be those that are well understood and in common use.

In the heading, address, or superscription, it is customary and proper to abbreviate the name of the state, and also to use the abbreviations "St." for Street, "Ave." for Avenue, "Co." for County, etc. It is not permissible to use the Arabic figures for the names of streets, nor is it considered proper to use the abbreviations, N., E., S., and W., for North, East, etc., in designating streets; thus, instead of "514 N. 7th St." write 514 North Seventh St. "Cross-Roads" should never be written "X-Roads." The name of a city should not be abbreviated; as, "Phil." for Philadelphia, "N. O." for New Orleans, "Balt." for Baltimore, "Cin." for Cincinnati, or the like. In the address of letters such forms savor of impertinence. Worse than this is the abbreviation of less familiar proper names. If one writes "Rock. Co., Virginia," the distributing clerk has to pause long enough to recall the fact that there is no Rock county in Virginia—although there is in other states—and to guess that the word "Rock." is for Rockingham. All this takes time and tries patience, and is so much unnecessary labor added to an overworked official. So, also, of "Ash." for Ashland, Ashley, Ashmore, Ashtabula, and so on; "Green." for Greenbrier, Greenville, Greenwood, Greenup, etc.; and "Hill." for Hillsborough; and so on to the end of the chapter. All such abbreviations are samples of impertinence and ignorance combined.

Abbreviations by syncope are almost as faulty as the foregoing; such as, "Wmsburgh" for Williamsburgh, "Jastown" for Jamestown, "Jnotown" for Jhontown, "Washton" for Washington, and so on. When two abbreviations identical in form fall together—as in Berkly St., St. Louis—it is better to spell the word Street out in full. The word "St." for Saint, although in a proper name, is so invariably employed that no confusion can arise from its use. Such words as San, Mount, New, should generally be written out; such as North, South, East, West, Upper, Lower, Point, Port, Union, and Bay should *always* be

written out, except in the names of states or very well known places.

There are a few abbreviations by syncope in personal names that have become tolerable by long use. Of this class are Chas., Jas., Thos., Wm., and some others. The correct form of writing these is the one here given; that is, with no punctuation except the abbreviation period at the end.

It is important, in view of the punctuation, to keep in mind the distinction, very frequently overlooked, between an abbreviated name and a nickname. Thus, the abbreviation of Thomas is "Thos.," while the most common nickname is "Tom," the former having the period of abbreviation and the latter not. From Joseph, in like manner, we have "Jos." and "Joe," abbreviation and nickname respectively; and in this case there is a sort of compromise in "Jo." Most of our familiar names have both abbreviations and nicknames, and sometimes a plurality of both; for example, William has "Wm." and "Will.," abbreviations; with "Bill" and "Willie" for nicknames. James has "Jas.;" with "Jemmy," "Jimmy," and "Jim." John has "Jno.;" with "Johnny" and "Jack." Edward has "Edw." and "Ed.;" with "Ned." Charles has "Chas.;" with "Charley."

One common but objectionable abbreviation is the symbol & for *and*. In general this abbreviation is permissible in a firm name; as, Messrs. John Hill & Sons.

The contractions, can't, don't, isn't, etc., used in familiar conversation, may perhaps be used in familiar letters; it is however a safe rule to avoid all such contractions in all forms of written discourse.

The abbreviations that are likely to be required in writing are given in the following classified list. It is not intended, of course, that the student shall commit to memory all the abbreviations given; he should, however, scan the list carefully and note those most frequently used in correspondence; and he should obtain a good general idea of the various classes so that he may intelligently use the list for reference.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.

## ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO BUSINESS.

According to value ( <i>ad valorem</i> )	Collector.....coll.
ad val.	Commission; Commerce; Com-
Account.....acct.	mittee.....com.
Account current.....acct. cur.	Company; County.....Co.
Account sales.....acct. sales	Consigned.....cons'd
Additional.....add.	Consignment.....cons't
Advertisement.....ad., advt.	Consolidated.....consol.
Agent.....agt.	Correspondent.....corresp.
All correct (oll korrekt).....O.K.	Credit; Creditor.....Cr.
Amount.....amt.	Day book.....D.B.
Assorted.....ass'd or as'd	Deposit.....dep.
Average.....av.	Discount.....disc.
Balance.....bal.	Ditto (the same).....do.
Bales.....bls.	Dividend.....div.
Bank.....bk.	Debtor.....Dr.
Bank book; Bill book.....B.B.	Draft.....dft.
Barrel.....bbl.	Each.....ea.
Bill of exchange.....b. e.	Errors and omissions excepted.
Bill of lading.....b. l.	E. & O. E.
Bills payable.....b. p.	Errors excepted.....E. E.
Bills receivable.....b. rec.	Exchange; Exchequer.....Exch.
Bond.....bd.	Export; Exporter; Expense..exp.
Bought.....bot.	First class.....A1
Boxes.....bxs.	Foot or feet.....ft.
Brought.....bro't	Free on board.....f. o. b.
Bundle.....bdl.	Gallon.....gal.
Bushel.....bu. or bush.	Gross.....gr. or gro.
By the hundred.....per cent.	Hogshead.....hhd.
By the year.....per an.	Hundredweight.....cwt.
Cartage.....ctg.	I owe you.....I. O. U.
Cash (or collect) on delivery.	Inch or inches.....in.
C. O. D.	Insurance.....ins.
Cashier.....cash.	Interest.....int.
Casks.....cks.	Inventory.....inv't.
Cents.....c. or cts.	Invoice.....inv.
Charges.....chgs.	Invoice book.....I. B.
Chartered accountant; Chief	Journal.....jour.
accountant.....C. A.	Journal day book.....J. D. B.
Chests.....chts.	Journal folio.....J. F.
Collateral.....collat.	Kilogram.....Kilo., Kg.

Manifest .....	Mfst.	Pieces .....	pcs. or ps.
Memorandum .....	Mem.	Please exchange .....	P.X.
Memorandum book .....	Mem.B.	Pound or pounds .....	lb.
Merchandise .....	mdse.	Premium .....	Prem.
Mortgage .....	Mtg.	Quart .....	qt.
Number; Numbers .....	No., Nos.	Quarter .....	qr.
Ounce .....	oz.	Received .....	recd.
Package .....	pkg.	Returned .....	retd.
Paid .....	pd.	Sales book .....	S.B.
Pay on delivery .....	P.O.D.	Shipment .....	shipt.
Payment .....	pay't	Treasurer .....	Treas.
Peck .....	pk.	Weight .....	wt.
Piece .....	pce. or pc.	Yard or yards .....	yd.

**ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO LEGAL AND CIVIL AFFAIRS.**

Administrator .....	adm., admr.	Financial Secretary .....	Fin.Sec.
Advocate .....	Adv.	Governor .....	Gov., Govr.
Against ( <i>versus</i> ) .....	v., vs.	His (or, Her) Britannic Majesty.	
Alderman .....	Ald.		H. B. M.
And others ( <i>et alii</i> ) .....	et al.	His (or, Her) Majesty .....	H. M.
Attorney .....	Atty.	His (or, Her) Majesty's Customs.	
Attorney General .....	Atty.Gen.		H. M. C.
Chancellor .....	Chanc.	House of Representatives .....	H. R.
Chief Justice .....	C. J., Ch. J.	Incorporated .....	incor.
Civil .....	Civ.	Internal Revenue .....	Int. Rev.
Civil Service .....	C. S.	Judge Advocate .....	J. A.
Clerk .....	clk.	Judge of Probate .....	J. Prob.
Clerk of Privy Council .....	C. P. C.	Justice of the Peace .....	J. P., Jus. P.
Commissioner .....	Com., Comr.	King's Bench .....	K. B.
Common Pleas .....	C. P.	King's Counsel .....	K. C.
Congress .....	Cong.	Legal .....	Leg.
Congressional Record .....	Cong. Rec.	Legislature .....	Leg., Legis.
Corresponding Secretary .....	Cor. Sec.	Member of Congress; Master of Ceremonies; Master Commandant .....	M. C.
Defendant .....	dft., deft.	Member of Parliament .....	M. P.
Democrat; Democratic .....	Dem.	Member of Provincial Parliament.	
Department; Deponent.			M. P. P.
	Dept., Dep.	Notary Public .....	N. P.
Deputy .....	Dep.	Parliament; Parliamentary .....	Parl.
District Court .....	D. C.	Plaintiff .....	plf., plff.
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.		Post Office .....	P. O.
	E. E. & M. P.	Postal Note .....	P. N.
Executive Committee .....	Exec. Com.	Postmaster .....	P. M.
Executor .....	Exec., Exr.		

Privy Councilor.....	P.C.	Secretary.....	Sec.
Public Documents.....	Pub.Doc.	Senate; Senator.....	Sen.
Queen Victoria ( <i>Victoria Regina</i> ).		Solicitor.....	Sol.
	V.R.	Solicitor General.....	Sol.Gen.
Queen's Bench.....	Q.B.	Superintendent .....	Supt.
Queen's Counsel.....	Q.C.	Superior Court; Supreme Court.	
Register; Registrar .....	Reg.		Sup.Ct.
Republican; Representative; Re-		United States District Court.	
port.....	Rep.		U.S.D.Ct.
Revised Statutes, , , , , , , , , , ,	Rev.Stat.	United States Senate.....	U.S.S.

#### ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO TIME.

Afternoon .....	P.M.	June.....	Jun.
April.....	Apr.	(June and July are rarely abbreviated.)	
August.....	Aug.	Last month ( <i>ultimo</i> ).....	ult
Before Christ ( <i>ante Christum</i> ).		March.....	Mar., Mch
	A.C., B.C.	Minute.....	min
Century .....	Cen.	Monday.....	Mon
Christmas.....	Xmas.	Month.....	mo. (pl., mos.)
Day; Days.....	d., ds.	New style .....	N.S.
December.....	Dec.	Next month ( <i>proximo</i> ) .....	prox.
February.....	Feb.	Noon ( <i>meridian</i> ).....	M.
Forenoon.....	A.M.	November.....	Nov.
Friday.....	Fri.	October.....	Oct.
Hour.....	h., hr.	Old style .....	O.S.
Hours.....	hrs.	Saturday .....	Sat.
In the meantime ( <i>ad interim</i> ).		Second .....	sec.
	ad. int.	September .....	Sept.
In the year of our Lord, or In the		Sunday.....	Sun.
Christian Era ( <i>anno Domini</i> ).	A.D.	This month ( <i>instant</i> ).....	inst.
In the year of the world ( <i>anno</i>		Thursday.....	Thurs.
<i>mundi</i> ).....	A.M.	Tuesday.....	Tues.
January.....	Jan.	Wednesday.....	Wed.
July.....	Jul.	Year; years.....	yr., yrs.

#### GEOGRAPHICAL ABBREVIATIONS.

Africa; African.....	Afr.	Arizona .....	Ariz.
Alabama.....	Ala.	Arkansas .....	Ark.
Alaska.....	Alas.	Australia; Australian.....	Austral.
America; American. Am. or Amer.		Austria; Austrian.	
Argentine Republic.....	Arg. Rep.		Aus., Aust., Austr.

Avenue.....Ave.  
 Bahamas.....Bah.  
 Baltimore.....Balt., Balto.  
 Barbados.....Barb.  
 Belgium; Belgian.....Belg.  
 British America.....Br. Am., B.A.  
 British Columbia.....B.C.  
 Borough.....bor. or Bor.  
 Britain; British.....Brit.  
 British India.....B.I.  
 California.....Cal.  
 Cambridge.....Cam.  
 Canada.....Can.  
 Canterbury (*Cantuaria*). Cantuar.  
 Cape Breton.....C.B.  
 Cape of Good Hope.....C.G.H.  
 Central America.....Cen. Am.  
 Chicago.....Chi.  
 Colorado.....Colo.  
 Better than Col., in order to distinguish it easily from Cal.  
 Connecticut.....Conn.  
 Should never be abbreviated Ct., for the reason that it might, in hasty handwriting, be confounded with Vt.  
 County.....Co.  
 Court House.....C.H.  
 Dakota.....Dak.  
 Delaware.....Del.  
 District.....Dist.  
 District of Columbia.....D.C.  
 Dominion.....Dom.  
 Dublin.....Dub., Dubl.  
 Ecuador.....Ecu.  
 England; English.....Eng.  
 Europe.....Eur.  
 Florida.....Fla.  
 France; French.....Fr.  
 Georgia.....Ga.  
 Germany; German.....Ger.  
 Great Britain.  
 G.B., Gt. Br., Gt. Brit.  
 Greece; Greek.....Gr.  
 Hawaiian Islands.....H.I.  
 Honduras.....Hond.  
 Idaho.....Ida.  
 Illinois.....Ill.

Indian Territory.....Ind.T.  
 Indiana.....Ind.  
 Indo-European.....Indo-Eur.  
 Iowa.....Ia., Io.  
 Ireland.....Ir., Ire.  
 Island.....Is., Isl.  
 Italian.....Ital.  
 Italy.....It.  
 Japan.....Jap.  
 Kansas.....Kan., Kans., Kas.  
 Kentucky.....Ky.

Better than Ken., for the reason that Ken. might be mistaken for Kan.

Lake.....L.  
 London.....Lon., Lond.  
 Louisiana.....La., Lou.  
 Maine.....Me.  
 Manitoba.....Manit.  
 Maryland.....Md.  
 Massachusetts.....Mass.  
 Mexico.....Mex.  
 Michigan.....Mich.  
 Minnesota.....Minn.  
 Mississippi.....Miss.  
 Missouri.....Mo.

This abbreviation is exceptional, and almost absurd. The most common abbreviation of a state is the first part of the word; as, Ala., Conn., Miss., Mass., etc. Another is the first and last letters; as, La., Pa., Me., Ga., etc. But Mo. is a third and unique form; but long usage has made it intelligible and hence it is best to keep it. Mis. would be confounded with Miss.; and Mi. with Me.

Montana.....Mont.  
 Mountain.....Mt. (pl., Mts.)  
 Nebraska.....Nebr.

Best form, as Neb. might be mistaken for Nev., Nevada.

Netherlands.....Neth.  
 Nevada.....Nev.  
 New Brunswick.....N.B.  
 New England.....N.E., N.Eng.  
 Newfoundland.....N.F.  
 New Hampshire.....N.H.  
 New Jersey.....N.J.

These initials are too much like N.Y., N.H., N.C., and so on, to make it at all times safe to use them for the state. Better in cases where space is limited, to write it "N. Jersey."



New Mexico.....	N. Mex.	Sandwich Islands.....	S. I.
New South Wales.....	N. S. W.	Scotland.....	Scot.
New York.....	N. Y.	South Africa.....	S. A.
New Zealand.....	N. Z., N. Zeal.	South America.....	S. A., S. Am.
North America.....	N. A.	South Carolina.....	S. C.
North Carolina.....	N. C.	South Dakota.....	S. Dak.
North Dakota.....	N. Dak.	Spain.....	Sp.
Northwest Territory.....	N. W. T.	Sweden.....	Sw.
Norway.....	Norw.	Switzerland.....	Swit., Switz.
Nova Scotia.....	N. S.	Tennessee.....	Tenn.
Ohio.....	O.	Territory.....	Ter., Terr.
Ontario.....	Ont.	Texas.....	Tex.
Oregon.....	Or., Ore., Oreg.	Township.....	tp.
Oxford ( <i>Oxonía</i> ).....	Oxon.	United States of America.....	U. S. A.
Pennsylvania.....	Pa.	Utah.....	U.
This is better than Penn. for the reason that the latter is too much like Tenn.		Venezuela.....	Venez.
Philadelphia.....	Phil., Phila.	Vermont.....	Vt.
Province of Quebec.....	P. Q.	Village.....	vil. or Vil.
Quebec.....	Q., Que.	Washington.....	Wash.
Railroad.....	R. R.	West Indies.....	W. I.
Rhode Island.....	R. I.	West Virginia.....	W. Va.
River.....	R.	Wisconsin.....	Wis.
Russia; Russian.....	Russ.	Wyoming.....	Wyo.
		York ( <i>Eboracum</i> ).....	Ebor.

#### ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO CHURCH AFFAIRS.

Catholic.....	Cath.	Methodist.....	Meth.
Church.....	Ch.	Methodist Episcopal.....	M. E.
Clergyman.....	Cl., clerg.	New Testament.....	N. T.
Congregational.....	Cong.	Old Testament.....	O. T.
Deacon.....	Dea.	Presbyterian.....	Presb.
Defender of the Faith ( <i>Fidei</i> <i>Defensor</i> ).....	Fid. Def.	Protestant.....	Prot.
<i>Deo Optimo Maximo</i> (to God, the best, the greatest).....	D. O. M.	Reformation.....	Ref.
Diocese.....	dio., dioc.	Reformed Church in America.....	R. C. A.
Ecclesiastes.....	Eccl., Eccles.	Reverend; Revelation.....	Rev.
English translation.....	E. T.	Revised Version.....	Rev. Ver.
Episcopal.....	Epis.	Roman Catholic.....	R. C., Rom. Cath.
Evangelical.....	Evang.	Trinity.....	Trin.
God willing ( <i>Deo volente</i> ).....	D. V.	Unitarian.....	Unit.
Independent Methodist.....	Ind. Meth.	United Brethern.....	U. B.
		United Presbyterian.....	U. P.
		Universalist.....	Univ.

**ABBREVIATIONS OF ORDERS AND SOCIETIES.**

Academy of Science.....A.S.	Astronomical Society of the Pacific.....A.S.P.
American Association for the Advancement of Science..A.A.A.S.	Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks.....B.P.O.Elks
American Association for the Promotion of Science.....A.A.P.S.	British and Foreign Bible Society. B. & F.B.S.
American and Foreign Bible Society..... A.F.B.S.	British Association.....B.A.
American Board Commissioners for Foreign Missions...A.B.C.F.M.	British Women's Temperance Association.....B.W.T.A.
American Geographical and Statistical Society.....A.G.S.S.	Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers.....B.L.E.
American Institute.....A.I.	Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....C.L.S.C.
American Institute of Architecture.....A.I.A.	Church Missionary Society.C.M.S.
American Institute of Mining Engineering.....A.I.M.E.	Engineer Volunteers.....E.V.
American Missionary Association. A.M.A.	Grand Army of the Republic.G.A.R.
American Order of Stationary Engineers.....A.O.S.E.	Improved Order of Red Men. Imp'd O.R.M.
American Peace Society...A.P.S.	Independent Order of Foresters. I.O.F.
American Protestant Association. A.P.A.	Independent Order of Good Templars.....I.O.G.T.
American Railway Union.A.R.U.	Independent Order of Odd Fellows.....I.O.O.F.
American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. A.S.P.C.A.	Independent Order of Sons of Malta.....I.O.S.M.
American Society of Civil Engineers and Architects.A.S.C.E.A.	Institute of Civil Engineers. Inst.C.E.
American Society of Mechanical Engineers.....A.S.M.E.	Institute of Mechanical Engineers. Inst.M.E.
American Statistical Association. A.S.A.	Institute of Naval Architects. Inst.N.A.
American Unitarian Association. A.U.A.	International Typographical Union.....I.T.U.
Ancient Free and Accepted Masons. A.F.A.M., A.F.&A.M.	Knight of the Garter.....K.G.
Ancient Order of Foresters.A.O.F.	Knight of the Legion of Honor (France).....K.L.H.
Ancient Order of Hibernians. A.O.H.	Knight of Malta.....K.M.
Ancient Order of United Workmen. A.O.U.W.	Knight of St. Patrick.....K.P.
Associated Brotherhood of Iron and Steel Workers..A.B.I.S.W.	Knights of Honor.....K. of H.
	Knights of Labor.....K. of L.
	Knights of Pythias.....K. of P.
	Knights Templars.....K.T.
	Mexican War Veterans...M.W.V.

National Academy of Design.	N.A.D.	Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.....	S.P.C.A.
National Academy of Sciences.	N.A.S.	Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.....	S.P.C.C.
National Association of Stationary Engineers.....	N.A.S.E.	Sons of Temperance.....	S. of T.
Order of United American Mechanics.....	O.U.A.M.	Woman's Christian Temperance Union.....	W.C.T.U.
Order of United Americans.	O.U.A.	Women's Christian Association.	W.C.A.
Royal Academy of Music..	R.A.M.	Young Men's Christian Association.....	Y.M.C.A.
Royal Arch Chapter.....	R.A.C.	Young Men's Christian Union.	Y.M.C.U.
Royal College of Physicians.	R.C.P.	Young Women's Christian Association.....	Y.W.C.A.
Royal College of Surgeons..	R.C.S.	Young Women's Christian Temperance Union.....	Y.W.C.T.U.
Royal Historical, Humane, or Horticultural Society.....	R.H.S.		
Society for the Prevention of Crime.....	S.P.C.		

#### ABBREVIATIONS OF TITLES.

Abbott; Abbess.....	Abb.	Earl.....	E.
Acting Assistant Quartermaster General.....	A.A.Q.M.G.	Ensign.....	Ens.
Adjutant General.....	A.G.	Esquire (formerly Esqre.)....	Esq.
<small>In our army this staff officer ranks as a Brigadier General, when of the highest grade.</small>		Excellency.....	Exc.
Admiral.....	Adm.	General.....	Gen., Genl.
Archbishop.....	Abp.	His Excellency; His Eminence.	H.E.
Assistant Adjutant General.	A.A.G.	Honorable.....	Hon.
Assistant Quartermaster..	A.Q.M.	Knight.....	Kt.
Assistant Quartermaster General.	A.Q.M.G.	Lieutenant.....	Lieut., Lt.
Baronet.....	Bart.	Lieutenant Colonel.....	Lt. Col.
Bishop.....	Bp.	Lieutenant General.....	Lt. Gen.
Brigadier General.....	Brig. Gen.	Madam.....	Mad.
Captain.....	Capt.	Madame.....	Mme.
Cardinal.....	Card.	Major.....	Maj.
Chancellor.....	Chanc.	Major General.....	Maj. Gen.
Colonel.....	Col.	Master or Mister.....	Mr.
Commandant.....	Comdt.	Mesdames.....	Mmes.
Commander.....	Com.	<i>Messieurs</i> (Gentlemen)....	Messrs.
Commodore.....	Com.	Midshipman.....	Mid.
Deputy Adjutant General..	D.A.G.	Mistress or Missia.....	Mrs.
Deputy Lieutenant.....	D.L.	Most Worshipful; Most Worthy.	M.W.
		President.....	Pres.
		Professor.....	Prof.

Provost.....	Prov.	Surgeon General.....	Surg. Gen.
Quartermaster General.....	Qm. G.	Venerable.....	Ven.
Rear Admiral.....	R. A.	Very Reverend.....	V. R., V. Rev.
Rector.....	Rect.	Vicar Apostolic.....	V. A.
Regius Professor.....	Reg. Prof.	Vice Admiral.....	V. Adm.
Reverend.....	Rev.	Vice Chairman; Vice Chancellor.	V. C.
Right Honorable.....	Rt. Hon.	Vice General.....	Vice Gen.
Right Reverend.....	Rt. Rev.	Vice President.....	Vice Pres.
Right Worshipful.	R. W., Rt. Wpful.	Viscount.....	Vis., Visct.

**ABBREVIATIONS OF DEGREES, FELLOWSHIPS, ETC.**

(For other abbreviations of scholastic degrees, see Art. 122.)

Associate of the Royal Academy.	A. R. A.	Fellow of the Historical Society	( <i>Historiæ Societatis Socius</i> ).
Bachelor of Civil Law.....	B. C. L.		H. S. S.
Bachelor of Literature. B. L., B. Lit.		Fellow of the Philological Society.	
Bachelor of Music. B. Mus., Mus. Bac.			F. P. S.
Bachelor of Oratory.....	B. O.	Fellow of the Society of Arts, Fellow of the Antiquarian Society.	
Doctor of Natural Philosophy.	Dr. Nat. Phil.		F. A. S.
Doctor of Natural Science.	Dr. Nat. Sc.	Master of Laws.....	LL. M.
Doctor of Sacred Theology..	S. T. D.	Master of Philosophy.....	Ph. M.
Doctor of Veterinary Science.	D. V. S.	Member of Legislative Council.	M. L. C.
Dynamical Engineer.....	D. E.	Member of Royal Academy of Science.....	M. R. A. S.
Fellow of Royal Society ( <i>Regiæ Societatis Socius</i> ).	F. R. S., R. S. S.	Member of the Royal Institution.	M. R. I.
Fellow of the American Academy ( <i>Academiæ Americanæ Socius</i> ).	A. A. S.	Member of the Royal Irish Academy.....	M. R. I. A.
Fellow of the Entomological Society.....	F. E. S.	Member of the Royal Society of Literature.....	M. R. S. L.
Fellow of the Geological Society.	F. G. S.	Member of the Statistical Society	M. S. S.
		Topographical Engineer.....	T. E.

**UNCLASSIFIED ABBREVIATIONS.**

Abridged.....	abr.	Anonymous.....	Anon.
Aide-de-Camp.....	A. D. C.	Answer.....	a. or ans.
And others; And so forth ( <i>et cetera</i> ).....	etc., &c.	Answer, if you please ( <i>repondez s'il vous plait</i> ).....	R. S. V. P.

Appendix .....	app.	Longitude.....	long
Approximate.....	approx.	Manufactured.....	Mfd.
Architecture; Architect....	Arch.	Manufacturers .....	Mfrs.
Article.....	art.	Manufacturing.....	Mfg.
Boards (bookbinding).....	bds.	Manuscript; Manuscripts,	
Book .....	bk.		MS., MSS.
Brevet; Brevetted.....	Brev.	Military.....	Mil.
Brother .....	Bro.	Mutual.....	Mut.
The plural is Bros., not Bro's.		Namely ( <i>videlicet</i> ).....	viz.
Building.....	bldg.	National .....	Nat.
Capital letter .....	cap.	<i>Nota bene</i> .....	N.B.
Centigrade; Central.....	Cent.	Page; Pages.....	p., pp.
Chapter.....	chap.	Philosophy .....	Phil.
Coadjutor.....	Coad.	Population.....	pop.
College.....	coll.	Post-Office Order.....	P.O.O.
Compare.....	cf.	Pounds, shillings, and pence.	
Confederate States of America.			£, s., and d.
	C.S.A.	<i>Pro tempore</i> (for the time).	pro tem.
Cyclopedia.....	Cyc.	Query.....	qy.
Dead-Letter Office.....	D.L.O.	Question.....	qu., ques.
Degree.....	Deg.	<i>Quod erat demonstrandum</i> (which	
Dictionary.....	dict.	was to be demonstrated).....	q.e.d.
<i>Dramatis personæ</i> , (the persons		Railroad .....	R.R.
of the drama).....	Dram.Pers.	Railway.....	Ry.
Dynamics.....	dyn., dynam.	Recipe.....	Re.
Edition.....	ed.	Regiment.....	Reg.
Editor.....	Ed.	Remark.....	Rem.
Engineer; Engineering.....	eng.	Review.....	Rev.
Example.....	Ex.	<i>Scilicet</i> (namely; to wit).....	scil.
Exception.....	ex.	Section.....	sec.
Fahrenheit.....	Fah., Fahr.	Solution.....	sol.
<i>Fecit</i> (he did it).....	fec.	Supplement.....	Supp.
Figure.....	fig.	That is ( <i>id est</i> ).....	i. e.
For example ( <i>exempli gratia</i> ).....	e.g.	The same ( <i>idem</i> ).....	id.
General Order.....	G.O.	Transpose.....	tr.
Handkerchief .....	hdkf.	United States Army.....	U.S.A.
History; Historical.....	hist.	United States Mail or Marines.	
<i>In transitu</i> (in the passage).			U.S.M.
	in trans.	United States Military Academy.	
<i>Incognito</i> (unknown).....	incog.		U.S.M.A.
Introduction.....	Intro.	United States Naval Academy.	
It does not follow ( <i>non sequitur</i> ).			U.S.N.A.
	non seq.	United States Navy.....	U.S.N.
Latitude.....	lat.	United States Steamship....	U.S.S
Library.....	Lib.	Volume.....	vol

**SIGNS AND CHARACTERS.**

The following signs and characters are in daily use:

To or at.....	@	Dollars.....	§
Account.....	<sup>a</sup> / <sub>c</sub>	Number.....	#
Bill of lading.....	<sup>B</sup> / <sub>L</sub>	Means "pounds," if written after a figure, as 40 #.	
Bill rendered.....	<sup>B</sup> / <sub>R</sub>	Check mark.....	✓
Bill of sale.....	<sup>B</sup> / <sub>S</sub>	Also radical sign.	
Cents.....	¢	Ditto. (The same as above)....	"
Care of.....	<sup>c</sup> / <sub>o</sub>	Degrees.....	°
Days after date.....	<sup>d</sup> / <sub>d</sub>	Primes; Minutes; Feet.....	'
Days after sight.....	<sup>d</sup> / <sub>s</sub>	Seconds; Inches.....	"
Free on board.....	<sup>F</sup> / <sub>B</sub>	Also used for ditto marks.	
Joint account.....	<sup>J</sup> / <sub>A</sub>	One and one-fourth.....	¼
Letter of credit.....	<sup>L</sup> / <sub>C</sub>	One and one-half.....	½
Letters of marque.....	<sup>L</sup> / <sub>M</sub>	One and three-fourths.....	¾
Pounds sterling.....	£	Addition (plus).....	+
On account of custom.....	<sup>o</sup> / <sub>c</sub>	Subtraction (minus).....	-
Out of courtesy.....	<sup>o</sup> / <sub>c</sub>	Multiplication (by or into).....	×
Per cent.....	%	Division (divided by).....	÷
Per.....	℥	Equals (equality).....	=

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**POSTAL INFORMATION.**

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**CLASSES OF MAIL MATTER: RATES OF POSTAGE.**

**126. First-Class Matter.**—On matter that is wholly in writing, sealed or unsealed, printed commercial papers filled out in writing, having the nature of a personal correspondence, or being the expression of a money value, such as notes, drafts, receipts, executed deeds, and insurance policies, manuscripts for publication when unaccompanied by proof sheets, reproductions by the copygraph and similar processes, which are in the nature of personal correspondence, or imitating written matter, and all packages the contents of which cannot be ascertained without destroying the wrapper, the postage is 2 cents for each ounce, or for each fraction thereof. On local or drop letters at offices where there is no free delivery by carrier, 1 cent. Weight of packages not limited. Postal cards, 1 cent.

**127. Second-Class Matter.**—This class includes all newspapers, periodicals, or matter exclusively in print and regularly issued at stated periods from a known office of publication or news agency. Postage, 1 cent a pound or fraction thereof. Weight of packages not limited. The only writings or prints that may be enclosed with or on such matter are: Name and address of publishers, and of party addressed; index or expiration figures; printed title and office of publication; corrections of typographical errors; marks to call attention to any passages; the words "sample copy" or "marked copy"; and bills, receipts, and subscription orders, which, however, must contain no other information than the name, place of publication, subscription price, and subscription due; the number of copies contained in package may be noted.

Transient newspapers and periodicals that have been entered as second-class matter, 1 cent for 4 ounces, or fraction thereof.

**128. Third-Class Matter.**—Mail matter of the third class embraces books (printed and blank), circulars, and other matter wholly in print, proof sheets and corrected proof sheets and manuscript copy accompanying the same, handbills, posters, chromolithographs, engravings, heliotypes, lithographs, photographic and stereoscopic views, with title written or printed thereon, printed blanks, printed cards. Postage, 1 cent for each 2 ounces or fractional part thereof.

Third-class matter must admit of easy inspection, otherwise it will be charged letter rates on delivery. It must be fully prepaid, or it will not be forwarded.

The limit of weight is 4 pounds, except single books in separate packages, on which the weight is not limited. It is entitled, like matter of the other classes, to special delivery when special-delivery stamps are affixed in addition to the regular postage.

Upon matter of the third class, or upon the wrapper or envelope enclosing the same, or the tag or label attached thereto, the sender may write his own name, occupation,

and residence or business address, preceded by the word *from*, and may make marks other than by written or printed words to call attention to any word or passage in the text, and make correct any typographical errors. There may be placed upon the blank leaves or cover of any book, or printed matter of the third class, a simple manuscript dedication or inscription not of the nature of a personal correspondence. Upon the wrapper or envelope of third-class matter, or the tag or label attached thereto, may be printed any matter mailable as third class, but there must be left on the address side a space sufficient for the legible address and necessary stamps.

**129. Fourth-Class Matter.**—Mailable matter of the fourth class embraces blank cards, cardboard, and other flexible material, flexible patterns, letter envelopes and letter paper, merchandise, models, ornamented paper, sample cards, samples of ores, metals, minerals, drawings, plans, designs, original paintings in oil or water colors, and any other matter not included in the first, second, or third class, and which is not in its form or nature liable to destroy, deface, or otherwise damage the contents of the mail bag, or harm the person of any one engaged in the postal service; or matter excluded by sections 3,893 and 3,894 Revised Statutes, to wit, obscene matter and matter concerning lotteries. Postage rate thereon, 1 cent for each ounce or fractional part thereof.

Other articles of the fourth class, which, unless properly secured, might destroy, deface, or otherwise damage the contents of the mail bag, or harm the person of any one engaged in the postal service, may be transmitted in the mails when they conform to the following conditions: (1) They must be placed in a bag, box, or removable envelope made of paper, cloth, or parchment; (2) such bag, box, or envelope must again be placed in a box or tube made of metal or some hard wood, with sliding clasp or screw lid; (3) in case of articles liable to break, the inside box, bag, or envelope must be surrounded by sawdust, cotton, or spongy



substance; (4) in case of sharp-pointed instruments, the points must be capped or encased; and when they have blades, such blades must be bound with wire; (5) the whole must be capable of easy inspection. Seeds, or other articles not prohibited, which are liable from their form or nature to loss or damage unless specially protected, may be put up in sealed envelopes, provided such envelopes are made of material sufficiently transparent to show the contents clearly without opening.

Upon any package of matter of the fourth class the sender may write or print his own name and address, preceded by the word *from*, and there may also be written or printed the number and names of the articles enclosed; and the sender thereof may write or print upon or attach to any such articles, by tag or label, a mark, number, name, or letter, for purpose of identification, and any matter not in the nature of personal correspondence may be printed on the wrapper or label, or be enclosed within.

Fourth-class matter may be registered and must be fully prepaid.

**130. Registration.**—All kinds of postal matter may be registered at the rate of 8 cents for each package in addition to the regular rates of postage, to be fully prepaid by stamps. Each package must bear the name and address of the sender, and a receipt will be returned from the person to whom addressed. Mail matter can be registered at all post offices in the United States.

The Post-Office Department or its revenue is not by law liable for the loss of any registered or other mail matter. Congress, at a recent session, passed an act authorizing the Postmaster General to formulate a system by which an indemnity—not to exceed \$10 for any one registered piece—shall be paid for the loss of first-class registered matter.

**131.** All matter concerning lotteries, gift concerts, or schemes devised to defraud the public, or for the purpose of obtaining money under false pretenses, is denied transmission in the mails.

**132.** The franking privilege was abolished July 1, 1873, but the following mail matter may be sent free by legislative saving clauses; viz:

1. All public documents printed by order of Congress, the Congressional Record and speeches contained therein, franked by Members of Congress, or by the Secretary of the Senate, or by the Clerk of the House.

2. Seeds transmitted by the Secretary of Agriculture, or by any Member of Congress, procured from that Department.

3. All periodicals sent to the subscribers within the county where printed, except when sent to free delivery offices.

4. Letters and packages relating exclusively to the business of the Government of the United States, mailed only by officers of the same, publications required to be mailed to the Librarian of Congress by the copyright law, and letters and parcels mailed by the Smithsonian Institution. All these must be covered by specially printed "penalty" envelopes or labels.

5. The Vice President, members and members-elect and delegates and delegates-elect to Congress may frank any mail matter, not over 1 ounce in weight, upon official or departmental business.

6. All communications to government officers and to members of Congress must be prepaid by stamps.

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#### MONEY ORDERS.

**133.** Money in sums not exceeding \$100 can be sent with safety through the principal Post Offices of the United States, by buying Post-Office Money Orders. The rates are as follows:

*For domestic money orders:* For sums not exceeding \$2.50, 3 cents; over \$2.50 and not exceeding \$5, 5 cents; over \$5 and not exceeding \$10, 8 cents; over \$10 and not exceeding \$20, 10 cents; over \$20 and not exceeding \$30, 12 cents; over \$30 and not exceeding \$40, 15 cents; over \$40 and not

exceeding \$50, 18 cents; over \$50 and not exceeding \$60, 20 cents; over \$60 and not exceeding \$75, 25 cents; over \$75 and not exceeding \$100, 30 cents.

*For foreign money orders:* For sums not exceeding \$10, 10 cents; over \$10 and not exceeding \$20, 20 cents; over \$20 and not exceeding \$30, 30 cents; over \$30 and not exceeding \$40, 40 cents; over \$40 and not exceeding \$50, 50 cents; \$50 to \$60, 60 cents; \$60 to \$70, 70 cents; \$70 to \$80, 80 cents; \$80 to \$90, 90 cents; \$90 to \$100, \$1.

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#### SPECIAL DELIVERY.

**134.** Affixing a special-delivery stamp of the value of 10 cents to any letter or package insures its immediate delivery by messenger on reaching destination. This now applies to all Post Offices in the United States.

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#### VALENTINES, ETC.

**135.** Valentines and unframed Christmas and Easter cards, and other cards of a similar character, passing between friends in small quantities, as tokens of esteem, are transmissible in mails despatched to countries of the Universal Postal Union (except Canada and Mexico, to which United States domestic postage rates apply), at the rate and under the conditions applicable to "printed matter" in Postal Union mails, notwithstanding they are composed partly of silk or satin, and are hand-painted and of elaborate design and finish. But such cards regularly framed, whether with wood, metal, or other material usually used for picture frames, are not entitled to transmission as "printed matter," and should not be admitted to Postal Union mails at less than the letter rate of postage fully prepaid; nor should articles intended for use (such as cushions, etc.), which bear an Easter or Christmas greeting, but cannot be considered in any sense "cards," be treated as "printed matter" in said mails.

**RATES OF FOREIGN POSTAGE.**

**136.** The rates of postage to all foreign countries and colonies (except Canada and Mexico) are as follows:

Letters, per 15 grams ( $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce).....	5 cents
Postal cards, each.....	2 cents
Newspapers and other printed matter, per 2 ounces.	1 cent
Commercial papers (such as legal and insurance papers, deeds, bills of lading, invoices, manuscript for publication, etc.)—	
Packets not in excess of 10 ounces.....	5 cents
Packets in excess of 10 ounces, for each 2 ounces or fraction thereof.....	1 cent
Samples of merchandise—	
Packets not in excess of 4 ounces.....	2 cents
Packets in excess of 4 ounces, for each 2 ounces or fraction thereof.....	1 cent
Registration fee on letters or other articles.....	8 cents

Ordinary letters for countries of the Postal Union (except Canada and Mexico) will be forwarded, whether any postage is prepaid on them or not. All other mailable matter must be prepaid at least partially. Mail matter for Hawaii, Cuba, Porto Rico, and to the United States possessions in the Philipines should be prepaid at Domestic Rates, the same as if addressed to persons within the United States, Canada, or Mexico.

**137.** The following are the rates of postage to Canada:

Letters, per ounce, prepayment compulsory.....	2 cents
Postal cards, each.....	1 cent
Newspapers, per 4 ounces.....	1 cent
Merchandise, not exceeding 4 pounds (samples, 1 cent per 2 ounces), per ounce.....	1 cent
Commercial papers, same as to other Postal Union countries.	
Registration fee.....	8 cents

Any article of correspondence may be registered. Packages of merchandise are subject to the regulations of either

country to prevent violations of the revenue laws; must not be closed against inspection, and must be so wrapped and enclosed as to be easily examined. Samples must not exceed  $8\frac{1}{2}$  ounces in weight. No sealed packages other than letters in their usual and ordinary form may be sent by mail to Canada.

**138.** The rates of postage to Mexico are:

Letters, newspapers, and printed matter are now carried between the United States and Mexico at same rates as in the United States. Samples are 1 cent for 2 ounces; limit of weight,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  ounces. Merchandise other than samples may only be sent by Parcels Post. No sealed packages other than letters in their usual and ordinary form may be sent by mail to Mexico, nor any package over 4 pounds 6 ounces in weight.

Merchandise cannot be sent by mail to foreign countries, except as samples as above, or when paid at the rate for letters; except that a Parcels Post is in operation between the United States and Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, British Honduras, Mexico, Hawaii, Leeward Islands, Republic of Colombia, Salvador, Costa Rica, Danish West Indies (St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John), British Guiana, Windward Islands, and Newfoundland. Merchandise to these countries, 12 cents for each pound or fraction thereof. Limit of weight, 11 pounds. Limit of size to Colombia, Costa Rica, and Mexico, 2 ft.  $\times$  4 ft. To other countries named, 6 feet for greatest length and girth combined.

Packages of canceled or uncanceled postage stamps addressed to foreign countries (except when sent by Parcels Post) are subject to postage at letter rates.

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**SUGGESTIONS TO THE PUBLIC.**

*(From the United States Official Postal Guide.)*

**139.** Mail all letters, etc. as early as practicable, especially when sent in large numbers, as is frequently the case with newspapers and circulars.

All mail matter at large post offices is necessarily handled in great haste and should, therefore, in all cases be so *plainly* addressed as to leave no room for doubt and no excuse for error on the part of postal employes. Names of states should be written in full (or their abbreviations should be very distinctly written) in order to prevent errors that arise from the similarity of such abbreviations as Cal., Col.; Pa., Va., Vt.; Me., Mo., Md.; Ida., Ind.; N. H., N. M., N. Y., N. J., N. C., D. C.; Miss., Minn., Mass.; Nev., Neb.; Penn., Tenn.; etc., when hastily or carelessly written. This is especially necessary in addressing mail matter to places the names of which are borne by several post offices in different states.

Avoid as far as possible the use of envelopes made of flimsy paper, especially where more than one sheet of paper, or any other article than paper, is enclosed. Being often handled, and subjected to pressure in the mail bags, such envelopes not infrequently split open, giving cause of complaint.

Never send money or any other article of value through the mail except either by means of a money order or in a registered letter. Any person who sends money or jewelry in an unregistered letter not only runs a risk of losing his property, but exposes to temptation every one through whose hands his letter passes, and may be the means of ultimately bringing some clerk or letter carrier to ruin.

See that every letter or package bears the full name and post-office address of the writer, in order to secure the return of the letter, if the person to whom it is directed cannot be found. A much larger portion of the undelivered letters could be returned if the names and addresses of the senders were always fully and plainly written or printed inside or on the envelopes. Persons that have large correspondence find it most convenient to use "special-request envelopes"; but those who only mail an occasional letter can avoid much trouble by writing a request to "return if not delivered," etc. on the envelope.

When dropping a letter, newspaper, etc. into a street

mailing box, or into the receptacle at a post office, always see that the packet falls into the box and does not stick in its passage; observe also, particularly, whether the postage stamps remain securely in their places.

Postage stamps should be placed on the upper right-hand corner of the address side of all mail matter.

The street and number (or box number) should form a part of the address of all mail matter directed to cities. In most cities there are many persons, and even firms, bearing the same name. Before depositing any package or other article for mailing, the sender should assure himself that it is wrapped and packed in the manner prescribed by postal regulations; that it does not contain *unmailable* matter nor exceed the limit of size and weight as fixed by law; and that it is fully prepaid and properly addressed. The postage stamps on all mail matter are necessarily canceled at once, and the value of those affixed to packages that are afterwards discovered to be short-paid or otherwise unmailable is therefore liable to be lost to the senders.

It is unlawful to send an ordinary letter by express or otherwise outside of the mails unless it is enclosed in a Government stamped envelope. It is also unlawful to enclose a letter in an express package unless it pertains wholly to the contents of the package.

It is forbidden by the regulations of the Post-Office Department for postmasters to give to any person information concerning the mail matter of another, or to disclose the name of a box holder at a post office.

Letters addressed to persons temporarily sojourning in a city where the free-delivery system is in operation should be marked "Transient" or "General Delivery," if not addressed to a street and number or some other designated place of delivery.

Foreign books, etc. infringing United States copyright are undeliverable if received in foreign mails, or mailed here.

# LETTER WRITING.

(PART 2)

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## COMPOSITION OF LETTERS.

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### INVENTION AND EXPRESSION.

**1.** In any composition, letter, sermon, essay, etc., two things are required: (1) Finding something to say; this is *invention*. (2) Saying it; this is *expression*.

**2. Invention.**—Invention as applied to a written composition signifies the thinking out, so to speak, of the matter that is to be written. Usually, invention is the more difficult of the two processes, but in letter writing, as opposed to other forms of composition, invention is comparatively simple and easy. Before beginning a letter, one usually knows quite well what he intends to say; the material is at hand, and the chief labor consists in proper expression. Nevertheless, a certain amount of attention should be paid to the orderly arrangement of the material, even in the most informal social letter. Before beginning a letter think over what you want to say, so that it will not be necessary to add one or more postscripts after you have written the signature. The essential points having been decided on, they should be presented in a free and natural manner. In the case of important letters it is best to note on paper the various points to be considered, and arrange them in the most logical order. It is a good plan to first make a rough draft of such

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For notice of the copyright, see page immediately following the title page.



a letter, revise and rearrange the topics, and condense the sentences until you are satisfied that the letter cannot be improved; then make a fair copy.

**3. Expression**, in letter writing, embraces the following subjects: (1) *spelling*; (2) *diction*, or use of words; (3) *construction of sentences*; (4) *punctuation*; (5) *construction of paragraphs*.

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#### SPELLING.

**4.** To properly express one's self, it is necessary to master *English spelling*, which is the art of expressing an English word by its proper letters. What are these proper letters? Usage and the authority of recognized dictionaries must determine. Misspelling is one of the common faults of English letter writing. It is surprising, indeed, to find so many persons that speak correctly enough, whose writing is atrociously bad. We see men that lay claim to an ordinary good education, and elected perhaps on the strength of that claim to some public office, unable to express themselves in writing without shocking those that read their productions. Such men often inflict injury on the very communities they officially represent or rather misrepresent.

Still, correct spelling is easily enough acquired. All that is required of the student is attention to what he reads. Let him read with care, application, and assiduity, and he will soon become a master of the art of spelling. Let him first strive to acquire the correct spelling of the smaller words of the language, and he will find himself making rapid and steady advancement. A well spelled letter from a working man is indicative of diligence, and diligence is one of those very qualities most highly prized by employers of labor.

By way of counsel to any one desirous of becoming an accurate speller we would say:

1. Read well written books and periodicals.
2. Copy from well written books and periodicals.
3. Consult a dictionary of recognized authority as frequently as possible.

## DICTION.

5. Diction deals with the choice and use of words. We say that a person's diction is good when he uses only words that are reputable and that convey the exact meaning he intends them to convey; his diction is faulty if he uses excess words of questionable standing, foreign words and phrases, or slang, or if he uses words in a sense not ordinarily understood.

In letter writing the rules of diction are by no means as rigid as in most other forms of written composition. In general, we use about the same words in writing to a person that we would in conversation with him. Technical or colloquial words understood by the recipient may be freely used in a letter, but would not be permissible in an essay or article to be read by people unacquainted with their meaning. It is not to be inferred, however, that a careless use of words is permissible in letter writing; while the fact that a social letter is more or less informal and free and easy permits the diction to be also informal, it is just as necessary in letter writing to use words that properly convey the meaning intended as it is in the most formal composition.

Diction may be considered under three heads; viz., *purity*, *propriety*, and *precision*.

6. **Purity** consists in the use of words that are sanctioned by good usage and are familiar to the great body of educated people—words in current and reputable use.

We give briefly a few points to be observed in the use of words and phrases.

*Obsolete* words, that is, words that were once in current use but have fallen into disuse, should be avoided. Some words are still used in poetry and historical novels, but are obsolete in conversation or letter writing. Such are: *ere* for *before*, *vale* for *valley*, *sooth* for *truc*, *twain* for *two*, etc.

*New words* are to be used cautiously. Many new words are coined to meet the requirements of scientific research; these are usually received readily, soon acquire good standing, and may be used without hesitation. Such are:

*telephone, acetylene, X-ray.* Many new words are coined by newspapers or by eccentric and irresponsible writers to fill a real or fancied blank in the language or in an effort to say things smartly or humorously. Some of these words, e. g., *boycott, mugwump,* and *bulldoze,* survive and are finally accepted; others either die or remain of doubtful reputation. It is well in all forms of composition to refrain from using new words of this character until they become well established.

*Slang* is always undignified if not positively vulgar, and should be rigidly excluded. The excessive and indiscriminate use of such adjectives as "splendid," "stunning," "immense," and "just lovely" is a practice closely related to the use of slang.

*Foreign* words and phrases are to be avoided, except words like *employe, quorum, nom de plume,* etc., which through long usage have become as familiar as English words.

**7. Propriety** consists in the use of words in their generally understood sense. In letter writing, propriety is of even more importance than purity. We may use words of a technical or provincial nature, foreign words, or even slang, and though the letter may be undignified and faulty from a literary standpoint, it may be perfectly intelligible to the writer. On the other hand, if the words we use, even though they satisfy all the requirements of purity, do not convey the ideas we wish to express, we run the risk of being misunderstood.

To illustrate what is meant by propriety, we give a few examples of the proper and improper use of words:

*Creditable* means worthy of approbation, reputable; thus we say, "The boy's work is creditable." Frequently, however, this word is incorrectly used for *credible*, which means worthy of belief; e. g., "A creditable witness testified, etc." This is an example of a mistake in the use of words similar in form or derived from the same source; other examples are: purpose for propose; avocation for vocation; contemptuous for contemptible; healthy for healthful; affect for effect; exceptionable for exceptional; continuous for continual; emigrant for immigrant; revenge for avenge.

*Administer* is incorrectly used in the following: "The teacher administered a box on the ear." Blows are *dealt*; governments, oaths, and state affairs are *administered*.

*Expect* is often used incorrectly for *suspect* or *suppose*.

*Balance* is used incorrectly for *remainder*; thus, "The balance of the party returned home."

**8. Precision** consists in the choice and use of words or expressions that convey neither more nor less than the exact meaning intended.

In the English language there are frequently several words that express very nearly the same meaning; seldom, however, are two words exactly synonymous, and care must be exercised to select the one that conveys just what is meant. To attain precision in the use of such words, one should study standard works on synonyms; for example, Crabb's "Synonymes" or Roget's "Thesaurus."

The following are examples of words that differ more or less in meaning but are often used synonymously:

*Less, Fewer*.—*Less* is applied to quantity or things measured; *fewer*, to things numbered. "Lee had *fewer* (not *less*) men than Grant."

*Apt, Likely, Liable*.—*Apt* and *liable* are frequently used where *likely* is the proper word. *Apt* implies capacity or fitness for; thus, "The boy is an *apt* pupil." *Liable* means exposed to something unpleasant. "One is *liable* to take cold." "The city is *liable* for damages." It is incorrect to say, "Where is he *apt* to be this evening?" or "When are you *liable* to go down town?"

*Remember, Recollect*.—To *remember* means to retain in the mind; to *recollect* means to recall by an effort something that has been forgotten.

*Character, Reputation*.—*Character* is inherent in a person; *reputation* means the estimation in which a person is held by others. A person with a really bad character may have a good reputation.

**9. Incorrect Expressions**.—As an aid to the attainment of good diction the following list of expressions is presented for the consideration of the student. It contains many errors that are made even by careful and painstaking letter writers.

CORRECT.	INCORRECT.
The foregoing statement is borne out by facts.	The <i>above</i> statement is borne out by facts.
I was more than a mile from Scranton.	I was <i>above</i> a mile from Scranton.
This feat was beyond his strength.	This feat was <i>above</i> his strength.
What course will you take ?	What course will you <i>adopt</i> ?
Congress decided upon active measures.	Congress <i>adopted</i> active measures.
His language provokes me.	His language <i>aggravates</i> me.
He was easily irritated.	He was easily <i>aggravated</i> .
The news spread over the country.	The news spread <i>all over</i> the country.
He asserts that Dewey is the greatest of naval captains.	He <i>allows</i> that Dewey is the greatest of naval captains.
Come to see us before you go.	Come <i>and</i> see us before you go.
His arrival was hourly expected.	His arrival was hourly <i>anticipated</i> .
He desired to go to Europe.	He was <i>anxious</i> to go to Europe.
I value your friendship.	I <i>appreciate</i> your friendship.
I shall likely go tomorrow.	I am <i>apt</i> to go tomorrow.
He was not there that I know of.	He was not there <i>as</i> I know of.
James is suffering from a severe cold.	James is suffering from a <i>bad</i> cold.
My child feels very bad.	My child feels very <i>badly</i> .
I very much wish to see him.	I wish to see him very <i>badly</i> .
The remainder of my father's property is unsold.	The <i>balance</i> of my father's property is unsold.
I beg leave to acknowledge your letter.	I <i>beg</i> to acknowledge your letter.
There was a perfect understanding between the two statesmen. <small>(<i>Between</i> is used when two things, parts, or persons are mentioned; <i>among</i> in reference to more than two.)</small>	There was a perfect understanding <i>among</i> the two statesmen.
Aunt Jane served us with a plentiful repast.	Aunt Jane served us with a <i>bountiful</i> repast.
John was determined to go.	John was <i>bound</i> to go.
I have no doubt that he will pay.	I have no doubt <i>but that</i> he will pay.
I regard him as a great statesman.	I <i>consider</i> him a great statesman.
President McKinley has convoked Congress.	President McKinley has <i>convened</i> Congress.

## CORRECT.

Two boys ran down the street.

Despite our persuasions he sold his farm.

As soon as he came to town he rented a house.

I forget the date of his conviction.

He bestowed a generous gift upon Mercy Hospital.

My friend is entitled to entire confidence.

I suppose you had difficulty in coming.

Our friends suffered rough treatment at the hands of the enemy.

He showed me great kindness.

Those who could, fled from the pestilence.

My brother was afraid of being left.

I would rather not go to New York tomorrow.

Peaches are a wholesome fruit.

He told me how he would reach Vancouver.

I noticed several persons at the station.

John lay down to rest.

James went to lie down.

He taught me to read.

Let William go.

Dr. White delivered a long sermon.

I noticed fewer than ten persons in the room.

Do as your friend does.

I like a good breakfast.

Herbert goes to Dunmore almost every day.

## INCORRECT.

A *couple* of boys ran down the street.

*In despite* of our persuasions he sold his farm.

*Directly* he came to town he rented a house.

I *disremember* the date of his conviction.

He *donated* a generous gift to Mercy Hospital.

My friend is entitled to *every* confidence.

I *expect* you had difficulty in coming.

Our friends *experienced* rough treatment at the hands of the enemy.

He *extended* great kindness to me.

Those who could, *flew* from the pestilence.

My brother was afraid of *getting* left.

I *had* rather not go to New York tomorrow.

Peaches are a *healthy* fruit.

He told me *how that* he would reach Vancouver.

I noticed several *individuals* at the station.

John *laid* down to rest.

James went to *lay* down.

He *learned* me to read.

*Leave* William go.

Dr. White delivered a *lengthy* sermon.

I noticed *less* than ten persons in the room.

Do *like* your friend does.

I *love* a good breakfast.

Herbert goes to Dunmore *most* every day.

## CORRECT.

Mr. Robinson and I have a common friend.

He mentioned the fact to no one.

Dr. Bright is a persuasive speaker.

The streets were tastefully decorated.

Henry Black was noted as a good citizen.

Ten yards were cut off that piece of silk.

Those pears are very fine.

He got on the roof.

They sent only four men to Scranton.

The lake has overflowed its banks.

The building of the house was a severe task.

That person is always present when not desired.

We solicit your custom.

He is continually talking of leaving.

Money is now plentiful.

I thank you for your kind invitation.

A large part of the street was obstructed by the parade.

Hamilton informed me fully as to the matter.

I assure you that we enjoyed our visit.

Mary had a considerable fortune left her.

It is very rare that a man will forget his home.

We had a very pleasant evening.

Let me say just here.

I saw him not long ago.

My father has improved somewhat since yesterday.

## INCORRECT.

Mr. Robinson and I have a *mutual* friend.

He *named* the fact to no one.

Dr. Bright is a *nice* speaker.

The streets were *nicely* decorated.

Henry Black was *notorious* as a good citizen.

Ten yards were cut *off of* that piece of silk.

Those pears are very fine *ones*.

He got *onto* the roof.

They only sent four men to Scranton.

The lake has *overflown* its banks.

The building the house was a severe task.

That *party* is always present when not desired.

We solicit your *patronage*.

He is *perpetually* talking of leaving.

Money is now *plenty*.

I thank you for your *polite* invitation.

A large *portion* of the street was obstructed by the parade.

Hamilton *posted* me fully as to the matter.

I *promise* you that we enjoyed our visit.

Mary had *quite* a fortune left her.

It is very *rarely* that a man will forget his home.

We had a *real* pleasant evening.

Let me say *right* here.

I saw him not long *since*.

My father has improved *some* since yesterday.

## CORRECT.

Her dress was very much out of style.

Where are you staying ?

We drove farther than they.

This house cost more than you think.

That kind of apples is preferable.

An accident occurred yesterday on our street.

The best of Longfellow's works is "Evangeline."

Whence did she come ?

John went hence.

You will never succeed unless you study.

## INCORRECT.

Her dress was *perfectly awful*.

Where are you *stopping* ?

We drove farther than *them*.

This house cost more than you *think for*.

*Those* kind of apples are preferable.

An accident *transpired* yesterday on our street.

The best of Longfellow's works *was* "Evangeline."

*From* whence did she come ?

John went *from* hence.

You will never succeed *without* you study.

**10. Short and Long Words.**—Following the principle that the diction of letter writing is about the same as that of good conversation, we should, in general, prefer short and simple words to long words derived from the Latin. The larger number of the short words of the English language are of Anglo-Saxon origin, but many come from other sources. If the word is in good use it matters not where it originated.

Short words are, in general, more easily understood than longer words; they are the words of ordinary and familiar events and feelings. It follows, therefore, that the use of short and familiar words saves not only the writer's time, but also the reader's time by lessening the effort required to grasp their meaning. In ordinary letter writing *get* is preferable to *procure*; *do*, to *perform*; *lift*, to *elevate*; *see*, to *discern* or *perceive*; *go*, to *depart*; *live*, to *reside*; *tired*, to *fatigued*; *ask*, to *petition*; and so on indefinitely.

Long words are needed to express ideas and feelings remote from the ordinary; thus, a candidate for the presidency in his letter of acceptance necessarily uses the long words of the vocabulary of politics; the President in his message to Congress necessarily uses the long words pertaining



to state affairs; for example, *resolution, communication, enactment, representative, amendment, constitutional*, etc.

**11. Big Words.**—The use of “dictionary words” simply because they are long and sound grand is an offense against good taste that should be studiously avoided. Do not use “tonorial artist” for *barber*; “maternal relative” for *mother*; “disciple of Izaak Walton” for *fisherman*; “national sport” for *baseball*; or “pugilistic carnival” for *prize fight*. Such expressions should remain the exclusive property of the newspaper reporter and the author of the third-rate novel.

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#### CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

**12. Characteristics of a Good Sentence.**—In the construction of sentences, the letter writer should be guided by the following considerations: The sentence should conform to the established usage of the English language; it should be *grammatically correct*. The sentence should be *clear*; that is, it should be so constructed as to be easily and readily understood by the reader. The sentence should have *unity*; that is, it should express but one principal thought.

Minor characteristics of a good sentence are *force* and *ease*. A sentence is forcible when it is so framed as to produce a strong impression on the reader; a sentence has ease when it is agreeable to the ear.

While *unity, force, and ease* are essential in formal composition, they are of minor importance in letter writing. It is not to be expected that the writer of a letter will take time to polish each sentence, to examine it for unity, and to rearrange it until it fulfils the requirements of force and elegance. In fact, the probable result of an attempt on the part of the writer to make a literary production of a letter will be a cold and formal essay, rather than an expression of friendship and sympathy.

The letter writer, however, is held strictly accountable for the grammatical correctness and clearness of his sentences. He should be correct for his own sake, for grammatical

errors stamp him as ignorant and illiterate; and he should write with clearness for the sake of the recipient of the letter.

**13. Grammatical Errors.**—A common error is the confusion of the past tense of the verb with the perfect participle; thus, "I seen" for "I saw," and "I have saw" for "I have seen"; "He set down" for "He sat down"; "growed" for "grew"; etc. Another frequent error is the non-agreement of the verb and subject, or of the pronoun and antecedent; thus, "There *was* three in the front seat"; "Any one can have *their* choice for one dollar."

To attain grammatical correctness in conversation and writing, one must study English grammar. It is not sufficient to know that a certain form of expression is incorrect merely because some one has told you it is incorrect. You should understand *why* such forms are errors, so that you may apply the test of correctness to all other expressions of the same nature.

**14. Clearness.**—Next to correctness, the most important characteristic of a good sentence is clearness. A writer that wishes the recipient of his letter to understand what he says must make his sentences so that they will mean to the reader what they mean to himself.

To write clearly one should heed the following rules:

1. Use only words that are fully understood by the person addressed and that convey the meaning intended.

2. Use as many words as are needed to convey the meaning easily and fully, and no more.

3. Arrange words, phrases, and clauses so that they are readily understood in themselves and in their relations with each other, and so that the final sentence cannot present an ambiguity.

**15.** The *omission of words* may cause obscurity in the meaning of a sentence. The parts of speech commonly omitted are the article, pronoun, and verb. A few examples will illustrate this point:

"Wanted, a coachman and gardener." As written, this means that one person is wanted and that he is to act as a coachman and also as a gardener. If two persons are meant, the sentence should read: "Wanted, a coachman and *a* gardener."

"The strength of steel is greater than iron," should be, "The strength of steel is greater than *that* of iron." The omission of a relative pronoun, as in this instance, is a frequent cause of obscurity.

"Jack is an industrious boy and his sisters amiable girls." The verb *are* is required in the second clause after the word "sisters." Be cautious in omitting verbs; in case of doubt, it is better to repeat a verb than to run the risk of obscurity. Consider the sentence, "He likes me better than you." The meaning is ambiguous unless a second verb is used; the sentence should read: "He likes me better than he likes you," or "better than you like me," according to which is meant.

**16. Pronouns.**—The careless use of pronouns may render a sentence ambiguous or even unintelligible. For example, in the sentence, "Smith told Brown that if he did not have his pavement repaired, he might have trouble." There is nothing to indicate whether it is Smith's or Brown's pavement that is in question, or which of the two men will have trouble. It is sometimes difficult to recast such a sentence so that it will be both clear and smooth. In this example it is perhaps best to change from the third to the first person; thus, "Smith said to Brown, 'If you do not have your pavement repaired, you (or I) will have trouble. '"

**17.** The *misplacing of words and phrases* may cause ambiguity or obscurity. Two expressions that are likely to be misplaced are "at least" and "only." The sentence, "The English play cricket at least as well as we," may mean that they play the game as well as we do, if not better, or that this particular game, if no other game, they play as well as we do. To express the last meaning, the sentence should be written, "The English play *at least* cricket as well as we *do*."

"I *only* heard the approaching train." The position of "only" makes the sentence mean that I heard the train, but did not see it; if the intended meaning is that I heard the train and nothing else, the sentence should read, "I heard *only* the approaching train." In regard to the proper position

of this troublesome word, a good rule is, place it immediately before the word or phrase to which it belongs.

"She looked at the tramp as he approached the door with apprehension." The writer means that "she looked with apprehension," not that "the tramp approached with apprehension." The ambiguity arises from the position of the phrase "with apprehension"; this phrase should immediately follow the verb "looked," which it modifies. In all such cases, make it a rule to place modifying words and phrases as closely as possible to the words they modify.

**18. Length of Sentences.**—If a sentence is well constructed, its length is a matter of secondary importance. As a rule, however, the use of long sentences, especially by young or inexperienced writers, is a fruitful source of obscurity. In letter writing, it is better to use chiefly short sentences, not because they are intrinsically better than long ones, but because in the hurry of correspondence, the writer is not likely to take time to properly construct a long sentence.

Two defects are frequently observable in letters written by inexperienced writers. One is a succession of very short assertions each constituting a sentence; the other is the connection of several clauses that properly might constitute sentences by the conjunctions "and" and "but." A young man upon leaving home for the city would perhaps write to his father as follows:

"DEAR FATHER:—I arrived here safely last night, and this morning I went to see Mr. Brown, and he is going to set me to work tomorrow, and I am sure I shall like the work very much, and I have found a very good boarding place," etc.

Here are at least four distinct ideas bound together by the word "and." Following the requirements of unity, we make a single sentence of each idea.

"DEAR FATHER:—I arrived here safely last night. This morning I went to see Mr. Brown, and he is going to set me at work tomorrow. I am sure I shall like the work very much. I have found a very good boarding place," etc.

**19. Loose and Periodic Sentences.**—A *loose* sentence is one in which the various parts—subject, predicate, modifier, etc.—occur in the order that they naturally suggest themselves to the mind.

A *periodic* sentence is one in which the parts are so arranged that the sense is incomplete until the end is reached.

The following are examples of loose and periodic sentences:

LOOSE.	PERIODIC.
None but the fittest survive in the great struggle for existence.	In the great struggle for existence, none but the fittest survive.
The modern system of technical education renders inestimable aid to men not only in engineering but also in the ranks of the liberal professions.	To men not only in engineering but also in the ranks of the liberal professions, the modern system of technical education renders inestimable aid.

It will be observed that the loose sentence may be stopped before the end is reached and yet make grammatical sense, while the periodic sentence, on the other hand, is not a sentence until the last word is reached; thus the clause "None but the fittest survive" makes complete sense, but the phrase "In the great struggle for existence" is incomplete.

The principle of suspense makes the periodic sentence more emphatic than the loose sentence; hence, for the sake of variety and force, it is advisable to use occasionally the periodic form, provided the sentence is so short and simple that the reader can grasp the meaning at once.

In general, the loose sentence is easier to construct and easier to understand than the periodic sentence, simply because it follows the order in which the words naturally occur to a person, when he thinks of what he wishes to say and not of the form of expression; for this reason, the loose sentence is especially adapted to conversation and letter writing. Periodic sentences are appropriate for stately and formal composition.

**20. Variety in the Use of Sentences.**—In letter writing, as in all other forms of written composition, the

choice of sentences should be influenced to some extent by the principle of variety. While we should as a rule use short sentences, we should not by accident or design fill a page with sentences of nearly the same length. Such a page makes monotonous reading. For the sake of variety, a sentence rather longer than usual should be occasionally introduced; and for the same reason the steady succession of loose sentences should be broken at intervals by the more forcible periodic sentences.

Usually the question of variety will take care of itself. If the writer of a letter becomes absorbed in his subject and pays little or no attention to the form of expression, his sentences will naturally have sufficient variety. It is when the writer laboriously attempts to construct sentences by rule that his style is likely to become tame and monotonous.

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#### PUNCTUATION.

**21.** The primary object of punctuation is to make as clear as possible the meaning of what we write. Correct punctuation always assists the reader in grasping the meaning of a sentence even when that meaning would be fairly obvious without punctuation; and in many sentences it is only by the punctuation that the meaning can be understood at all. Punctuation is therefore just as important a part of the construction of sentences as the choice of words or the arrangement of phrases and clauses; and it is as much the duty of the letter writer to make his meaning clear by proper punctuation as by the use of carefully arranged sentences.

Unfortunately, punctuation is quite generally neglected in letters; indeed, it is a rare occurrence to receive a letter even from an educated person in which there is an attempt at systematic punctuation. There is really no excuse for this neglect, as punctuation is not at all an art difficult of attainment. In ordinary letters it is very seldom necessary to use any marks other than the period, comma, semicolon, and interrogation point; and any one should easily learn the use of these points.

Punctuate as you write. Do not write the entire letter and then sprinkle in the marks afterwards. After a little practice you will insert the more common marks, the periods and commas, almost automatically, just as you dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s.

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#### CONSTRUCTION OF PARAGRAPHS.

**22.** A **paragraph** is a single sentence or a connected series of sentences constituting the development of a single topic.

A letter should be paragraphed in the same manner as other compositions. One topic having been fully dealt with, the beginning of the next should be marked by a broken line, preparing the reader for the transition.

Do not, however, mar the letter by too many paragraphs. The amount and comprehensiveness of the material included in a paragraph varies greatly, according to the length and character of the composition, the office of the paragraph, and the writer's individual taste. Of a short letter, for instance, a paragraph may make up a large enough proportion to be a main division of the plan; oftener, however, it contains a much smaller section of the thought. A paragraph that merely makes a transition, or proposes a single idea as basis for further development is much shorter than a paragraph of detail. What is of more importance, however, than the length is that every paragraph should have a definite topic and structure, and should not be left, as is too often done by writers otherwise good, to make itself.

The fundamental requisites of a paragraph are *unity* and *continuity*.

**23. Unity.**—The paragraph is in reality an expanded sentence, and like the sentence should contain but one leading topic or idea. In fact, if a paragraph has the proper unity it should be possible to express the substance of it by a single sentence.

The leading idea of the paragraph is contained in the *topic*

sentence, which should be near the opening of the paragraph. Usually the topic sentence is the first one; frequently, however, it is preceded by a sentence that serves to form a connection between the paragraph and the one preceding.

The portion of the paragraph following the topic sentence must have some relation to the topic. It may be a proof, an illustration, an application, or a consequence of the topic.

**24. Continuity.**—In a well constructed paragraph the sentences follow one another in logical order and are so connected that the thought is carried without interruption from the beginning to the close.

Continuity may be secured by the judicious use of connecting words and phrases; such as, *and, but, for, however, hence, in fact, for example*, etc. The student should, however, guard against an excessive use of connectives; it is better to occasionally leave the relation to be inferred than to have every paragraph bristling with *hence's, however's, accordingly's*, etc. Frequently the relation is so obvious that the connective is not needed; and when this is not the case, it is usually possible by an inversion of the order of the words or by the repetition of a word to convey the sense of connection without using the connecting word.

As a rule, the law of continuity applies to the successive paragraphs of a composition as well as to the sentences in the paragraph. We should as far as possible join each paragraph to the preceding by some sort of a connecting link, so that the transition from paragraph to paragraph is made with as little friction as possible.

In business, official, and public letters the topics introduced are usually closely related and this principle of continuity can be rigidly applied. As an example, see the letter of Abraham Lincoln in reply to the invitation to attend the Union mass meeting at Springfield, Ill., which is given in another section. In social and familiar letters, however, the principle has necessarily a limited application. Such letters



usually contain a variety of topics, some of which are in no way related to others; and the transition from one paragraph to another on an entirely foreign subject must of necessity be somewhat abrupt.

25. The following extract from an article by Captain A. T. Mahan illustrates the qualities of unity and continuity:

“The establishment and maintenance of the blockade was, in the judgment of the present writer, not only the first step in order, but also the first by far in importance, open to the government of the United States as things were; prior, that is, to the arrival of Cervera's division at some known and accessible point. *Its* importance lay in its two-fold tendency: to exhaust the enemy's army in Cuba, and to force the navy to come to his relief. No effect more decisive than *these two* could be produced by us before the coming of the hostile navy, or the readiness of our own army to take the field, permitting the contest to be brought, using the words of our Italian commentator, ‘to an immediate issue.’ Upon the *blockade, therefore*, the generally accepted principles of warfare would demand that effort should be concentrated, until some evident radical change in the conditions dictated a change of object—a new objective; upon which, when accepted, effort again should be concentrated with a certain amount of ‘exclusiveness of purpose.’

“Blockade, *however*, implies not merely a sufficient number of cruisers to prevent the entry or departure of merchant ships. It *further* implies, because it requires, a strong supporting force, . . . etc.”—Capt. A. T. MAHAN, *McClure's Magazine*, Feb., 1899.

The topic of the first paragraph, “the importance of the blockade,” is stated in the first sentence. The two following sentences are explanatory; they give the reasons for the importance of the blockade. The last sentence of the paragraph states the evident conclusion that effort should be concentrated upon the blockade. The continuity is preserved by the use of the pronouns, connectives, and repeated words printed in *Italic*.

In the second paragraph (which is not given in full) the topic is, “the blockade requires a strong supporting force.” This paragraph is linked to the one preceding by the connective “*however*,” thus fulfilling the law of continuity between paragraphs.

**STYLE IN LETTER WRITING.**

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**INTRODUCTORY.**

**26.** **Style** refers to the manner in which one expresses his thoughts in language; thus we say that one writer's style is easy and flowing; another's is crisp and vigorous; while another's may be labored and ponderous.

In general, letters differ from most other forms of written discourse in having a more natural and easy mode of expression. In a letter there should be no straining after effect; the diction should be simple, and figures of speech, if they are used at all, should appear spontaneously, as they naturally would in conversation.

The letter-writing, or *epistolary*, style, as we may term it, is itself subject to variation; in fact, almost every kind of letter has an appropriate style, depending on the subject and the person addressed. In familiar letters the style should be familiar; in business letters, it should be direct and concise; in official or public letters, it should be formal and impressive. Letters to superiors should be respectful; to relations, affectionate; to children, light and playful; and all letters should be courteous.

In writing a letter, be sure to employ a style suitable to the person and the character of the letter. To use the familiar style of the domestic letter in writing to a stranger or mere acquaintance would make you ridiculous in the eyes of the recipient; on the other hand, a letter to a close friend or a relative, written in the formal and concise style of the business letter, would be equally inappropriate.

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**STYLE IN BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE.**

**27.** **Brevity.**—One of the essential qualities of business correspondence that cannot be too strongly dwelt upon is brevity. Many a young man has failed to get a situation because he had too much to say when making his application.

Business men have no time to waste, and appreciate brevity. Brevity of expression, if combined with neatness, clearness, and courtesy, always makes a good impression upon the true business man. One of the greatest helps to success in any walk of life is to think concisely and to express one's self briefly.

"Be brief," Cyrus W. Field once advised a friend. "Time is very valuable. Punctuality, honesty, and brevity are the watchwords of life. Never write a long letter. A business man has not time to read it. If you have anything to say, be brief. There is no business so important that it cannot be told on one sheet of paper. Years ago when I was laying the Atlantic Cable, I had occasion to send a very important letter to England. I knew it would have to be read by the Prime Minister and by the Queen. I wrote out what I had to say; it covered several sheets of paper; then I went over it twenty times, eliminating words here and there, making sentences brief, until finally I got all I had to say on one sheet of paper. Then I mailed it. In due time I received the answer. It was a satisfactory one, too; but do you think I would have fared so well if my letter had covered half a dozen sheets? No, indeed. Brevity is a rare gift."

Brevity should not be attained, however, by the omission of words essential to grammatical construction. It is a common fault of many business men to drop pronouns and verbs as in the following: "Yours of 15th inst. received, and in reply enclose draft, etc." Such omissions denote haste on the part of the writer rather than a desire to shorten the letter for the convenience of the recipient.

Brevity is promoted by the liberal use of the terms and phrases peculiar to business, and it is the duty of a person engaged in business correspondence to familiarize himself with such terms as are peculiar to the line of business in which he is engaged.

**28.** Aside from brevity, the style employed in business letters should be distinguished by *clearness* and *accuracy*. Clearness is promoted by the use of short, direct sentences.

A business letter is the least appropriate place for long or involved sentences. Avoid especially the conjunctions *and* and *but*.

Several points regarding business letters that do not properly belong to *style* will be given later under the heading "General Suggestions."

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#### STYLES IN SOCIAL LETTERS.

**29.** The style of expression adapted to social letters is more difficult to acquire than the direct and concise style of business correspondence. Many that write good business letters are prone to carry the business style into their other correspondence and write dull and uninteresting social letters.

The principal quality of the style of a social letter is *naturalness*. Write a letter to a friend in the same language that you would use in talking to him. Think of what you would say to him if he were at your side and say these things in the letter. Avoid affectation, and do not use big words and ornamental language that you would not think of using in conversation. Write a letter, not an essay.

The quality of brevity is not so essential in social letters as in business letters. One can take time to read a letter of some length if it is interesting. In a friendly letter do not hesitate to write of little every-day details that you would naturally bring up in conversation. Proceed upon the principle that anything that will interest a person in conversation will interest him in a letter. When, however, you have written what you have to say, close your letter; do not fall into the pernicious habit of writing words merely to fill space.

**30.** Many writers experience difficulty in the opening and closing sentences of a letter. The opening should be perfectly natural and should introduce the subject uppermost in the mind. Avoid in the opening such set phrases as "I now take my pen in hand to tell you that I am well,

etc.," "I thought I would drop you a line to let you know, etc." A familiar letter usually ends with an expression of compliment or affection in addition to the complimentary close.

A few suggestive examples of the opening and closing sentences of letters are here given:

*(William Cowper to his cousin.)*

MY DEAR COZ.,

OLNEY, April 24, 1786.

Your letters are so much my comfort, that I often tremble lest by accident I should be disappointed; and the more because you have been more than once engaged in company on the writing day, that I have had a narrow escape. Let me give you a piece of good counsel, my cousin: follow my laudable example--write when you can; take Time's forelock in one hand and a pen in the other and make sure of your opportunity. . . . .

The grass begins to grow, and the leaves to bud, and everything is preparing to be beautiful against you come. Adieu, my dear Coz.

Ever yours,

W. COWPER.

*(Addison to Swift.)*

ST. JAMES'S PLACE, April 11, 1710.

DEAR SIR,

I have run so much in debt with you, that I do not know how to excuse myself, and therefore shall throw myself wholly upon your good nature; and promise if you will pardon what is past, to be more punctual with you in the future. . . . .

Pray, dear Doctor, continue your friendship towards me, who love and esteem you, if possible, as much as you deserve.

I am ever, dear sir, yours entirely,

J. ADDISON.

*(Bernard Barton to George Crabbe.)*

WOODBRIDGE, August 20, 1846.

I was going to begin "My dear old Friend," for I have sometimes hard work to convince myself that our acquaintance is only of a few years' standing. . . . .

*(Thomas Hood to a child.)*

DEVONSHIRE LODGE, NEW FINCHLEY ROAD, July 1, 1844.

How do you do? and how do you like the sea? Not much, perhaps; it's "so big." But shouldn't you like a nice little ocean that you could put in a pan? . . . .

(*Charles Lamb to Coleridge.*)

MARCH 9, 1822.

It gives me great satisfaction to hear that the pig turned out so well—they are interesting creatures at a certain age—what a pity such buds should blow out into the maturity of rank bacon! . . .

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### GENERAL SUGGESTIONS.

**31. Courtesy in Letter Writing.**—The first and most important rule to be observed by the writer of a letter is: *Be courteous.* He was a gentleman that said, “I would as soon give a man a bad sixpence as a bad word.” Courtesy is but paying the debt of self-respect. Write nothing but kind words, and you will have nothing but kind echoes. Francis of Assisi justly said: “Know thou not that Courtesy is of God’s own properties, who sendeth His rain and His sunshine upon the just and the unjust, out of His great Courtesy; verily Courtesy is the sister of Charity, who banishes Hatred and cherishes Love.”

It is in the field of social correspondence that the true lady and the truly manful man have, perhaps, the best opportunity to manifest that real gentleness, amiability, and singleness of purpose to say and do what is right, so becoming to the men and women of a Christian age and country. Show us a people’s letters of affection, of condolence, sympathy, and congratulation, and we can at once determine their moral, social, and political worth.

Courtesy is, besides, an important element in business success. With some it is their capital and stock in trade. It has made the fortune of many a man. Other things being equal, we all prefer to do business with the man that is agreeable and courteous in his dealings; and these qualities, therefore, increase his business. What is true of conversation applies also to business done through the medium of correspondence. An imperious or commanding tone is always offensive and should be carefully avoided in letter writing. Compare the following:

- “You will write me immediately upon the receipt of this letter.”  
“Will you kindly write me immediately, etc.?”  
“Please write me immediately, etc.”

The sentence as first written is rendered commanding in tone by the words “You will”; and unless it is the right and duty of the writer to command, the form of expression would be likely to give the recipient a disagreeable impression. By the use of the word *kindly* or the word *please*, the sentence loses its commanding tone and becomes a courteous request.

**32. Deliberation.**—No one should write a letter when angry, nor, as a rule, when inclined to say severe things. If one receives a letter provoking him to anger it is better to wait a little before answering; then probably the style of his reply will be entirely changed. Words hastily spoken, and letters written in haste or anger, one usually would like later to recall. Hasty or vindictive words make enemies and endanger business, while kind words make and hold friends. Make it a rule never to write a letter when strongly excited. Wait until reason again assumes full control of your actions. This caution applies not only to excitement due to anger, but also to the excitement of affection.

**33. Truthfulness.**—In writing, as in talking, we should always be strictly truthful. Untruthfulness often leads to unfair dealing and possibly to crime, while strict truthfulness and honesty in small, as well as large, things gains the confidence of others, and is best as a matter of policy, if for no higher motive. True and lasting business success comes only from honor and strict integrity.

**34. Moderation.**—Closely related to truthfulness is the quality of moderation. Do not fall into the habit of using exaggerated expressions such as “just too splendid,” “perfectly gorgeous,” “perfectly awful,” “immense,” etc. Be moderate in the use of descriptive adjectives. Do not exaggerate.

**35. Originality.**—The model letters given in this paper are intended to be merely suggestive. The student should study them carefully for the purpose of improving his style, diction, punctuation, paragraphing, etc., but he should never be guilty of copying word for word any part of one of them in a letter of his own. The copying of another's language without due acknowledgment is *plagiarism*, an offense justly considered as no better than theft. If you express another's ideas or sentiments, at least do so in your own language.

**36. Copying Letters.**—Business people usually keep copies of all important letters for possible future reference. The plan ordinarily adopted is to take a letter-press copy on tissue paper; when this is done copying ink must be used in writing the letter. In the case of typewritten letters, a carbon copy may be made when the letter is written. If the letter is an answer, it is convenient to file the copy with the letter answered. It is not customary to preserve copies of social letters.

**37. Enclosing Stamp.**—A letter asking a favor or treating of business in which only the writer and not the recipient is interested, should have a stamp enclosed for the answer. It is rather too much to expect a person to devote his time to affairs that concern only yourself and pay postage in addition. The enclosed stamp may be fastened to the paper by slightly moistening one corner. Perhaps a better plan is to stick it by the gummed margin connected to the outer row of a sheet of stamps, as then the stamp may be removed without danger of tearing the corner.

**38. Promptness of Answers.**—From the standpoint of the recipient of the letter, correspondence demands close and courteous attention. Letters, especially business letters, should be answered with reasonable promptness. A business man that remits promptly at maturity, and acknowledges orders or remittances promptly, is esteemed by those with whom he has business relations. The good will thus gained may be of value.



In the case of social letters, the interval of time between letter and answer depends, of course, on the relation of the correspondents.

**39. Date of Letter Answered.**—The answer to a business letter should contain a reference to the date of the letter answered; thus, “In answer to your letter of the 10th inst.,” or “Your letter of May 3 is at hand.” Frequently the original letter must be referred to in connection with the answer, and the reference to the date may save much time in finding the right letter.

**40. Recapitulation.**—Besides the date of the letter answered there should properly be some reference in the opening sentence of the answer to the business under consideration. Thus, “Your letter of the 8th inst. concerning the application of Samuel Hall is at hand.” This reference to the subject of the original letter will recall the business to the mind of your correspondent and possibly save him the trouble of looking up the letter.

**41. Care of Letters.**—Important letters are of course preserved by the recipient. Business men usually make use of some form of letter file, in which the letters are arranged in the alphabetical order of the initials of the names of the senders. Unanswered letters are kept separate. In lieu of a better method the letters may be folded to a uniform size, arranged, and tied up in bundles. It is well in this case to write on one end of the back of the letter the date, name of writer, and date of answer. In addition the subject of the letter may be noted.

Copies are preserved in a letter book; if carbon copies are taken they may be filed like the letters.

**42. Neatness.**—Always be careful in the writing of a letter to avoid blots, corrections, or erasures. If one knows well what he wishes to say, there is no excuse for leaving out essential words or for repeating a word. In letters to relatives and friends one should show respect enough not to

send a carelessly written letter, marred with blots and ink stains. Business letters, however, demand especial care in this regard. A letter of application, for example, if badly written, may be the means of losing a position that otherwise might have been secured. Make the letter perfect as regards neatness and accuracy, even if it has to be rewritten.

**43. Spelling.**—An essential as important as neatness is correct spelling. A writer that is not a good speller should constantly refer to a dictionary for the spelling of words that he is not sure of. In fact, the writing of letters is one of the best means of obtaining a knowledge of spelling, provided the writer conscientiously tries to avoid mistakes.

**44. Legibility.**—Do not write so that your correspondent may be unable to read your letter, or meet with great difficulty in doing so.

Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich once received a letter from his friend, Professor E. S. Morse, and finding the handwriting absolutely illegible, sent the following reply:

MY DEAR MR. MORSE—It was very pleasant to receive a letter from you the other day. Perhaps I should have found it pleasanter if I had been able to decipher it. I don't think I mastered anything beyond the date, which I knew, and the signature, which I guessed at. There is a singular and perpetual charm in a letter of yours. It never grows old; it never loses its novelty. One can say to oneself every morning: "Here's a letter of Morse's. I haven't read it yet. I think I shall take another shy at it today, and maybe I'll be able in the course of a few years to make out what he means by those *l*'s that look like *w*'s and those *f*'s that haven't any eyebrows." Other letters are read and thrown away and forgotten, but yours are kept forever unread. One of them will last a reasonable man a lifetime.

Admiringly yours,

THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

**45. Signatures.**—We have before referred to the necessity of writing the signature legibly (see Part 1, Art. 33). This point, however, cannot be too strongly emphasized. Sign your name to the letter so that there can be no possible doubt as to the spelling. Some business men cultivate a characteristic signature, which they use for checks and business papers. Such a signature is often purposely almost

illegible, and obviously should not be used for a letter except to a well known correspondent.

Care should be taken that the letter is signed. Type-written letters, in particular, are liable to be mailed without signature. Carelessness in this respect on the part of the writer must result in annoyance and loss of time and may result in loss of money.

**46. Superscription.**—Faulty envelope addresses are about as frequent as omitted signatures. Indeed, it is not at all unusual for the superscription to be omitted entirely, especially in the case of postal cards. Make it a rule always to write the superscription of a postal card before you write the communication. See that the superscription is so complete that it is sure to reach the person addressed. Scores of letters never reach their destination merely because that destination is not indicated with sufficient clearness on the envelope.

**47. Address.**—In an important letter, one should give his full address if he desires an answer.

**48. Titles.**—In regard to titles, one should be careful to give to others appropriate titles, but should not use them in connection with his own name. Thus, one should, when proper, use Rev., Hon., Prof., etc. in the address and superscription but not in the signature. One may, however, attach his professional title, as M. D. or M. E., in business or official letters, but should not do so in familiar or social letters.

Never use the two titles, Mr. and Esq. with the same name; as, "Mr. William Burr, Esq." If you use the Mr., omit the Esq., and vice versa.

**49. Use of Figures.**—In the body of a letter figures should not, in general, be used except in writing dates or sums of money. If, however, there are many large numbers it is better to express them by figures. The usage should be uniform throughout the letter; if a number is written in words in one part of the letter, another number, used in a similar sense, should not be expressed by figures.

**50. Paging.**—The separate sheets of a letter—when the letter consists of more than one sheet—should be numbered consecutively. The first sheet need not be numbered. In typewritten letters it is quite customary to write the initials of the name of the person written to, the date, and number of the sheet at the top of the sheet; as, C. P. T., 3-15-99—the figures 3-15-99 indicating, of course, March 15, 1899.

**51. The Right Envelope.**—When several letters are written consecutively there is danger of getting the letter in the wrong envelope. It is best to insert the letter in the envelope as soon as it is written, but when for any reason this is impracticable, each letter should be placed under the flap of the proper envelope. When the letters are ready for sealing, the clerk, or whoever folds and seals them, should glance at the name on each letter and see that it corresponds to the name on the envelope.

**52. Sealing.**—In sealing letters care should be taken not to soil the envelope. With an ordinary gummed envelope, it is well to place a blotter or clean sheet of paper over the envelope rather than allow the hand to come in contact with it. Ladies often seal their social letters with wax, using a seal on which their initial or initials have been engraved. Letters of recommendation, introduction, and some formal notes, when delivered personally, should not be sealed.

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## ANALYSIS OF LETTERS.

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### BUSINESS LETTERS.

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#### LETTERS ORDERING GOODS.

**53.** A letter ordering goods should contain very few words except the order, unless some special instructions are to be given.

The order, if short, is usually placed in the body of the letter, though it may be placed at the bottom of the letter if

desired. A long order should occupy a separate sheet. When the list of goods is written in the body of the letter, each item should be given a separate line or two or more lines if necessary.

In ordering any kind of goods give a full description of the articles wanted so that there may be no error in filling the order. Very often goods are ordered from a dealer's catalogue, in which the various qualities and styles are designated by numbers or some other distinguishing marks; in this case, the order should give the number, the quantity, the price, and when necessary a list of the sizes desired. If the firm from which you order has a special form or blank that they desire used, you should accede to their wishes and their instructions in every detail.

Unless the party written to knows from previous orders the conveyance by which you wish the goods shipped, you should state your preference on this point.

In ordering goods from a business house with which the writer has a business connection, it is not necessary to say anything in the order about the terms of payment. When, however, one orders from a firm with which he has no business standing, he should either send the money with the order, give suitable references, or order the goods sent C. O. D.

#### LETTER ORDERING MERCHANDISE.

DANVILLE, ILL.,  
March 3, 1899

OWENS, CLELAND & Co.,  
Chicago, Ill.

*Gentlemen,*

Referring to your catalogue No. 81, please send me the goods noted in the enclosed list.

I shall need these goods for the Easter trade, and shall, therefore, expect them without delay.

Ship by the C. & E. I. Ry.

Yours very truly,  
SIMEON C. GORDON

## LIST OF GOODS.

Order of March 8, 1899, sent by S. C. Gordon, Danville, Ill.

## Neckwear:

8 Doz. Assorted Tecks,	at \$4.25
2 " " Imperials,	" 4.50
12 " String Ties,	" 1.00
6 " Band Bows,	" 2.25

## Half Hose:

		9 <sup>s</sup>	10	10 <sup>s</sup>	11
8 Doz., No. 423, Fancy Stripe,	at \$2.25,	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 " No. 437, Black,	" 1.10,	2	3	3	2
2 " No. 444, Fancy,	" 4.25,	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
5 " No. 392, Seamless,	" .75,				

## Handkerchiefs:

5 Doz., No. 874, Japanese,	at \$1.00
3 " No. 842, White H. S.,	" 2.25
10 " No. 817, White, Cord Edge,	" .50

## Belts:

		30	32	34	36	38	40
2 Doz., No. 367, at \$4.50		3	4	5	6	3	3
4 " No. 374, " 2.25		4	6	12	12	8	6

## Underwear:

8 $\frac{1}{2}$ Doz., No. 36, Plain Balbriggan,	at \$4.50
	30 32 34 36 38 40 42 44
Shirts,	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$
Drawers,	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$

## Umbrellas:

1 Doz., No. 311, 26 inch,	at \$ .75 each
1 " No. 314, 28 " "	.90 "
$\frac{1}{2}$ " No. 322, 27 " "	1.50 "
$\frac{1}{2}$ " No. 331, 28 " "	2.00 "
$\frac{1}{2}$ " No. 369, 28 " "	2.50 "

**54. Analysis.**—This letter is written by Mr. Gordon, who conducts a men's furnishing store in Danville, to Owens, Cleland & Co., wholesale dealers, in Chicago.

The letter is brief and to the point. In the first sentence Mr. Gordon indicates that in making up the list of goods ordered he has been guided by the wholesale firm's catalogue, and to prevent any misunderstanding gives the number of the catalogue. In filling the order, the clerks of Owens, Cleland & Co. will consult their catalogue No. 31 for the styles and qualities of the goods named in the list.

In the second paragraph the writer properly cautions the wholesale firm against delay. It is always well, in such cases, to state the time the goods are desired. If the goods are wanted at once, say "Ship at once," or "Ship without delay"; if there is no hurry, you may say, "Ship at your convenience, or "Please ship the goods named in the enclosed order," without reference to the time of shipment.

In the last sentence the route is indicated. It is frequently more convenient for a merchant to receive his goods at a certain freight station or express office. When such is the case he should indicate his preference in the order and the shippers should of course respect his wishes in the matter. Sometimes it is necessary to indicate also whether the shipment shall be made by freight or express. In this case directions in this particular are unnecessary, as the dealers will naturally ship by freight unless directed to do otherwise.

Little comment is required on the rhetorical construction of the letter. The style employed is the typical, concise business style. In three short sentences the writer says all that is necessary, and any additional words would be wasted.

The sentences are clear and grammatically correct. It may be noted that in the first sentence the object of the verb *send* is *goods*. Not infrequently an order reads somewhat like this: "Please send me the enclosed list of goods." Here the object of the verb is *list*. The writer in reality asks the dealers to send him the list that he sends them, though he of course means to request them to ship the goods. These little points in precision and grammatical accuracy are what distinguish really good letter writers.

The letter being short, each sentence constitutes a paragraph. Obviously the first two sentences are closely enough connected to form one paragraph, but there can be no objection to the present arrangement. The last sentence should of course constitute a separate paragraph.

While the letter is courteous, the terms of courtesy are not multiplied. The commanding tone that the first sentence might have is avoided by the word "please." There would be no particular objection to a repetition of this word

in the last sentence; however, as this sentence is merely a direction and in no sense a request, the omission of some such word as *please* or *kindly* would not be construed as a discourtesy by any business man. It would be inappropriate to say, "I will be much obliged if you will kindly ship by the C. & E. I. Ry." When stated in this form, the sentence gives the impression that Mr. Gordon is asking a particular favor, whereas, in reality, to designate the route is his right.

The complimentary close, "Yours very truly," is formal and sufficiently courteous, considering the relation of the correspondents. "Yours respectfully" would be proper, but "Your dutiful servant" would be quite out of place.

The arrangement of the parts of the letter leaves nothing to be desired. The heading consists of two lines, as it should, being rather long. The address also occupies two lines. As this business house is well known in Chicago, it is unnecessary to give street and number in the inside address, but it may be placed on the envelope, as a possible aid to the postal clerks. The salutation "Gentlemen" is correct. The body of the letter begins on the space below the salutation, though it might properly begin on the same line.

We turn now to the punctuation of the letter. In the heading, the four items are separated by commas, a period follows the abbreviation "Ill.," and another is placed at the end. In the address the items are likewise separated by commas, and a comma separates the two names in the firm. According to the ordinary rules for the use of commas, it may be urged that a comma should follow the name "Cleveland" also, but it is the universal custom to write firm names with the punctuation given in the letter. The period after the abbreviation "Ill." serves also to mark the close of the address. The salutation "Gentlemen" is followed by a comma. Some writers prefer to use a colon, and many use the dash with either the comma or colon. The dash should be used when the body of the letter follows the salutation on the same line, but we see no good reason for using it when the salutation is on the line above the body of the letter. In the first sentence the comma after "31" separates the



preceding phrase from the following remainder of the sentence. In the second sentence the comma after "trade" separates the two clauses of the sentence; the word "therefore" is of a parenthetical nature and is set off by commas. Periods follow each of the three sentences and the abbreviations of the name of the railroad. The complimentary close is followed by a comma, as it should be, and the signature is followed by a period.

Each proper name begins with a capital letter. The first word of each sentence begins with a capital letter, as does also the salutation and the complimentary close. The abbreviation of the railroad consists of the initial letters of the name "Chicago and Eastern Illinois"; and each letter is a capital. The word "Easter" also begins with a capital.

**55.** The order is written not in the body of the letter, but on separate sheets. The writer consults the convenience of his correspondents by closely following their catalogue. Doing so, he divides his letter into several paragraphs, each with a heading taken from the catalogue clearly indicating the class of goods he wishes to order.

Under the heading "Neckwear" appear four items, each occupying one line. First is given the quantity, then the style or variety, and at the end of the item, the price per dozen.

Under the heading "Half Hose," we have in addition to the quantity, style, and price, the catalogue number and a list of the sizes. The use of the catalogue number saves a lengthy description of the quality, material, etc., as this description is given in the catalogue under the number in question. The rows of figures at the right denote the sizes ordered; thus, the first item if written in full would read, "3 doz. Fancy Stripe,  $\frac{1}{2}$  doz. of size  $9\frac{1}{2}$ , 1 doz. of size 10, 1 doz. of size  $10\frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\frac{1}{2}$  doz. of size 11." In business practice, fractional sizes are always indicated as here shown.  $9^{\frac{1}{2}}$  denotes  $9\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $9^{\circ}$  denotes  $9\frac{1}{4}$ , and  $9'$  denotes  $9\frac{1}{8}$ .

In ordering goods that are made in different sizes, the merchant is careful to indicate the quantity required of each size, having regard for the probable demand for the various

sizes and for the condition of the stock on hand. Thus, in the present instance, the merchant orders a larger quantity of the medium sizes 10 and 10½ than of the extreme sizes 9½ and 11.

Under the fourth heading "Belts," the number of belts is indicated for each size from 30 to 40; and under the heading "Underwear," the number of dozens, the fraction of a dozen of both shirts and drawers are given for each of the sizes from 30 to 44. The merchant after looking over his stock concludes that he requires no more shirts of sizes 30 and 32 or drawers of sizes 42 and 44. Had he neglected to give the sizes required and depended on the wholesale house for an assortment, they might make up the bulk of the order of one size of which they have a surplus on hand.

There are some points regarding punctuation, capitalization, and abbreviations that deserve notice. The heading of each paragraph, as "Neckwear," "Half Hose," etc., is properly followed by a colon. This follows from the principle that a colon should precede a series of particulars or a series of items. The punctuation of the individual items follows ordinary rules; thus, the catalogue number, being parenthetical, is separated by commas from what precedes and follows; and the phrases "at \$2.25," "at \$1.10," etc. are also set off by commas.

In orders, invoices, and advertisements, capital letters are used very freely; in fact, it is almost the rule to begin each word with a capital letter, and the exception to begin a word with a small letter. The order under consideration is no exception; almost every word save the preposition "at" is dignified by a capital. Whether this excessive use of the capital letters is justifiable from the rhetorical point of view is a question. The fact remains, however, that it is a universal custom among business men, and in this case, as in most others, *custom makes law*.

Another characteristic of the order is the free use of abbreviations. The word "dozen" is invariably abbreviated to Doz. or Dz., generally with a capital letter, and the ditto abbreviation " " is largely used. There are other abbreviations peculiar to the class of goods; thus, "H.S." for "hemstitched." The general rule, "Do not abbreviate in

letter writing," is reversed in orders for goods, and becomes, "Abbreviate wherever possible."

The letter that we have just analyzed will give the student an idea of the forms employed in ordering goods. An order from a merchant in some other line of business, say stationery or hardware, would, of course, differ somewhat in little details from the order just considered, but the body of the letter would be substantially the same. It is manifestly impossible to give here all the intricate details that may arise in correspondence relating to various kinds of business. We can give only general principles; but a student that understands these principles relating to letters ordering goods, will readily master the details pertaining to any particular business that he may be engaged in.

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#### LETTERS ACKNOWLEDGING ORDERS.

**56.** Except in the case of small mail orders, where the sending of the goods constitutes a sufficient acknowledgment, it is a commendable custom to acknowledge an order immediately upon its receipt. The sender of the order upon receipt of the acknowledgment feels that his order is receiving attention.

Some firms acknowledge the order by sending an invoice; this custom is not to be recommended unless the invoice states the probable date of shipment; and in any case, a formal letter is better.

#### LETTER ACKNOWLEDGING ORDER FOR GOODS.

CHICAGO, ILL.,  
March 5, 1899.

MR. SIMEON C. GORDON,  
Danville, Ill.

*Dear Sir,*

We beg to acknowledge the receipt of your valued order of the 3d inst. The goods noted therein will be shipped today by the C. & E. I. Ry. We trust you will find them satisfactory.

Thanking you for this order and hoping to be favored by others in the future, we remain,

Yours very truly,  
OWENS, CLELAND & Co.

**57. Analysis.**—Messrs. Owens, Cleland & Co., recognizing the value of a prompt acknowledgment, immediately write Mr. Gordon upon the receipt of his order. They inform him that his order has been received and that the goods ordered will be forwarded on the day of their writing.

By the fact of their mentioning the date of his order, Mr. Gordon will at once perceive that reference is made to his letter of March 3, enclosing that order. He might have written Owens, Cleland & Co. another letter the same day enclosing a check or money order, or he might have written them on the 4th, enclosing another and quite different order for goods. Hence the value of the particular reference to his letter of March 3 enclosing a special list of goods. It is always, indeed, advisable for a business man or firm to mention the date of the letter that is being answered.

After this reference to the date, Owens, Cleland & Co. inform their correspondent that they will ship the goods by the desired route and express the hope that they will be found satisfactory. They then courteously express thanks for the order and conclude by asking for future orders.

This letter is in all respects one that a great business firm might properly address to a reliable and trustworthy customer. The letter is brief, but not so brief as to give the impression of haste or discourtesy. The actual information conveyed might have been put in one sentence; thus, "We have received your order of the 3d and will ship goods today." If, however, the letter consisted of this single statement, it would seem curt and would not perhaps produce a favorable impression on the recipient. By the use of the word "valued" in the first sentence, the firm gives Mr. Gordon the impression that they value his order and are glad to have business relations with him. Of course Mr. Gordon may take it for granted that Owens, Cleland & Co. are glad to receive an order, but the assurance is nevertheless in some degree gratifying. Any one is pleased to feel that a favor on his part is appreciated.

The third sentence expressing the hope that the goods will be satisfactory shows that the firm is anxious to please the

customer in the quality of the goods. An expression of this character is always appropriate in an acknowledgment of an order. The last sentence is in keeping with the preceding portion of the letter; it is practically a request for the continuation and enlargement of the business relations existing between the firm and Mr. Gordon.

The sentences of the letter are short, clear, and grammatically correct. The first three sentences are closely connected and naturally form one paragraph. It will be noticed that the continuity is secured seemingly without attention on the part of the writer. In the second sentence, "therein" refers to the order mentioned in the first sentence; and the third sentence is connected to the second by the pronoun "them" referring to the "goods" of the second sentence. The last sentence merges into the complimentary close and for that reason is made a paragraph. It is a general rule that when the closing sentence of a letter is preparatory to the complimentary close, it should begin a new paragraph.

The arrangement of the parts of the letter is faultless. The address should clearly occupy two lines, and, the letter being short, it is perhaps preferable to begin the body on the line below the salutation. There is some difference of opinion as to the proper position of the clause "we remain" in the last sentence. Some prefer to put it on a separate line; thus:

————— by others in the future,  
   We remain,  
   Yours very truly,  
   OWENS, CLELAND & Co.

In this case "we" must begin with a capital letter. We believe it is better, however, to write this clause in the body of the sentence. In either case, it must be set off by commas.

There is nothing in the punctuation or capitalization of the letter that requires special comment.

**58.** For the student's guidance, we append two shorter letters ordering goods and the acknowledgments thereto:

BAY CITY, MICH.,  
May 7, 1899.

MESSRS. KEUFFEL & ESSER,  
New York.

*Gentlemen*,—Please ship by American Express, C. O. D., the following:

12 Quires Universal Paper, 27" × 40", at \$2.25 per Quire.  
8 " Paragon " 22" × 30", " 2.50 " "  
100 Sheets Whatman's No. 2, 19" × 24", at .10 per Sheet.  
5 Doz. Patent Office Bristol Board, No. 21, 15" × 20", at .60 per Doz.  
1 Roll No. 150 Tracing Cloth, 36 in., at 8.25.  
Kindly credit me with the usual discount.

Yours truly,  
J. C. SAUNDERS,  
230 Huron St.

NEW YORK, May 10, 1899.

MR. J. C. SAUNDERS,  
230 Huron St.,  
Bay City, Mich.

*Dear Sir*:—The order with which you have kindly favored us, under date of May 7, has been filled and shipment will be made today. We trust that the articles will reach you in good condition, and hope to be favored with many future orders.

Very truly yours,  
KEUFFEL & ESSER.  
Per J.

FRANKLIN, IA., July 6, 1898.

THE DEERING HARVESTER Co.,  
Chicago, Ill.

*Gentlemen*,  
Please ship us at once by fast freight 20 Deering harvesters.

Yours truly,  
SPENCER & LOFTUS.

CHICAGO, ILL.,  
July 8, 1898.

SPENCER & LOFTUS,  
Franklin, Ia.

*Gentlemen*,  
We have today received your order of the 6th inst., for which accept our thanks. We will ship the harvesters tomorrow, the 9th, at the latest.

Yours respectfully,  
THE DEERING HARVESTER Co.  
Per M. R. W.

## LETTERS OF APPLICATION.

**59.** Under this heading we class letters applying for employment. In such a letter, state your qualifications clearly, modestly, and in a businesslike tone. Answer all particulars mentioned in the advertisement. Do not send the originals of testimonials in applying for a situation, but copy each testimonial on a separate sheet, marked "Copy" at the top of the page.

The writer's letter of application is often the only evidence of his fitness for a position; therefore, great care should be taken in the writing and in the wording of the letter. Numerous advertisements seen in the papers close with the words, "Apply in your own handwriting," showing the importance that business men place on good penmanship. Read your letter over carefully before sending it, and if you see any way in which the wording might be improved, or find a single mistake, the letter should by all means be rewritten.

Your success in securing the place may depend on slight extra trouble on your part in writing the letter. If the position is an important one, you will be almost sure to fail in securing it, unless your letter of application is carefully written.

The applicant should usually state what his education has been; what experience, if any, he has had in business; his age, habits, qualifications, etc.; and give any general information concerning himself that might interest the persons addressed. It is well to enclose copies of letters of recommendation, if he have such. While the applicant should state his qualifications clearly, it is equally important that he state them modestly as well.

## LETTER OF APPLICATION.

AUBURN, N. Y., May 24, 1899.

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE Co.,  
Salem, Ohio.

*Gentlemen:*

On account of the state of my wife's health it has become necessary for me to leave Auburn for some place better suited to her requirements. I should like, therefore, to obtain a situation with

your firm, either as a foreman in your machine shop or as a journeyman machinist.

I am thirty-six years of age. For the past seven years I have been employed in the shops of McIntosh, Seymour & Co., and during the last three years I have held the position of assistant foreman, having charge of their lathe and planer hands. I am qualified to do first-class work on light and heavy lathes, planers, milling machines, and grinding machines; I have also had some experience in toolmaking, and am a good vise hand.

As to my character and ability, I refer, by permission, to Mr. John W. Lee, Superintendent, and to Mr. Henry R. Fielding, General Foreman for McIntosh, Seymour & Co., and to Mr. H. E. Deitman, Superintendent of the B. W. Payne & Sons' Engine Co., Elmira, N. Y., with which firm I was formerly employed.

Awaiting an answer, at your convenience, I remain,

Very respectfully yours,

237 State Street.

CHAS. W. BALDWIN.

**60. Analysis.**—A letter of application for employment should be brief and to the point. If the applicant is already employed, he should state his reasons for desiring a change; if he is not employed, he should state whom he worked for last and why he is not working at the time he writes his letter. In many cases, the age of the applicant is a matter of serious consideration; hence, as a rule, he should state his age. The applicant should state what experience he has had in the particular line of work for which he seeks employment. As a general rule, references are more valuable than letters of recommendation; consequently, the applicant should obtain permission to refer to his previous employers. Any other reference is undesirable in cases like that outlined in the above letter. Let us see how Mr. Baldwin has fulfilled our requirements.

Mr. Baldwin is employed with McIntosh, Seymour & Co., of Auburn, N. Y., a firm well known throughout the United States as builders of high-grade automatic cut-off shaft governor engines. He has been employed with this firm for seven years, during the last three of which he has been one of their assistant foremen. He is a good machinist himself, and has worked in other machine shops, one of which is that of B. W. Payne & Sons, of Elmira, N. Y., who build the



same general class of engines as McIntosh, Seymour & Co. On account of the state of his wife's health, Mr. Baldwin decides that it would be best to move to some place having a more suitable climate, and therefore writes to The Buckeye Engine Co., Salem, Ohio, a firm engaged in the same line of business as McIntosh, Seymour & Co.

Mr. Baldwin begins his letter by stating his reasons for changing employers. He writes that his wife has poor health, and leaves it to be inferred that this is his only reason for leaving the employ of McIntosh, Seymour & Co., as is really the case. He does not waste any words; he does not tell of the numerous conferences that they have had with their physician—all these are private matters and are of no interest whatever to The Buckeye Engine Co.

In the next sentence, he states the kind of a situation he desires, and he writes in a straightforward manner that indicates that he feels confident of his ability to fill either position satisfactorily. It will be noticed that neither here nor in any other part of the letter does he write something like this: "Should you desire to accept my services, I am certain that I can fill either position to your entire satisfaction." Such remarks are wholly unnecessary and tend to weaken the force of the letter. The fact that he has worked for the same firm for seven years, for the last three as assistant foreman, and is leaving of his own accord, is sufficient. A man is always expected to do his work to the best of his ability, and there is no reason for his bragging about what it is taken for granted he will do. Note also that of the two positions mentioned, the higher one is named first. This is a point worthy of careful consideration. Mr. Baldwin has been employed for seven years, with McIntosh, Seymour & Co., on the same general class of work as that done by the firm he is writing to, and, previous to that, for some time with B. W. Payne & Sons. He feels certain that he can fill the position of foreman or assistant foreman in the machine shop of The Buckeye Engine Co., and hence he names the higher position first, leaving it to be inferred that while he could fill the position of foreman, and desires such a position,

he would, on account of the necessity of being obliged to leave Auburn, accept a position as machinist, and take his chances of being promoted afterwards to be foreman or assistant foreman. If he had written to some firm engaged in a different line of business, as, for example, The Latrobe Steel Works, Latrobe, Pa., it would have been better for him to have reversed the order and named the lower position first; for, if he had named the higher position first, it would have created the impression in the mind of the person reading his letter that he was of that variety of mankind who "know it all," and would have weakened very much the other good qualities that were displayed in his letter. By naming the lower position first, it would show him to be a modest man, but one who had confidence in his own ability, and was willing to work for a while in a subordinate position and trust that his employer would observe his work and promote him to a higher position, as soon as it became evident that he was familiar with the work as done in the shops at Latrobe. It depends altogether upon circumstances, whether the higher position should be named first or the lower.

In these two sentences, which form the first paragraph of the letter, Mr. Baldwin has stated why he wants to change his situation and has named the position that he desires to fill with The Buckeye Engine Co. He now very naturally states his qualifications, and his reasons for thinking that he can fill the position he is applying for, and begins with a new paragraph. It is quite customary now for employers to ask applicants for positions their ages, and he begins the second paragraph by stating his age. He then states how long he has been employed in the shop of McIntosh, Seymour & Co. This is an important point; if a man stays for a long while in the employ of a company, and particularly of a company as well known as McIntosh, Seymour & Co., it is strong presumptive evidence that his work has been satisfactory to the firm, and it is reasonable to suppose that his work would be equally satisfactory to his new employers. This impression is greatly strengthened by the fact that Mr.

Baldwin was promoted to the position of assistant foreman, and that he held that position for three years, and could hold it longer, but was obliged to leave on account of his wife's health. It will be noticed that he does not merely state that he was assistant foreman, but he also states exactly what his duties were; viz., he had charge of the lathe and planer hands. This is another important statement, for a prospective employer also desires to know exactly what an applicant for a position in his shop has done previously. If Mr. Baldwin had merely stated that he had held the position of assistant foreman, he would have left The Buckeye Engine Co. in doubt as to what his duties had been. He might have had charge of the boring machines, he might have had charge of the floor hands, he might have had charge of the tool room, or he might have had charge of the erecting department; but, by stating exactly what his duties had been, The Buckeye Engine Co. are better able to judge whether they can offer him a position as one of their foremen, or whether they prefer to employ him as a journeyman machinist.

The first sentence of the second paragraph is really a statement of Mr. Baldwin's special qualifications for a position as foreman. The next sentence not only adds somewhat to the list given in the first sentence, but also gives his qualifications for a position as journeyman machinist. Without doing any boasting, Mr. Baldwin states that he can do first-class work on light and heavy lathes, planers, milling machines, and grinding machines. It will be noticed that he mentions both light and heavy lathes. This is an important statement, because a machinist might be able to do first-class work on a light lathe and not be able to handle a heavy lathe. In the next clause he modestly states that he has had experience in toolmaking, and that he is a good vise hand. He might be a first-class toolmaker and a first-class vise hand, but whether he is or whether his experience in these directions has been somewhat limited, or not, it is better, perhaps, for him to word his letter as he has done. It is always well not to try to claim too much. If The Buckeye

Engine Co. wish to know what experience he has had in toolmaking or in work at the bench, they will ask him; then he can state exactly what experience he has had in either of these two branches of machinists' work, and he will create a better impression than if he made himself out to be a first-class workman in all three departments.

Having stated his qualifications, he now gives his references as to character and ability, and naturally begins a new paragraph. He refers to the two men in the employ of McIntosh, Seymour & Co. that are best qualified to express an opinion in regard to his character and ability—the superintendent and the general foreman—and, at the same time, he takes advantage of the opportunity to inform The Buckeye Engine Co. that he has worked for B. W. Payne & Sons, and refers to their superintendent. When giving a reference, it is always best, when possible, to refer to the person that is immediately over you. A reference to a high official of the company is seldom satisfactory; as he rarely comes in direct contact with the employes, but issues his orders through the heads of departments, any recommendation that he might give would, in all probability, be due to inquiry of the superintendent or general foreman. Hence, it is always better to refer to the superintendent or general foreman, direct.

Note the wording of the closing paragraph. Mr. Baldwin desires a reply to his letter, and he words his request very delicately. He is in the position of a person asking a favor; hence, instead of saying, "Please answer at your earliest convenience," which would be in the nature of a command, he writes, "Awaiting an answer, at your convenience"—a respectful way of saying the same thing. The form, "Please answer at your earliest convenience," would be correct for The Buckeye Engine Co. to use in reply to Mr. Baldwin's letter, but it would be considered somewhat impertinent for Mr. Baldwin to use it in his letter. A person asking a favor has no right to demand, and but little right to request; and, in any case, the request should be so worded as to leave it entirely optional with the person to whom the request is made, whether he grants it or not.

The complimentary close, "Very respectfully yours," seems to be perfectly correct; "Very sincerely yours," or "Very truly yours," would carry an air of too great familiarity. "Respectfully yours" is a little too abrupt, and creates the impression that the writer was in very much of a hurry to finish his letter; but "Very respectfully yours" is in keeping with the remainder of the letter and is a dignified close.

Notice that Mr. Baldwin gives his street and number at the close of his letter. This may be given either at the end of a letter or at the beginning, as the writer prefers. If the letter takes up more than one page of writing, it would be better, perhaps, to give the street and number at the head of the letter; but it is merely a matter of taste which form is used.

The composition of the body of the letter shows that the applicant has a good command of language and is a man of education. It is not necessary, therefore, for the writer to make a specific statement in regard to his educational qualifications.

The diction of the letter is excellent. The words chosen express precisely the meaning they are intended to, and the few technical words, such as "lathes," "planers," etc., are perfectly familiar to anyone likely to be connected with The Buckeye Engine Co. Even in the phrase "Awaiting an answer, at your convenience," the writer uses the proper word *answer* instead of the incorrect, though frequently used, word *reply*. We *reply* to a statement, an argument, or accusation, and *answer* (not *reply* to) a question or a letter.

The sentences are clear and grammatically correct; they also possess to a greater or less degree the qualities of unity, force, and case. In the second paragraph, for example, unity is secured by making a sentence of the first statement, "I am thirty-six years of age." If we combine the first two sentences, thus: "I am thirty-six years of age and have been employed, etc.," we introduce two prominent ideas into one sentence, and thus violate the principle of unity. The last sentence in the second paragraph might have been divided

into two sentences, the first ending with the words "grinding machines." The separation of the two statements by a semicolon, however, seems to make the transition from one to the other less abrupt than when a period is used and each statement forms a separate sentence.

The division of the letter into paragraphs is satisfactory. The first paragraph deals with the reason that impels Mr. Baldwin to seek a new situation. Note that the connective "therefore" joins the second sentence of the paragraph to the first sentence. The second paragraph has for its subject the qualifications of the writer for the position sought; and the third paragraph, which consists of a single sentence, gives the references. Each paragraph therefore has a single leading subject.

The style of expression is simple, direct, and respectful, as it always should be in letters of this character. Nothing could be more out of place than ornamental or flowery language or a verbose form of statement in a letter of application.

The punctuation of the letter follows the established rules. In the heading and address, the items are separated by commas. The salutation "Gentlemen" is followed by a colon; a comma might have been used, but the colon is more formal. Periods appear in their proper places; viz., at the end of the heading, the address, and the signature, after each abbreviation, and at the end of each sentence. In the body of the letter commas are used to set off parenthetical words or phrases, as "therefore" in the second sentence and "by permission" in the third paragraph; to set off elements in apposition, as "Superintendent" in apposition with "Mr. John W. Lee," "General Foreman, etc." in apposition with "Mr. H. E. Deitman." Commas are used also after the words "lathes," "planers," and "milling machines" to mark the omission of conjunctions. According to the custom of the best writers, the third comma is required though the conjunction, *and*, is present.

The proper names throughout the letter begin with capital letters, as do also the first words of the several sentences.

In the address, each word of the firm name begins with a capital; and in the third paragraph the titles "Superintendent" and "General Foreman" are properly capitalized.

**61.** The Buckeye Engine Co., to verify the statements made by Mr. Baldwin and to inform themselves more fully in regard to his character and ability as a machinist, send the following letter of inquiry to Mr. John W. Lee:

SALEM, OHIO, May 27, 1899.

MR. JOHN W. LEE,  
*Superintendent,*  
 McIntosh, Seymour & Co.,  
 Auburn, N. Y.

*Dear Sir:*—Mr. Chas. W. Baldwin writes that the state of his wife's health obliges him to leave Auburn. He applies for employment and refers us to you and to your Mr. Henry R. Fielding.

We shall be pleased to have your opinion of Mr. Baldwin's character, experience, and ability.

Very truly yours,  
 THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.

This letter of inquiry is characterized by the direct, concise style that is always appropriate in business correspondence. The writer introduces in his first sentence the leading topic—Mr. Baldwin's application. The object of The Buckeye Engine Co. in writing this letter is to obtain information concerning their applicant, and nothing is to be gained by veiling this object with a wordy introduction.

Having stated in the first paragraph that Mr. Baldwin has applied for employment and has referred to Mr. Lee, the writer in the second paragraph respectfully and courteously asks Mr. Lee's opinion of Mr. Baldwin. The last sentence has a close enough connection with what precedes to be included in the same paragraph. As the letter is short, however, its appearance is improved by making two paragraphs instead of one.

The recognition in the address of Mr. Lee's position as superintendent is a mark of respect worthy of mention. The complimentary close, "Very truly yours," is quite

correct considering the relation of the writer to the recipient. It is perfectly respectful and sufficiently formal.

No special comment need be made upon the punctuation and capitalization of the letter.

**62.** The following is Mr. John W. Lee's answer:

AUBURN, N. Y., May 30, 1899.

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.,  
Salem, Ohio.

*Gentlemen:*

I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your esteemed favor of the 27th inst. in regard to Mr. Chas. W. Baldwin's application for employment.

Mr. Baldwin had full permission to use my name in his letter of application to you. The reason he assigns for his proposed change of residence is correct. His wife's health is in such a condition that a change of residence is imperative.

Mr. Baldwin is a gentleman of unimpeachable character; he stands well with this firm and with the best classes in this community. He is an excellent machinist and has been in our employ seven years, during the last three of which he has been an assistant foreman. During his whole time with us he has given perfect satisfaction.

I feel safe, therefore, in commending Mr. Baldwin to your favorable consideration.

Very truly yours,  
JOHN W. LEE, Supt.

I take pleasure in endorsing the above letter.

HENRY R. FIELDING,  
General Foreman.

Mr. Lee's answer to The Buckeye Engine Co.'s letter of inquiry quite properly opens with a reference to that letter. This reference recalls the subject of the original letter, so that it will not be necessary for the reader of Mr. Lee's answer to refresh his memory with the copy of the letter to Mr. Lee.

The points in the inquiry are answered in detail. First, Mr. Lee verifies Mr. Baldwin's statements that the state of his wife's health demands a change of residence and that Mr. Baldwin had a right to use his name as a reference. He then certifies to Mr. Baldwin's character, experience, and



ability, as requested in the last paragraph of the letter of inquiry.

It is to be noted that Mr. Lee's statements have a positive tone and are specific in their nature. "Mr. Baldwin is a gentleman of unimpeachable character," "He is an excellent machinist," "he has given perfect satisfaction"; these assertions are strong and unequivocal and cannot fail to impress The Buckeye Engine Co. If Mr. Lee had written something like this, "Mr. Baldwin *seems* to be a gentleman and I *think* he will prove satisfactory to you," the firm addressed would feel that Mr. Lee hesitates to fully commit himself, and that though Mr. Baldwin might prove successful in a new position, he might, on the other hand, prove to be a failure. The good effect of Mr. Lee's positive assertions is increased by the last sentence, "I feel safe," etc. This is equivalent to an assertion on Mr. Lee's part that he will stake his reputation for veracity and good judgment on Mr. Baldwin's success in case The Buckeye Engine Co. sees fit to employ him.

Mr. Lee's letter is an example of what the painstaking, studious mechanic can achieve in letter writing. The sentences are clear and correct, the diction is good, and good judgment is exhibited in the division of the matter into paragraphs. The style is direct and concise, but courteous and respectful.

**63.** Having received Mr. Lee's answer and also an answer to a letter of inquiry to Mr. H. E. Deitman, The Buckeye Engine Co. write Mr. Baldwin as follows:

SALEM, OHIO, June 2, 1899.

MR. CHAS. W. BALDWIN,  
237 State St.,  
Auburn, N. Y.

*Dear Sir:*

Your letter of the 24th ult. has received due consideration. We will state, in answer, that we are prepared to offer you a position as assistant foreman in our shops.

Write when we may expect you here.

Truly yours,

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.

The following is Mr. Baldwin's answer:

AUBURN, N. Y., June 5, 1899.

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.,  
Salem, Ohio.

*Gentlemen:*

I thank you for your favorable consideration of my application.  
I will be in Salem by the 10th inst.

Very truly yours,

CHAS. W. BALDWIN.

These letters require little comment. The Buckeye Engine Co. in their letter to Mr. Baldwin simply state that they have given his application due consideration. This implies that they have made the inquiries they have thought necessary, and it is not necessary for them to tell Mr. Baldwin whether they have written to his references.

Mr. Baldwin says all that is required in two short sentences. In the first sentence he thanks his prospective employers in a dignified and respectful manner. He is neither gushing nor effusive in his thanks. In the second sentence he answers the indirect question asked in The Buckeye Engine Co.'s letter in as few words as possible. The two sentences are in no way connected, and the second forms, therefore, a separate paragraph.

**64.** We submit another letter of application for the guidance of the student.

BATTLE CREEK, MICH.,  
June 30, 1899.

MR. FRANKLIN P. JUDSON,  
*Chairman of the Board of Education,*  
Jackson, Mich.

*Dear Sir:*

Kindly permit me to offer myself as a candidate for the position of principal in the Jackson high school, which I am informed is now vacant.

The following is a brief statement of my educational qualifications and experience in teaching: I graduated at the University of Michigan in 1890, and spent one additional year there in advanced study. Since leaving the University in 1891, I have been engaged continuously in teaching the natural sciences, mathematics, history, and English. For the

last two years I have taught physics and chemistry in the Battle Creek high school.

In regard to the character of my work, the enclosed testimonials will doubtless be of more value to you than any statements I might make in my own behalf.

Should you desire a personal interview, I shall be glad to present myself at such time and place as your convenience may dictate.

I am very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

JAMES S. REED.

#### LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.

**65.** A letter of introduction should be given only after the fullest consideration, the writer having due regard not only for himself and the person introduced, but also for the interests and feelings of the person to whom the letter of introduction is addressed.

A business letter of introduction should always be presented by the bearer in person; and care should be taken to present it at a time when it will cause least inconvenience to the person addressed.

#### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

CINCINNATI, O., Oct. 11, 1898.

E. B. ELLIOT, Esq.,  
Montreal, Can.

*Friend Elliot:*

This letter will be handed to you by Mr. Henry Osborne, of this city, who visits Canada for the benefit of his health, and intends also to look after some business interests in the vicinity of Montreal. I sincerely commend him to your consideration and trust that you will make his stay, while in your city, pleasant as well as profitable.

My friend Osborne is worthy of your highest regard, and any courtesies, business or social, that you may show him will be greatly appreciated by

Your sincere friend,

WILLIAM E. SAFFORD.

**66. Analysis.**—This is a well constructed and carefully worded letter of introduction. Mr. Safford is a lifelong friend of Mr. Elliot. They had been associated in financial enterprises, and their families had mingled in the most intimate social intercourse. Under these circumstances,

Mr. Safford would be very careful in introducing a third party to Mr. Elliot. The letter shows his care in this respect.

Usually a letter of introduction written from one business man to another is strictly a business letter and carries with it no social obligations. The recipient of such a letter will feel bound to render the bearer assistance in a business way, but need not necessarily extend to him the hospitality of his house nor introduce him to friends and acquaintances. The letter under consideration, however, may be regarded as a *mixed* business and social letter. Mr. Safford, feeling sure that his friend Mr. Osborne will prove congenial socially to Mr. Elliot and his family, does not hesitate to request social as well as business courtesies in his friend's behalf.

A letter of introduction should always be brief, because it is embarrassing for the bearer to wait while a long letter is being read. The letter before us fulfils this requirement ; it is reasonably short yet contains all essential points.

The expression of esteem, "My friend Osborne is worthy of your highest regard," is well chosen. The mere fact that Mr. Safford introduces Mr. Osborne at all implies that the latter is a person worthy of regard. While it is appropriate to make a modest commendation of this character, it would be in as bad taste to launch into extravagant praise in a written introduction as in a personal introduction.

The rhetorical construction of the letter exhibits no points that require special comment. The three sentences in the body of the letter are somewhat long, but they are perfectly clear. The first two sentences properly constitute a paragraph, being closely connected ; and the last sentence is given a separate paragraph.

It will be noted that the last sentence is completed by the complimentary close, "Your sincere friend," which is the object of the preposition "by," the last word of the body. While this form is much used, many writers object to it, and prefer to complete the last sentence in the body of the letter, and follow it with the usual complimentary close, "Yours sincerely" or "Yours truly."

The punctuation of the letter follows established usage.

The items of the heading and address are separated by commas, and all abbreviations are followed by periods. The salutation is properly followed by a colon. The relative clause "who visits, etc." in the first sentence, and the phrase "while in your city" in the second sentence, are set off by commas. In the last sentence the comma after the word "regard" separates the clauses of the compound sentence, and the two other commas set off the expression "business or social," which is out of its natural order. All the sentences are followed by periods. Observe that in the last sentence the closing period is that following the signature.

All proper names are capitalized, as they should be, and each sentence begins with a capital letter.

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### SOCIAL LETTERS.

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#### LETTERS OF CONGRATULATION.

**67.** Letters of congratulation are those tendering felicitations on some success achieved by a friend. Trench, "On the Study of Words," declares: "When I 'congratulate' a person (congratulator) I declare that I am a sharer in his joy, that what has rejoiced him, has rejoiced also me."

The style of a letter of congratulation should be hearty and joyous. There should be no hint of envy or jealousy, and the letter should contain nothing that might have a tendency to dampen the joy of the recipient. Anything disagreeable, and, in particular, any advice, should be reserved for another letter.

Usually a letter of congratulation is brief, sometimes merely a message by telegraph.

#### LETTER OF CONGRATULATION.

GALESBURG, ILL., April 20, 1899.

HONORABLE HENRY CLAY EVANS,  
Memphis, Tenn.

*My dear Sir:*

Word has just reached me that you have been elected to the honorable and responsible office of Mayor of Memphis.

It is some years since we last met; but as a friend of the long-past but unforbidden days of boyhood, I feel certain that you have fully developed all those fine qualities of which your youth gave such abundant promise, and have proved yourself worthy of your blood and family traditions and, above all, of your American citizenship.

May your administration of the affairs of Memphis be all that its best citizens, irrespective of party, can desire; and may your election as chief magistrate of that respectable city be the stepping stone to higher honors and to broader spheres of usefulness in your state and country.

Your friend of old and today,

M. CLANCY.

**68. Analysis.**—The foregoing is a letter of congratulation containing all that such letters should express. There is no undue familiarity in the opening lines—there is nothing save a simple, unostentatious statement of fact. The second paragraph refers with dignity, delicacy, and tenderness to the friendship of boyhood days and pays tribute to qualities manifested by Mr. Evans even in those early days. The third and closing paragraph extends, in fitting language, hearty good wishes to the newly elected Mayor.

One commendable feature of this letter is that the writer delicately abstains from unduly thrusting himself forward into the notice of his friend. He does not begin with an *I*, but opens with the modest clause "Word has just reached me." It is always in better taste to begin a letter, or, in fact, a sentence, with some other word than with the pronoun *I*. A letter too freely sprinkled with *I*'s gives the impression that the writer attaches undue importance to his thoughts and actions. Of course there are cases in which the *I* may properly occur quite frequently, as for example in a letter of application, in which the applicant in relating his education and experience must naturally talk about himself. It is a safe rule, however, to keep this word *I* in the background as much as possible; at best, it will appear often enough.

Another feature of the letter is the evident sincerity of the compliments in the second paragraph and the good wishes in the last paragraph. Two things to be avoided in

letters of congratulation are compliments that savor of flattery and extravagant expressions of joy. In the present letter how inappropriate it would be for the writer, who has not met Mr. Evans for some years, to make use of such expressions as "I was overjoyed at your success," or "I was pleased beyond measure, etc."; again how inappropriate would be such a flattering eulogy as the following: "Your transcendent genius for state affairs; your unimpeachable integrity and unswerving devotion to duty, and your well known executive ability combined to make you an ideal candidate for the high office to which you have been elected." Mr. Evans would rightly regard such an expression as most offensive flattery, and would not for a moment regard it as sincere.

It is to be observed that in the last paragraph the writer does not stop with the word "honors." Had he done so, the sentence would seem to convey the idea that the honor of office was Mr. Evans's chief motive for accepting the Mayor's chair. By adding the last phrase "and to broader spheres of usefulness, etc.," the writer delicately implies that Mr. Evans's prime motive is to be of service to his city, state, or country.

Besides the merits of modesty and sincerity, the letter exhibits the dignity befitting the relation of the writer and recipient. The two gentlemen are evidently not young, and have not been intimate socially for some years. Under these circumstances any attempt at familiarity would be out of place. Under other circumstances, of course, a letter of congratulation may be familiar and brisk; for example, a young man congratulating a college chum might write: "Well done, old fellow! Give me a handshake in honor of your brilliant success." As in all other letters the degree of dignity and formality is regulated by the relation of the parties.

Turning to the rhetorical construction, we note in the first place that the diction is correct and dignified, as befits the subject of the letter. There are a number of long words, as "traditions," "citizenship," "administrator," and

“magistrate,” but they are entirely appropriate in the places in which they are used, and are those that any writer would naturally employ under similar circumstances. The diction is marked by both purity and propriety. In the whole letter there is not a word of questionable character—not one that is obsolete, newly coined, provincial, or foreign. Further, each word is used in its generally understood sense and conveys the meaning intended. An instance of precision in diction is shown in the word “office” in the first sentence. Many writers would incorrectly write “position of Mayor of Memphis.” In general, *office* refers to employment having connection with government. Public servants hold *office*; employes of private concerns hold *situations* or *positions*.

The three sentences in the body of the letter fulfil the primary requisites of the good sentence; viz., clearness and correctness; they also possess unity and ease. Observe the clearness and smoothness of the last two sentences, despite their considerable length.

The letter, containing, as it does, three distinct parts—the announcement, the compliments, and the good wishes—is naturally divided into three paragraphs, each containing a single sentence.

In the arrangement of the parts of the letter the writer exercises good taste. In the address, the name is properly preceded by the title “Honorable” unabbreviated. The abbreviation “Hon.” would perhaps indicate a lack of respect; on the other hand, it would be altogether too formal in a letter of congratulation to write the address as follows:

To the Honorable  
HENRY CLAY EVANS,  
Memphis, Tenn.

The complimentary close, “Your friend of old and today,” is happily chosen, and is appropriate to the reference in the second sentence to “the long-past but unforgotten days of boyhood.”

The punctuation of the heading, address, and conclusion calls for no comment. The first sentence requires no mark



except the period at the end. The second sentence is somewhat long and is made up of phrases and clauses that demand separation. The first short clause is coordinate with the last clause; and since the latter is further subdivided by commas, the two clauses are separated by the semicolon following the word "met." The comma after "boyhood" sets off the preceding phrase, which is out of its natural order; the comma after "promise" separates the two parts of the compound predicate, and those after "and" and "all" set off the parenthetical expression "above all." In the last sentence the coordinate clauses are separated by the semicolon after "desire"; and the commas in the first clause set off the parenthetical expression "irrespective of party." The sentences are followed by periods, though some writers might prefer an exclamation point after the last sentence.

Little need be said regarding the use of capital letters. All the proper names and the first words of the sentences begin with capital letters, as they, of course, should. The word "Mayor" being an official title is begun with a capital letter, and so is the word "American," an adjective derived from the proper name America. Observe that the word "dear" in the salutation does *not* begin with a capital letter.

**69.** As an additional example we give a less formal letter congratulating a friend on his appointment to a university fellowship:

COLUMBUS, OHIO, June 13, 1899.

DEAR JACK,

I have just this moment heard of your appointment to the coveted fellowship. Good for you, my boy! I congratulate you with all my heart. This success, I am confident, is only the first of many that are awaiting you. The appointment is well deserved, and is a fitting sequel to your four years of hard and faithful work in the university. It will give you an excellent opportunity to pursue those advanced studies that you so delight in.

With continued good wishes, I am,

Your sincere friend,

EDWARD HOLDEN.

## LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE.

**70.** A letter of condolence is one written to a friend that has suffered some loss or bereavement. Such a letter is one of the most difficult of all to write. It requires good taste and sympathetic feeling. In offering condolence, carefully avoid recalling to the sufferer the details of the case, and do not attempt to argue on the subject. Reasons that should appeal to the head cannot affect the heart. Of course, never insinuate that your friend is in the least directly or indirectly to blame. What is most needed at such a time is sympathy. Endeavor to show your friend, as much as is possible in words, that you are ready and anxious to share his grief; your sympathetic feeling will thus lessen the sorrow.

## LETTER OF CONDOLENCE.

PITTSBURG, PA., Jan. 13, 1898.

MY DEAR CHARLES,

Your letter of the 11th conveying the sad tidings of your father's death reached me this morning. I hasten, my dear friend, to tender you my heartfelt sympathy in your sorrow. As you well know, your father and I were in early life close associates. It was during this period of intimacy that I came to realize the gentleness and kindness of his nature, and learned to love and esteem him. I can assure you, Charles, that his death is to me personally a source of sincere sorrow.

Your relations with your father were, I know, most cordial and affectionate. To you he was a devoted father; and you in return have been a faithful and dutiful son. The recollection that you have ever been to him a source of pride and joy must at the present sad moment be a consolation to you.

With deepest regard, I am, dear Charles,

Your sincere friend,

ALFRED WEBBER.

**71. Analysis.**—This letter is written to a son upon the death of his father by a personal friend of both father and son. It fulfils quite well the requisites of the ideal letter of condolence.

In the first place, the letter gives the impression of sincere grief and fellow suffering on the part of the writer. The son to whom it is written must feel that his sorrow is shared

by his father's old friend. Such a letter is always grateful to the sorrowing recipient. The reference to the early intimacy of the writer with the departed, and the mention of the good qualities of the latter are appropriate. It is a source of consolation to know that the virtues of one who is gone are recognized and appreciated. Another commendable feature of the letter is the reference to the affectionate relation of the father and son, and the assurance to the son that he has been a pride and a joy to his father. Such an assurance, provided, of course, it be true, must be a source of consolation.

It is to be noted that the writer does not try to persuade his friend that the event is all for the best and that he should not on that account feel any grief. Nothing is more out of place in a letter of condolence than an attempt to submit the matter to the cold logic of argument. Never try to convince a mourning and grief-stricken friend that it is his duty to submit cheerfully to his lot.

The letter, as a letter of condolence should be, is brief. All that such a letter should ever contain is a sincere expression of sympathy, sometimes a reference to the merits of the deceased, and perhaps a reference to the Divine Comforter. It need scarcely be said that a letter of condolence should contain no mention of affairs not connected with the event that calls it forth.

In structure, the letter of condolence does not differ essentially from other letters, except that the introduction never contains the formal address, but consists simply of the salutation, as "Dear Charles" or "Dear Friend." Even the salutation is often omitted.

In the letter under consideration, the sentences are as a rule quite short. A careful analysis will show that they are grammatically correct and clear. The body of the letter is divided into two paragraphs. The leading idea of the second paragraph—the devotion of the son to the father—is of sufficient importance to justify a new paragraph.

The functions of the various marks of punctuation the student will readily discover by reference to *Punctuation*

*and Capitalization.* There is nothing in connection with the use of capital letters that demands special attention.

**72.** In addition to the letter just analyzed, we give the following touching and beautiful letter of condolence written by Thomas Gray to Mr. Mason. It is worthy of the student's most careful perusal. Other letters of condolence will be given in another section among the model letters.

March 28, 1787.

I break in upon you at a moment when we least of all are permitted to disturb our friends only to say that you are daily and hourly present to my thoughts. If the worst is not yet past you will neglect and pardon me; but if the last struggle be over; if the poor object of your long anxieties be no longer sensible to your kindness or to her own sufferings, allow me (at least in idea, for what could I do, were I present, more than this?) to sit by you in silence, and pity from my heart, not her who is at rest, but you who lose her. May He who made us, the Master of our pleasures and of our pains, preserve and support you! Adieu.

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#### LETTERS OF DESCRIPTION.

**73.** In a letter of description the writer strives to give by means of words a picture of the object or objects he is describing. A description is a word picture.

#### LETTER OF DESCRIPTION.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 9, '90.

DEAR CLARA,

You asked me in your last letter to tell you about the White House and its occupants. I am going, therefore, to reserve all other things for a later epistle and devote this entire letter to a description of one interesting corner of our Presidential mansion.

It may be news to you that the Presidential apartment in the White House is practically nothing more nor less than a seven-room flat, tucked away in a corner of the massive structure like a cosy corner in a Turkish bazaar, and insuring to President and Mrs. McKinley all the privacy and comfort of an unpretentious New York flat. Tourists may prowl about the corridors and office seekers may howl outside the doors, but no man or woman may penetrate these sacred precincts without showing exceptionally good cause.

The Presidential flat is on the second floor of the White House, and in the right wing over the East Room. It consists of the President's

study; his bedroom; a library; a guest room, usually occupied by visiting relatives; Mrs. McKinley's bedroom; a kitchen; and a wide private corridor, which is a favorite lounging place for the family and their guests. This corridor is the most pretentious feature of the apartment. It is carpeted with thick velvet carpets, its walls are covered with historic paintings, and its many chairs and divans are luxuriously inviting. Potted palms fill the windows and fresh-cut flowers are placed every day on the desk and the tables.

With the exception of the library, the rooms are very simple. Nothing could be less ornate than the President's study, in which family portraits stare unsmilingly at stiff-backed chairs ranged in an uncompromising circle around the wall. But the atmosphere is brightened by Mrs. McKinley's gentle presence. Here she likes to sew while the President writes or thinks out some knotty problem, sitting in his favorite attitude at his desk, his feet digging into a worn ottoman, his head thrown back against his chair, and his hands drumming restlessly on the polished mahogany.

The President's bedroom is equally simple. Soft rugs cover the floor, but the walls are almost bare of ornament and the old-fashioned chairs are grimly unyielding. One modern innovation is a luxurious Turkish divan, on which the President has never yet stretched his weary length, but which he hopes to try some future time when a divan will not seem so subtle an irony.

The guest chamber, or as it is known among visitors, the "green bedroom," is one to inspire awe in the bravest heart. It is a vast room in which its two small brass bedsteads, standing side by side, look like white oases in a green desert. A table with a reading lamp stands stiffly in the center of the room and several chairs lend variety to the scene. A fat pincushion and a photograph of Mrs. McKinley occupy the dressing table and are the only ornaments the place affords.

Mrs. McKinley's bedroom is a bright, glad contrast to this. She has carried out her own ideas in its decoration, with the result that the room is the prettiest and most cheerful in the White House. In consideration of her delicate health, the President's wife is never alone. Some one is near her night and day and the pleasant bedroom is the scene of some of the jolliest gatherings in the Executive Mansion.

In the library of this White House flat Mrs. McKinley receives her friends, reads her favorite books, and does her fancy work. To this room the President comes for repose and rest when the army scandal and the Philippine situation have goaded him to frenzy. When occasion permits, the family meals are served in the library, which readily lends itself to that innovation. This pleases Mrs. McKinley; and the President, too, is glad to dine quietly with his family when it is possible. Even under the best conditions it is not often practicable, for this servant of the people is relentlessly pursued during these trying times by public demands that interfere with a quiet home life.

Nevertheless, his little home is there, and he is monarch of it. Like the tenants of other American flats, he meets strangers in the halls and on the stairs, and these strangers are of an unusually obtrusive and persistent type. But he has his little flat to fly to, and only the most hardened office seeker upon seeing him hurrying to it at the close of the day would venture to turn him aside from this haven of rest and peace.

There, Clara, you now have an idea of one little piece of the White House. In a later letter I may describe to you some other features of this famous mansion.

Affectionately yours,

AMELIA AIKEN.

**74. Analysis.**—This interesting and neatly written epistle is a model letter of description. It is a letter from one lady to another, conveying just the kind of information womankind like to receive.

The opening paragraph is an introduction stating the writer's intention to give a description of a portion of the Presidential mansion. That such an introduction is essential in a letter is obvious. Should the letter begin with the second paragraph, the reader would for a moment wonder what called up the subject of the White House. Such an opening would be painfully abrupt. As it is, the introductory paragraph leads naturally to the description and prepares the reader's mind for it.

In the second paragraph, the writer introduces the Presidential flat as the subject of the description. The few words of this paragraph give the reader a vivid idea of the privacy and coziness of the apartment. Note the life in the first sentence; how much more expressive the statement "is nothing more nor less than a seven-room flat," etc., than one like this: "The Presidential apartment is a suite of seven rooms situated in one corner of the White House."

The third paragraph enumerates the seven rooms and gives a description of the corridor. The following paragraphs are devoted to descriptions of the other rooms of interest.

One of the requirements of a good description is that it should begin with some kind of a comprehensive statement

or plan to serve as a sort of background for the details that are to follow. In this letter, this requisite is furnished in the second paragraph and first part of the third paragraph. Having, in her mind, located this flat in one corner of the White House, the reader is able to form an idea of the relation of each of the rooms to the suite as a whole, and is prepared for a description of the individual rooms.

The description is rendered interesting and vivid by the omission of petty details. Take, for example, the President's study. The clause "family portraits stare unsmilingly at stiff-backed chairs ranged in an uncompromising circle around the wall" gives the reader a mental picture of the room that she would not obtain from such details as the location of doors, the position of the room relative to the corridor or other rooms, the size of the room, etc. Likewise, note the expressiveness of the sentence, "It is a vast room in which its two small brass bedsteads, standing side by side, look like white oases in a green desert." This one sentence gives a better mental picture of the room than would a page of minute detail. The use of figures of speech is sometimes very effective in description. Thus, in the sentence just quoted, the simile "like white oases in a green desert" adds greatly to the effect.

The sentences are pleasing in their variety and ease. Some are short, plain statements, while others are long and well supplied with modifying phrases. Nearly all are loose sentences, the loose form being especially suited to description and narrative. By way of variety, however, several of the short sentences are periodic; as, "With the exception of the library, the rooms are simple," and "In consideration of her delicate health, the President's wife is never alone." It is readily seen that these sentences are more forcible than if arranged in the loose form.

The paragraphing of the letter follows the laws of unity and continuity. Each paragraph is dominated by a leading idea. After the real description is begun, the description of each room is given a separate paragraph; first we have the study, then the President's bedroom, then the guest chamber,

and so on. The continuity between the sentences of each paragraph is well preserved; nowhere will the reader feel a sense of abruptness. Between the separate paragraphs the continuity is sufficiently well established by the rather close connection between the subjects of the paragraphs.

It will be observed that the last paragraph is a sort of conclusion inserted to avoid the abruptness that would be felt if the letter closed with the description. In this respect the function of this paragraph is the same as that of the introductory paragraph.

The arrangement of the parts of the letter demands no comment. The punctuation is in accordance with good usage. The student is advised to go carefully through the letter and determine for himself the office of each period, comma, semicolon, etc.; this he should do in connection with the paper entitled, *Punctuation and Capitalization*. At the same time he should discover the reason for each capital letter employed.

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#### LETTERS OF NARRATIVE.

**75.** Narration is a statement of a succession of events in the order of time. A large part of the literature of the world may be classed under "Narration"; thus, *history*, an account of the events in the life of a nation; *biography*, an account of the events of an individual life; *travels*, an account of the experiences of a person in foreign countries; *news*, an account of the daily happenings all over the world; and finally *fiction*, which may be called fictitious biography—all these are examples of narrative composition.

A narrative letter is one in which the prominent feature is a narration of some train of events, such as the particulars of a visit or the details of some incident in which the writer has played a part. The letters of travel that frequently appear in periodicals are chiefly narrative.

**76.** The following are the leading principles to be observed in writing narrative letters:



1. The events should be narrated in the order in which they occur. For example, in narrating the events of a visit one should not begin with the occurrences of the second day and then recur to his reception on his arrival.

2. There should be a certain unity in the narration. If you start to tell a story, do not introduce irrelevant topics that, though suggested by some character in the story, have nothing to do with the final outcome. It is sometimes almost painful to hear a garrulous and uncultured person attempt the simplest narrative. He gets along well until some person, say John Jones, is introduced into the story; then the mention of this name brings up some recollection of an event in which John Jones was a participant, and this event must be narrated before the story can go on. Do not allow yourself to fall into this pernicious habit either in verbal or in written narrative.

3. In narrative, one is specially likely to acquire the fault of connecting the successive statements by the words *and*, *so*, and *but*. Guard carefully against this fault.

#### SPECIMEN LETTERS OF NARRATIVE.

THE HAGUE, April 15, 1899.

DEAR THOMAS:

We are just now hearing a great deal of the approaching peace conference, which, as you know, is to take place in this city early next month. Less than a year after her coronation the girl Queen, Wilhelmina of Holland, will act as hostess to the representatives of all the great Powers of the world.

The peace conference has Queen Wilhelmina's fullest sympathy. She has assigned for its sittings the most beautiful of all her palace homes, the famous House in the Woods, or Huisten Bosch, which stands midway between The Hague and Scheveningen, in the most beautiful park in Europe.

This famous palace was built by Amelia van Solms after the death of her husband, Stadtholder Frederik Hendrik, two hundred and fifty years ago. It was the home of Wilhelmina's childhood. In the woods about it she, with her girl playmates, used to skate in winter, and in summer, dig in the sand with tiny shovels and pails, as children do at Coney Island.

In connection with the coming peace congress, the following bit of Russian history is of decided interest.

In 1815, after Napoleon I, a prisoner on St. Helena, had ceased to menace the thrones of Europe, Alexander I of Russia formed a plan as humane in its object as that of the present Czar, Nicholas II. He organized a union called the "Holy Alliance," Russia, Austria, and Prussia being the chief parties concerned. The professed object of the union was to base the political order of the world on the principles of Christianity. Czar, Emperor, and King pledged themselves to rule in the spirit of love and to stand by one another in their efforts to maintain the peace of Europe.

Alexander acted in good faith. He sincerely wanted to be a just and loving father to his people. However, the "Holy Alliance" proved to be anything but holy; it was, in fact, a league of oppression, and so far as it could, it crushed out the rising spirit of liberty. A partial explanation of this, so far as Alexander was concerned, is to be found in the fact that he could not stand the test of conspiracies among his own people. It certainly requires a very grand nature to be able to do that. His was not grand enough, and so Alexander the Liberal became Alexander the Despot.

Let us hope that the peace negotiations proposed by the present Czar will result more happily than the Holy Alliance of his predecessor Alexander.

Sincerely your friend,

ALBERT MONETTE.

**77. Analysis.**—This letter, containing as it does the story of the Holy Alliance, may properly be classed as a letter of narrative. The writer, residing at The Hague, naturally writes of the coming peace conference, an affair of international importance. The fact that the present Czar of Russia was the originator of the present plan of disarmament and universal peace recalls the similar attempt of the former Czar, Alexander I, and the "bit of Russian history" is introduced quite appropriately. After narrating the story of the Holy Alliance, the writer concludes with the hope that the efforts of Nicholas II will prove more fruitful than those of Alexander I.

The narrative fulfils the essential requisites laid down in Art. **76**. It states first the fact of the organization; second, its object; and last, the result. An explanation of the unfortunate result forms a conclusion to the narration.

**78.** As a capital example of pure narrative we present the following, which is a part of a letter written by Miss

Elizabeth Carter to Miss Catherine Talbot. The student will observe how, in the order of their occurrence, the successive events are related; he will also observe the unity of the narration; the story is told to the end without interruption, and no irrelevant topics are introduced.

LONDON, August 9, 1769.

\* \* \* I set out on my city expedition this morning where I met an adventure, which, I believe, you will think more formidable than all the terrors of the Richmond road. I was to call on a person in my way, to accompany me to the South Sea House; and my nearest route was through Newgate. On going up Snow Hill I observed a pretty many people assembled, but did not much regard them, till, as I advanced, I found the crowd thicken, and by the time I was got into the midst of them I heard the dreadful toll of St. Sepulchre's bell and found I was attending an execution. As I do not very well understand the geography of Newgate, I thought if I could push through the postern I should find the coast clear on the other side, but to my utter dismay I found myself in a still greater mob than before, and very little able to make my way through them. Only think of me in the midst of such heat and suffocation, with the danger of having my arms broke, to say nothing of the company by which I was surrounded, with near 100*l.* in my pocket. In this exigency I applied to one of the crowd for assistance, and while he was hesitating, another man, who saw my difficulty, very good-naturedly said to me: "Come, madam, I will do my best to get you along." To this volunteer in my service, who was tolerably creditable and clean, considering the corps to which he belonged, I most cordially gave my hand; and without any swearing, or brawling, or bustle whatever, by mere gentle persevering dexterity, he conducted me, I thank God, very safely through. You will imagine that I expressed a sufficient degree of gratitude to my conductor, which I did in the best language I could find; \* \* \*

# LETTER WRITING.

(PART 3.)

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## MODEL LETTERS.

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### BUSINESS LETTERS.

**1. Prefatory Remark.**—The model letters presented in the following pages are such as are likely to be required in the exigencies of ordinary business. There are, of course, many other letters that may be demanded by exceptional circumstances, but it is manifestly impossible to include in a limited space a model of every possible variety of business letter. A careful study of the model letters we have chosen should, however, prepare the student to write any business letter that may be required, in a businesslike manner.

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### LETTERS CONTAINING ENCLOSURES.

**2.** Under this heading we class letters containing remittances, as checks, drafts, etc. The letters should state what the enclosure is, the amount of the remittance, and the purpose to which the remittance is to be applied.

Various means are employed in making remittances. A bank draft, either New York or Chicago exchange, may be

purchased of any local bank at small cost, and furnishes a safe and convenient means of remittance. Many business firms remit to their correspondents by bank checks. In some cities, however, notably in New York City, the banks charge for collection of checks, and remittance by this means is discouraged. A draft or check should always be made "to order," so that no one except the payee can collect it. If made payable to bearer, it may be collected by any person into whose possession it may fall.

As a rule, banks do not care to issue drafts for small amounts; small remittances are therefore frequently made by post-office or express money order.

Currency or coin should never be enclosed in a letter for transmission through the mails.

AKRON, OHIO, April 6, 1899.

MECHANIC ARTS MAGAZINE,  
Scranton, Pa.

Enclosed you will find an express money order for One Dollar (\$1.00) in payment of one year's subscription to "The Mechanic Arts Magazine," beginning with the May number.

Yours respectfully,  
M. JONES.

DES MOINES, IA., June 4, 1897.

ODELL, ALLEN & Co.,  
St. Paul, Minn.

*Sirs:*

Enclosed you will find a Chicago draft for Three Hundred Eighty-two and  $\frac{17}{100}$  Dollars (~~\$382.67~~), payable to your order, to balance our account to date. Kindly send us a receipt.

Yours truly,  
ALBERT CUMMINGS & Co.  
Per S. H. W.

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#### LETTERS ACKNOWLEDGING RECEIPT OF MONEY.

**3.** The receipt for a remittance should be returned to the sender without delay, so that he may know that the remittance was received. The receipt may be included in the body of the letter or it may be a formal receipt enclosed

with the letter. It should state the amount of the remittance.

DETROIT, MICH., June 21, 1896.

MR. EDWARD S. BARRY, .  
Allegan, Mich.

*Dear Sir :*

We beg to acknowledge with thanks your favor of the 19th inst., enclosing One Hundred Thirty-two Dollars (\$132).

Yours respectfully,  
FARRAND, WILLIAMS & Co.

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**LETTERS OF BUSINESS SOLICITATION.**

4. In a letter soliciting custom or business favors of any kind, the writer should be careful to make his statements precise and candid and without exaggeration.

**LETTERS SOLICITING ADVERTISING.**

ADVERTISING DEPARTMENT

**THE CURTIS PUBLISHING COMPANY**

*The Ladies' Home Journal*      *The Saturday Evening Post*

ADDRESS ALL  
COMMUNICATIONS  
TO THIS  
DEPARTMENT

PHILADELPHIA

May 29, 1899.

MICHIGAN COLLEGE OF MINES,  
Houghton, Mich.

We enclose a specimen page from the July number of "The Ladies' Home Journal" to give you an idea of the different sizes and display of Educational advertisements. The August number will go to press June 15th, and the edition will exceed eight hundred thousand copies. These will be distributed among the best homes of America at just the time when the selection of a School or College is under consideration.

If you will send us your announcement at once, we shall be happy to give you the lowest cost of insertion, and to set it in type for approval, if desired.

Very truly yours,

THE CURTIS PUBLISHING COMPANY  
Advertising Department

PUBLISHERS  
SPECIAL  
ADVERTISING  
AGENTS

FOR COMMERCIAL SUCCESS—  
CONSISTENT ADVERTISING  
OFFICE OF  
PIERCE UNDERWOOD CO.

TELEPHONE MAIN-993  
69 DEARBORN STREET

CHICAGO, Jan. 16, 1899.

INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS,  
Scranton, Pa.

*Gentlemen:*

We respectfully invite your attention to a few facts in connection with an important item of your annual expense account, with a view of suggesting how that expense may accomplish a greater result than hitherto, or as great a result at less cost. We think our interest in the matter is in a great degree mutual with yours, in that you present an article of special value and general desirability, while we represent a medium of communication, through the "Young People's Weekly," with 220,000 of the most prosperous American homes, embracing very nearly 1,000,000 readers, where the paper is read, discussed, and passed from hand to hand with the same attention as a monthly magazine, not simply scanned and cast aside like the ordinary newspaper.

Its advertising space is limited to a few columns, rigidly excluding patent medicines and everything of an undesirable nature, the object being to make this portion of our paper as wholesome, attractive, and reliable as its purely literary department.

As a proof of the general interest of the reading public in our paper, we cite the fact that ninety per cent. of the subscriptions come from the adult members of the thousands of families in whose homes the "Young People's Weekly" is the most eagerly awaited regular visitor.

The volume of the circulation claimed for the paper we are prepared to substantiate at any time to the satisfaction of any of our patrons. As to the character of that circulation, the literary columns of the paper itself afford the best evidence.

After Feb. 1st, we propose to extend our advertising space to a limited extent, admitting thereto only such advertisements as will consort with the general character of our paper and the character of its readers, thereby enhancing its value alike to its readers and our advertising patrons.

We invite your careful inspection of our special illuminated cover design of our forthcoming Easter edition to be issued April 2d, together with accompanying details as to circulation, rates, etc.

Believing that the appearance of your advertisement in this special

edition would be to our mutual advantage and lead to a continuance of your patronage, we solicit an early advice of your favor.

Very truly yours,

PIERCE UNDERWOOD CO.

Per Pierce Underwood,  
Pres. & Treas.

#### DUNNING LETTERS.

5. Dunning letters should be characterized by moderation, fairness, and firmness. The style of the letter should depend on the circumstances of the case. If the party owing the money is known to be reliable but a little slow in remitting, the letter should be so worded as to imply that payment is merely a favor. On the other hand, if a debt is long past due and the debtor seems inclined to evade payment altogether, the letter may be quite peremptory and may contain a threat of appeal to the law. Such a letter may induce payment where a friendly letter would have no effect. The following are models of dunning letters suitable for various circumstances :

PHILADELPHIA, April 18, 1899.

ALFRED IRWIN & Co.,  
Pittsburg, Pa.

*Dear Sirs:*

In the statement enclosed herewith are repeated the figures of accounts previously rendered, and there appears a balance of \$342.65, of which we should, as we think, naturally have received settlement last month. It will be a favor to us if we may have your remittance by return mail, and all the more if it may be in Philadelphia funds.

Very truly yours,

O. A. JOHNSTONE & Co.

PITTSBURG, May 8, 1897.

MR. JAMES BODINE,  
Altoona, Pa.

*Dear Sir:*—We sent you a statement of your account some time ago. As we have heard nothing from you, we conceive it possible that you have overlooked the matter.

A prompt remittance will be appreciated.

Yours respectfully,

MILLER & FOSBERG.



NEW YORK, Oct. 7, 1894.

MR. JOHN W. SAMUELS,  
New Orange, N. J.

*Dear Sir:*

We enclose a statement of your account now long past due. In view of your difficulties we wish to make payment as easy as possible, and will be pleased to accept small installments at regular intervals.

Let us, however, hear from you at once.

Yours truly,  
M. S. DUFFY & Co.

ST. LOUIS, July 12, 1893.

MR. F. S. TRUE,  
Ottumwa, Ia.

*Dear Sir:*

We have repeatedly written you regarding the payment of your account but have received no acknowledgment of our letters.

While we wish to give you every opportunity for payment, we must insist on an answer to this letter within ten days. If we do not hear from you within that time, we shall be compelled, reluctantly, to give the account to our Attorneys for collection.

The amount is \$97.82.

Yours truly,  
SINCLAIR & BUNNELL.

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#### LETTERS OF CENSURE.

**6.** A letter of censure is an expression of disapproval or blame for adequate cause that is called for in certain regrettable circumstances. Such a letter, while characterized by firmness, should be also marked by fairness, calmness, and dignity.

HARTFORD, CONN., Oct. 13, 1897.

MR. ARTHUR E. DORTON,  
Minneapolis, Minn.

*Dear Sir:*

I must reluctantly call your attention to a decided falling off in the business in which you are representing me in the West. Your recent reports show that the receipts from real-estate sales have diminished materially as compared with last year, and that the receipts from rents are not what they should be. While there may be some valid cause for this state of affairs, I fear that it may be ascribed to a lack of energy

and interest on your part, the more so as all conditions seem to be favorable for a largely increased business in real estate.

I do not wish to do you an injustice, and am inclined to give you every chance to get the business back to its original prosperous condition. If, however, there is no change for the better, I fear that I shall be unable to continue you in your present position.

Yours truly,

S. S. NOBLE.

#### LETTERS REQUESTING SPECIAL FAVORS.

7. Under this head may be included letters asking for an extension of time on an account, letters asking for a remittance not yet due, etc. An unusual request of this kind should be presented with special care. It is better to make the request at the outset and give the explanation for it afterwards.

FRANKFORT, KY., Jan. 5, 1896.

ELWELL, CARTON & Co.,  
Cincinnati, Ohio.

*Gentlemen:*

May we request you to accept one-half of our account at maturity, the 20th inst., and permit an extension of sixty days on the remainder?

On account of the unprecedented scarcity of money among the farmers, we have for the last two months experienced unusual difficulty in making collections, and are therefore rather cramped for funds to meet coming obligations.

We regret the necessity of this unusual request, but we trust that you will understand the circumstances causing it.

Yours respectfully,

OTIS & CURRAN.

#### LETTERS OF ANNOUNCEMENT.

8. Letters of announcement are those that contain some specific declaration or convey some special communication.

ST. PAUL, MINN., March 15, 1899.

THE HONORABLE JOHN HALVERSEN,  
St. Paul, Minn.

*Dear Sir:*

It is my privilege to state that I have been appointed to represent in this city and state the Northwestern Colonization Company, of Chicago, Ill.

This Company has acquired title to large tracts of land in Minnesota, the two Dakotas, and Nebraska. This land it proposes to dispose of to bona-fide settlers, to whom it gives substantial aid in erecting necessary buildings and putting in the first crop, giving them ample time and most liberal terms to pay their indebtedness to the Company, which takes a direct and kindly interest in the welfare of each settler and his family.

You have long taken a deep and practical interest in the subject of colonization, and proved yourself a friend of the solid development of the Northwestern States. Your earnestness, sincerity, and success, in this respect, have won you, not only public esteem but the confidence of your fellow citizens generally.

I therefore beg the favor of a personal interview, at your own convenience, that I may have the honor of stating the purposes and presenting the claims of the Northwestern Colonization Company as one of the most powerful and efficient instrumentalities for the development of this important section of the American Republic.

Believe me, Sir,

Yours respectfully,

HENRY OSBORNE.

#### ANSWER TO THE PRECEDING LETTER.

400 WOODWARD AVENUE,

ST. PAUL, MINN.,

March 16, 1899.

MR. HENRY OSBORNE,  
St. Paul, Minn.

*Sir:*

I am pleased to acknowledge receipt of your note, informing me of your appointment to represent the Northwestern Colonization Company in this state and city, and soliciting a personal interview.

Thanks for your attention. I shall be pleased to meet you, at the Merchants' Hotel, tomorrow at 10 o'clock A.M. I have already heard favorably of the Northwestern Colonization Company, but I shall be glad to have you state its purposes and present its claims more fully.

Respectfully,

JOHN HALVERSEN.

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#### LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION.

9. The qualities of a letter of recommendation have been dwelt upon in a previous section. The rules to be observed in writing a letter of recommendation are in brief as follows:

1. Do not recommend an unworthy person at all.
2. State the exact facts; a highly colored letter of recommendation is likely to prove a positive injury to the one in whose favor it is written.
3. If you are recommending a person for a particular situation, dwell on the specific qualifications of the person for that situation rather than upon his character, integrity, etc., though it is of course proper to mention the latter.

Letters of recommendation may be special or general. Special letters are addressed like ordinary letters to a particular person; general letters are addressed "To the public" or "To whom it may concern," etc.

#### GENERAL LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION.

ATLANTA, GA., March 10, 1898.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Mr. Joseph Shippen has been in our employ as carpet salesman for the last five years. We are pleased to state that he has, by his strict attention to duty, and by his honesty and integrity, won the esteem and confidence of his employers, associates, and customers. It is with regret that we part with Mr. Shippen, who resigns his situation solely on account of failing health.

Respectfully,

ENOCHS & SIMPSON.

#### SPECIAL LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.,

May 14, 1896.

MR. E. S. WILLIAMS,

*Secretary of the Board of Control,*

Allegheny, Pa.

*Dear Sir:*

Mr. Philip J. Allison has informed me that he has applied for the professorship of mathematics in the Allegheny high school, and desires me to write you a word of commendation in his behalf.

I have been closely associated with Mr. Allison for the last three years and have had an excellent opportunity to observe his teaching. Without exaggeration, I may say that he is a most thorough mathematician and a conscientious and inspiring teacher. His work as an instructor in the Syracuse University has been of the highest order, and the school or college that secures his services I shall consider fortunate.

Personally I shall be sorry to lose Mr. Allison's services as my assistant. I, however, heartily wish him the success and advancement he so well deserves, and I take pleasure in commending him to you.

Yours very respectfully,

---

*Professor of Mathematics,*  
Syracuse University.

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#### LETTERS OF INDORSEMENT.

**10.** A letter of indorsement introduces an acquaintance of the writer to the person or firm addressed, generally for the purpose of opening an account.

Considerable caution is required in giving a letter of indorsement, as the writer becomes morally if not legally responsible for the agreements of the bearer of the letter.

If a letter of indorsement is given to the person introduced, as is usually the case, it should not be sealed.

PEORIA, ILL., June 8, 1899.

INGALLS & COOPER,  
Chicago, Ill.

*Gentlemen:*

The bearer, Mr. Wm. T. Jevons, is making preparations to engage in the boot and shoe business in Joliet, Ill., and visits you to examine your stock of footwear.

We have known Mr. Jevons for some years and can vouch for his integrity and business ability. He starts in business under the most favorable auspices, and we are confident that you will find it to your advantage to extend him every reasonable courtesy.

Yours respectfully,

DODGE, FLATHER & Co.

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#### LETTERS OF CREDIT.

**11.** A letter of credit is one requesting the person addressed to give the bearer credit for a specified sum of money for the payment of which the writer assumes responsibility. A letter of credit is often combined with a letter of introduction. The following is a common form:

MONTGOMERY, ALA.,

June 4, 1894.

S. W. FORD & Co.,  
 Memphis, Tenn.

*Dear Sirs :*

Please allow Mr. Edward Buhl, the bearer, credit for such goods as he may select to the amount of One Thousand Dollars (\$1,000). In case Mr. Buhl fails to make payment at maturity, I will be responsible for the account.

You will inform me of the amount for which you give credit, and in case of non-payment notify me at once.

Yours respectfully,

ANDREW HOLCOMB.

Another kind of letter of credit is a letter from a banking house in one country to a similar house in another country directing the payment of certain sums of money to the person in whose favor the letter is written. These letters of credit are much used by travelers. The banks usually have blank forms for them.

BOSTON, July 1, 1899.

MESSIEURS BARBAUD FRÈRES,  
 Paris, France.

*Gentlemen :*

We request that you will have the kindness to furnish Mr. Geo. E. Romaine, of this city, whose signature appears below, with any funds that he may require to the extent of Twenty Thousand Francs, taking his duplicate receipts (one of which you will send us) for any payment made under this credit.

Whatever sum Mr. Romaine may receive you will please endorse on the back of this letter and charge to our account.

Your obedient servants,

THE THIRD NATIONAL BANK.

The signature of  
 GEO. E. ROMAINE.

\_\_\_\_\_  
*President.*

#### LETTERS OF INQUIRY.

**12.** Letters of inquiry are frequently required in business correspondence. The subject of the inquiry may be the business standing of an individual or firm, the price of goods, the value of some machine or device, or any one of a hundred other things.

PITTSBURG, PA., July 10, 1899.

THE CASHIER  
FIRST NATIONAL BANK,  
Scranton, Pa.

*Dear Sir:*

We shall be obliged to you if you will in confidence give us your opinion as to the standing of S. G. Campbell & Co. of your city. Would you consider it safe to extend them credit for \$2,000?

Thanking you in advance for any information you may give us, we are,

Very truly yours,  
EWING & MANSFIELD.

FAVORABLE ANSWER.

SCRANTON, PA., July 12, 1899.

EWING & MANSFIELD,  
Pittsburg, Pa.

*Gentlemen:*

In answer to your inquiry of the 10th inst. concerning the firm of S. G. Campbell & Co., I take pleasure in giving you the following information.

This firm is regarded as one of the safest and most conservative in this city in its line of business. It has good connections, excellent facilities for doing business, and so far as we know, is reliable in every way.

Yours truly,

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UNFAVORABLE ANSWER.

SCRANTON, PA.,  
July 14, 1899.

EWING & MANSFIELD,  
Pittsburg, Pa.

*Dear Sirs:*—Your inquiry concerning S. G. Campbell & Co. is at hand. In answer we would say that while these people have until lately been considered reliable, they are at present reported to be in embarrassed circumstances, and unable to meet coming obligations. Everything they have is more or less encumbered. Rumors are afloat that their present condition is due to heavy losses they have incurred in speculation. We have investigated these rumors and find them substantially correct.

We feel it our duty to report this firm in an unsatisfactory condition financially, and we should not consider it safe to extend them credit for a large amount.

Yours truly,

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MUSKEGON, MICH.,  
June 23, 1898.

MR. J. M. JONES,  
Secretary Eskridge Mfg. Co.,  
Milwaukee, Wis.

*Dear Sir:*

I am informed that your company has adopted the card-index system both in your business office and drafting room. Will you kindly inform me how this system is working, and state briefly its advantages, if any, over your former systems of indexing addresses and drawings? I am considering seriously the advisability of introducing the card index in my own office and I shall be grateful to you for any information or suggestions.

Yours very truly,  
M. S. STONE.

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#### MISCELLANEOUS BUSINESS LETTERS.

**13.** The following are letters that may occasionally arise in business practice. The letters of appointment, resignation, etc. are somewhat of the nature of *official* business letters.

#### REPORT OF AGENT.

FLINT, MICH.,  
March 3, 1899.

MR. CHAS. E. CANFIELD,  
Lockport, N. Y.

*Dear Sir:*

I have completed the sale of your farm of ninety acres in Richfield Township to Mr. S. M. Eaton, of Allegan. The consideration is \$5,175. Mr. Eaton assumes the mortgage of \$1,650 with \$42.75 accrued interest, gives you a second mortgage of \$2,000, pays \$800 in cash, and gives his note, endorsed by A. Meyer and payable in one year, for the remainder, \$682.25.

Trusting the transaction will prove satisfactory to you, I remain,  
Yours very truly,

G. H. EASTMAN.



## LETTER OF INFORMATION.

*Confidential.*

PEORIA, ILL., Oct. 26, 1899.

E. A. SHERMAN & Co.,  
Terre Haute, Ind.

*Gentlemen:*

I feel it my duty to write concerning one William E. Saunders, who, during the course of conversation here, informed me that he intends to call on you.

Shortly after he left my office, I received certain information concerning him, from persons of undoubted reliability, which leads me to the conviction that he is an entirely untrustworthy person.

This information I give you out of sincere regard for your business interests.

Your friend,

ALFRED JOHNSON.

## LETTER OF APPOINTMENT.

EASTON, PA., June 24, 1899.

MR. GEORGE W. GRAHAM,  
Trenton, N. J.

*Dear Sir:*

I beg to inform you that the Board of Trustees of Lafayette College at their meeting on June 21 appointed you instructor in Physics at a salary of \$900 per year, from Sept. 1, 1899.

Please advise me whether or not you accept this appointment.

Yours very truly,

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*Registrar of Lafayette College.*

## LETTERS OF RESIGNATION.

PEORIA, ILL., Feb. 24, 1899.

HONORABLE \_\_\_\_\_,  
*Mayor of Peoria.*

*Dear Sir:*

Having made arrangements to engage in engineering in a private capacity, I hereby resign my position as City Engineer of Peoria, the resignation to take effect May 1, 1899.

Very respectfully,

JOHN POOLE.

HEADQUARTERS MIDDLE DEPARTMENT, EIGHTH ARMY CORPS,  
BALTIMORE, MD., November 13, 1863.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

*Sir*.—Having concluded to accept the place of Member of Congress in the House of Representatives, to which I was elected in October, 1862, I hereby tender the resignation of my commission as a Major General of United States Volunteers, to take effect on the 5th day of December next.

I shall leave the military service with much reluctance and a sacrifice of personal feelings and desires, and only consent to do so in the hope that in another capacity I may be able to do some effective service in the cause of my country and Government in this time of peculiar trial.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

ROBT. C. SCHENK,  
*Major General.*

#### LETTER DECLINING APPOINTMENT.

LANSING, MICH.,  
July 15, 1893.

TO THE HONORABLE THE SPEAKER  
OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,  
Lansing, Mich.

*Sir*:

Your letter informing me that I have just been appointed Clerk of the House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, I have just received.

While I am deeply grateful for the honor done me, I feel that, in duty to myself and in justice to my many professional engagements and obligations, I must decline the honor.

Believe me, however, Mr. Speaker, that I shall always cherish the remembrance of the high distinction conferred by my selection to this important office.

I am, Sir, with very great respect,

Very sincerely yours,

EDWIN BUTTERFIELD.

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#### TELEGRAMS.

14. Telegrams are messages or other communications transmitted by wire. They are so much used in the business life of today, that to be able to write a good telegraphic message is one of the most desirable qualifications of a business man.

In telegraphic despatches the salutation and complimentary close are omitted. Such messages should be expressed in the fewest possible words to make the meaning clear. For instance:

SCRANTON, PA., March 16, '99.

SAMUEL JEWETT,  
850 Delaware Ave.,  
Buffalo, N. Y.

Meet me, Niagara Hotel, Buffalo, tomorrow morning at 10.

JAMES EWING.

This message might be written at length somewhat after this fashion:

"I will be in Buffalo tomorrow, and expect to stop at the Niagara Hotel, where I wish you to meet me."

This amplification is, as the student will at once perceive, wholly unnecessary. All that is required for the recipient of a telegram is that he should clearly understand the meaning of the sender. Care, however, must be taken not to condense so much as to make the message unintelligible. One might thus, by trying to save the slight extra cost of a word or two, lose what has been paid for the whole telegram, besides failing in the object for which it is sent. Read your message carefully after writing, and satisfy yourself that it states clearly what you mean. In the case of a very important telegram it might be well to read your copy to a disinterested person to see whether it is understood by another as well as by yourself.

Much of the telegraphing by business houses is at present done in cipher. Important matters may thus be telegraphed without giving information, except to those entitled to it. A great saving in expense may also, by this means, be effected. This saving is done by preparing a code of words, arranged alphabetically in which a single word stands for a phrase or a sentence; as, for instance, *here* may mean "I arrived here safe today." Cipher codes are printed and copies are furnished by the houses adopting them to each of their traveling men and the principal firms with whom they

do business. These cipher codes are mostly used in ordering goods, and for communications between employers and their traveling agents.

**15. Rules and Rates.**—From the Instructions and Rules of The Postal Telegraph-Cable Company, we learn that:

1. Each telegram for transmission must be written on the form provided by the Company for that purpose, or attached to such form by the sender, or by the person presenting the telegram, as the sender's agent, so as to leave the printed heading in full view above the telegram.

2. Telegraphing depends on the number of words, the distance, transfers, etc. The name of the place the message is sent from, the date, address, and the signature are not usually counted in estimating the number of words, except in cable messages.

In prepaid telegrams, however, the under mentioned words are counted and charged for; namely:

All words in an extra date; as, "via Boston, Mass.," in "Buffalo, N. Y., March 24, via Boston, Mass."

All extra words, such as "No." in an address; as, "John Smith, No. 80 Wall St., N. Y.," or "James Brown, No. 187 Broadway, N. Y."

Each figure in the body or text of a telegram; as, "Meet me at 1185 Madison Ave., tomorrow night." Also, each letter when it is an abbreviation of a word; as, "Meet me at W. C. T. U. Hall."

All signatures, except the last one in the case of two or more; as "T. R. Blackstone, Samuel Hughes, William Dearing," the first two of these signatures being charged for.

Titles consisting of not over two words after the signature are not charged for, as "George Brown, Gen'l Mgr."

All words after the signature that are not titles are charged for; such as, "report delivery charges," "delivery charges guaranteed," "report delivery," and "repeat back."

3. In counting a message, dictionary words, initial letters, surnames of persons, names of cities, towns, villages, states, or territories, or names of the Canadian provinces are

counted and charged for each as one word. Abbreviations for the names of towns, villages, states, territories, and provinces are counted the same as though they were written in full. The abbreviations of weights and measures in common use are each counted as one word.

All pronounceable groups of letters, when such groups are not combinations of dictionary words, are counted each group as one word. When such groups are made up of combinations of dictionary words, each dictionary word so used is counted. Numbers and amounts should be written in words, but if expressed in figures each figure is counted as one word.

Figures, decimal points, bars of division, and letters are, in general, counted each separately as one word.

In ordinal numbers the affixes "st," "d," "th," as in the case of 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, are each counted as one word.

4. A night telegram must be written upon the night telegram form, and is acceptable only between the hours of opening and midnight. The offices closing before midnight will not accept a night telegram that cannot be started before the closing hour. In case of an interruption of the lines that it is believed would prevent the transmission of a night telegram before the following morning, such a telegram will not be accepted.

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#### CABLEGRAMS.

**16.** Cablegrams must be written on the regular forms provided therefor, but if written on any other paper whatsoever, must, when offered for transmission, be pasted on the regular sending form before being forwarded. Every cablegram must be prepaid by the sender unless it be a "prepaid reply" or unless otherwise specially ordered. All words in the address, text, and signature are counted and charged for. Cablegrams may contain any number of words. Every address must consist of at least two words; the first indicating the name of the receiver, and the second the name of the place the cablegram is addressed to. The sender is responsible for an incorrect or insufficient address.

Corrections and alterations can only be made by a new cablegram, which must be paid for. Cablegrams may be written in plain language, code language, or cipher language, but they must be legibly written in characters that have their equivalents in the Morse alphabet.

The signature may be abbreviated or omitted, but the cable company declines to make any unpaid inquiries respecting it.

For the benefit of the student, we subjoin the list of rates.

#### ATLANTIC CABLE RATES.

From	Rate per word.	From	Rate per word.
Alabama.....	\$.31	Mississippi.....	\$.31
Arizona.....	.37	Missouri, Hannibal, Louisi- ana, and St. Louis.....	.31
Arkansas.....	.34	Missouri, other offices.....	.34
California.....	.37	Montana.....	.34
Colorado.....	.34	Nebraska.....	.34
Connecticut.....	.25	New Hampshire.....	.25
Delaware.....	.28	New Jersey, Hoboken and Jersey City.....	.25
District of Columbia.....	.28	New Jersey, other offices.....	.28
Florida, Pensacola.....	.31	New Mexico.....	.34
Georgia.....	.31	New York, Brooklyn and New York City, Governor's Island and Yonkers.....	.25
Illinois.....	.31	New York, other offices.....	.28
Indiana.....	.31	North Carolina.....	.31
Iowa, Burlington, Clinton, Ce- dar Rapids, Davenport, Du- buque, Fort Madison, Keo- kuk, and Muscatine.....	.31	North Dakota.....	.34
Iowa, other offices.....	.34	Ohio.....	.31
Kansas.....	.34	Oregon.....	.37
Kentucky.....	.31	Pennsylvania.....	.28
Louisiana, New Orleans.....	.31	Rhode Island.....	.25
Louisiana, other offices.....	.34	South Carolina.....	.31
Maine.....	.25	Tennessee.....	.31
Maryland.....	.28	Texas.....	.34
Massachusetts.....	.25	Vermont.....	.25
Michigan.....	.31	Virginia.....	.31
Minnesota, Duluth, Hastings, Minneapolis, Red Wing, St. Paul, Stillwater, Wabasha, and Winona.....	.31	Washington.....	.37
Minnesota, other offices.....	.34	West Virginia.....	.31
		Wisconsin.....	.31

**17. Regulations Governing Messages.**—All messages taken by The Western Union Telegraph Company are subject to the following terms:

To guard against mistakes or delays, the sender of a message should order it *repeated*; that is, telegraphed back to the originating office for comparison. For this, one-half the regular rate is charged in addition. It is agreed between the sender of the message and the Company, that the Company shall not be liable for mistakes or delays in the transmission or delivery, or for non-delivery of any *unrepeated* message, beyond the amount received for sending the same; nor for mistakes or delays in the transmission or delivery, nor for non-delivery of any repeated message, beyond fifty times the sum received for sending the same, unless specially insured, nor in any case for delays arising from unavoidable interruption in the working of its lines, or for errors in cipher or obscure messages. And the Company is made the agent of the sender, without liability, to forward any message over the lines of any other Company when necessary to reach its destination. Correctness in the transmission of a message to any point on the lines of the Company can be *insured* by contract in writing, stating agreed amount of risk, and payment of premium thereon, at the following rates, in addition to the usual charge for repeated messages; viz., 1 per cent. for any distance not exceeding 1,000 miles, and 2 per cent. for any greater distance. No employe of the Company is authorized to vary the foregoing.

No responsibility regarding messages attaches to the Company until the same are presented and accepted at one of its transmitting offices; and if a message is sent to such office by one of the Company's messengers, he acts for that purpose as the agent of the sender.

Messages are delivered free within the established free-delivery limits of the terminal office. For delivery at a greater distance, a special charge is made to cover the cost of such delivery.

The Company will not be liable for damages or statutory

penalties in any case where the claim is not presented in writing within sixty days after the message is filed with the Company for transmission.

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### SOCIAL LETTERS.

**18. Remark.**—The letters collected in the following pages are mostly from the pens of well known men and women; they are excellent examples of the epistolary style, and are well worthy the close attention of the student.

The collection includes letters of affection, of friendship, of condolence, of sympathy, of gratitude, and of good counsel; also other letters of a more formal nature.

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### LETTERS OF AFFECTION.

**19.** Letters of affection are those that grow out of one's regard for others; they may be written by members of a family to one another, or by a lover to his betrothed.

LETTER FROM DANIEL WEBSTER TO EZEKIEL WEBSTER.

WASHINGTON, April 11, 1816.

DEAR EZEKIEL,—

I received yours yesterday, and I learned with great sorrow the illness of our mother and Mary. I have hardly a hope that the former can now be living. If she should be, on receipt of this tell her I pray for her everlasting peace and happiness, and would give her a son's blessing for all her parental goodness. May God bless her, living or dying!

If she does not survive, let her rest beside her husband and our father.

I hope Mary is not dangerously ill. You must write to me, addressed to New York, where I expect to be on my way home about the 28th or 30th instant. Congress will probably rise about the 22d or a few days later.

We have got through most of the important public business of this session.

Give my love to your wife and children, and may Heaven preserve you all.

Most affectionately yours,

D. WEBSTER.



The following charming letter from a young man to his betrothed is taken from "Scribner's Magazine," June, 1896:

BRADFORD COLLEGE, June 15, 1895.

MY DEAREST NELL:

You shouldn't complain that my letters for the past six weeks have been all about you, and nothing about myself. How can a fellow help it: when you have made him the happiest being in the world? Still if you command, I must obey; and begin the story of my poor self where I left off. Let's see. Where was it? It seems so long ago and so far away that I can scarce recall it.

"How soon a smile of God can change the world!"

Oh! I remember. The agreement was that you were to quit the rôle of St. Catherine, and condescend to enter a home instead of a settlement; and I was to abjure the vows of a St. Christopher to right at once all the wrongs of the universe by my own right arm, before entertaining the "thought of tender happiness." We were two precious fools, weren't we? Yet it was a divine folly after all. Goethe is right in his doctrine of renunciation. If we had not faced fairly the giving up of all this bliss, it would not be half so sweet to us now. And please don't tell me I have "smashed at one blow all your long cherished ideals of social service." It is not so. The substance of all those social aims of yours is as precious to us both as it ever was: and we will find ways to work them out together. Not one jot or tittle of the loftiest standard you ever set before yourself shall be suffered to pass away unfulfilled. Your aims and aspirations are not lost, but transformed, *aufgehoben*, as the Germans say of the chemical constituents of the soil when they are taken up to form the living tissue of plant or animal.

There is nothing you ever thought of doing in a settlement that we will not do better in our home. We shall not give less to the world, because we are more ourselves. We shall not be less able to comfort those who sorrow, because our own hearts overflow with joy. Because we are rich in each other, we shall not be less generous to all. You shall have all the classes and schools and clubs and meetings you wish; and they will not be the least bit less successful for being in the home of a mill owner in our native city of fifty thousand people, instead of in some neglected quarter of a city ten times as big.

Do you know, father is so delighted with what he calls the "recovery of my reason," that he has promised to build a house for us this fall. We will work up the plans together this summer. One feature of it, though, I have fixed on already; which I know you will approve. Our library will be a long room, with a big fireplace on one side and a cozy den at each end, marked off by an arch supported by pillars. These dens we will fit up with our college books and furniture; and make

them just as nearly like our college rooms as we can. And then in the long winter evenings we will come out of our dens before the fireplace; and you will be my private tutor, and with your patient tuition I shall perhaps get some good after all out of the Horace and Goethe and Shelley and Browning, which you understand and love so well, but which, to tell the truth, I haven't got much out of thus far. Somehow we fellows don't get hold of those things as you do.

Isn't it glorious that my examinations come so that I can get off for your class day and commencement. To be sure, I shall probably forget the fine points in political economy and sociology, in which I have been working for honors the past two years. But then, honors or no honors, I have got the good out of them anyway; and what are honors at the end of college compared with love at the beginning of life.

I am delighted that you are coming to my commencement. My part is a dry, heavy thing; which I don't expect to make interesting to anybody else; but it is intensely interesting to me; for it sums up the inner experience which I have been going through these past four years, and has helped to give me my bearings as I go out into life. My subject is "Naturalness, Selfishness, Self-sacrifice, and Self-realization." You have known me as no one else has all these years, you will see what it all means. You catch the idea.

*First:* We set out as nature has formed and tradition has fashioned us; innocent, susceptible, frail. The hard cruel world comes down upon us, and would crush us under its heavy unintelligible weight.

*Second:* We rise up against it; defy tradition and throw convention to the winds. We in turn strive to trample others under foot. But though we wear spiked shoes, we find the pricks we kick against harder and sharper than our spikes.

*Third:* We surrender, abjectly and unconditionally; cast spear and shield away in the extreme of formal, abstract self-denial, and ascetic, egotistical self-sacrifice. This in turn betrays its hollowness and emptiness and uselessness and unreality.

*Fourth:* The Lord of life, against whom we have been blindly fighting all the while, lifts us up in his strong arms; sets us about the concrete duties of our station; arms us with the strength of definite human duties, and cheers us with the warmth of individual human love; and sends us forth to the social service which to hearts thus fortified is perfect freedom and perennial delight.

Such a process of spiritual transformation I take to be the true significance of a college course. To be sure, in college, as in the great world of which it is a part, none can see the meaning of the earlier phases until they reach the later; and consequently many never see any sense in it at all. For the great majority of men go through college, as the great majority go through life, without getting beyond the first or second stage, and graduate as Matthew Arnold says most men die, "unfreed, having seen nothing, still unblest."

There, Nell, haven't I been as egoistic this time as your altruistic highness could desire?

Your devoted lover,

CLARENCE MANSFIELD.

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LETTERS OF FRIENDSHIP.

20. Letters of friendship are those exchanged by friends.

CHARLES SUMNER TO PROFESSOR SIMON GREENLEAF.

CONVENT OF PALAZZUOLA, July 27, 1889.

MY DEAR FRIEND,—

I wrote you once, I think, from the palace of an English Bishop; this will go to you from a monastery of Franciscans. In Rome, the heat is intense; and the fever-laden airs of the Campagna even enter the city. Here Greene and myself have come to pass a few days—"hermits hoar in solemn cell." An English noble would give a subsidy for such a site as this. In the background is the high mountain which was once dedicated to the Latial Jove, to whom Cicero makes his eloquent appeal in the oration for Milo; and on one side, clearly discernible from my window, is Tusculum, the favorite residence of the great Roman orator. The road over which I passed in coming here is that on which Milo encountered Clodius. The stillness and solemnity that is about me makes every day appear a Sabbath. My companion is the Consul at Rome—a dear friend of Longfellow, and a most delightful and accomplished person. The monks have given us three rooms each, besides the grand hall; each of us has a bedroom, a cabinet, and an ante-chamber. My ante-chamber is vaulted, and covered with arabesques. My other two rooms are painted, so as to resemble the cell of a hermit—the ceiling is arched—and I seem to see the rude stones which the pious man has built in the wilderness; and at my bedside are the beads and the crucifix. The hall is hung with pictures of the most distinguished of the order; and a fresco on the high-vaulted ceiling represents the ascension of St. Francis, its patron. What would these Fathers have said, if they could have foreseen that their retreat was to be occupied by heretics; that the hospitality of their convent was to be extended to those who do not believe in the Pope or St. Francis? You know that this order is one of the most rigid of the Roman Church. They wear neither hats nor stockings, but simply sandals for their feet. The remainder of their dress is a thick, heavy robe, or gown—"Odious! in woolen! 'twould a saint provoke"—which they wear alike in all seasons. They live upon charity. One of their number lately was begging for corn of a farmer, who was treading out with his oxen the summer's harvest. The farmer, in

derision, and as a way of refusing, pointed to a bag which contained a load for three men, and told the monk he was welcome to that, if he would carry it off. The monk invoked St. Francis, stooped and took up the load, and quietly carried it away! The astonished farmer followed him to the convent, and required the return of his corn. His faith was not great enough to see a miracle. It was given up; but the story coming to the ears of the governor of the town, he summarily ordered the restoration of the corn to the convent.

I have amused myself not a little in examining the library here. It consists of about a thousand volumes, all in parchment, and in Latin and Italian. There is one Spanish work, and one German! Our poor language has not a single representative. The monks have looked with astonishment upon the avidity with which I have examined their books; I doubt if they have had such an overhauling for a century. With gloves on, I took down and scanned every book,—a large portion of them I found standing bottom upwards; and as I put them in their places properly (having had some experience in dealing with a library), I think the monks may be gainers by my visit. The librarian told me there were no MSS.; but I found more than a dozen. The work on geography, which seemed to be the standard of the convent in this department of knowledge, spoke of England as divided into seven kingdoms—one of which was Mercia, another Northumberland, etc.; actually going back to the Heptarchy! The English possessions in America were represented as being taken (*tolte*) from Spain; and of these, Bostona was the capital; but the great commercial place of America was Vera Cruz. When I get home, I will tell you what sort of people monks are.

Only a few days ago I received your kind letter of May 17. I deeply appreciate your sympathy in my father's death. Such a relation cannot be severed without awakening the strongest emotions; and though I cannot affect to feel entirely the grief that others have on such a bereavement, yet it has been to me a source of unfeigned sorrow, and has thrown a shadow across my Italian pleasures. In the education of my young brother and sisters I have always interested myself as much as I was allowed to, from the moment in which I had any education myself. I feel anxious to be at home, that I may take upon myself the responsibility which belongs to me as the eldest brother. Remember me to Mrs. Greenleaf, and believe me

Ever affectionately yours,

CHARLES SUMNER.

P. S. ROME, July 28.—I have just received a long letter from my brother George, who has penetrated the interior of Russia, Tartary, Circassia, Bithynia, and is now going to the Holy Land. He has seen more of Russia, I doubt not, than any foreigner alive. He is the most remarkable person of his age I know. Pardon this from a brother.

The following letter from Mrs. Mary Anderson Navarro to Mrs. R. N. Kelly, of Louisville, Ky., a friend of the former actress, is an ideal letter of friendship. It has been said that the true artist often might be an actor, painter, or sculptor, according as the artist willed. Certainly this charming letter indicates that "Our Mary" might have become a great woman of letters if she had not taken to the stage.

COURT FARM, BROADWAY, WORCESTERSHIRE.

MY DEAR OLD FRIEND.—So many thanks for your sweet kind letter . . . . . Surely you are blessed in your children. Elisha, as I remember him, was one of the dearest of boys. May every blessing attend him and his wife. It seems odd that that little fellow should have a wife of his own, for I remember him as a tiny boy.

Yes, Juliet is in the convent in Kensington Square, almost opposite to Thackeray's house, where he wrote "Vanity Fair." She is very happy. No, Blanche is not going on the stage. She is very beautiful and has a lovely voice, but I hope she will not be tempted to the acting stage ever. (Blanche and Juliet are sisters of Mrs. Navarro.)

Yes, if I get over to America again my first pilgrimage will be to my girlhood's home, and how I shall love to see you all and introduce my adored and adorable Tony to you! He grows more charming and loving as the years go on.

I am so distressed to hear that Mr. Charles Jacob is dead. He was such a truly gentle man, and so charming to meet. It would be so lovely if you could run over here to this old-world place and see me some time. I should so love to see your dear, kind face again.

My little boy is now two and a half years old, and so clever for his age. His nurse is German, and he speaks German and English in his pretty prattling way. He is wonderfully affectionate, but he has a will of iron, and sometimes it takes it out of one to curb it, but he is a pure joy to us both.

Here I write and it is a bright Spring day. The snowdrops are out in our garden, and the crocus and daffodils show themselves in the orchard beyond, popping their pretty heads above the fresh, brilliant, green grass.

My own room is a white room, paneled from floor to ceiling in old wood. It has long, low windows, with tiny panes, and its furniture is all of the time of Louis XV, and in it the carpet and curtains are green. The white, green, and gold is so pretty.

Mother and Blanche have just returned from a trip to Germany. Mother is so handsome and so well. Joe has had four children. He has just lost a little girl. (Mary Anderson's brother, who married a daughter of Lawrence Barrett.)

There is a golden canary singing madly in one of the windows as though he would send you a message. Well, no more. Tony joins me in love to you and yours, and I close. Your ever true and loving

MAMIE.

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LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE.

**21.** The following is a letter received from Admiral Dewey by Mrs. Noss, of Mt. Pleasant, whose husband, Jesse Noss, was killed in the battle of Malate, July 31, 1898:

OLYMPIA, FLAGSHIP, MANILA, Oct. 23, 1898.

MY DEAR MRS. NOSS:—I wish to express to you my deepest sympathy. It must lessen your sorrow somewhat to know that your young husband fell fighting bravely for his country, the noblest death a man can know. From the Olympia, I watched the fight that fearful night and wondered how many American homes would be saddened by the martyrdom suffered by our brave men, and my sympathy went out to each and every one of them.

Your loss has been sadder than the others and I am unable to express the sorrow I feel. Tears came to my eyes as I read the sad story of the father who never saw his child and then the loss of all that was left to the brave mother. It is hard sometimes to believe, but our Heavenly Father, in His infinite goodness, always does things best and some day father, mother, and daughter will be joined never again to be parted.

With tenderest sympathy, believe me, your sincere friend,

GEORGE DEWEY.

LETTER WRITTEN BY QUEEN VICTORIA TO LORD SELBORNE  
ON THE DEATH OF HIS WIFE.

It is for you to whom she was so devoted, that I feel so deeply, for to lose the loved companion of one's life is losing half one's existence. From that time everything is different, every event seems to lose its effect, for joy which cannot be shared by those who felt everything with you, is no joy, and sorrow is only redoubled when it cannot be shared and soothed by the one who alone could do so. The longer God has permitted us to remain together, the more acute must be the agony of separation, and I do most sincerely feel for you. No children can replace a wife, or a husband, may they be ever so good and devoted. One must bear one's burden alone.

If Napoleon the First had never written another line but the subjoined letter sent to his mother on the occasion of his

father's death, he would deserve enduring fame as a letter writer:

PARIS, March 29, 1785.

MY DEAR MOTHER:

Now that time has begun to soften the first transports of my sorrow, I hasten to express to you the gratitude I feel for all the kindness you have always displayed toward us. Console yourself, dear mother; circumstances require that you should. We will redouble our care and our gratitude, happy if, by our obedience, we can make up to you in the smallest degree for the inestimable loss of a cherished husband. I finish, dear mother—my grief compels it—by praying you to calm yours. My health is perfect, and my daily prayer is that Heaven may grant you the same.

NAPOLÉONE BUONAPARTE.

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#### LETTERS OF SYMPATHY.

22. Letters of sympathy convey consolation, comfort, and encouragement to friends in peril, distress, trial, or suffering from sickness or loss. "Sympathy is," according to Arthur Helps, "the universal solvent. Nothing is understood without it." Letters of sympathy should by their unselfish generosity bear out this definition.

#### DOLLY MADISON TO HER SISTER ANNA.

MONTPELIER, August 2, 1833.

BELOVED SISTER ANNA,—Mrs. Mason has just written to me to say you are a little better, and those dear daughters of yours, Mary and Dolly, whom I shall ever feel are my own children, have often consoled me by their letters since you were unable to write. Your husband and boys too have written frequently—all in that affectionate feeling towards you which manifested their deep love; and although my heart is sad within me, because I cannot see or assist you in your long and painful sickness, yet am I very thankful to the Almighty for his favors in bestowing such devoted friends as have surrounded your pillow.

My dear husband is recovering, I hope, slowly, though still confined to his bed. He speaks of you to me every day with all the partiality and love of a tender brother, and ardently hopes that we may be long spared to each other.

Mrs. Clay and her husband did not call to see me as we expected. They understood that General Jackson was at Montpelier and passed

on to Governor Barbour's. The next day Mr. Clay came for a few hours, but did not meet the President here. I regretted much not seeing Mrs. Clay, as she would have talked to me of you.

Do, dear sister, strive to get well and strong for my sake and your children's; what should we do without you! As soon as my eyes are well I will write to dear Mrs. B. In the meantime offer her my love and thanks for all her goodness to you.

Adieu, my dear, ever and always,

Your loving sister,

DOLLY P. MADISON.

The late Mr. Gladstone's letters will give him in history a place that his speeches and statesmanship alone could never obtain even for so illustrious an orator and profound a statesman. We make place for one letter from Queen Victoria's greatest Prime Minister, so befitting the man that wrote it, so kindly to the illustrious sufferer stricken down by foulest crime, so tender and so consoling to the amiable recipient of its profound and heartfelt sympathy as to call for no further comment.

RIGHT HONORABLE W. E. GLADSTONE TO MRS. J. A. GARFIELD.

LONDON, July 21, 1881.

DEAR MADAM:

You will, I am sure, excuse me, though a personal stranger, for addressing you by letter to convey to you the assurances of my own feelings and those of my countrymen, on the occasion of the late horrible attempt to murder the President of the United States, in a form more palpable at least than that of messages conveyed by telegraph. Those feelings have been feelings in the first instance of sympathy, and afterwards of joy and thankfulness almost comparable, I venture to say only second to the strong emotions of the great nation of which he is the appointed head. Individually, I have, let me beg you to believe, had my full share in the sentiments which have possessed the British nation. They have been prompted and quickened largely by what I venture to think is the ever-growing sense of harmony and mutual respect and affection between the countries, and of a relationship which from year to year becomes more and more a practical bond of union between us. But they have also drawn much of their strength from a cordial admiration of the simple heroism which has marked the personal conduct of the President, for we have not yet wholly lost the capacity of appreciating such an example of Christian faith and manly fortitude. This exemplary picture has been made complete by your



own contribution to its noble and touching features, on which I only forbear to dwell because I am addressing you. I beg to have my respectful compliments and congratulations conveyed to the President, and to remain, dear madam, your most faithful servant,

W. E. GLADSTONE.

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LETTERS OF GRATITUDE.

**23.** Letters of gratitude are expressions of a due appreciation of favors received, accompanied by good will to the benefactor.

D. S. Gregory, in "Christian Ethics," says "*Gratitude* is the natural response of the heart to kindnesses intended or received. It implies (as a moral sentiment) the desire to show a proper appreciation of the favor, and to requite it if possible."

CAMBRIDGE, November 9, 1873.

DEAR MADAM:

I have had the pleasure of receiving your note and the poems you were kind enough to send me, and beg you to accept my thanks for this mark of your consideration.

These poems I have read with interest and sympathy, and feel how great a comfort it must be to you to be able to occupy the leisure which advancing years bring with them, with the exercise of your talent. If, as you say, you cannot hear the singing of the birds, you will enjoy all the more the sound of the voice that sings within.

Hoping that this consolation may never fail you, I am, Dear Madam,

Yours truly,

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

579 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK.

HON. JERE B. REX, *Chief Clerk*,  
House of Representatives,  
Pennsylvania.

*Dear Sir:*

Will you kindly convey to the members of the Senate and the House of Representatives of the State of Pennsylvania my sincere thanks for their kindness in passing a resolution in recognition of my services to the soldiers of your State during the war?

While I do not feel entitled to the many expressions of appreciation and good will that have come to me since the war with Spain, I am none the less deeply touched by them.

Very truly,

HELEN MILLER GOULD

March 31, 1899.

The following public letter of thanks was written by Rudyard Kipling:

HOTEL GRENOBLE, Easter Day, '99.

*Dear Sir:*

Will you allow me through your columns to attempt some acknowledgment of the wonderful sympathy, affection, and kindness shown towards me during my recent illness, as well as the unfailing courtesy that controlled its expression?

I am not strong enough to answer letters in detail, so I must take this means of thanking as humbly, as sincerely, the countless people of good will throughout the world, who have put me under a great debt I can never hope to repay.

Faithfully yours,

RUDYARD KIPLING.

As a letter writer General Grant was clear, direct, unaffected, but likewise, as occasion demanded, delicate and sympathetic. His letter to General Sherman, written in March, 1864, is a case in point.

*Dear Sherman:*

The bill reviving the grade of Lieutenant-General in the army has become a law, and my name has been sent to the Senate for the place. I now receive orders to report to Washington immediately in person, which indicates a confirmation, or a likelihood of confirmation.

I start in the morning to comply with the order.

Whilst I have been eminently successful in this war, in at least gaining the confidence of the public, no one feels more than I how much of this success is due to the energy and skill, and the harmonious putting forth of that energy and skill, of those whom it has been my good fortune to have occupying subordinate positions under me.

There are many officers to whom these remarks are applicable to a greater or less degree, proportionate to their ability as soldiers: but what I want is to express my thanks to you and McPherson, as the men to whom, above all others, I feel indebted for whatever I have had of success.

How far your advice and assistance have been of help to me you know. How far your execution of whatever has been given you to do entitles you to the reward I am receiving, you cannot know as well as I.

I feel all the gratitude this letter would express, giving it the most flattering construction.

The word *you* I use in the plural, intending it for McPherson also.

I should write to him, and will some day: but, starting in the morning, I do not know that I will find time.

Your friend,

U. S. GRANT,

*Major-General.*

How truly unselfish this letter of a truly modest yet illustrious man. Thoughtful sympathy and earnest gratitude run through its every line. Grant speaks, indeed, of his success, but see how he generously attributes it, in a very large measure, to the energy and skill of his subordinates, especially Generals Sherman and McPherson. How expressively tender the assurance that he feels all the gratitude his letter under the most flattering construction could convey. No one can read such a letter, written at a time when success and adulation would have turned the brain of a weak and hardened the heart of a selfish man, without recognizing the true greatness of soul that enabled Grant to achieve such success in the field, and then, in the Chief Magistracy of the Nation, heal so many of the wounds inflicted by a cruel internecine conflict.

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LETTERS OF EARNEST GOOD COUNSEL.

24. Letters of earnest good counsel may be addressed by parents to children, by brother to brother, by friend to friend, by superior to inferior.

MR. WEBSTER TO MASTER DANIEL WEBSTER.

WASHINGTON, March 6, 1848.

MY DEAR GRANDSON:

Your father writes me from time to time, informing your grandmother and myself of the health of the family. But I wish to hear oftener, and to know more of you. You are now ceasing to be a mere child. You are ten years old, and it is time that you turned your attention seriously to your books, as I presume you do. It is time you should write me every week, and give me an account of your studies.

You must now, my dear namesake and grandson, think less of play and childish sports, and begin to pursue manly objects. I hear no

complaint of you, and believe you are doing very well. I expect to find you when I see you next, not a mere child, thinking of nothing but play and amusements; but a manly boy, fond of the company and conversation of your father and mother, and laboring to improve your mind.

Two or three things I wish now to impress on your mind. First, you cannot learn without your own efforts. All the teachers in the world can never make a scholar of you, if you do not apply yourself with all your might.

In the second place, be of good character, and good behavior; a boy of strict truth, and honor, and conscience in all things. Have but one rule, and let that be, always to act right, and fear nothing but to do wrong.

Finally, "Remember your Creator, in the days of your youth." You are old enough to know that God has made you, and given you a mind, and faculties; and will surely call you to account.

Honor and obey your parents; love your sister and brother; be gentle and kind to all; avoid all peevishness and fretfulness; be patient under restraint, and when you cannot have what you wish.

Look forward, constantly, to your approaching manhood, and put off every day, more and more, all that is frivolous and childish. Providence has taken from us your dear uncle Edward, in the full vigor of his life. It is an awful affliction to us all; but we must submit to the will of God.

Now, you must see how soon you can become what he was, a companion to your father and mother, and a comfort to us all.

May Heaven bless you, my dear grandson, and may you continue an object of warm affection to all your family connections, and all your friends.

Your affectionate grandfather,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

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#### LETTERS OF SPECIAL REQUEST.

**25.** Letters of special request are those addressed by one friend to another, asking for the grant of some particular kindness, consideration, or favor.

GEORGE CRABBE TO EDMUND BURKE, ESQ.

SIR.—I am sensible that I need even your talents to apologize for the freedom I now take; but I have a plea which, however simply urged, will, with a mind like yours, sir, procure me a pardon; I am one of those outcasts of the world, who are without a friend, without employment, without bread.

Pardon me a short preface. I had a partial father, who gave me a better education than his broken fortune would have allowed; and a better than was necessary, as he could give me that only. I was designed for the profession of physic; but not having wherewithal to complete the requisite studies, the design that served to convince me of a parent's affection, and the error it had occasioned. In April last I came to London, with three pounds, and flattered myself that this would be sufficient to supply me with the common necessaries of life, till my abilities should procure me more; of these I had the highest opinion, and a poetical vanity contributed to my delusion. I knew little of the world, and had read books only; I wrote, and fancied perfection in my compositions; when I wanted bread they promised me affluence, and soothed me with dreams of reputation, whilst my appearance subjected me to contempt.

Time, reflection, and want, have shown me my mistake. I see my trifles in that which I think the true light; and, whilst I deem them such, have yet the opinion that holds them superior to the common run of poetical publications.

I had some knowledge of the late Mr. Nassau, the brother of Lord Rochford: in consequence of which, I asked his lordship's permission to inscribe my little work to him. Knowing it to be free from all political allusions and personal abuse, it was no very material point to me to whom it was dedicated. His lordship thought it none to him, and obligingly consented to my request.

I was told that a subscription would be the more profitable method with me, and, therefore, endeavored to circulate copies of the inclosed proposals.

I am afraid, sir, I disgust you with this very dull narrative, but believe me punished in the misery that occasions it. You will conclude that, during this time, I must have been at more expense than I could afford; indeed, the most parsimonious could not have afforded it. The printer deceived me, and my little business has had every delay. The people with whom I live perceive my situation, and find me to be indigent and without friends. About ten days since, I was compelled to give a note of seven pounds, to avoid an arrest for about double that sum, which I owe. I wrote to every friend that I had, but my friends are poor likewise; the time of payment approached, and I ventured to represent my case to Lord Rochford. I begged to be credited for this sum till I received it of my subscribers, which, I believe, will be within one month; but to this letter I had no reply, and I have probably offended by my importunity. Having used every honest means in vain, I yesterday confessed my inability, and obtained, with much entreaty, and as the greatest favor, a week's forbearance, when I am positively told that I must pay the money, or prepare for a prison.

You will guess the purpose of so long an introduction. I appeal to you, sir, as a good, and, let me add, a great man. I have no better

pretensions to your favor than that I am an unhappy one. It is not easy to support the thought of confinement, and I am coward enough to dread such an end to my suspense.

Can you, sir, in any degree, aid me with propriety? Will you ask any demonstrations of my veracity? I have imposed upon myself, but I have been guilty of no other imposition. Let me, if possible, interest your compassion. I know those of rank and fortune are teased with frequent petitions, and are compelled to refuse the requests even of those whom they know to be in distress; it is, therefore, with a distant hope I ventured to solicit such favor; but you will forgive me, sir, if you do not think proper to relieve. It is impossible that sentiments like yours can proceed from any but a humane and generous heart.

I will call upon you, sir, tomorrow, and if I have not the happiness to obtain credit with you, I must submit to my fate. My existence is a pain to myself, and every one near and dear to me are distressed in my distresses. My connections, once the source of happiness, now embitter the reverse of my fortune, and I have only to hope a speedy end to a life so unpromisingly begun; in which (though it ought not to be boasted of) I can reap some consolation from looking to the end of it. I am, sir, with the greatest respect, your obedient and most humble servant,

GEORGE CRABBE.

#### LETTERS OF INQUIRY.

**26.** Letters of inquiry are frequently interchanged among friends. They may deal with persons, with politics, with historical events, or with science and art. These letters cover a very comprehensive field.

SPRINGFIELD, ILLINOIS, October 26, 1860.

MAJOR DAVID HUNTER.

*My dear Sir:*—Your very kind letter of the 20th was duly received, for which please accept my thanks. I have another letter, from a writer unknown to me, saying the officers of the army at Fort Kearney have determined, in case of the Republican success, at the approaching Presidential election, to take themselves, and the arms at that point, South, for the purpose of resistance to the government. While I think there are many chances to one that this is a humbug, it occurs to me that any real movement of this sort in the army would leak out and become known to you. In such case, if it would not be unprofessional or dishonorable (of which you are to be judge), I shall be much obliged if you will apprise me of it.

Yours very truly,

MAJOR DAVID HUNTER,  
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

A. LINCOLN.

## LETTERS OF NARRATIVE.

27. The following letter written by Sir Henry Bessemer, the famous inventor of the Bessemer process of making steel, to his niece Mrs. Charles Allen, may be classed as a letter of narrative.

DENMARK HILL, LONDON, S. W., March 31, 1897.

*My Dear Niece:* Allow me to thank you very much for the most interesting specimen of embossing in Utrecht velvet which you have been so kind as to send me ; it brings back old remembrances that will be for ever dear to me.

My sister was an artist with more than average ability in water-color drawing, and excelled greatly in the art of embroidery in silk, and in due course was appointed embroideress to the Princess Victoria before she became Queen.

It is rather curious that I seemed born with an instinctive taste for designing patterns, and when I reflect on my natural aptitude for mechanical inventions, this old power of designing foliage, and flowers, but more especially grotesque ideal scroll work and foliage, it seems to me to have been a sort of faculty of inventing unseen forms in almost endless variety, and when I was only eighteen, I designed for one year the principal Indian patterns for the great Indian silk merchants Everingtons of Ludgate-Hill. It is a curious fact in connection with your friend's letter that I designed the patterns embroidered by my sister, in the draperies of the beautiful cradle of her Gracious Majesty's first infant, at which early period I had the honor to be an exhibitor, together with my sister, at the Royal Academy, then held at Somerset House in the Strand.

My sister had made a great number of flower paintings which she put together in a portfolio she had made, and on which she asked me to write in bold printing letters, "Studies of Flowers from Nature by Annie Bessemer." This little incident shaped my whole future life. I thought I would write the inscription in gold letters, and ordered two ounces of bronze powder (called also gold powder) but which is really only a beautiful fine brass, intrinsically worth eight pence per pound. I was charged fourteen shillings for my two ounces of brass powder, with the result that a material known and used in China and Japan for more than 1,000 years, was still made by a roundabout hand process, hence its great cost. I invented an elaborate series of self-acting machines and manufactured it successfully. My first order was obtained by my traveller, from the Colebrookdale Iron Company, for two pounds at eighty shillings per pound net. I kept the process a profound secret for about thirty-six years; it furnished me the money necessary for pursuing my many patented inventions, and then the secret leaked out, prices went down and down until I was selling the

same article for which I had eighty shillings a pound, as low as two shillings and ninepence, when I gave up the manufacture.

But I am letting my pen run away with me, and forgetting all about Utrecht velvet. Between forty and fifty years ago, I was exhibiting some specimens of castings from natural objects, cast in white metal and which were coated by a thin film of copper deposited thereon from an acid solution of that metal. The Exhibition was known as "Toblisses'" Museum of Arts and Manufacture, which occupied the site of the present National Gallery in Trafalgar Square.

These specimens were seen and admired by Mr. Pratt, an upholsterer in Bond Street, and he sought me out, showing me a beautiful piece of velvet work of French manufacture; he proposed to produce a similar effect by embossing Utrecht velvet. He had tried the embossers of cotton velvet at Manchester, but they had utterly failed. This stubborn pile would not keep down, and the pattern was all gone in a few weeks.

I studied the question both from a chemical and a mechanical point of view, made some experiments, and found that my plan was successful. The simple fact is that wool, like the hair of all animals, partakes of the property of horn, and is fusible by heat, but that high temperature is destructive if continued for more than a second of time, and my rollers would burn the whole fabric if worked too slowly. There were many details to work out, and when that was done I constructed the necessary machinery at my own cost, and managed to have six shillings a yard for all the velvet I passed through the machine. The first work done by the machine was for the furnishing of a suite of rooms in Windsor castle. With this good introduction the material became popular and fashionable, and I may add profitable. I increased the demand by lowering the price, and when it got down to one shilling per yard, I sold the machinery to a manufacturer of Utrecht velvet, at Danbury; the price eventually came down to twopence per yard, and then omnibusses and cabs were lined with it. My great difficulty was, I could find no one capable of preparing the rolls, and had, as a last resource, to do it myself. . . . .

Your affectionate uncle,

HENRY BESSEMER.

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#### LETTERS OF CENSURE.

**28.** Letters of censure are, in social life, best omitted. A father or mother may, however, sometimes be justly called on to reprove a son with the view to his improvement; so too may a superior admonish an inferior. Still more rarely may a friend tender his friend a letter of charitable



disapproval. The care, delicacy, and kindness that must characterize these letters may be at once discerned from Browne's "Religio Medici," where we read: "No man can justly *censure* or condemn another; because, indeed, no man truly knows another."

BUFFALO, N. Y.,

May 3, 1899.

MY DEAR SON:

I have learned with regret that you have seen fit to associate yourself in business with a man whose reputation, business and personal, is open to doubt and question.

Had you taken advice before entering on so hazardous an experiment you would have done your duty, not only by your family but by yourself.

Meantime accept very best wishes from

Your father,

WILLIAM HAVENS.

The following letter from the pen of Abraham Lincoln, while perhaps not strictly a letter of censure, may be included under this head.

EXECUTIVE MANSION,

WASHINGTON, Dec. 31, 1861.

MAJOR-GENERAL HUNTER.

*Dear Sir* :—Yours of the 23d is received and I am constrained to say it is difficult to answer so ugly a letter in good temper. I am, as you intimate, losing much of the great confidence I placed in you, not from any act of omission of yours touching the public service, up to the time you were sent to Leavenworth, but from the flood of grumbling despatches and letters I have seen from you since. I knew you were being ordered to Leavenworth at the time it was done; and I aver that with as tender regard for your honor and your sensibilities as I had for my own, it never occurred to me that you were being "humiliated, insulted, and disgraced"; nor have I, up to this day, heard an intimation that you have been wronged, coming from any one but yourself—no one has blamed you for the retrograde movement from Springfield, nor for the information you gave to General Cameron; and this you could readily understand, if it were not for your unwarranted assumption that the ordering you to Leavenworth must necessarily have been done as a *punishment* for some *fault*. I thought then, and think yet, the position assigned to you is as responsible, and as honorable, as that assigned to Buell—I know that General McClellan expected more important results from it. My impression is that at the time you were

assigned to the new Western Department, it had not been determined to replace General Sherman in Kentucky; but of this I am not certain, because the idea that a command in Kentucky was very desirable, and one in the farther West undesirable, had never occurred to me. You constantly speak of being placed in command of only 8,000—now tell me, is not this mere impatience? Have you not known all the while that you are to command four or five times as many?

I have been, and am sincerely your friend; and if as such, I dare make a suggestion, I would say you are adopting the best possible way to ruin yourself. "Act well your part, there all the honor lies." He who does *something* at the head of one regiment, will eclipse him who does *nothing* at the head of a hundred.

Your friend as ever,

A. LINCOLN.

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#### LETTERS OF INVITATION, ACCEPTANCE, AND REGRET.

**29.** Invitations to dinners, receptions, etc. are usually conveyed by notes (seq. Art. **30**). There are cases, however, in which letters may properly be used. Take the case exemplified by the first of the following letters: Mr. Matheson feels that his guest Colonel Lee would find Mr. Graham a congenial associate and wishes to invite the latter to dinner. He is not particularly intimate with Mr. Graham, and cannot therefore write a familiar note, beginning with "Dear Graham"; on the other hand, a formal note in the third person would be too ceremonious and stiff. The writer therefore resorts to the ordinary letter. The acceptance or letter of regret has of course the same form as the letter of invitation.

#### LETTER OF INVITATION.

15 COURT STREET,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.,

March 17, 1890.

HUGH GRAHAM, ESQ.,

New York City.

*My Dear Sir:*

My friend, Colonel Lee, of Virginia, is now visiting me, and I am very anxious that you should meet him.

We shall esteem it a great favor if Mrs. Graham and yourself do us the honor to come to dine next Thursday evening at 7 o'clock.

Very sincerely yours,

ROBERT MATHESON.

## LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.

540 MADISON AVENUE,  
NEW YORK CITY,  
March 18, 1899.

ROBERT MATHESON, ESQ.,  
Brooklyn, N. Y.

*My Dear Sir:*

Your kind favor of the 17th inst. I have received, and acknowledge with hearty thanks. I shall be glad, indeed, to meet your friend, Colonel Lee, of whom I have so long and favorably heard.

Mrs. Graham and myself gratefully accept your invitation to dinner on Thursday evening next.

Very truly yours,  
HUGH GRAHAM.

## LETTERS OF REGRET.

15 VERMONT AVENUE,  
WASHINGTON, D. C.,  
Mar. 17, 1899.

THE HONORABLE HOMER DICKSON, M. C.,  
Arlington Hotel.

*My Dear Sir:*

I beg to acknowledge with hearty thanks the receipt of your very kind invitation to dinner for Wednesday evening next, which reached me Saturday. I had hoped to do myself the honor of accepting this invitation, and to have the pleasure of enjoying an evening at your hospitable and intellectual board.

An unexpected call to Philadelphia, however, obliges me, reluctantly, to write that it will be impossible for me to attend.

I have the honor to be, dear Sir, with much respect,

Very faithfully yours,  
F. B. STRATTON.

*From the Poet Longfellow.*

MY DEAR SIR:

I fear that, after all, I shall not be able to attend Mr. Lover's dinner. I will be entirely frank with you: I am frightened at the idea of having to speak, which at all public dinners hangs over me like the sword of Damocles. It is this skeleton at the feast that warns me away.

My warmest thanks, however, for your invitation; and believe me,  
Very truly yours,

October 2, 1846.

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

## NOTES AND CARDS.

## PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

**30. Definition.**—A *note* is essentially a short letter conveying from one person to another in the same city, town, or neighborhood the writer's wishes or compliments.

Notes differ from ordinary letters in being more formal and in being written usually in the third person.

**31. Materials.**—The paper and envelopes used for notes should be of the best quality. It is customary to use only very thick paper. As regards color, white is always in good taste, but delicate tints are permissible.

The size and style of paper and envelopes change like the fashion; what is correct one year may be out of date the next. Invitations to parties, weddings, etc. are generally enclosed in two envelopes; the inside envelope of the same quality as the paper, the outside one not so fine. The full post-office address is written on the outer envelope, and the name or names of those invited on the inner envelope. Answers to invitations do not require two envelopes, nor do personal or private notes.

**32. Caution.**—To write a note wholly in the third person is sometimes a difficult task, the writer being prone to change from the third to the first person. An inexperienced person might write:

“Mr. Edwards presents his compliments and requests the pleasure of Miss Smith's company to the theater this evening. I will call at 8 o'clock.”

Note the change from the third person “Mr. Edwards” to the first person “I.” This is a point that must be looked after in writing notes in the third person.

**33. Signature and Date.**—A formal note, being in the third person, has no signature. The date of a formal note is usually placed at the bottom, though it is allowable

to place it at the top. Notes in the familiar form may quite properly have the date at the top.

**34. French Phrases.**—The following French phrases and words, or their initials, are sometimes used on notes and cards:

*R. S. V. P. Répondez, s'il vous plait*—answer, if you please.

*P. P. C. Pour prendre congé*—to take leave.

*Costume de riguer*—full dress, in character.

*Bal masque*—masquerade ball.

*Soiree dansante*—dancing party.

These phrases are, however, passing out of use.

**35. Superscription.**—The envelope—or if there are two envelopes, the inside one—should bear only the name of the party addressed. This applies to notes of invitation, and in general to notes sent by messenger. Notes to persons living in another city—or locality—may be sent by mail like letters. In this case the full address is put on the outer envelope and only the name and title on the inner envelope. A note to a married couple may have the names of both for the superscription; as, *Mr. and Mrs. Robert Dunlap*. When, however, both names are mentioned in the note, it is quite customary to put only the wife's name on the envelope.

Familiar notes are in effect short letters, and are superscribed like ordinary letters, when sent by mail.

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#### INVITATIONS.

**36. Notes of Invitation.**—These include invitations to *dinners*, to *weddings*, to *balls* and *social parties*, to *college* and *society anniversaries*, and to many other social functions.

**37. Dinners.**—An invitation to a dinner should contain the name of the person for whom the invitation is intended and should state very clearly the date and hour of the dinner. The invitation may be either written or printed.

Invitations to dinner should always be answered, as it is

necessary for the host or hostess to know the number of persons that will be present.

We give some forms for dinner invitations:

Mr. James E. Colvin requests the pleasure of Mr. E. Howard Sloan's company at dinner, on Wednesday evening, June 28, at eight o'clock.  
410 Griswold Ave.

Mr. and Mrs. Cavendish have the honor of inviting  
Mr. and Mrs. Lansing Lewis to dinner, Saturday,  
February 11, 1899, at seven o'clock p. m.

**38. Wedding Invitations.**—Invitations to weddings should be issued ten days or more before the ceremony, by the bride's parents or nearest friend. They may be engraved in script, written, or printed from type on cards or note paper. The note form is preferable for an invitation of this kind. The form of invitation following does not require an answer. The invitation is usually accompanied by a church admission card; sometimes a reception card is also sent with it.

Mr. and Mrs. L. O. Price  
request your presence  
at the marriage of their daughter  
Winifred Davis  
to  
Andrew Jackson Houston,  
Friday Evening, April sixth,  
Eighteen Hundred and Ninety-Nine.  
New Orleans, La.

**39. Announcement.**—A wedding announcement may have the following form:

Mr. Samuel E. Denton,  
Miss Mary Folmer  
Married  
Wednesday, June fourteenth, 1899.  
At home after July twelfth,  
433 Madison Ave.

Another method is to have merely the announcement written or engraved on the note sheet and the "at home" on a card, as follows:

Mr. and Mrs. Samuel E. Denton  
At home after July 12,  
433 Madison Ave.

**40. Invitations to Parties.**—The following notes will serve as models for invitations to parties, balls, etc.

1.

Mr. and Mrs. M. W. Storey request the pleasure of Miss Estey's company on Thursday evening, March 8, at eight o'clock.

2.

Mr. and Mrs. E. F. Payne request the pleasure of your company on Tuesday evening, October 22, from eight to eleven o'clock, to meet Colonel and Mrs. Harding.  
1627 Spruce St.

3.

Mr. and Mrs. A. Barton request the honor of your company to celebrate the fifteenth birthday of their daughter Agnes, on Monday evening, November 22.

4.

The pleasure of your company is requested at the  
Junior Promenade  
on Friday evening, May 15, at nine o'clock.  
The Armory.

**41. Familiar Notes.**—Between intimate friends the formality of the third person is often dropped and the style of the familiar letter is used; thus:

DEAR JOHN,

Frank is to be here this evening. Can you not come too?

CHARLES.

DEAR ALICE,

We are getting up a little party to go to the lake Friday afternoon. Will you not join us? If you will go, we will call for you at one o'clock. Try to go.

Your friend,

SARAH.

Please answer by bearer.

**42. Miscellaneous Notes of Invitation.**—The following are notes appropriate for various occasions, not included among those previously given:

AT HOME, June 4.

Miss Williams presents her love to Miss Thompson, and requests the pleasure of her company at an evening social, on Monday, the 10th instant.

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Yourself and family are respectfully invited to attend the funeral of

Mr. Thomas Horton

from the family residence, 802 Green St., on Friday, the 14th inst., at ten o'clock A. M.

Interment in Avondale Cemetery.

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The Class of '97  
of the  
University of Illinois  
invite you to be present  
at their  
Commencement Exercises  
June fourth to ninth,  
1897.

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#### ACCEPTANCES AND REGRETS.

**43.** Except in the case of dinners, it is not necessary to send an acceptance to an invitation to an entertainment unless the invitation contains a specific request for an answer. A *regret*, that is, a non-acceptance, must be sent in case one is unable to attend.

An invitation to a dinner should be answered at once. Other invitations requiring an answer should be answered within three days of the receipt of the invitation. If a person finds at the last moment that he cannot attend, a regret should be sent the day after the party.

The style of the acceptance or regret should correspond somewhat to the style of the invitation. A formal note demands a formal answer, a familiar note a familiar answer.

Notes of acceptance and regret should be written.

**44. Models.**—The following forms of acceptances and regrets are in answer to the preceding invitations.



1.

Mr. E. Howard Sloan accepts with pleasure Mr. Colvin's kind invitation for Wednesday evening, June 28th.

Friday, June 23d.

2.

Mr. Sloan regrets that, owing to a business engagement, he is unable to accept Mr. Colvin's kind invitation for Wednesday evening.

Friday, June 23d.

3.

MY DEAR SARAH:

I shall be greatly pleased to form one of your party for Friday afternoon, and will be ready at the appointed time.

Ever yours,

ALICE.

4.

Miss Thompson accepts with pleasure the charming invitation of Miss Williams for Monday evening next.

515 Madison Ave., June 8.

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#### MISCELLANEOUS NOTES.

**45.** Notes are chiefly used in matters of ceremony, as invitations, etc. They may, however, be used under other circumstances, as illustrated by the following:

Will Mr. Snow kindly lend Miss Saunders, for the afternoon, his copy of "Harper's Magazine" for June?

June 6th.

Mr. Hudson, having business of special importance to communicate, will be glad if Mr. Artley can make it convenient to call on him at two o'clock this afternoon.

1305 California Avenue,

Saturday, May 17.

#### ADMIRAL THE EARL OF HARDWICK TO ADMIRAL FARRAGUT.

13th July, SIDNEY LODGE.

Admiral the Earl of Hardwick presents his compliments to Admiral Farragut, and begs to say that he is now resident at the above address. He is lame, and has difficulty in boarding ship, or he would wait in

person on Admiral Farragut. The Earl of Hardwick hopes that he may be able in some way to gain Admiral Farragut's friendship.

ADMIRAL FARRAGUT, U. S. Navy.

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#### CARDS OF CEREMONY.

**46.** Cards are sometimes used instead of notes to convey invitations to social functions, as weddings, receptions, etc. Cards thus used are classed as *cards of ceremony*.

The forms of invitations previously given for notes, with the exception, of course, of the familiar form, are equally applicable to cards. It is therefore unnecessary to give other models.

In order that the written or printed matter may not appear crowded, cards of ceremony are necessarily quite large. The usual size is about 3 in.  $\times$  4 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. or 3 $\frac{1}{2}$  in.  $\times$  5 in. The cards should be of the finest quality of cardboard. The color is usually white.

Cards of ceremony, like notes, may be enclosed in either one or two envelopes, depending on the circumstances of the delivery. The remarks we have made regarding the superscription and delivery of notes apply also to cards.

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#### BUSINESS, PROFESSIONAL, AND OFFICIAL CARDS.

**47.** Business men use cards to show the business in which they are engaged and to give their address. They are generally used as a matter of convenience, although they may be used for advertising purposes.

Cards are also used by professional men and public officers for professional and official purposes. Such cards should contain the person's name and professional or official title; the address may or may not be added.

Business and professional cards may be printed with ordinary type, but are usually printed from handsomely engraved plates. They should always be plain, neat, and tasteful.

The following are forms generally used:

HAVEN & STOUT,  
1 NASSAU STREET, CORNER WALL ST.

Members of { NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE.  
NEW YORK COTTON EXCHANGE.  
CHICAGO BOARD OF TRADE.

Orders executed on above Exchanges in  
BONDS, STOCKS, COTTON, GRAIN.

HENRY W. WILMER, CONSULTING ENGINEER,

1812 MONADNOCK BUILDING,

Waterworks, Sewerage, and  
Municipal Engineering.

CHICAGO, ILL.

ALBERT O. EVERHART,

MAGISTRATE OF COURT No. 8,

418 South Eleventh Street,

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

**VISITING CARDS.**

**48. Uses.**—Among the many uses to which visiting cards are put, we mention the following: to announce a visitor's name; to announce a guest's name at a reception; to make one's name known to a stranger; to accompany a letter of introduction.

There are many customs and rules regarding the proper use of visiting cards for various occasions and under various circumstances; a discussion of these points would, however, fall outside of the scope of this Paper.

**49. Inscription.**—In addition to the name, the residence may also be given in the lower right or left corner. If a lady has a regular day or days for receiving, she sometimes announces this in the lower left corner; as, "Wednesdays," or "Thursdays and Fridays," etc.

A title of address, as Mr., Mrs., may be used or not, according to the taste of a person. Professional men and persons in high official positions, use their professional titles; as, Dr., Gen., M.D., C.E., etc. One should not use the title Honorable, or any scholastic title, unless it is at the same time professional. A man and his wife sometimes use a joint card; as, "Mr. and Mrs. Smith," "Dr. and Mrs. H. A. Brown," etc.

A married lady, if her husband is living, uses her husband's Christian name or initials instead of her own; as, "Mrs. James A. Brown."

**50. Style.**—Visiting cards vary in style and size to suit the taste and changing fashions. They should always be plain and neat. The most elegant cards are engraved or written; those printed from type have an inferior look and are not much used by people of refined taste.

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**PUBLIC LETTERS.**

**51. Public, or open, letters** may be a communication from a regular newspaper correspondent narrating certain phases, for instance, of the war with Spain, the political and

social conditions of the Philippine Islands, the condition of the negro in the South, or such like matters of grave public interest; or, again, the open letter may be one discussing questions of public policy, addressed to the public at large, or to some private individual of recognized importance in the community in which he lives.

**52.** Open letters have played a great part in American history. The spirit of revolt that Congress had, at the close of the Revolutionary War, by criminal neglect, engendered in the army against the greatly-abused powers of Congress, soon degenerated from open hostility to that body into a covert, yet decided, antagonism to the republican system itself. "This antagonism ran," says "Peterson's Magazine," "throughout the rank and file of the whole Continental line and even extended to the militia in the Northern States.

"From brooding over their wrongs, the great body of the officers of the army took counsel together, for the purpose of overthrowing the authority by which those wrongs were inflicted, and in the bitterness of their resentment so far forgot their duty as citizens, and their solemn oaths of allegiance as American soldiers, that they determined to pull down the temple of Liberty reared by their valor and fortitude, and erect a monarchy upon its ruins. Their proposed plan of establishing an elective kingdom depended for its successful execution upon Washington's acceptance of the crown as king of America. All the cohesion that it possessed, and the bond of union among those who supported it, rested upon the hope that they would convince him that the true welfare of the country would be best promoted by such a change in the system of government as would lodge the power of the nation in the hands of a single wise and just ruler. Colonel Lewis Nicola, of the Pennsylvania line, to whom Washington was strongly attached, a most worthy officer, distinguished for the highest soldierly qualities, and of unimpeachable moral character, was appointed by them to submit their proposal to him in the name of the army.

“He presented it to Washington in a regular document, at his headquarters, which were then at Fishkill-on-the-Hudson, in the house of David Verplanck, a one-story building of wood and stone in the Dutch style, which is still well preserved. Colonel Nicola very prudently retired as soon as he presented the document, his curiosity to observe its effect upon Washington not being so strong as his concern about its effect on himself, should he remain to witness its perusal.

“That he acted wisely in retiring was made manifest by the following answer sent him by Washington on the same day:

“TO COLONEL LEWIS NICOLA.

“*Sir*.—With a mixture of surprise and indignation I have read with attention the sentiments you have submitted to my perusal.

“Be assured, sir, no occurrence in the course of the war has given me more painful sensations than your information of their being such ideas existing in the army as you have expressed, which I must view with abhorrence, and reprehend with severity. For the present the communication of them will rest in my own bosom, unless some further agitation of the matter shall make a disclosure necessary.

“I am much at a loss to conceive what part of my conduct could have given encouragement to an address which seems to me big with the greatest mischiefs that can befall my country. If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself, you could not have found a person to whom your schemes are more disagreeable.

“At the same time, in justice to my own feelings, I must add, that no man possesses a more sincere wish to see justice done to the army than I do; and as far as my power and influence in a constitutional way extend, they shall be employed to the utmost of my abilities to effect it, should there be any occasion.

“Let me conjure you then, if you have any regard for your country, concern for yourself or posterity, or respect for me, to banish these thoughts from your mind, and never communicate as from yourself, or any one else, a sentiment of the like nature.

“GEORGE WASHINGTON.”

**53.** Abraham Lincoln was perhaps in no respect more powerful and persuasive than as a letter writer. Here is a model letter from his pen :

WASHINGTON, August 26, 1863.

DEAR SIR :

Your letter, inviting me to attend a mass meeting of unconditional Union men, to be held at the capital of Illinois on the 8d day of September, has been received. It would be very agreeable to me to thus meet my old friends at my own home, but I cannot just now be absent from here so long as a visit there would require.

The meeting is to be of all those who maintain unconditional devotion to the Union, and I am sure my old political friends will thank me for tendering, as I do, the nation's gratitude to those other noble men whom no partisan malice or partisan hope can make false to the nation's life.

There are those who are dissatisfied with me. To such I would say: You desire peace, and you blame me that we do not have it. But how can we attain it? There are but three conceivable ways. First, to suppress the rebellion by force of arms. This I am trying to do. Are you for it? If you are, so far we are agreed. If you are not for it, a second way is to give up the Union. I am against this. Are you for it? If you are, you should say so plainly. If you are not for force, nor yet for dissolution, there only remains some imaginable compromise.

I do not believe any compromise embracing the maintenance of the Union is now possible. All I learn leads to a directly opposite belief. The strength of the rebellion is its military—its army. That army dominates all the country and all the people within its range. Any offer of terms made by any man or men within that range, in opposition to that army, is simply nothing for the present, because such man or men have no power whatever to enforce their side of a compromise if one were made with them.

To illustrate: Suppose refugees from the South and peace men of the North get together in convention and frame and proclaim a compromise embracing a restoration of the Union; in what way can that compromise be used to keep Lee's army out of Pennsylvania? Meade's army can keep Lee's army out of Pennsylvania, and I think can ultimately drive it out of existence. But no paper compromise to which the controllers of Lee's army are not agreed can at all effect that army. In effort at such compromise we should waste time which the enemy would improve to our disadvantage, and that would be all.

A compromise, to be effective, must be made either with those who control the rebel army, or with the people first liberated from the domination of that army by the success of our own army. Now, allow me to assure you that no word or intimation from that rebel army, or from any of the men controlling it, in relation to any peace compromise, has ever come to my knowledge or belief. All charges and insinuations to the contrary are deceptive and groundless. And I promise you that if any such proposition shall hereafter come, it shall not be rejected and kept a secret from you. I freely acknowledge myself the servant of

the people according to the bond of service—the United States Constitution—and that as such I am responsible to them.

But, to be plain, you are dissatisfied with me about the negro. Quite likely there is a difference of opinion between you and myself upon that subject. I certainly wish all men could be free, while I suppose you do not. Yet I have neither adopted nor proposed any measure which is not consistent with even your view, provided you are for the Union. I suggested compensated emancipation, to which you replied you wished not to be taxed to buy negroes. But I had not asked you to be taxed to buy negroes, except in such way as to save you from greater taxation to save the Union exclusively by other means.

You dislike the Emancipation Proclamation, and perhaps would have it retracted. You say it is unconstitutional. I think differently. I think the Constitution invests its commander-in-chief with the law of war in time of war. The most that can be said—if so much—is that slaves are property. Is there, has there ever been, any question that by the law of war, property, both of enemies and friends, may be taken when needed? And is it not needed whenever taking it helps us or hurts the enemy? Armies, the world over, destroy enemies' property when they cannot use it, and even destroy their own to keep it from the enemy. Civilized belligerents do all in their power to help themselves or hurt the enemy, except a few things regarded as barbarous or cruel. Among the exceptions are the massacre of vanquished foes and non-combatants, male and female.

But the proclamation, as law, either is valid or is not valid. If it is not valid it needs no retraction. If it is valid it cannot be retracted, any more than the dead can be brought to life. Some of you profess to think its retraction would operate favorably for the Union. Why better after the retraction than before the issue? There was more than a year and a half of trial to suppress the rebellion before the proclamation issued, the last one hundred days of which passed under an explicit notice that it was coming, unless averted by those in revolt returning to their allegiance. The war has certainly progressed as favorably for us since the issue of the proclamation as before.

I know, as fully as one can know the opinion of others, that some of the commanders of our armies in the field, who have given us our most important successes, believe the emancipation policy and the use of the colored troops constitute the heaviest blow yet dealt to the rebellion, and that at least one of these important successes could not have been achieved when it was but for the aid of black soldiers. Among the commanders holding these views are some who have never had any affinity with what is called "Abolitionism" or with "Republican party politics," but who hold them purely as military opinions. I submit these opinions as being entitled to some weight against the objections often urged that emancipation and arming the blacks are unwise as military measures, and were not adopted as such in good faith.



You say you will not fight to free negroes. Some of them seem willing to fight for you—but no matter. Fight you, then, exclusively to save the Union. I issued the proclamation on purpose to aid you in saving the Union. Whenever you shall have conquered all resistance to the Union, if I shall urge you to continue fighting, it will be an apt time then for you to declare you will not fight to free negroes. I thought that in our struggle for the Union, to whatever extent the negroes should cease helping the enemy, to that extent it weakened the enemy in his resistance to you. Do you think differently? I thought that whatever negroes can be got to do as soldiers leaves just so much less for white soldiers to do in saving the Union. Does it appear otherwise to you? But negroes, like other people, act upon motives. Why should they do anything for us if we will do nothing for them? If they stake their lives for us, they must be prompted by the strongest motive, even the promise of freedom. And the promise, being made, must be kept.

The signs look better. The Father of Waters again goes unvexed to the sea. Thanks to the great Northwest for it. Nor yet wholly to them. Three hundred miles up they met New England, Empire, Keystone, and Jersey, hewing their way right and left. The sunny South, too, in more colors than one, also lent a hand. On the spot, their part of the history was jotted down in black and white. The job was a great national one, and let none be banned who bore an honorable part in it. And while those who have cleared the great river may well be proud, even that is not all. It is hard to say that anything has been more bravely and well done than at Antietam, Murfreesboro, Gettysburg, and on many fields of lesser note. Nor must Uncle Sam's web-feet be forgotten. At all the watery margins they have been present. Not only on the deep sea, the broad bay, and the rapid river, but also up the narrow, muddy bayou; and wherever the ground was a little damp, they have been and made their tracks. Thanks to all. For the great Republic—for the principle it lives by and keeps alive—for man's vast future—thanks to all.

Peace does not appear so distant as it did. I hope it will come soon, and come to stay; and so come as to be worth the keeping in all future time. It will then have been proved that among free men there can be no successful appeal from the ballot to the bullet, and that they who take such appeal are sure to lose their case and pay the cost. And there will be some black men who can remember that with silent tongue, and clenched teeth, and steady eye, and well poised bayonet they have helped mankind on to this consummation; while I fear there will be some white ones unable to forget that with malignant heart and deceitful speech they strove to hinder it.

Still let us not be over sanguine of a speedy, final triumph. Let us be quite sober. Let us diligently apply the means, never doubting that a just God, in his own good time, will give us the rightful result.

A. LINCOLN.

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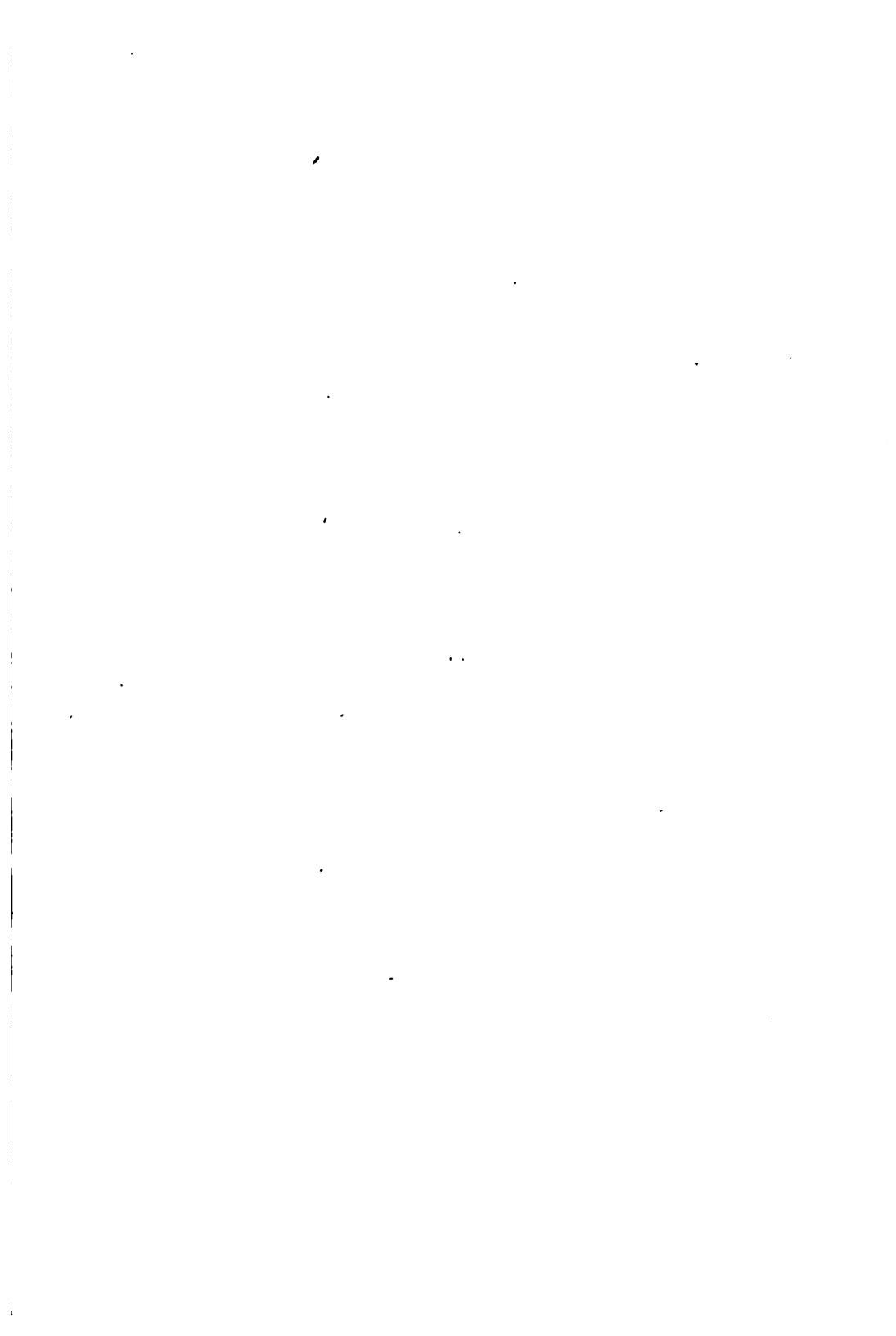
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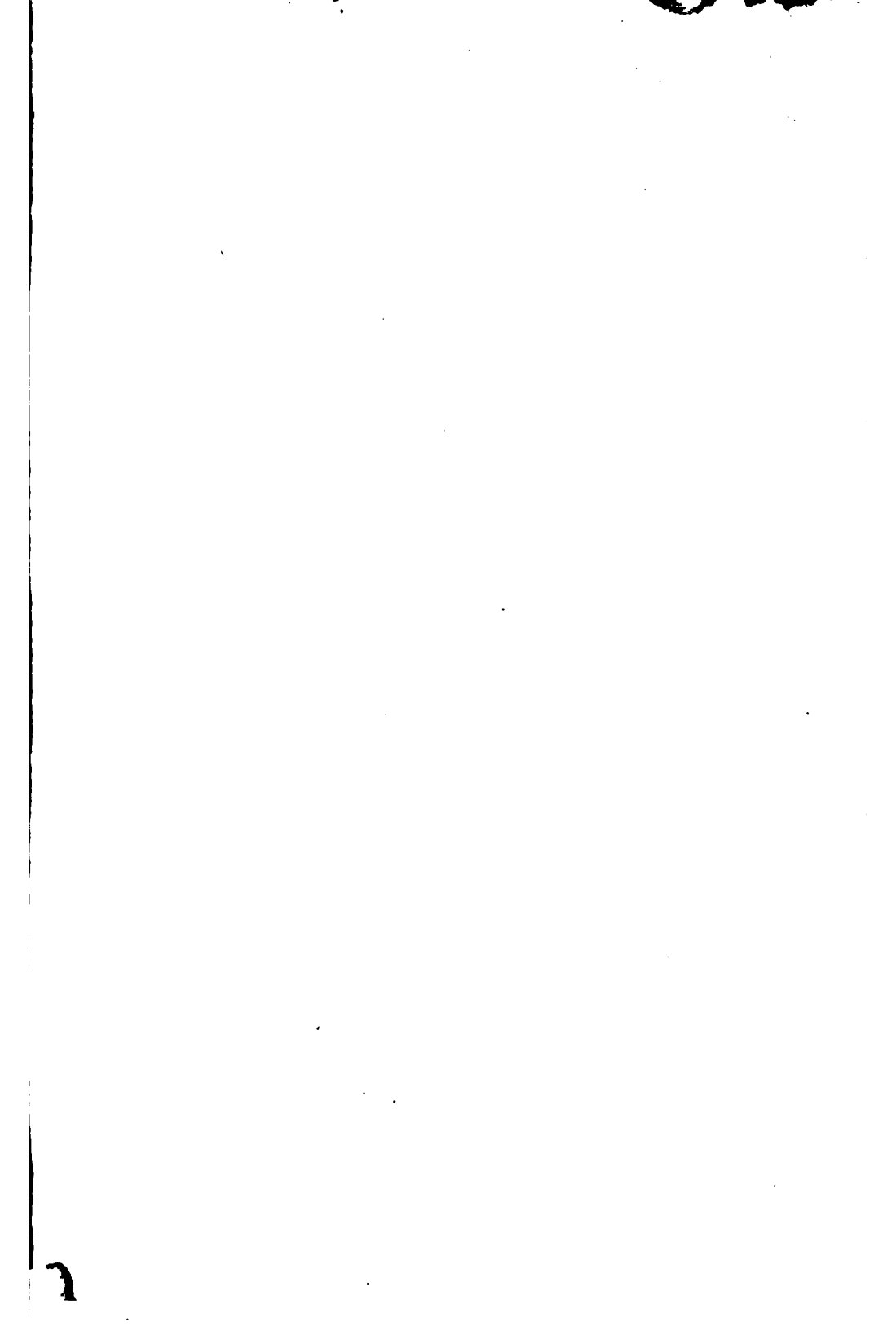
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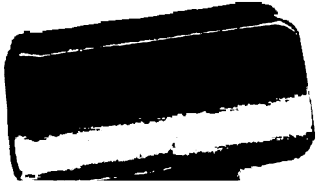


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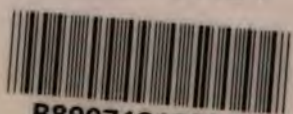


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