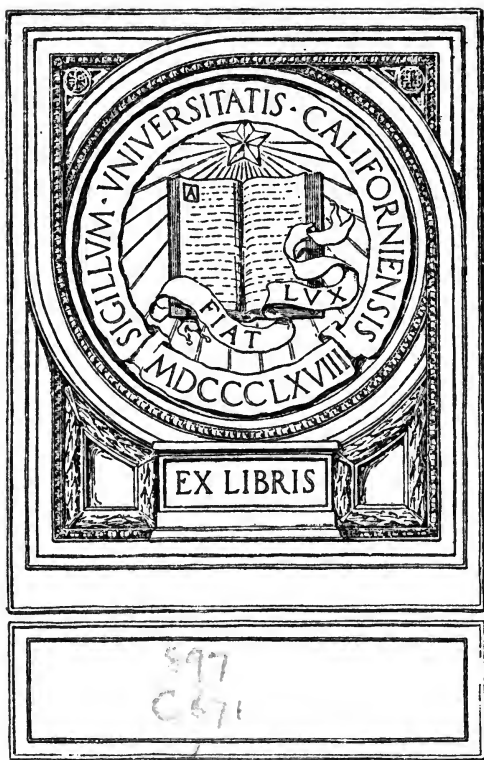


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Problems and Principles of Correct English

Grammar, Punctuation, Rhetorical Criticism

Accompanied by "Dictionary of Errors"

By Sherwin Cody

The text "Grammar and Punctuation" referred to in these Exercises will be found reprinted on the backs of lesson leaves.

Each leaf in this book is separate and complete in itself, and may be torn out readily if the teacher desires.

Published at Chicago
By the School of English

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1850
1851

SUCCESS IN TEACHING THE CORRECT USE OF ENGLISH

There comes a time when the disciplinary study of English grammar must give place to an effort to gain practical skill in writing and speaking correctly. A different system from that of the public school language books is required—a more intense drive straight at the habitual weaknesses of the pupils. That is the object of this exercise book, planned for pupils of high school age.

Constructive Composition More Important Than Don'ts.—Few bad sentence makers were ever cured by the medicine of don'ts. Positive skill (and with it positive accuracy) comes from vigorous use of the Franklin and Stevenson method of reading good models and practicing unceasingly on imitating them. Such practice is given by "Exercises in Letter Writing" (facsimile letters to be answered) arranged to accompany the book "How to Do Business by Letter and Training Course in Conversational English." A constructive interest in doing business makes pupils see the utility of correct English, and the teacher is supplied with ample material for continual classwork in personal detailed criticism and rewriting of poorly formed sentences. Habitual errors must be hammered on persistently if the bad habits are to be eradicated. That book contains as much formal work on grammar as experience has shown it is possible to give in a six months' course without slighting the composition work.

Purpose of This Book.—This book is intended to supplement "Exercises in Business Letter Writing" when the course extends beyond six months, as it does in many high schools, and to supply a practical high school or college review course in correct English to accompany the advanced book "How to Do Business by Letter and Advertising" (International Edition) and the "Literary Composition Drill Book."

Avoid Unnecessary Grammar Machinery.—If you wish to secure practical correctness you must simplify the "machinery" of grammar to the point where it can really be used in everyday practice. If pupils spend all their time in trying to memorize rules and definitions they will have no mental energy left to apply them.

In this book I have left out every definition or rule which does not lead directly to the correction or avoidance of some error. There is no practical utility in knowing the definitions of the different kinds of sentences, as declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, etc., as no special difficulty is possible here; and in English there is no such thing as gender in the Latin sense, since everybody knows that female reference words are feminine and male reference words are negative, while all others are neuter. Dr. E. Benj. Andrews says of this text on grammar, "Your notion of simplifying grammar is worthy of the widest publicity. Your treatment is crisp, simple, direct." In business schools and high schools there is no place for books on grammar with a full panoply of rules and definitions. Yet this work is a complete treatise on grammar for practical purposes, covering every point needed by proofreaders in the government printing office.

Avoid Finical Distinctions.—There is a considerable number of writers who have tried to impose on modern English a variety of finical distinctions and discriminations which do not exist. There are illogical idioms in the English language which do not precisely square with logical derivations. Many words have gradually acquired an extended

meaning which these writers presume to deprive them of. We are told that "as though" is erroneous for "as if," but the argument is fallacious (See "Grammar and Punctuation," page 86), and that we "answer" a question or a letter and "reply" to an argument, but every one knows that as a matter of fact the words "answer" and "reply" are used interchangeably to avoid awkward repetitions and the distinction must be emphasized by the connection if anybody is to understand it. There are so many obvious crudities in the English of a high school pupil that it seems a foolish waste of time to worry in class work over these doubtful distinctions. Scarcely a list of Words Often Misused can be found that is not loaded down with these useless and frequently erroneous distinctions made by purist reformers.

The English Language a Natural Growth.—If the French is a strictly scientific language, the English is obviously a natural growth, like a tree in the forest. There are many knots and crooked branches, but we would not exchange them for a forest of geometrical and perfectly balanced trees.

Many of us also forget that a tree and a language grow very observably every year, and books written one hundred, fifty, or even twenty-five years ago are so far out of date that they cannot be used as guides for the study of the living language required in conversation and letter writing. Works of literary art do not admit words that have not been proved by time—unless they are used with apologetic quotation marks. But we actually sacrifice our living effectiveness if we reject such modern technical expressions as "letters that pull," "hustle," "knock," "slump," and even "putting him next to the game" or "getting down to brass tacks." Such expressions are not yet old enough to be dignified; but in the scramble of life, dignity may often be a handicap. There is no need in a book like this to warn against "young" expressions that merely lack dignity. Foolishly weak slang words are numerous enough to occupy the teacher fully.

The author acknowledges indebtedness to Bert Leston Taylor, editor of the humorous column "A Line-o'-Type or Two" in the Chicago Tribune, for amusing examples of bad English clipped from current newspapers.

A new "Normal Course on How to Teach Business English" will be sent free to teachers only who write to the author at 1411 Security Building, Chicago.

SHERWIN CODY.

LESSON I. Parts of Speech.

See Grammar, pages 19-21.

What is a noun?

What is a verb?

What is a pronoun?

Every verb in this exercise is the centre of a group of words called a sentence. Taking the verbs one after the other, consider what other words belong in the same group. Draw a line where one group ends and another begins till you have the whole divided into groups with only one verb in each group. Then rewrite, beginning each group or sentence with a capital letter and ending it with a period. You will not need any commas.

Then write "n." under every noun, "v." under every verb, and "pro." under every pronoun.—

Once upon a time there was a little chimney-sweep his name was Tom that is a short name you have heard it before you will not have much trouble in remembering it he lived in the North country there were plenty of chimneys to sweep there there was plenty of money for Tom to earn his master spent it he could not read he could not write he did not care to do either he never washed himself there was no water in the court where he lived he never had been taught to say his prayers he never had heard of God or Christ he cried half his time he laughed the other half he had to climb dark flues he rubbed his poor knees and elbows raw that made him cry the soot got into his eyes every day in the week his master beat him every day in the week not a day in the week did he have enough to eat.

Nouns are names of different kinds of things, such as persons, places, things, and general ideas. What are the following nouns the names of?—Henry, boy, Mexico, land, trees, remembering, love, kindness, money, mass, thought, Joliet, George Washington.

How many boys are there in the world? How many George Washingtons? Notice that the name of one person or place is written with a capital letter or letters, while other nouns are not except at the beginning of a sentence.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Nouns. In the first paragraph of "Black Beauty"* let us pick out the words that stand for some definite object we can think of. Such words are *meadow, pond, water, trees*; also *place, day-time*, etc. Say nothing but the word *pond*, for instance, and you have in your mind a clear picture of something real.

In the sentences in this passage there are also many other kinds of words, such as *the, remember, about, pleasant, from*. But none of these words means anything definite except in connection with other words. *Pond* calls up the idea of a pond, without any other words with it, but *remember* means nothing unless there is some one or something to remember, and something that is remembered. So *from* and *the* mean nothing except in connection with other words. Even *pleasant* must be connected with some other word in order to have its full meaning, as "a pleasant day," "a pleasant thought," or the like.

By careful consideration you will see that every word depends on some other word, until you come back to the *noun*, or name-word, which is complete in itself. Each word in a complete sentence has a fixed logical relationship of its own. The study of these logical relationships is the basis of grammar. The starting point is the noun, which represents a complete idea in itself, and (with the words connected with it) gives us the "subject" (of a sentence). A sentence is a complete chain of words, representing a complete thought.

Verbs. A noun, as we have said, means something apart from any other word connected with it. But when we say *boy, man, tree, John*, we call up merely a simple picture. If we wish to speak of the boy as running, the man as walking, the tree as growing, John as speaking, we must use a verb. When we say, "The boy runs," "The man walks," "The tree grows," "John speaks," we make a statement, we assert something to be true. The word that asserts, such as *runs, walks, or speaks*, is called a *verb*. A verb also expresses a command, as when we say, "Run, John."

In participles and infinitives the assertive quality is imperfect, but it still exists. Old grammarians defined verbs as words signifying *to do, to be, or to suffer*.

As we shall see later, a verb often comprises several separate words, as *might have done, shall have been done, can be done, is being done*, etc. The verb and the words connected with it are called the "predicate."

Pronouns. There are a number of small words which take the place of nouns. Thus when I speak of myself I do not call myself by name and say, "John runs"; I say "I run." If I have once mentioned John's name, so that we know to whom *he* refers, we say, "*He* walks." And if we have been talking about the meadow we may say, "*It* is full of water." These words *I, he, it*, etc., are called pronouns (Latin, *for nouns*). They have just the same relationships as nouns, and the only difficulty in the use of them comes in making it clear to exactly what noun each pronoun refers. The noun to which a pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*.

* "The first place that I can well remember was a large, pleasant meadow, with a pond of clear water in it. Some shady trees leaned over it, and rushes and water-lilies grew at the deep end. Over the hedge on one side we looked into a plowed field, and on the other we looked over a gate at our master's house, which stood by the roadside. At the top of the meadow was a grove of fir-trees, and at the bottom a running brook overhung by a steep bank."—"Black Beauty," Chapter I.

LESSON I (Continued). Forms in Letter Writing.

OBSERVE THAT—*The Heading* of a letter must show clearly the address from which the letter is written and the date of writing, including month, day of month, and year.

The Address gives the name and residence of the person written to.

The Salutation is the complimentary opening form.

The Body of the letter contains the message.

The Close is the complimentary phrase at the end of the letter, and immediately below this is the signature.

Mark with a pencil each of these parts as found in the letter on the back of this sheet, and write down on a sheet of paper a complete statement as to the place and position of each as you observe them, indentation of each line or paragraph, punctuation of each part, and relative position of the whole letter on the page. Refer to "Dictionary of Errors," page 31, or "How to Do Business by Letter," chapters II, III, IV.

Place correctly on a page and punctuate correctly the various parts (except the body) of the letters indicated in the following. Place each on a sheet by itself with great care as to relative position.

1. Hiram Brindsley writes from Huron, State of Michigan, to James Huneker, at 189 West Madison Street, in Chicago, in regard to the purchase of a watch.
2. Jordan, Marsh & Co., of 630 Washington Street, in the City of Boston, write to Hiram Brindsley concerning an order he has sent them.
3. Thomas J. Appleby writes from Number 3 in South End Road, town of Richmond, county of Middlesex, country of England, to his brother John Hamilton Appleby, at Number 1301 Eighth Avenue, in the City of New York, New York State, United States of America.
4. Mrs. Matilda Garver writes from the University of Chicago where she is attending the teachers' college to her husband at Harvard University, where he is lecturing in the law school. Supply missing data.
5. Address a letter to yourself from some one you know in a large city.
6. Address a letter from yourself to the same person as in Exercise 5.
7. Address a letter from yourself to any large city firm you know.
8. Address a letter from the city firm indicated in Exercise 7 to yourself.

Check over this work to make sure that no state, town, date, title, or punctuation mark is missing.

A Business Letter

1411 Security Bldg., Chicago,
November 6, 1911.

Mr. Thomas Jones,
Grand Haven, Mich.

Dear Sir:

Immediately on receipt of your letter of October 31 I started a tracer after the package of books sent you by American Express on October 20. I have just called up the express office and am told that the books have not yet been found.

Realizing that you have been greatly inconvenienced by the delay in receiving the books and that there does not seem to be any reasonable prospect that they will be found immediately, I have ventured to duplicate the order, and am sending another package by express to-day. You should receive the books to-morrow morning.

Should the other package turn up at any time in the future, please ask the express company to return it to me and I will see that they cancel their charges on account of it. In the mean time I am making claim upon them for the value of the lost books, and if they do not find the lost package they will no doubt in course of time pay for them.

Permit me to assure you that I sympathize profoundly with your annoyance. Neither you nor I could help it. The books were shipped promptly, as testified to by the receipt which I now have before me. I have done everything possible to find out how they have gone astray, and now I have filled the order a second time in order not to inconvenience you further.

Very truly yours,

A. W. Thomas

LESSON II. Parts of Speech.

See Grammar, pages 22-24.

What is an adjective?

What is an adverb?

What is a preposition?

What is a conjunction?

What are the principal words in a sentence?

What are the modifying words, whose duty is to change in one way or another the meaning of the principal words?

What two kinds of connective words are there and what do they connect?

What is a phrase? What two kinds of phrases are there?

In the following draw a line around every phrase, completely enclosing it, writing "prep." under the prepositions and "n." under the nouns. Then write "n." under all the other nouns and "v." under the verbs. Next pick out the words that modify the nouns and write "adj." under them. Then find the words that modify the verbs and adjectives and write "adv." under them. Finally write "c." under the conjunctions. Last of all divide each group with a verb in it from the next group and rewrite the whole correctly, with a capital letter at the beginning of every sentence and a period at the end.—

Tom laughed the other half of the day he was then tossing pennies with the other boys sometimes he was playing leap-frog over the posts or the backs of other boys he liked to throw stones under the feet of horses and under wagons it seemed to him excellent fun he could hide behind a wall he did n't mind being hungry, even very, very hungry he did n't mind being beaten very, very hard all boys get beaten that is what he thought his old donkey got beaten by the hail but the donkey stood it Tom stood it too.

What is the difference between "its" and "it's"? Write a sentence in which each is used correctly.

What is the full form of "did n't"? Of "won't"? Of "can't"? What does the apostrophe denote?

Among the following nouns, which are the names of single persons, places, or things? Rewrite, using capitals for those that need them: washington, d. c., mr. and mrs., henry burton, sending, joyfulness, south, fly, baseball, bat, garments, jackets, the youth's companion, the u. s. government.

Adjectives. Then there are words which are usually placed before nouns to describe them. When we say, "A large pleasant meadow," *a, large,* and *pleasant,* are descriptive of the noun *meadow*. They are called adjectives. When we say, "The boy is good," *good* is an adjective also, though placed after the verb, because it expresses a quality of the noun *boy*. *First, last, white, blue, fair, sweet, kind, lovely, hard, bitter, sour,* etc., are all words used to describe nouns,—that is, adjectives, though under some circumstances they may also be other parts of speech.

Adverbs. When we say, "The sun shines brightly," "The man strikes hard," "I am heartily pleased to see you," etc., *brightly* modifies *shines*, *hard* modifies *strikes*, *heartily* modifies *pleased*, telling how the sun shines, how the man strikes, how much I am pleased to see you. These words are called adverbs. When we say, "I am here," "Do you love me now?" "Speak thus," the words *here, now* and *thus*, expressing place, time, and manner are also adverbs. Again when we say, "He speaks very plainly," "He draws extremely badly," not only *plainly* and *badly* are adverbs modifying verbs, but *very* and *extremely* are also adverbs, though they modify other adverbs. We also say, "He is a very good boy," "The day is tediously long," "The rose has an exquisitely sweet odor," in which *very, tediously,* and *exquisitely* are adverbs modifying adjectives.

Adverbs are words which modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

(NOTE.—There are many words placed in the predicate near the verb which are not adverbs. We shall find later that these may be "predicate adjectives," "predicate nouns," and nouns which are objects of verbs.)

Prepositions. There are also various small words which introduce nouns. Thus we have such phrases as "from the gate," "above the water," "into the sea," "by means of love," etc. The words *from, above, into, by, of,* used to introduce the nouns which follow them and connect them to other nouns and to verbs, etc., are called *prepositions*. A preposition with its noun is called a *phrase*. A phrase that modifies a noun just as an adjective does, is called an *adjective phrase*, and a phrase that modifies a verb just like an adverb, is called an *adverbial phrase*.

A prepositional phrase (there are other kinds of phrases) may have any or all the relationships which an adjective or an adverb may have.

Such phrases as "to go," "to be," "to kill," etc., in which a verb follows the preposition *to*, are called the "infinitive mode of the verb." The *to* is often omitted or implied.

Conjunctions. A word that joins together two words or phrases of the same kind, or joins one sentence to another sentence, is called a conjunction. Thus in the sentence, "The boy and the man came here together, but went away separately," *and* is a conjunction joining *boy* and *man*, and *but* joins the two verbs *came* and *went*. When we say, "He will do it if I will let him," *if* is a conjunction joining the subordinate sentence "I will let him" to the main sentence "He will do it." In the complete sentence, "Where I go, there ye shall be also," *where* is a conjunction joining the subordinate sentence "I go" to the main sentence "there ye shall be also." In this case *where* is also an adverb of place. We may call it either an "adverbial conjunction" or a "relative adverb." In this book we follow the common usage and speak of it as a "relative adverb" rather than as a conjunction. *While, when,* etc., are also used in the same way, and so are the relative pronouns *who, which, that,* etc.

LESSON II (Continued). The Correct Salutation and Complimentary Close.

It is very important that in every letter the salutation and the complimentary close should be so selected as to indicate the correct tone in view of the personal relationship between the writer of a letter and the person addressed.

Refer to "Dictionary of Errors," especially pages 34 and 40, and "How to Do Business by Letter," pages 11, 12, 15, and 16, and page 148 *et seq.*, Chapter XXII.

Choose the right salutation and complimentary close for the following letters:

1. A letter to a business firm on business.
2. A letter to the manager of a business firm on business.
3. A letter to the manager of a business firm on business when you are well acquainted with the man.
4. A letter from a business firm to a strange lady on business.
5. A letter from a business firm to an old customer.
6. A letter from the principal of a business college to an unknown lady who wishes to take a course of study.
7. A letter from the principal of a school to a girl pupil who has just entered; to a girl pupil who has recently graduated.
8. A letter to the pastor of a church to which one belongs.
9. A letter to the member of Congress from your district whom you have never met.
10. A letter to the president of the United States.
11. A letter to your brother.
12. A letter to your mother.
13. A letter to your sister or brother.
14. A letter to a cousin of the opposite sex whom you have met a few times.
15. A letter on a business matter to a schoolmate of the opposite sex to whom you have never spoken.
16. A letter to the principal of your school.
17. A letter to this same principal after you have graduated and are in business.
18. A letter to a married lady for whose good opinion you care a great deal.
19. A letter to a prominent man whom you have met a few times.
20. A letter to a servant just coming into your family.

A Social Letter.

"The Squirrels,"
Bentham Harbor, Mich.,
Nov. 6, 1919.

Dear Cousin Alma, --

Father and Mother and I have just got home after a pretty restless night on the cars for all except me. They say I slept like a log and actually snored.

Though I have three strapping brothers, I have never had a sister, and it was altogether a new experience for me to be entertained by a young lady who seemed to think she was under the obligation of relationship to be very attentive. I am not used to being escorted around town and introduced to all the charming young ladies in a large circle of feminine acquaintances; but I assure you I shall remember the past week all my life as one of the most delightful of my existence.

I have developed my three rolls of film, and at least half the exposures came out in fine shape. I shall have the prints made at Field's and send you one of each of the good ones. Your portrait could n't be beaten.

On the train I had time to get started on the book you gave me. It puzzles me to know how a pretty girl, as popular socially as you are, should happen to be interested in philosophy of all things. Our principal got me started on it, and I would rather read a heavy philosophic work than a magazine story any day. Magazine stories seem to me stupid in comparison; but I always thought magazine stories were written for girls like you, and all girls liked them. To find a girl who likes philosophy as much as I do seems a really wonderful discovery.

But I have two lessons to learn for to-morrow and it is half past eight. Please write me as often as you can, and let us get as thoroughly acquainted by correspondence as cousins should be.

Sincerely yours,

Miss Alma Redfield,
1920 R St., Lincoln, Nebr.

Herbert Redfield.

Extra lesson and review: Write out Exercise I, Grammar, page 25.

LESSON III. The Sentence.

See Grammar, pages 25-27.

What is a sentence?

What is the subject of a sentence?

What is the predicate of a sentence?

What is the difference between a simple subject or predicate and a complete subject or predicate?

What is the difference between a compound and a complex sentence?

What is a simple sentence?

What are the principal subject and predicate?

Note. A subordinate sentence with its subject and predicate introduced by a subordinate conjunction will hereafter be called a clause. This gives us three different groups of words, complete sentences, phrases, and clauses.

In the following, notice that every sentence group begins with a capital and ends with a period, and that clauses begin with conjunctive words and are often set off by commas. Phrases always begin with prepositions but are usually not set off by commas because they are so short. Draw a single line under all clauses and a double line under all phrases. Then write the proper abbreviation under each word showing what part of speech it is and be prepared to give your reason for your marking:—

Once upon a time there was a little chimney-sweep, and his name was Tom. That is a short name, and you have heard it before, so you will not have much trouble in remembering it. He lived in a great town in the North country, where there were plenty of chimneys to sweep, and plenty of money for Tom to earn and his master to spend. He could not read or write, and did not care to do either; and he never washed himself, for there was no water up the court where he lived. He had never been taught to say his prayers. He never had heard of God, or of Christ, except in words which you have never heard, and which it would have been well if he had never heard. He cried half his time and laughed the other half.

Note. Compare this with preceding exercises and notice what a difference it makes to have clauses. In the preceding lessons there were no clauses.

THE SENTENCE.

A sentence is a collection of words so chosen and arranged as completely to express a thought. Nouns may express ideas, but they do not represent a thought. The expression of a thought absolutely requires a verb united to a noun (or pronoun). The noun constitutes the *simple subject*, and the verb the *simple predicate* of the sentence. Any collection of words which does not contain both a subject and a predicate, expressed or implied, does not constitute a sentence or represent a thought. (Fragmentary phrases, if any special thought is attached to them, must be supposed to imply the lacking members.) The simple subject and the simple predicate may have modifiers, and together with these modifiers they constitute the *complete subject* and the *complete predicate*.

The following example will illustrate the fundamental and necessary division of every sentence into subject and predicate:

The Subject (noun)	The Predicate (verb)
The country <i>church</i>	<i>is</i> a square old building of wood.
<i>It</i>	<i>stands</i> upon a hill with a little churchyard in its rear where
one or two sickly <i>trees</i>	<i>keep</i> watch and ward over the vagrant sheep
<i>that</i>	<i>graze</i> among the graves.
Bramble <i>bushes</i>	<i>seem</i> to thrive on the bodies below,
	and
no <i>flower</i>	there <i>is</i>
	in the yard,
<i>which</i>	save a few golden-rods
	<i>flaunt</i> their gaudy, inodorous color under the lee of the northern wall.

Our first observation upon this is that each complete sentence seems to contain more than one subject and predicate. For instance, in the second sentence we have three subjects and three predicates, and also three in the next and last. We also observe, however, that each subject has its own definite predicate, and that the succeeding sets of subjects and predicates are connected with each other by conjunctions.

When the subjects and predicates are of equal importance, and are connected by conjunctions capable of connecting equals, we have a *compound* sentence; when one subject and predicate is subordinate to another, and is connected to it by a conjunction used to show subordinate relationship, we have a *complex* sentence.

In every sentence we must have a *principal subject* and a *principal predicate* to which all other words must be related.

LESSON III (Continued). How to Know a Sentence.

One of the most difficult things to learn is How to Know a Sentence so you can punctuate it correctly. Most pupils in school and many fairly well educated persons in business, while they know that a sentence must begin with a capital letter and end with a period, exclamation point, or mark of interrogation, are unable to see the difference between the parts of one sentence and the parts of the next one to it.

The trouble is that the meaning of one sentence is often very closely linked with the meaning of another, and it seems as if words, phrases, and clauses so closely united in meaning ought to be punctuated together.

While we may group together by commas words that seem closely united in meaning, and commas are largely for the purpose of grouping words, the sentence is on a strictly grammatical basis. There is just one way to know it when you come to it. It must have a noun or pronoun as subject and a verb as predicate. If it hasn't these in clear form, it can't be a sentence but must be only a phrase or group of words belonging to some other sentence.

If there is at least one subject and one verb which is a full and regular verb, you know that you have at least one good sentence. But you may have two or more, and it is just as bad to run two sentences together as to punctuate a phrase or clause as a sentence.

One sentence can have just one subject and one full verb unless other subjects and verbs are linked to these by co-ordinate conjunctions like *and*, *or*, or *but*, or there are subordinate clauses or sentences introduced by subordinating conjunctions or relative words of some kind like *if*, *when*, *who*, or the like. Just the moment you run upon a second subject or a second predicate not accounted for by a conjunction which you can see and recognize, you have a second sentence mixed in with the first and you need to separate the two by a period or semicolon. You want to remember also that *then* is NOT a relative word like *when*, and is not a proper word to introduce a subordinate clause. In other cases the relative word *that* is implied so clearly that it may be regarded as actually in the sentence and fully able to govern a subordinate subject and predicate, as in "I know very well you have prepared your lesson."

The following is a letter written by a young lady traveling abroad and published in her home paper. It contains many crudities of expression, and especially a number of examples of sentences run together with only a comma between. She was misled by the close logical connection between the sentences, and was ignorant that there was no grammatical connection which would justify running them together.

Find the errors of punctuation and correct them. They are not marked. Other crudities are marked by reference numbers.

A SENTIMENTAL JOURNEY.

The next day we saw London bridge, it is a broad bridge or street, and is certainly not falling down. I think if it was (1) in any danger (2) to fall it would have fallen when such a crowd of Americans went over in all their glory. Not far up the river from the London bridge is the Tower bridge. This is very much like the other except (3) it has towers at each end. These are large indeed and connected by a passage way (4) overhead. Next, I think we saw St. Paul's Cathedral, the largest Protestant church in the world. It is not completed yet. The decorations were of gold and very artistic. Our guide was at one time a member of the choir here. There were two chapels, an old and a new one. There are 1,500 churches in London and 570 newspapers, its area is 122 square miles. You know this is the largest, greatest, and richest city of modern times. It is impossible to tell of its wonders, sights, and attractions, in its shops are goods of the whole world (5) because commerce from the four quarters of the globe comes to its docks.

We saw (6) Tower of London. Every one knows the history of this place. Here has (7) been kept some of the greatest kings and nobles. The dungeons are still open to visitors. In the Tower we saw the Crown jewels that were used in the recent Coronation (8). The Armory (9) was very interesting. There we saw the (11) breast plates, (10) helmets, shields, spurs, etc., that dated as far back as the Norman Conquest. During the Thirteenth century the Chain Mail (12) was used. The armor is all displayed on horses and figures of wood. Some represented Charles I, Edward I., Richard I., and all the early crusaders (13). Out in the courtyard was a smooth stone where it is said Katherine Howard, Lady Jane Grey, and others in English history met their death by the ax. We also saw the Beauchamp tower. All this brings back what we studied in English and French history.

Examples of two sentences run together with only a comma between have not been marked. Students are asked to find these.

1. This is a supposed case, contrary to fact, and requires the subjunctive mode "if it were" instead of "if it was." 2. "Danger" requires "of falling" in place of "to fall" after it. 3. "Except" alone is a preposition. The conjunction here should be "except that." 4. "Passageway" should not be written as two words. 5. A comma is required here, because the explanatory clause beginning with "because" is added merely as additional information. 6. Insert the word "the" before "Tower." Be sure that all the little words required for a smoothly flowing sentence are included. 7. The subject of this verb follows as the plural pronoun "some," and of course the verb should be "have," not "has." "Tower" is capitalized because it is used as the name of a special building, and perhaps the writer is justified in capitalizing "Crown," but "coronation" is very plainly a simple common noun and should not be capitalized. 9. "Armory" should not be capitalized. 10. "Breastplates" is one word. 11. When the reader reaches this point he begins to wonder why "the" was used before "breastplates," as if to designate some particular breastplates. The sentence seems to indicate that all the breastplates in the world that dated back as far as the Norman conquest were there instead of "some breastplates" or simply "breastplates." Omit "the." 12. There is no reason for capitalizing "chain mail." 13. "And all the early crusaders" implies that those mentioned by name were crusaders, but this is not true. It is important to look sharply out to see what the word "all" implies.

Rewrite this letter in correct form.

Extra lesson and review: Write out Exercise II, Grammar, page 31.

LESSON IV. Relationship of Words in a Sentence.

See Grammar, pages 27-31.

What is the law governing the expression of meaning in words?

What is the law governing the relationship of every word in a sentence?

What is an interjection? What relationship does it have in a sentence?

In analysing a sentence, what is the first thing to look for?

Diagram the following sentences, using the space below:

It was surrounded on all sides by steep and rocky mountains.

Things went on in this manner for a long time.

They had hardly got the hay in when the haystacks were floated down to the sea.

They got what they liked from all except the poor people, who could only beg.

He put his head out to see to whom the coat belonged.

The boy who studies grammar must learn to analyse.

When I looked up I was satisfied.

There was no bread in the house.

In analyzing any sentence, our first task should be to find the principal subject and the principal predicate, and then trace out the chain of relationships of every other word to these. It is not difficult to make a picture, or diagram*, of these relationships, which will present the whole matter to the eye at a glance. We begin by drawing a straight line and dividing it distinctly in the middle, and then placing the subject noun or pronoun on the left and the predicate verb on the right, thus:

Boys || run

If we have any adjectives or adverbs, we may place them on splinting lines attached to the lines on which stand the words they modify, thus (Fig. 2).

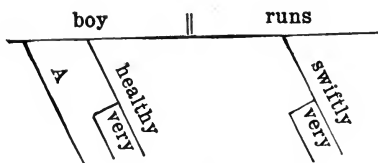


Fig. 2.

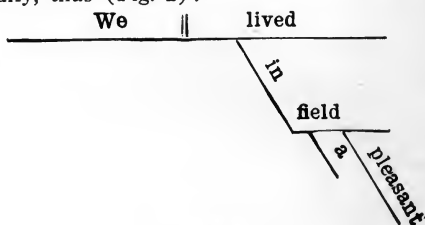


Fig. 3.

In this sentence *a* and *healthy* are adjectives modifying *boy*, the first *very* is an adverb modifying the adjective *healthy*, *swiftly*, is an adverb modifying *runs*, and the second *very* an adverb modifying *swiftly*.

Phrases introduced by prepositions may be treated as in Fig. 3.

Subordinate sentences introduced by relative adverbs (or adverbial conjunctions) may be diagramed as in Fig. 4.

But subordinate sentences introduced by relative pronouns which have a necessary office in the subordinate sentence must be connected to the main sentence by a blank or dotted line, as in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6.

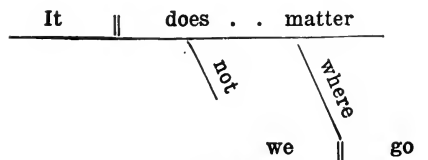


Fig. 4.

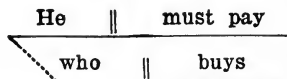
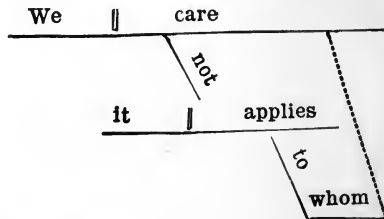


Fig. 6 and Fig. 5.

There are many other relationships besides those we have pictured; but these will illustrate the two most important laws in grammar, namely:

Law I. No collection of words expresses thought, and no sentence exists, unless a noun or pronoun (expressed or implied) unites with a verb (expressed or implied) to form a subject and a predicate.

Law II. Every word in a sentence must have a clear relationship, directly or through other words, to the principal simple subject or the principal simple predicate, that is, to the main noun or pronoun, or to the main verb.

The only apparent exception to the last statement is the interjection, which is a word that is as nearly independent as a word can be. Close logical analysis, however, will show, either that the interjection is in some way related to an adjoining sentence without which it would be devoid of meaning or significance; or it is a condensed sentence in itself, distinctly implying a subject or a predicate or both. For instance, if we go about shouting "Fire! Fire! Fire!" we are simply condensing into a word some such full sentence as "There is a fire," "Come and see the fire," or "Come and put out the fire." Implied words are frequent and must always be supplied if we would understand grammatical relationships.

*The diagram is liable to abuse, just as parsing is, but it helps us to comprehend that every word has a fixed relationship in the sentence. For a full exposition of the diagram see Reed and Kellogg's "Higher Lessons in English."

LESSON IV (Continued). How to Criticise a Letter.

In the world of life and business you must correct your own work, and I propose to teach you how to correct your work yourself. In business you must be 100 per cent correct most of the time. An average of 90 per cent will never pass in any business office.

Success in self-criticism depends on having a regular system so that you know just what you need to look for, you look for that particular thing, and then you make yourself sure whether you have it or not, and have it right. You can criticise your own work or the work of other pupils just as well as the teacher can in many cases if you will follow rigidly the system I am about to give you. I do not mean, however, that you should not deviate from my system. My system is but an illustration, a beginning, and you must extend and perfect this system according to the special needs you find in actual work. Actual work in real life always has problems of its own which you must solve, and then you must conform to your own solution. When you have your system right you must conform to it rigidly, however, admitting nothing less than 100 per cent of correctness.

THE FORM OF YOUR LETTER.

Examine your letter carefully and answer for yourself the following questions, deducting 5 per cent for any deviation:

Have you written the heading of this letter in two lines (or one line, as the case may be)? Does it begin to the left of the center of the page? (Measure with your ruler if you are in doubt.)

Is there a comma after the town, a period and a comma after an abbreviated state, no comma after the month (what abbreviation?) but a comma after the day of the month, and a period after the year (written in full)?

Have you a margin of at least three quarters of an inch on the left and one quarter of an inch beyond the longest line on the right? (Measure with your ruler.)

Does the name and address of the person you are writing to appear at least an inch below the date line and two inches below the top of the paper? (Make the sinking correspond to the actual requirements of the given letter for a good appearance on the page.) Have you "Mr." before the name and no other title after it? Is it followed by a comma? Have you the correct address following the name, indented at least three quarters of an inch more than the name, which should be flush with the margin, and with a period after the address even if the state or country is not abbreviated?

Have you the correct salutation (Dear Sir, Dear Madam), starting flush with the margin, and followed by a colon only?

Does the body of the letter begin on the line below the salutation as a paragraph, indented three quarters of an inch from the margin? Are all the other paragraphs uniformly indented three quarters of an inch, and not over an inch?

Does the complimentary close start a little to the left of the middle of the page, begin with a capital letter, have no other capital in it, and end with a period? Is the signature placed below, a little to the right of the middle of the page, and followed by a period?

(Any particular letter may have other special questions which the pupils should answer for themselves, deducting 5 per cent for every failure to get the right arrangement.)

WHAT YOU SAY IN YOUR LETTER.

The first thing to see in any business letter is whether it gives all the business facts required, and gives them fully and correctly. If you are answering another letter, first stop to set down a list of the different things you must say to make the answer to that letter fully satisfactory to the person who is to receive it. Don't make this list of facts in general terms, but make a list of the real answers, and think carefully whether you have covered every point without missing even the smallest. For example, suppose one of your mates writes to ask you to make an appointment to meet him down town and go to buy a present

for the teacher. In answering such a letter you must be sure to cover each of the following points clearly and exactly: 1. Say definitely whether you will go or won't go. Many people forget to make a specific answer to the most important point of all. 2. Say just when the rendezvous shall take place—the day of the week, the day of the month, the hour, and whether a. m. or p. m. 3. Say just where it shall take place, at what store, at what door of that store, on what street, near what other street. Unless you make a list of these business facts required in a complete and really effective business letter, you are certain to miss some of them. Let the teacher, assisted by the class, write on the board the facts to be covered in each letter, as Business Fact No. 1, Business Fact No. 2, etc., and then let each pupil examine his work to make sure he has really and fully covered each one of those facts.

PUNCTUATION.

First, look through your letters and write a small *s* under each simple subject and a small *p* under each simple predicate or verb. This includes the subjects and predicates of subordinate clauses as well as principal clauses. Now do you find any group of words not directly connected to a subject or predicate? If so, take off 10 per cent for that error, and try to find out how to connect that group of words in its proper place in a sentence.

Next place a small circle around the *s* and the *p* of principal clauses, and be sure that none of those clauses is introduced by any relative word such as *who*, *what*, *when*, *if*, or the like. Where no circle appears you should find a subordinate clause, and that must be introduced by some relative word: find and underscore the relative word. The two parts of a compound sentence must be connected by a co-ordinate conjunction such as *and*, *but*, or *or*: place a small check under each co-ordinate conjunction.

Now consider what groups of words begin with a capital letter and end with a period, exclamation point, or question mark; between the capital letter and the period or other mark do you find more than one subject and predicate? If so, is the second one justified by a co-ordinate conjunction? Or is the second subject and predicate in a subordinate clause and justified by a relative word of some kind? If you find a capital letter followed by a period and no subject and predicate between, you have no sentence, and should take off 10 per cent for the error. If you find more than one subject and predicate between the capital and the period, not justified by some conjunction clearly marked, you have run two sentences together without proper separation, and should take off 10 per cent for the error. If you think the conjunction in any situation is clearly implied, ask the teacher about it. Are there any questions not followed by interrogation points?

Next consider the commas. Do you find any words or phrases thrown into the sentence by way of explanation? Are they set off by commas?

Read over to yourself any sentences in which you find relative clauses: are these clauses likely to get mixed up with the principal clause if not set off by a comma or commas? What punctuation marks have you before *and*, *but*, or *or*? Do you need commas because the subject of the second clause is different from the subject of the first clause?

Next consider if you have commas you do not need; read over each sentence containing a comma and see if there would be any confusion should the comma be omitted. If you can understand the meaning just as well without the comma, and do not know any good reason why the comma should be there, omit it. Deduct 5 per cent for each comma that has been omitted and 5 per cent for each unnecessary comma inserted. The elimination of superfluous commas is just as important as the insertion of any that may be missing.

Note.—The preceding program may be torn out of this book and pinned into "Exercises in Business Letter Writing" that pupils may examine their letters before they bring them to the class to be sure they are correct on all these points; and then in the class they will re-examine the letters to be sure they have overlooked nothing. Full information on the points raised will be found in "How to Do Business by Letter." Or the system may be used in connection with any method of practice letter writing.

LESSON V. Case.

See Grammar, pages 31-33.

What is an abstract noun?

What verbal forms are used as nouns?

What place do nouns fill in a sentence besides that of subject of a verb?

What two parts of speech take nouns as objects?

Do all verbs have objects?

Do all prepositions have objects? Name any which do not?

In what case are subject nouns?

In what case are object nouns?

Is there any difference between a noun in the nominative case and one in the objective case? What difference in pronouns?

Are all verbs followed by the objective case? What are not?

Write below the objective form of the following pronouns: we, they, he, us, she, I, who, her.

Make a list below of the verbs that are commonly followed by the nominative case?

Write out the following sentences with the correct pronoun:

To (who—whom) did you refer?

The power of prophecy is given only to (he—him) (who—whom) can preach the good news.

He said he would give it to (her—she) (who—whom) picked the most peas.

It is only fair to give it to you and (I—me).

Between Jack and John and Henry and (I—me), we got a good day's work done.

It seems to be (he—him) who will be chosen.

The speech will be made by (he—him) who is chosen.

(Whom—who) do you choose?

(Who—whom) do you think it is?

Let you and (me—I) go to the postoffice.

(Whom—who) will the paper be read by?

Nouns, we have learned, are the names of things. An idea, a thought, an act may also have a name, which is a noun (called *abstract*). Several forms of the verb and verbal phrases are also used as nouns, as in "*Doing is better than waiting,*" "*To be cautious is a necessity in speculation,*" and "*Growing old should not make a man sour.*"

We have seen nouns as subjects of verbs, the starting-points of sentences. They may also be objects of verbs or prepositions. A preposition must have a noun as object, since the sole office of prepositions is to introduce nouns, or pronouns. Unless a word has such an object, it is not a preposition. Active verbs also take a noun as object when they are of such a nature that they express action which passes over to an object. Thus when we say "He killed a man," the word *man* is an object noun, since the action of the subject as expressed in the verb passes over and takes effect on the object *man*.

Subject nouns are said to be in the *subjective* or nominative case, and object nouns are said to be in the objective case.

Not all nouns that follow verbs are in the objective case. All nouns following the verb *to be* or its parts (*am, is, are, was, were, would be, have been, might be*) are in the subjective or nominative case, and are called *predicate nominatives*, because the verb *to be* merely asserts that the subject is the same as the noun in the predicate. Thus in "John is a man," *man* is precisely the same as the subject and the verb *is* merely asserts this sameness. So also in the sentence "John will become a man," *man* and *John* are equivalent, or are in the process of becoming so. There is no action which passes over to an object. Of course in the sentence, "He killed himself," *he* and *himself* are the same, but in this case the man is the object of his own act.

Nouns in English have the same form, whether they are in the nominative or in the objective case. But pronouns, the words which stand for nouns and are used so very frequently, have in many cases different forms for the nominative and objective cases, as follows:

<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Objective</i>
I	me
we	us
he	him
she	her
they	them
who	whom

Therefore we should always say "It is I," not "It is me," "It is he, she, they, or we," not "It is him, her, them, or us," as we often hear people say. Also, remembering that the object of a preposition is always in the objective case, we will say "between you and me," not "between you and I," "It can be done by you and me," not "It can be done by you and I." We would not say "between I and the fence-post," nor "It is being done by I and somebody else." These sound absurd. It is quite as absurd to say "between you or the fence-post and I."

The verbs followed by the nominative case are very few, but they are so common that they occur as often, probably, as all other verbs put together. They are chiefly *to be* (*is, am, was, were, would be, have been, etc.*), *to become*, *to appear*, and *to seem*. There is no action expressed by these verbs, only a state or condition of existence.

LESSON V (Continued). How to Criticise the Language of Letters.

When the Form of the letter, the Facts to be stated, and the Punctuation have been considered, the three great essentials of correctness have been properly covered. There remains, however, the difficult matter of finding the Best Possible Wording.

You have been studying the use of words to express your meaning since you were a baby, and you have endless practice every day in expressing your meaning when you talk to those about you. If you can express yourself as well in writing as you do in talking, and know that you are doing that, you are all right as far as writing is concerned. Then you will wish to see if you cannot learn to talk better. As you improve in talking you will bring your writing up to your talking once more. Perhaps if you read a great deal you will learn to write better than you talk.

A letter is a talk on paper to some person about some special things he is interested in.

TEST YOUR LETTER BY TALKING IT ALOUD.

When you have finished writing a letter, find out for yourself what sort of talk it is by imagining that you can see your customer or the person to whom you are writing sitting at your side, and read your letter as if you were talking it to him face to face. You will soon find out whether you are talking nonsense or not, whether what you say sounds to your ears like good talk. **NEVER USE ANY WORD OR PHRASE IN A LETTER THAT WOULD NOT SOUND NATURAL IF YOU WERE TALKING.**

Then ask these three questions:

Do you find in your letter any word or words repeated several times, so they jar on the ear when the letter is read aloud? Read the letter aloud in a natural tone so as to catch these jarring words.

Do you find phrases or groups of words which seem awkward when the letter is read aloud?

Have you used any word or expression of which you could not explain the meaning easily?

Then examine your letter word by word to see whether you **FEEL SURE IN YOUR HEART THAT IT IS EXACTLY RIGHT.** If you are in doubt on any point, don't hesitate to ask the teacher, and keep on asking till you really understand the point.

ILLUSTRATIVE CRITICISM OF AN ACTUAL LETTER.

Dear Sir:

I will (1) be pleased to meet your father at my office at any time (2) except saturday, and the hours between two and four o'clock is (3) most convenient for me to see him (4).

Our meeting concerning (5) the matter of your correspondence (6) will surely be helpful to you, for I shall try to give the best advise (7) of (8) my knowledge pertaining (9) to those questions (10).

Yours truly,

1. "I will be pleased" means I am determined to be pleased whether or no. The writer meant simply "I shall be pleased." It is never proper to use "I will" before "pleased."

2. It is important to avoid using a phrase either too general or too particular for the occasion. The writer is here speaking of "days," as is indicated by "except Saturday" which follows, and should have said "any day." "Saturday" should be capitalized.

3. "Hours" is plural, and does not go well with the singular verb "is." Instead of using the plural "hours" when a single period of time is in the mind it would be better to substitute for "hours" the word "time," and then rearrange the sentence so as to make it read, "and between two and four o'clock is the most convenient time for me." This places the emphasis on "between two and four o'clock" where it belongs, and throws the word "time" into an inconspicuous place where it merely serves to supply a grammatical subject for the verb.

4. "To see him" is clearly superfluous and should be omitted.

5. "Concerning" is an awkward preposition to use in connection with "meeting." We do not have meetings "concerning" but "to consider" or "to discuss."

6. The word "correspondence" is not clear in this place. The boy was thinking of studying "correspondence" in a business college, and yet probably here the word refers to the series of letters that has been passing. Instead of a vague term such as "the matter of our correspondence" it would be better to state the exact thing to be discussed, saying "our meeting to consider the best course of study for you to take up."

7. "Advice" as a noun is spelled with a c and is pronounced with the sound of s; "to advise," the verb, is spelled with an s which is pronounced with the sound of z. It might be better to use the verb here and say, "for I shall try to advise you to the best of my ability."

8. "Of" is clearly not the right preposition to connect "advise" and "knowledge." The preposition must conform to the meaning of the word it introduces as well as the word it follows, and "of" conforms to neither. The expression "advise you to the best of my ability" would cover the entire idea, and "ability" would be a better word than "knowledge" in this connection.

9. "Pertaining" is a formal word more properly used in legal papers than in simple letter writing, where a very simple, inconspicuous word like "on" would be much better.

10. "Questions" is another general and vague word where the letter writer ought to say exactly what he means. Are there real "questions" involved? Why not say "on the proper course of study for you to pursue"? A clear, definite, direct statement is always the best.

Rewrite the letter with the corrections incorporated.

LESSON VI. Possessives.

See Grammar, pp. 33-34—the Possessive case. Also section 21, page 35.
How is the possessive case formed with singular nouns?

How is it formed with plural nouns?

How is it formed with pronouns?

In what cases does the apostrophe come before the s?

In what cases does it come after the s?

Write the possessive case of each of the following: Dickens, church, men, brethren, he, they, beau, beaux, William the Conqueror, sister-in-law, goodness, Charles, Prince of Wales, goose, princess, man-of-war.

What is the difference in meaning in the following:

A story of Dr. Brown—A story of Dr. Brown's?

Charles's and Mary's books—Charles and Mary's books?

The governor's entertainment—The entertainment of the governor.

My father's care—The care of my father?

Note. Observe that when two possess together, one apostrophe and s are required (John and Henry's home—belongs to both together), but when they possess independently each noun must be followed by the possessive sign (John's and Henry's homes—two different homes).

Note. Observe that the apostrophe is never required by the possessive case of a pronoun.

What is "it's" a short form for?

What is "won't" a short form for?

What is the possessive case of—he, she, it, they, I, we, who?

Note. Observe that usually only persons or other living beings possess, and inanimate objects such as towns, rocks, etc., are personified when put in the possessive case, though there are a few idiomatic exceptions such as "a day's work," "art for art's sake," etc.

Rewrite the following correctly:

The book's pages are wet.

The doctor's hours are from nine to four.

The school's hours are from nine to one.

Nouns and pronouns also have a third case, the possessive, indicated in nouns by the apostrophe and s or the apostrophe alone. The possessive case has precisely the logical relation in a sentence that an adjective has, that is, it is a direct modifier of a noun, and is used in no other way, though often the noun modified is implied. Like a noun, however, it is modified by adjectives, not by adverbs. The case offers no special difficulty. It is usually interchangeable with a prepositional phrase containing *of*.

Note. Nouns in the singular regularly form the possessive case by adding an apostrophe and s, as *man's John's, Dickens's*. Some writers omit the s when the singular form itself ends with s or an equivalent sound, and write *Dickens', conscience'*, etc.; but the best usage is always to write the s after the apostrophe even if it cannot be pronounced. Plural nouns ending in s take merely the apostrophe to indicate the possessive case, as *cows', hens'*, etc. If, however, the plural form does not end in s, the apostrophe must be followed by s, as in *men's, children's*, etc. Pronouns never take an apostrophe to indicate the possessive case. We write *its, his*, etc. *It's* is a contraction for *it is* and must not be confused with the possessive case of *it*.

LESSON VI (Continued). Practice in Criticism.

If you have now learned something about how to criticise a letter you can put your knowledge to a practical test by criticising the following actual letters, just as was done with the letter in the last lesson. On each point for criticism you will find a little hint such as your teacher might give you in helping you to criticise your own letters.

Write out your criticism on each point as fully and carefully as you can, and then copy each letter on a page by itself, supplying a suitable heading, address, and signature. As these letters are written in a series, be sure the dates are set at natural and reasonable intervals. Test the form of your letter by the list of questions on form given in a previous lesson. Notice that the first of these letters is supposed to be a reply to the letter criticised in the last lesson.

A.

Dear Sir:

My father went to call on you in Philadelphia (1) but found that you had been called unexpectedly from the city. Your absence, however, could not be avoided (2), so whenever you can find any (3) time convenient for another meeting with (4) father, he shall (5) then be pleased to call on you.

Very truly yours,

B.

Dear Sir,—(6)

I regret very much that I was not at home when your father called. (7) Was suddenly called from the city on a (8) very important business, which could not be postponed. I shall be pleased to meet your father at any future time that he may want (9) to see me.

I feel very sorry that I was not at home, and wish you would convey (10) my apology to (11) father for my absence.

Yours truly,

C.

Dear Sir:

In answer to your note of the 16th, I wish to inform you that father desires to renew (12) his call on you at your office in Philadelphia. The time most convenient for him to call is day after to-morrow, at two o'clock. I wish to extend (13) my thanks for your courtesy, and hope this appointment will be suitable (14) to you.

Very truly yours,

D.

Dear Sir:

I have just received your note of appointment (15) and wish to say that the day and hour is (16) convenient to (17) me. I shall then (18) be sure to be in the (19) office at the time mentioned.

Yours truly,

F.

Dear Sir:

We received the book on card systems ordered of (20) you ten days ago. It is not just what we want, so we have returned it, with bill (21), under separate cover.

Very truly yours,

G.

Gentlemen:

Inclose (22) you will find one dollar (23) for which send the General Retailer for the following year.

H.

Gentlemen:

Inclose (24) find check for one dollar (25) for which send (26) Bookkeeper and Stenographer to this house for one year.

incl. (27).

Yours Truly (28),

I. SENTENCES.

I took (29) a course of double-entry bookkeeping in one of the best business colleges in the state. I am familiar with purchase and general (30) ledgers. I (31) refer you to Mr. James Brown, Pineridge, Cal., or Heald's College, Fresno, Cal.

I should expect fifteen dollars (32) a week at beginning.

I am good at figures and accurate (33).

I can refer you to several (34) where I have held positions of confidence (35), and as to (36) my irreproachable (37) character.

A.

1. Is the punctuation all right? Observe that "call" is used in two senses. 2. Why should you tell him his absence could not be avoided? 3. What is the difference in meaning between "any time" and "a time"? 4. Whose father? You are not the only person in the world who has a father. 5. What is the matter with this verb?

B.

6. What is the preferred punctuation after a salutation? If this punctuation is right, why may not the same person use a colon or a comma and dash as he happens to feel like it? 7. In saying this in conversation would you omit the subject of the verb? 8. Does "a" go well with "business" in this connection? 9. Do you think the principal of your school would have been likely to write "want" in this letter? What is meant by the "tone of a word"? 10. Spelling? 11. Whose father? Surely not the principal's father?

C.

12. Do we "renew" calls? What things are "renewed"? 13. Is "extend" the word you would use in such a connection as this? 14. Are "appointments" "suitable"? What are they? What things are "suitable"?

D.

15. Which would you prefer, "note of appointment" or "letter making an appointment to meet your father"? Is the punctuation all right at this point? 16. What is the subject of "is"? 17. What is the best preposition with which to follow "convenient"? 18. Do you think "then" is definite enough here? Could the word have any other meaning in such a position than "at that time"? 19. Whose office?

F.

20. What other preposition might be preferred? 21. We send books "with bill;" but why return them "with bill"?

G.

22. What form of the verb should this be? 23. Is the punctuation sufficient at this point? Supply a suitable complimentary close.

H.

24. Form of verb needed? Is "inclose" better than "enclose"? Why? Look in the dictionary. 25. Punctuation? 26. Any word omitted. 27. Should this word, at the end of a letter, be written with a capital or a small letter? What does the abbreviation indicate?

28. Should "Truly" be capitalized?

I.

29. Is this the right tense to use in a letter applying for a position? 30. Could you take a course in bookkeeping and not be familiar with the "general" ledger? Why refer to "purchase" ledger? 31. How would you avoid beginning all these sentences with I? 32. Would you consider it good policy in a letter of application to mention "fifteen dollars a week"? Is that too much? 33. If a person is "good at figures" isn't he "accurate" anyway? 34. "Several" what? 35. Exactly what is a "position of confidence"? 36. Is it desirable to change the construction from "where" to "as to"? 37. Isn't this word a little too strong for the circumstances? If you were going to put these sentences into a properly connected letter, how would you dovetail them together to make a smooth letter?

LESSON VII. Predicate Complements.

See Grammar, section 22, pages 35-37.

What is a predicate complement?

What is a predicate adjective?

What is an objective complement?

Is an objective complement a noun or an adjective?

Are adverbs ever used as complements?

What is the difference between a predicate complement and a direct object?

Diagram the following sentences below:

Note. When two or more words are in the same construction, split the line on which they are to stand, as follows:



It was called, by the people of the neighborhood, the Golden River.

Its crops were so heavy that it was commonly called the Treasure Valley.

The two elder brothers were very ugly men, with overhanging eyebrows.

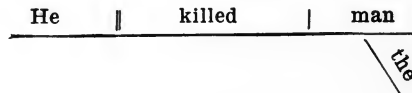
They lived by farming the Treasure Valley, and very good farmers they were.

He was usually appointed to the honorable office of turnspit, when there was anything to roast, which was not often.

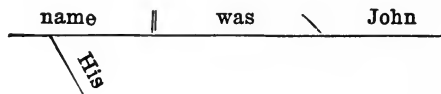
Predicate Complements. We have seen that a verb may be followed by an object noun or by a "predicate nominative"—a noun in the nominative case which means the same as the subject of the verb. The verb may also assert a quality or characteristic of the subject by the use of an adjective in the predicate which really qualifies the subject, as when we say "He is good" we assert the quality of goodness as belonging to the subject *he*.

These *predicate complements*, as they are called, may be pictured as follows:

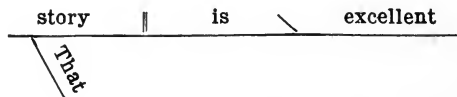
A noun as the direct object of a verb, as in "He killed the man"—



A noun as predicative nominative, as in "His name was John"—



An adjective expressing a quality asserted of the subject, as in "That story is excellent"—

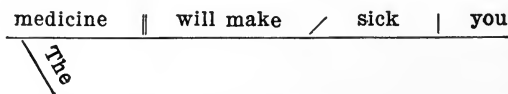


Sameness may be asserted between two objects of an active verb, as in "We named him John,"



(In this case *John* is placed before *him*, though *him* is more closely related to the verb, in order that the slanting line before *John* may clearly indicate that the word is to be connected with *him*. If *John* followed *him*, preceded by a slanting line, it might seem to refer back to the subject, *we*.)

In the same way an active verb may assert a quality of its object, as in "The medicine will make you sick," which may be diagrammed as follows:



These secondary objects and qualities are spoken of as *objective* nouns and adjectives or *objective complements*.

LESSON VII (Continued). From the Office of a Railroad Superintendent.

CIRCULAR NO. 125.

Bulletin No. 76.

ALL AGENTS AND FREIGHT HANDLERS (1).

We have lately had so many claims for damaged eggs (2) that we have been studying how to overcome them (3), and have concluded that our loading of eggs in cars for shipments, that is, lengthwise with the car, is wrong, for (4) a recent test of eighty-nine cases made by (5) Special Agent, developed (6) that on the cases loaded crosswise with the car there was practically no damage, while eggs (7) in cases loaded lengthwise with the car, were in nearly every case damaged (8). With this idea in view (9) we will change the loading of eggs, (including butter and egg runs) on this division, and observe the following rules (10): Car floor will hold three cases crosswise and one lengthwise—the first tier should be loaded in this (11) manner with the row lengthwise along one side of the car. The second tier should be loaded crosswise with a row lengthwise near the center (12). The third tier should be loaded crosswise with a row lengthwise along opposite side of car (13), then alternate the lengthwise row in each tier so that one will not come above another.

* It is not children alone who mix their verbs, run sentences together, paragraph badly, and so confuse their words it is almost impossible to tell what they mean. Railroad men in their letters and bulletins are among the worst sinners. An order like the preceding is not at all unusual. Let us try to reconstruct this so as to make it clear, simple, and effective.

1. What punctuation is needed here? 2. Were not the claims "for damage to eggs" rather than "for damaged eggs"? 3. Make a new sentence here. The words that follow are needlessly twisted. Say briefly and simply, "We have concluded that loading eggs lengthwise with the car is wrong." 4. Another sentence may begin here. 5. Do not omit the small word "a." Nothing is gained by it. 6. The writer means "has developed the fact that." Change what follows into a clause with "when." 7. Observe the change in sentence construction here from "on cases" to "eggs in cases." Make the construction in the same clause uniform. 8. Here is a good place for a new paragraph. 9. "With this idea in view" is a very poor way of saying "we will therefore." 10. These rules should be put into another paragraph. What follows seems to be put backwards foremost. 11. To just what does "this" refer? Change the construction. 12. This is the first really good sentence in the order. 13. A new sentence begins here. These two sentences are run together with only a comma between because the writer seems to think "then" is a relative word like "when."

Several commas in this circular are misplaced: which are they and where should they go?

Rewrite the whole in the best simple and clear English you can command.

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 95, "Words Often Misused," or How to Do Business by Letter, pp. 29, 33.

What is the difference in meaning between "a small and speckled fish" and "a small and a speckled fish"?

For what have you "ability," and for what have you "capacity"?

Mention a case of "acceptance" and another of "acceptation."

Is an ambassador "credited" or "accredited" to the Court of St. James?

Are you "affected" or "effected" by a cold? Does the President "affect" or "effect" the removal of a bad officer?

Do you say you are "afraid of burglars," or "afraid you can't go"?

What "aggravates" the offense? Can you "aggravate" a person?

Why is it wrong to say "These pictures are both alike"?

Should a teacher say, "The boy's mother is alleged to be sick"?

How many "alternatives" can there be?

Is a dream an "allusion" or an "illusion"?

Should you say, "Please divide the cake between all the boys"? What should you say?

When should "an" be used before a word beginning with h?

What is the matter with, "He told me a deliberate and malicious falsehood, and which he knew would hurt his brother"?

What is the meaning of "etc."? What is the difference between "etc.," "and so forth," and "and the like"?

Write a sentence using "antiseptic" correctly.

When may you use "anyhow"? What is a "vulgarism"?

When do you "apprehend" and when do you "comprehend" what your teacher says?

Extra double lesson and review: Write out Exercise III, Grammar, page 37.

LESSON VIII. The Verb.

See Grammar, pp. 38-41.

What is an auxiliary verb?

In the following verb phrases, underscore the auxiliary verbs: have done, did act, is beloved, shall have been done, is going to be done, will be killed.

What is the passive voice?

Change the following sentences so that the verb will be in the passive voice:

The man killed the policeman. (Changed form—The policeman was killed by the man.)

We caught a basketful of fish.

The manager told him he must leave at once.

The wheat corner last spring ruined him.

Questions:

What is the progressive form of the verb?

Give six original examples of the progressive form of the verb.

What are perfect tenses? What auxiliary is used to indicate them?

What is the auxiliary verb "do" used for? Give three examples.

What are "shall" and "will" used to indicate?

After what pronouns is "shall" found and after what "will"?

What are "should" and "would"? In what kinds of sentences are they usually found?

What is the difference between the potential mode and the indicative? What auxiliaries are used with the potential?

What is the meaning of "tense"?

Give three examples of sentences with the present tense.

Give three examples of sentences with the past tense.

Give three examples of sentences with the future tense.

What is number? Give examples.

What is person? What are the three persons?

State the rule for the agreement of the verb in person and number.

THE VERB.

The verb offers far more complications than any other part of speech. In the first place, it often consists of more than one word. There are a number of verbs known as auxiliary verbs, some of which are used only as auxiliaries, and some of which may also appear as independent verbs.

The three most important auxiliaries are *to be*, *to have*, and *to do*, all of which may also be used independently. *To be* is the most irregular verb in the English language, and has many forms apparently utterly unlike, as *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, as well as *be* and *been* and some antiquated forms like *beest*, etc.

The verb *to be* indicates existence in the simplest and most direct way in which it can be indicated, and has the force of asserting without asserting anything in particular. The particular character of the assertion is to be looked for in the words which follow. This verb is used to indicate what is called the *passive voice*, or a form of assertion in which the subject bears everything but actually does nothing. For example, "I am wounded," "You were loved," "He is ruined," are illustrations of the passive voice, in which parts of the verb *to be* appear as auxiliaries to the verb forms which contain the real significance.

To be is also used to indicate what is called the *progressive* form of the verb, which asserts the action or state as continuing at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, as "I am going there now," "He was reading a book," "You were thinking about it at that time."

The verb *to have* is used as an auxiliary to indicate a peculiar state of completeness in the action at a given time, as "I have already done it" (at the present time), "I had told him all about it" (at the past time to which I refer), etc. The forms in which *to have* and its parts occur as auxiliaries are spoken of as the *perfect tenses*, since they assert the action as being *perfect* or completed at a certain time, either past, present, or future.

The verb *to do* is used as an auxiliary to give peculiar emphasis to an assertion, as in "I do love you," in asking question without emphasis, as "Do you see it?" and with negatives, as "She did not come to the party."

Shall and *will* are the two words regularly used to indicate action or state of being at a future time, as in "I shall go there to-morrow," "Will you do as I ask you?" *Shall* is regularly used with the first person (I and we), *will* with other persons; but there are many variations from this rule which we shall consider later.

Should and *would* are apparently past tenses of *shall* and *will*, but as auxiliaries they indicate conditional action or state of being, as in "Would you have done it, had I requested it?" These words are usually found in constructions which contain or imply a subordinate sentence introduced by *if* or some similar word. In the example above, "had I requested it" is equivalent to "if I had requested it."

Can, *may*, and their corresponding past forms *could* and *might*, are used to indicate possibility of some kind, and indicate, with *should* and *would*, what is called the *potential* mode. Simple assertion constitutes the *indicative* mode. *Must* and *let* may also be ranked as auxiliaries.

All verbs indicate the time of the action or state of being as present, past, or future, and accordingly are said to be in the present, past, or future *tense* (tense meaning time). Thus "I am here" is the present tense, "I went to town yesterday" is the past tense, "I shall be hungry at dinner time" is the future tense. The past and present tenses are regularly indicated by different forms of the verb, *ed* being added to the present to indicate the past, as in "I love you" (present) and "I loved you once" (past). *Loving* is a present form, as *loved* is past.

The English verb ordinarily has but one other irregularity or variation, and that is used to indicate the third person singular of the indicative mode. To understand that, we must know the meaning of *person* and *number*.

Number. All nouns or pronouns are either plural or singular in number. *I*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *cow*, *horse*, *cat*, *dog*, are all singular because they refer to only one object; but *we*, *they*, *cows*, *horses*, *cats*, *dogs*, are plural, because each refers to more than one object.

Person. The person speaking is the first person (I or we), the person spoken to is the second person (you, thou), while the person spoken of is the third person (he, she, it, they, these, etc.)

Rule. The verb must agree with its subject in person and number. In English the form of the verb is usually the same for all persons and numbers, except the third person singular of the present indicative, and the forms derived from it. The only exception is found in the case of the irregular verb *to be* and the forms used with the now antiquated pronoun *thou*.

LESSON VIII (Continued). Punctuation—Capital Letters.

A punctuation mark is like a word or letter in the sentence—it helps to express the meaning clearly, so preventing confusion. The great modern rule for punctuation is—

NEVER USE A PUNCTUATION MARK THAT DOES NOT HELP TO EXPRESS THE MEANING. If you cannot see a good reason for using any given mark it is better to omit it.

Certain things are indicated by punctuation marks, and we should study the art of punctuation just as we would study the art of expressing ideas by words. When we fully understand the value of each mark and how it may be used, we will then employ it, not according to blind rule, but for the purpose of getting our own ideas expressed so others will understand us.

The best way in which to learn it is to form the habit of observing the punctuation of standard literature as one reads. The number of rules in common manuals of punctuation is so great as to confuse rather than to aid the mind. It is better to drill on a very few cardinal principles, and trust to instinct and observation for cases not covered by such principles. For practical convenience we may include capital letters under the head of punctuation, though that is not technically a question of "pointing."

CAPITAL LETTERS.—Every noun which is the name of a single individual is called a *proper* noun, and should begin with a capital letter, while a noun which designates a class of individuals is called a *common* noun, and begins with a small letter unless the capital be required by its position in the sentence.

Examples: John, Mary, Europe, Washington, (the) Coliseum, etc., are proper nouns; cow, west, country, sun, battle, etc., are all common nouns. If, however, a common noun by continued use designates a particular object or place, by such use it becomes a proper noun and must be written with a capital letter, as (the) *South* used to designate the southern part of the United States, (the) *West* used to designate the western part of the United States, (the) *Orient* used to designate Asia and adjacent territory, etc. (The) *sun* and (the) *moon* might appear with capitals, but the capitals are not employed. The seasons also are written with small letters, as *summer*, *winter*, etc.

Adjectives derived from proper names are also written with capitals, as *European*, *Western* (referring to the western part of the United States), *Oriental*, etc.

There is an old rule that every sentence begins with a capital letter; but this is true only if the preceding sentence ends with a full stop.

Every line of poetry begins with a capital letter.

Titles of persons, books, etc., are capitalized.

Common nouns are sometimes written with capital letters to show emphasis, or when by a figure of speech the writer wishes to give them the dignity of proper nouns, as "The three cardinal principles of sentence-making are Unity, Mass, and Coherence"; "He was very fond of Art (spelled with a capital letter)."

Quotations and statements complete in themselves as sentences are begun with capital letters. Examples: He said, "Now is the time to make your fortune"; The great rule for business success is, Do well whatever you have to do, cost what it may.

Incomplete quotations are not begun with capitals. Example: He sent word home to have a good dinner ready; "for," said he, "I have not had anything fit to eat in three days."

EXERCISES.

It is more important to get a principle fixed in the mind than to memorize all the cases in which that principle might be applied. I have before me a book giving twenty-six rules for the use of capital letters; but if you have the preceding principles clearly in mind you can make the rule for yourself whenever you need it. Let us begin with the first great principle, that the name of one individual begins with a capital letter, but the name of a class does not.

You know well enough that the names of persons and places begin with capital letters; but let us examine some particular cases.

Would you capitalize "street" in the following? "He lives on this street"; "There was a flurry on the street today" (meaning Wall Street).

"I should like to interview the head of your company"; "I do not think the company would grant your request"; "I do not think our company would grant your request": how about "company" in each sentence?

Would you capitalize "congress," "the house of representatives," "the house of commons," "the young men Christian association," "the university of the state of Illinois," "the high school at Streator," "the-Streator high school," "Garden street," "the Missouri river," "the thirteenth ward" (meaning a certain ward in Chicago or any other particular city), "the revolutionary war" (in American history), "the Congressional library"? In the case of a double name like "Congressional library" or "Garfield avenue," what is the real and full name? How do you decide what words to capitalize and what not to capitalize?

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 98, or How to Do Business by Letter, pp. 34, 38, 43.

Are you "apt," "likely," or "liable" to get into trouble?

Mention five things that "rise" and five that "arise."

When should one use "as" and when "so" in making a comparison? Give three examples of each.

Do you "arrive at the village of Lexington" or "in"? "At Chicago" or "in"? "At England" or "in England"?

Do you live "at No. 48 Cary Street" or "in"?

Is it proper to say there was a large "audience" at the pantomime?

What is a woman who writes books?

If a boy strikes you do you "avenge" the wrong or "take revenge" for it?

Is going to school your "vocation" or your "avocation"?

Why is it ridiculous to speak of an "awfully nice piece of pie"?

What is the meaning of "balance"? Why is it not correct to say "The balance of us left at five"?

Write three sentences in which "besides" and "beside" are correctly used.

Can you divide an apple between three girls?

What should you say instead of "He blamed it on me"?

What is the matter with "He both learns his lessons well and quickly"?

Give a sentence illustrating the correct use of "bring," "fetch," and "carry."

Give a sentence in which "but" is a preposition followed by *he* or *him*. What is the matter with "but what"?

Do peas have bulk? Does work? Does love? Does beef?

What is the difference between a room filled "by" a crowd and a room filled "with" a crowd?

What is the objection to "I calculate on getting there first"?

Would you say that a pretty little lady was childlike or childish?

Can you claim to have learned your lesson?

Give a sentence in which "compare to" is correctly used.

LESSON IX. Singular and Plural.

Study the Grammar carefully from the bottom of page 41 to the end of the chapter before attempting to write out the following sentences with the correct form.

If revision, criticism, and systematic instruction (is—are) required, I shall be glad to give them.

If revision, criticism, or systematic instruction (is—are) required, I shall be glad to give them.

Every little girl and boy (has—have) a stick of candy.

All the little girls and boys (have—has) sticks of candy.

None of the apples (is—are) good.

None (is—are) man enough to own his crime.

Practically none of the papers (have—has) the complete story.

A number of the employees (have—has) left, and others will follow.

A certain number of the employees (have—has) been called on.

There (is—are) a large number on the train.

The Russian people (have—has) declared (themselves—itself).

The American people (know—knows) his honesty.

The crowd (is—are) filling the square.

A multitude of men and women (buy—buys) patent medicines.

The army (has—have) arrived in town.

The Company (has—have) built a new factory.

John Wanamaker & Co. (have—has) a store in New York.

My friend (don't—does n't) like this place.

The United States army (is n't—ain't) as large as that of England.

Note.—Look up “ain't” in the dictionary.

The people of the United States (have n't—has n't) the love for music found in Germany.

The American people (has n't—have n't) eradicated “graft.”

Note.—Why is “graft” put in quotation marks in this and in the preceding sentence?

Thus we conjugate the verb *to do* :

<i>Present tense</i>		<i>Past tense</i>	
I do	We do	I did	We did
You do	You do	You did	You did
He does	They do	He did	They did

The only irregular form that we find here is "he does." Instead of *he* we may substitute any singular subject in the third person, that is, any noun or pronoun (not *I*, *we*, or *you*), and say "A man does," "Helen does," "It does," "One does." Our instincts are sufficiently good guides for most cases. We would not say* "The babies does all they likes," nor "John do many hard jobs." But there are many words and combinations which do not show clearly on their face whether they are singular or plural. "John and Helen" would be followed by a plural form of the verb, because the two taken together are used as the subject; but "John or Helen" would be followed by the singular form of the verb, because we are thinking of either one, but not of both at the same time.

"All of us" is plural, evidently, but "Every one of us," which means practically the same thing, as it would seem, is singular, because "Every one of us" means all of us taken one at a time, and the form of the verb must be singular. So also "Every man and woman" is singular, because though *man* and *woman* taken together are plural, the *every* indicates that we take only one man or woman at a time; hence the verb which follows must be singular.

Some modern grammarians contend that the word *none* is singular because it is evidently derived by a contraction of *no one*, but the best authorities hold that *none* may be either singular or plural, and a phrase such as "None of the men remains or remain in the room" may mean that the very last man is gone, or that the last group of men is gone. If we are thinking of the last man, *none* is singular, but if we mean the last group of men, *none* is plural. So some grammarians contend that "a number of men" is always singular, because there is but one "number." But in such a sentence as "A number of us are going to town" it is better to regard "a number" as a plural form, in analogy with the plural form "a few of us," which every one admits to be plural. If, however, we are thinking of a definite number, even when we use the general phrases "a large number," or "a small number," a singular verb should be used.

Another class of nouns which gives difficulty is the so called collective nouns, such as *people*, *crowd*, *army*, *multitude*, etc. These words are followed either by the singular or by the plural form of the verb, according as we think of the collection as a single body, or a number of individuals in a group. Thus we should certainly say, "The army is encamped on the plain," and equally clearly we would say, "People say it is not true."

The form of the verb should show the nature of the subject. The correct form is the one that expresses our thought with logical exactness. If we use the singular form of the verb it should mean that we wish to refer to the subject as a single object, but if we use the plural form it should show that we are thinking of all the various single objects that go to make up the whole, and that we are thinking of each as acting alone.

Nothing demonstrates better than this that grammar is a matter of logical relationships of words and phrases used to express ideas. Violations of grammar arise more from carelessness than from anything else, and the study of correct language should be, not a study of rules, but a study of the exact meaning of words, and their exact logical relations to other words in the accurate expression of ideas.

* But some people say, "He don't do it" for 'He doesn't do it,' though they would not say "He do not do it."

LESSON IX (Continued). More Exercises on Capital Letters.

Would you capitalize titles of books, and why? What words would you capitalize in titles? What would you do about the titles of chapters? Decide these matters by direct observation. Rules are unnecessary. Bring in five titles of books and five titles of chapters properly capitalized, and indicate the rule for choosing the words to capitalize.

Do you capitalize the days of the week, the days of the month, the months, the seasons?

When or why would you capitalize "the North" or "the West," "the Orient" or "the North Pole"?

Make a list of fifteen proper adjectives that ought to be capitalized.

Do you know any single letters that by custom are always written as capitals when they are words? There are two such. Can you think of any reason why they should be thus written. Can you think of any circumstances under which they would be written as small letters.

Is the word "oh" written with a capital when it comes in the middle of a sentence?

If you address the president of a company who is also a member of Congress and has the degree of doctor of philosophy from a university, how would you indicate all his titles? Write out such an address.

In what ways may capital letters be used for emphasis in a business letter? There are two distinct ways, when all the letters are capitals and when only the first letter is a capital. Illustrate from observation the proper use of each.

How would you justify the capitals in a sales letter reading as follows:

"Term Life Insurance is now written at practically the same proportionate cost as is Fire Insurance.

"You never would permit a valuable building to go uninsured against loss by fire. Why should you insure the PROPERTY which is the product of your life work, and let the LIFE that produces the property go uninsured?"

"I take the liberty of inclosing herewith a statement for a Convertible Term Policy which I know will prove of interest to you, as it has these great advantages:

"1. It gives you excellent protection at the very lowest premium;

"2. It grants you the option of exchanging the policy at any time for any other contract issued by the Company without medical examination."

Can you decide from the above whether paragraphs begin with capital letters when they do not start with the beginning of a sentence? An excellent example of this may be found on page 250 of "How to Do Business by Letter and Advertising" and another on page 135 of "How to Do Business by Letter and Training Course in Conversational English."

Give three examples of a direct quotation requiring capital letters, and three examples of an indirect quotation that does not require capital letters.

Give an example of a formal statement not quoted that begins with a capital letter in the middle of a sentence.

Write the following abbreviations with correct capitalization: a. m., f. o. b., ll.d., lbs., i. e., p. o., m. c., m. p., ph. d., y. m. c. a., 17st st.

Write correctly the following display advertising head for a form letter:

The most wonderful discovery of the age
THE ECONOMY JAR
For meats, vegetables, and fruits
Kerr Glass mfg co.

Are Roman numerals always capitalized? Look at the paging of the introductory matter in an English book.

Write the following citation correctly: Par. 3, sec. 4, ch. vi, vol. iii. Also this: part II, act V, book 9.

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 100, or How to Do Business by Letter, pp. 43, 48.

Do you pay "compliments" or "complements"?

What does "congregate" mean? Why is "congregate together" wrong?

Give sentences in which "continual" and "continuous" are correctly used.

Do you "co-operate with your teacher" or "together with her"?

Write sentences using correctly "corporeal" and "corporal."

Do you "counsel" with a friend or teacher, or "council"? Does the head of a school or business call a "counsel" or a "council"?

Is a true story "credible" or "creditable"? What is "creditable"?

Mention some of the "customs" of your home and some of your own "habits."

Do you "demean" yourself well? When, where, and how?

Is it right to say "He died with scarlet fever"?

What word should follow "differ" or "different"?

Is there "dirt" on the floor? Is there "dirt" in the road? Would that which is "earth" in the road become "dirt" in the house?

What word should follow "disagree"?

Write sentences using correctly "disposition" and "disposal."

What is the difference between "divers" and "diverse," both in meaning and in pronunciation?

What is "don't" a contraction for? "Doesn't"? In what positions is "don't" frequently misused?

When should you use "dozen" as the plural of "dozen" and when "dozens"?

Why not say "I have drank"?

Write sentences using correctly "one another" and "each other."

LESSON X. Singular and Plural.

Observe that pronouns must agree in person and number with the nouns to which they refer.

If in doubt as to whether any of the following nouns are singular or plural, look them up in the dictionary. Not all nouns ending in s are plural.

Rewrite the following sentences with the correct form:

The United States (is—are) a world power.

Politics (ruin—ruins) many a man.

Athletics (is—are) approved by the college.

I had a pair of pincers. Have you seen (them—it)?

(This—these) news (is—are) bad.

Tidings of the battle (has—have) just arrived.

Their nuptials (were—was) celebrated at noon.

(This—these) assets (are—is) all there (is—are).

By (this—these) means he got the election.

His means (were—was) limited.

His ethics (are—is) not good.

Ethics (demand—demands) a different rule.

The proceeds (don't—does n't) go to the society.

General Grant's tactics (is—are) commended by historians.

The society of the alumni (are—is) holding (its—their) meeting.

Such (a) phenomena (are—is) startling.

(This—these) analyses (are—is) inaccurate.

I cannot go by such criteria as (this—these).

He found the lower strata (was—were) granite.

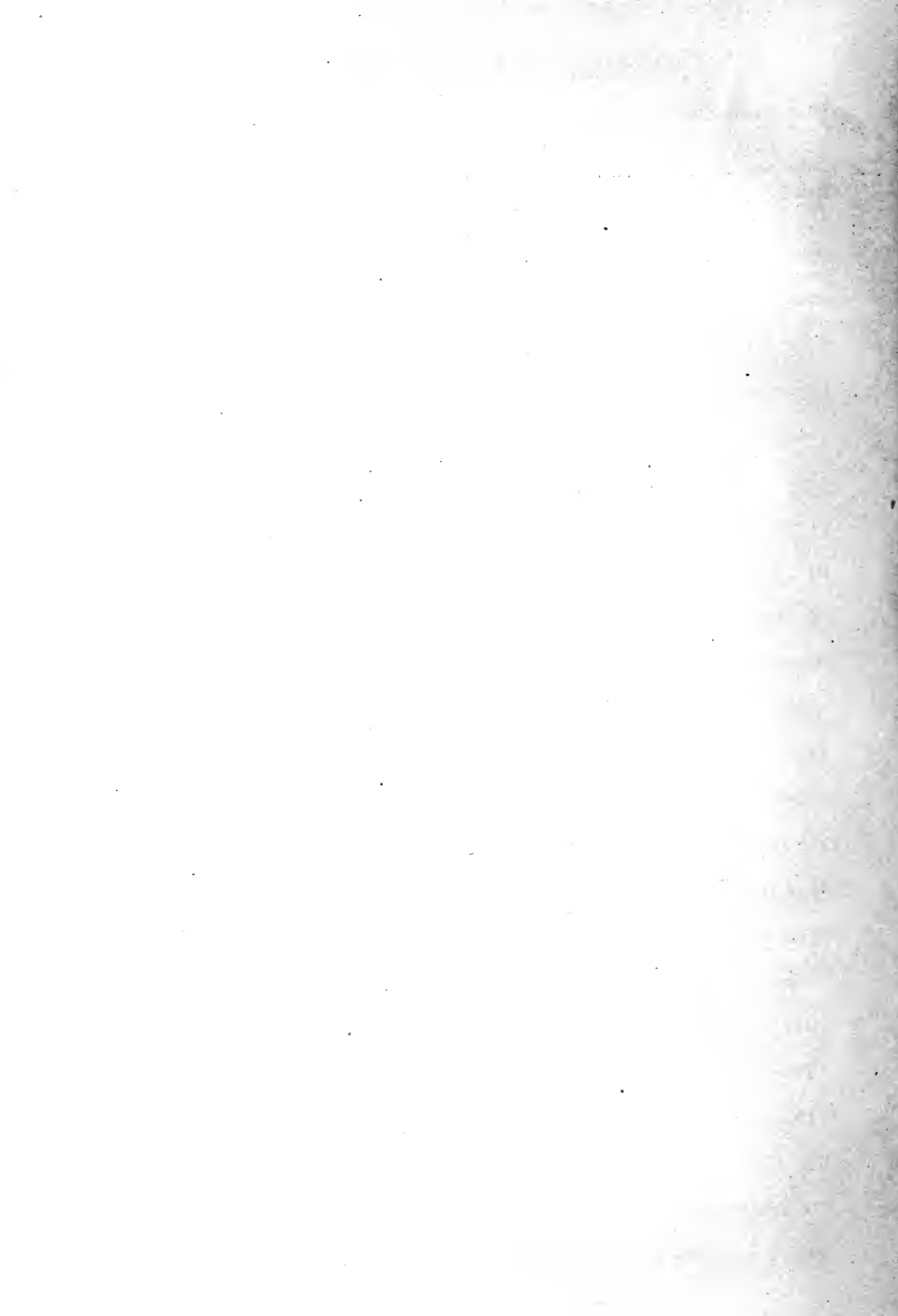
(This—these) curricula (have—has) nothing practical in (it—them)

(This—these) hypothesis (are—is) not well founded.

The *alumnæ* (does n't—don't) approve the choice.

He (don't—doesn't) claim to eradicate all the (bacteria—bacterium).

Such a (phenomena—phenomenon) is unusual.



LESSON X (Continued). Punctuation—the Full Stop.

THE PERIOD.—Ordinary sentences, if complete, are ended with a period. A group of words cannot end with a period unless it contains a principal subject and a principal predicate, expressed or understood. Groups of words which omit subject or predicate are not complete sentences, and if used at all they must be treated as exclamations and be followed by exclamation points. Carlyle and some others ignore this rule.

(The old rule that every complete sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period is not strictly correct, for many sentences grammatically complete in every way end with colons, semi-colons, and even with commas when conjunctions are clearly implied, if the ideas are closely connected with those in adjoining sentences. Such connected sentences cannot in most cases be reckoned compound sentences).

Every abbreviation should be followed by a period. Examples: D.D., Mr., LL. D., e. g., lb., Messrs.

Formerly the Roman numerals (I, II, III, etc.), were followed by periods, but that usage is now being discontinued.

EXCLAMATION AND INTERROGATION POINTS.—Of course every direct question should be followed by a mark of interrogation, and every clear exclamation by an exclamation point.

Note that indirect questions are not followed by the interrogation point. Example: He asked me if I would go.

If interjections are used in connection with other words, the exclamation point should be placed only at the end of the whole exclamation. Each point denotes a separate exclamation. Example: Alas, I do not know where food is to be found!

Parts of sentences which lack either a subject or a predicate or both, if used at all, should be treated as exclamations and be followed by the exclamation point. Example: To think that I should do such a thing!

Whenever a direct question is raised, an interrogation point should indicate the fact. So sometimes we have an interrogation point inclosed in parenthesis, equivalent to an interrogative sentence; and after double dashes indicating that a sentence has come to an abrupt termination, the questioning intonation of the portion of the sentence given must be indicated by a question mark after the dash. The same rule applies to exclamations.

Example: "You were going to tell me——"?

EXERCISES.

We have already studied the sentence and how careless writers run two sentences together with only a comma between.

Do you know the difference between a subject and predicate expressed and those that are only implied? What are the subjects and predicates expressed or implied in the following: "We are going to give you another good chance. The chance is Radford's Big Weeklies. Seven hundred and fifty thousand of them every week." Should the last group of words be followed by an exclamation point?

When a letter ends, "Thanking you for your kindness in this matter, Very sincerely yours," what subject and predicate are implied? Are they clearly implied?

When a letter begins "Replying to your favor of the 16th inst.," stopping there with a period, would you say the subject and predicate are implied? What are they implied from? Is there any context from which they can be implied when the phrase begins the letter? Would you be justified in using an exclamation point after such a group of words as this?

Is an exclamation point needed in the following?

"'If I had only done it sooner' exclaims the man who has taken no precaution against fire till the fire occurs." Is the quoted part a complete sentence, or does the word "if" seem to make it a sort of subordinate clause? Or is "if" in this place an exclamatory word?

What is the exclamatory word in the following? "How changed in these new days!" Mention several other exclamatory words. When you have an exclamatory word in a sentence should you always have an exclamation point at the end of the expression?

Give an example of the point used after single exclamatory words.

Is the word "Miss" an abbreviation requiring a period after it? Is "per cent" an abbreviation requiring a period? (In English it is not now considered an abbreviation, though in Latin it was "per centum" and when the "um" was left off a period took its place.) If the word "Ass'n" an abbreviation or a contraction? Is a period required after it? Is "Bldg." properly treated as an abbreviation or a contraction? (Answer: For convenience in business usage, it is an abbreviation.)

When a single word in a sentence is queried, how would you write the question mark so as to show it applied only to that one word or phrase? When a plain statement is given the tone of a query, how is the query indicated? How would an exclamatory tone be shown in such a connection? Illustrate each of these points.

Where is a period used in writing figures other than at the end of the sentence? What is such a period called? Where is a period used in writing money as figures?

How would you write "seven forty ante meridiem" in abbreviated form, with figures?

Do you find the period used in modern books at the ends of lines on the title-page or after chapter headings? Note examples in three different books.

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 102, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 49, 53.

Why is "either of the three" wrong?

Write sentences in which "elicit" and "illicit" are correctly used.

Give examples of complete sentences with "than" and "but" used after "else."

What is the difference between an "emigrant" and an "immigrant"?

Is there such a word as "enthuse"?

Criticise "Lincoln was equally as great."

Is "every man, woman, and child" singular or plural?

What is wrong about "everywheres"?

What part of speech is "except" and what part of speech is "unless"? Give examples of the correct and incorrect use of these words.

Can you expect what happened yesterday? What can you expect about yesterday's happenings?

What is the difference in use between "farther" and "further"?

What is wrong, if anything, about "As I was passing the door a female came out"; "He was descended from Alfred in the female line"?

What is the matter with "final completion"?

If you owe a boy ten cents, is it a "financial," "pecuniary," or "monetary" obligation? If the United States places a million dollars in the banks, what kind of an operation is it?

What is the correct word for "firstly"?

Is it proper to speak of a stick being "fired across the room"?

What is the matter with "Fix the furniture"?

To what kinds of beings are the following group words properly applied: flock, bevy, pack, gang, host, shoal, herd, troop, covey, galaxy, horde, heap, drove, mob, school, congregation, corps, band, swarm, crowd?

Extra lesson and review: Write new sentences in which each of the peculiar words in the last two lessons is correctly used. Also write out Exercise IV, page 44.

LESSON XI. Participles.

See Grammar, Chapter VI, pages 44-50.

What two offices does a participle perform?

Give three examples of an infinitive used as a noun.

Where will you look for the subject of the verb action of a participle?

In what way are participial clauses related to the principal subject or predicate?

What is a nominative absolute? Is this form desirable? Why is it sometimes used?

Is the subject of a participle ever in the objective case?

What case is regularly the subject of an infinitive?

What case is usually the subject of the verb action in a participle when such a subject is specially expressed?

Who or what is the subject of the action expressed in the participles printed in italics in the following sentences, and what is the grammatical construction of these participles?—

Liking the country as *he* did, he did not hesitate to buy a home.

In *crossing* the bridge he stumbled and fell.

His *going* depends on my *staying*.

On *weighing* the coffee they found an excess of fifty pounds.

Pushed on by circumstances, he stumbled into wealth.

I could not keep him from *returning* last night.

They prevented his *coming*.

I saw many birds *sitting* on the fence.

Liking money is no sin.

Answering your letter just at hand, I am compelled to say no.

Referring to your statement of yesterday, I wish to say I entirely disagree with you.

He was a man *named* Smythe or Browne.

I liked his *taking* hold of the work so readily.

Many writers have ranked the *participle* as a separate part of speech. It is in reality a sort of hybrid, half verb and half adjective, and may become a noun. The *infinitive* is also a curious form of the verb, for it may often be used as a noun and is interchangeable to some extent with the present participle.

There are two forms of the participle, the present, ending in *ing*, and the past, ending regularly in *ed* (but also being formed with other endings). The infinitive is indicated by the preposition *to*, which often wholly loses its character as a preposition in introducing one word to another, and serves merely as the sign of the infinitive mode of the verb. In this case the infinitive is to be regarded as a verbal noun.

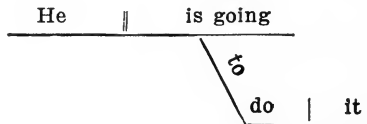
Examples: Present participle as simple adjective—"The *boxing* parson preached to-day."

Past participle as simple adjective—"The *learned* doctor delivered the address"; "The *past* year shows a good report"; "The work *begun* is a credit to the town."

Present participle as noun—"By *signing* your name you will secure your rights"; "I like *riding*."

Infinitive as noun—"To *be good* is to *be wise*."

The chief office of the infinitive is simply to complete the meaning of other verbs, as when we say, "I like *to ride*"; "He is going *to do* it"; etc. Here the assertion that is made in regard to the subject is not complete until the infinitive is added, and we may look on the first verb as more or less of an auxiliary. In fact, "He will do it" and "He is going to do it" are very much alike, and grammarians look on the *do* after *will* as an infinitive with the sign (*to*) omitted. However, in all cases in which the *to* is expressed we are accustomed to treat the infinitive as separate from the verb, and picture it in our diagrams as an ordinary prepositional phrase.



But the infinitive may have a subject of its own, which will always be in the objective case. In such a relation the *to* is commonly omitted, as in "I shall make him do it."

Here the whole phrase, "him do it," may be regarded as taking the place of a noun and forming the object of *shall make*, though it would not be altogether improper to place it below and connect it with *shall make* by a dotted line, after the manner of a subordinate sentence.

In such cases as "To be good is to be wise," the *to* merely introduces the verbal phrases which serve as nouns, and does not introduce the verb to anything in particular.

Fully to explain such a sentence grammatically and logically, however, we must reflect that a personal subject is implied, such as "any one," "any person." The adjective *good* and the adjective *wise* really qualify this indefinite implied personality.

We see, however, that while acting as a verbal noun, an infinitive may exercise all the qualities of a verb in taking predicate modifiers, either nouns or adjectives; and it may also be modified by adverbs.

The participle may also exercise the functions of verbs in the same way, as in the sentence, "I found him rapidly *writing* letters."

LESSON XI (Continued). Punctuation—the Comma.

The comma is used to separate words so you can tell where one phrase or clause begins and another ends. Unless you can develop a sort of instinct for recognizing phrase and clause groups so you will never, NEVER stick a comma into the middle of one, and never leave out a comma that would help the reader from running together two groups of words which do not belong together, you have not mastered the art of punctuation.

GENERAL RULE. Never use a comma that does not help to make the meaning clearer by separating groups of words that otherwise might be confused even momentarily by the hasty reader.

This is the great negative rule. We will now illustrate five positive rules. In addition we take it for granted that you will always use a comma whenever you see clearly how it will prevent confusion and help you express your meaning, whether you can give a rule for it or not.

Rule 1.—Several words, all of which modify equally, or stand in the same relationship to, some other word, are separated by commas.

Examples: He was a great, good, noble man. (The three adjectives *great*, *good*, and *noble*, all modify *man* equally. The commas would be used just the same if the last two were connected by *and*, as we may see in the preceding sentence, though some writers inconsistently omit the comma before *and*. The old-fashioned idea was that in a sense the comma took the place of an omitted *and*, as it sometimes seems to take the place of an omitted verb; but now the comma is insisted on before the *and* to prevent confusion in such a case as the following: The three couples were Mr. James and Miss Barber, Mr. Lang and Miss Harte, and Mr. Jennings and Miss Fairfax. Without the comma after "Harte" there would obviously be confusion. If, however, there are only two, and they are connected by *and*, or if there are several not specially emphasized or contrasted, all connected by *and*, no comma is used; as in, "He was a great and good man," or, "He was a great and good and noble man."

Men, women, and children ran for their lives. (Here the three nouns *men*, *women*, and *children*, are all equally the subject of *ran*.)

N. B.—When adjectives modify a noun unequally; one modifying the meaning of the noun as first qualified by another adjective, no comma is used to separate the two adjectives.

Example: The poor old man ran for his life. (Here *poor* modifies the meaning of *old man*, not *man* alone, and *the* modifies *man* as first modified by *poor* and *old*.)

(*The* is never set off by a comma when it is one of the several adjectives modifying a noun.)

Rule 2. A subordinate sentence, or a participial phrase, is set off from the main sentence by a comma or commas if it is merely explanatory, but if it is restrictive no commas are required.

(Note.—This is the most difficult and important rule we shall give, and it should be thoroughly mastered.)

Examples. There is the man who provoked him. (The subordinate sentence "who provoked him" modifying *man* is absolutely necessary to the full meaning, that is, it restricts the meaning of *man* instead of being merely an explanatory addition. Therefore no comma is required.)

Do you remember Jenny, who was at the lake last summer? (In this sentence the meaning would be complete if we stopped with *Jenny* and placed a period after that word. The subordinate sentence merely throws in an additional explanation, and therefore is set off by a comma.)

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 105, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 53, 60, 61, 73.

What is the difference between a friend and an acquaintance?

Explain the special meanings of "generally," "usually," "frequently," and "commonly."

What do you call a woman who writes books or poetry?

When is it proper to say "gent"?

In order to say you have "got a book," what do you have to do?

Give a sentence containing "guess" correctly used.

What should you write instead of "Had I have known it"?

What alternative form for "would rather"? Is it correct?

When should you use "hanged" ?

Why is "not" incorrect with "hardly"?

Give examples of things that are "wholesome," things that are "healthy," and things that are "healthful."

Why is "from hence" wrong?

What is the difference between "human" and "humane"?

Give an example of the correct use of "illy."

Give examples of the correct use of "in" and "into." What does each imply?

Do you live "in" a street or "on" it? Did you drop your books "in" the street or "on" the street?

What is the difference between "invent" and "discover"?

What is the difference between "involve" and "implicate"?

Is "a" ever proper after "kind of"?

Why is "saleslady" ridiculous?

Explain the difference between "lay" and "lie," "lain" and "laid." Which one must always have an object? Which one never has an object? What is the past tense of "lie"? Of "lay"? The past participle of each? Give examples of the correct use of each in the different tenses.

LESSON XII. Participles.

In the last lesson the participles are all used correctly: in this lesson many of them are used incorrectly.

Note. There are three kinds of verbals in ing, participles which are simple adjectives modifying nouns, though like a verb they may take an object, participles which like nouns may be objects of prepositions or verbs or subjects of verbs and like verbs take objects of their own and are modified by adverbs, and verbal nouns which are modified by adjectives and then do not take objects, the verb quality being completely lost. Examples: Participle used as adjective: Liking the work, he accepted. Participle as verbal noun (called a gerund): His doing it so nicely was what pleased me. Pure verbal noun: The doing of it cost him an effort. When a word in ing is preceded by "the" or any adjective, it cannot take an object but must be followed by a preposition like any other noun.

Correct the following sentences, rearranging them if necessary:

Answering your letter of the 6th inst., you will find the sample you wish enclosed.

Referring to our conversation yesterday, why should n't my proposition be presented to the company?

I did not like him to call me so loudly.

Quick calling off the numbers will be the best plan.

I liked him talking to her so pleasantly.

Sitting on the fence we saw three tiny birds.

Holding the revolver up to see if it was loaded, it went off and shot him.

Tearing down and building up, making mistakes and correcting them, much money is wasted.

Speaking of Henry, did you hear that story Alice told about his proposing to her?

Granting all that, what can the company really do?

His mother cannot prevent him from seeing her often.

I like him for being so frank.

Seeing what he was up to, I told them they ought to have called out to him.

Loved by all, honored and revered, it was a pity he should disgrace himself in his old age.

Diagram the corrected sentences on the back of this sheet.

We have already seen that the subject noun and the assertive verb are both indispensable to any expression of thought. We may realize how far-reaching and important this principle is when we know that every verb, whatever its form, even the participle and the infinitive in so far as they exercise any of the functions of verbs, must have subjects of some kind, expressed or implied. If an infinitive is used to complete a verb, we look back through the auxiliary verb and find the real subject of the action or state expressed by the infinitive, in the subject of the sentence. Thus in the sentence, "I should like to do it," the logical subject of the act of doing is *I*. If we say, "I should like to have him do it," the subject of *have* is logically *I*, and of *do*, *him*.

The same is true of participles. Thus in the sentence, "While sitting on my doorstep yesterday, I caught sight of the most beautiful butterfly in the world." Here *sitting* is a participle evidently modifying the subject of the sentence, *I*. If we change the form of the sentence so as to make it read, "While sitting on my doorstep yesterday, my notice was attracted to the most beautiful butterfly in the world," we perceive that the real subject of the participle verb *sitting* is hard to find. It is perhaps implied in the possessive *my*, but it would be out of the question, grammatically, to attach *sitting* to *my*. If we should say, "While sitting on the doorstep yesterday, the most beautiful butterfly in the world attracted my notice," we would seem to imply that the butterfly was sitting, which is of course absurd. The sentences are manifestly imperfect from a logical point of view.

Even if the sentence is so constructed that it is not difficult to account for all the members, still if the subject of the infinitive or participle is obscured, the sentence is imperfect. Thus if we say, "To relieve him of all responsibility, he was given a written statement by the members of the firm," *To relieve* is evidently a simple qualifier of the verb *was given*, but whatever act was performed in relieving was not by *he*, the subject of *was given*, but by *members*, which appears in a subordinate phrase. The sentence is logically imperfect, though every word of it can be parsed. The same is true of the sentence, "By doing so, the matter will be cleared up by him."

There are various ways of legitimately relieving this situation, which we will now explain:

First, there is what is called the *nominative absolute*. A participle may stand as an independent verb with a nominative case as its subject, though always in a dependent relation to some principal sentence, as in "The wind blowing furiously, the boat was upset;" "He knowing that, I had no choice but to act as I did." *The wind* is subject of the participle *blowing*, and *He* is the subject of the independent participle *knowing*. Both *he* and *wind* are spoken of as independent nominatives, though they are no more independent than any other subjects of verbs. It would be more just to speak of the participles as independent in their use, for here they perform the offices of an ordinary verb even to having a separate subject in the nominative case. This use is not favored by the best critics or writers, and evidently grew up because the instincts of the mind sought to supply a suitable subject for the participle when no implied subject was in sight. This is a bungling method of relieving the logical incompleteness of such sentences as we discussed in the preceding paragraph.

The subject of the participle may be implied in a possessive, as in the sentence, "By his doing that, the situation was relieved." Here the character of the participle as noun is emphasized by the presence of a possessive used as a simple adjective modifier; but the subject of the assertive power in the participle is clear.

The participle, unlike the infinitive, never takes the objective case as its subject if this can be avoided. So we should say, "I could not prevent his doing it," rather than "I could not prevent him doing it," though we may say correctly enough, "I could not prevent him from doing it."

We have already given an example of an indefinite subject being implied when an infinitive is used in a general sense. The subject of the participle may be implied in the same way when it is general or indefinite, as in "Speaking of the President, what did you think of his manifesto?" "Granting all that, still how do you account for the strange circumstances?" *Granting* and *speaking* are evidently independent, with such subjects as *we*, *you*, etc., implied. Unless the subject is clearly implied, this method is objectionable.

LESSON XII (Continued). Punctuation—Further Study of the Comma.

The man who has mastered his subject will rule in his profession. (This is another case of a restrictive subordinate sentence. If it were omitted, the remaining parts of the sentence would make nonsense. The relative clause restricts the meaning of *man*—it is not any man, but “the man who has mastered his profession.”)

That man yonder, who was a millionaire last year, is almost ready to commit suicide. (If the subordinate sentence were omitted, the words left would still make complete sense. The relative clause is thrown in by way of additional explanation, and therefore is set off by commas.)

I love the lake because it is so beautiful.

I love the lake, because it is so beautiful.

(The use or omission of the comma in the preceding sentence indicates a difference in meaning. If the emphasis is on the subordinate sentence “because it is so beautiful,” no comma is needed; but if the emphasis is on the main sentence, “I love the lake,” and the subordinate sentence is thrown in merely by way of additional explanation, a comma should be used.)

I know where you are hiding.

I am going over there, where you are hiding.

(In the first sentence the subordinate clause is a necessary part of the sense, and so is not set off by commas, while in the second “where you are hiding” merely explains *there*.)

I know a man called John.

Do you see that tree, just hanging over the edge of the mountain?

(In the first sentence the participial phrase “called John” restricts the meaning of *man*, and is absolutely necessary to the sentence. Therefore no comma is needed. In the second sentence, the participial phrase is additional and explanatory, and the sentence would be complete without it. Therefore it is set off by a comma. If *that tree* had been *the tree* the phrase would have been restrictive, as it would have been required to indicate what tree. As it is, the word *that* implies that the tree is pointed out by the speaker, and the following clause is thrown in by way of explanation.)

Rule 3. Subordinate sentences and phrases which are transposed from their natural position in the sentence are usually set off by commas.

Examples: Where I go, there ye shall come also.

(In this sentence the natural position for “where I go” would be after the verb and *there* would then be omitted.)

After due consideration, they decided to give their notes.

(A prepositional phrase naturally follows the word it modifies, in this case the verb *decided*. As it is transposed to a place before the subject, it is set off by a comma.)

If the transposed clause or phrase is short and no confusion is possible, the comma should be omitted.

Example: Before I go I will return the book.

Rule 4. All words and phrases thrown in by way of explanation, or used independently in a sentence, are set off by commas.

Examples: I prefer, on the whole, to have my own way. (Here the phrase “on the whole” follows the word it modifies in natural order, but as it is thrown in merely by way of explanation, it is set off by commas.)

Yes, John, I shall go to-morrow. (In this sentence *John* is used independently, as it is the name of the person addressed; hence it is set off by commas.)

Christ, the great teacher, said, “Come unto me.” (The words “the great teacher” are thrown in to explain Christ. Here *teacher* is a noun in apposition with the noun *Christ*.)

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 109, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 73, 79.

What is the difference between "teach" and "learn"? Give examples of the correct use of each word.

Is "sideways" correct? What is better?

What things are "lengthy," and what are "long"?

Mention five things with which "less" is correct, five with which "fewer" is required.

To what sort of things is one "liable"?

Give sentences illustrating the correct use of "like" and "as."

What is the difference between "loan" and "lend"? Give examples of the correct use of each.

Give an example of the correct use of "locate" (look up in the dictionary). For what word is it often incorrectly used?

Is "look" followed by an adjective or an adverb? Why?

Give an example of the correct use of "lots."

Mention half a dozen things you "love," and as many that you only "like."

What is the difference between "luxurious" and "luxuriant"? Give illustrative sentences.

What is the difference between a "majority" and a "plurality" in voting?

In asking the teacher for permission to leave the room, do you say "may" or "can"? Is "may" to be used with a negative? Give an example of your own.

Is "means" singular or plural? Give illustrative sentences.

What is the plural of "memorandum"? Use the word in a sentence correctly.

What is the difference between "You are mistaken" and "You mistake" according to the strict meaning of the words?

Why is "more perfect" absurd? What is meant when this combination is used?

How should "most" be written when it stands for "almost"?

What is the difference between "mutual" and "common"?

Extra lesson and review: Write out Exercise V, Grammar, page 50.

LESSON XIII. Tense.

See Grammar, sections 48, 49 and 50, pp. 51-54.

What is tense? (Look the word up in the dictionary.)

What three simple tenses are there?

What tenses are indicated by the auxiliary "have"? Give illustrations.

What tense indicates present time? What time up to the present?

What tense indicates time entirely past? What action completed at some fixed time in the past?

What is the difference in meaning between the future and the future perfect tenses?

Rewrite the following sentences, using the correct tense:

I (did—have done) the work already.

He (did n't—has n't) arrived yet.

My friend (came—has come).

It (snowed—has snowed) every day for the past two weeks.

He (lived—has lived) here since spring.

Next week I shall (be—have been) here a month.

I am sure that he (was—has been) there, and (hoed—has hoed) out the garden last week.

I am sure he (was—has been) there, and (hoed—has hoed) out the garden this week.

I am surprised he (did n't—has n't) arrived before this.

When I saw him, he (had n't had—did n't have) time to hear.

He intended to (do—have done) it.

I should like (to have seen him—to see him).

(Did n't he do—has n't he done) the work this morning?

(Did n't he do—has n't he done) the work before twelve o'clock this morning?

I meant (to have written—to write) before I left town.

We have already seen that verbs are capable of expressing present, past, and future time; and, by the use of the auxiliary *have*, completeness of an act at a given time present, past, or future may be indicated. Time as expressed by verbs is known as tense.

In simple sentences, tense offers few difficulties. The following illustrations will serve to explain names of tenses sometimes used:

Present Tense.

The house *stands* on a hill.

We *have* our commands.

I *am doing* the work now.

It *makes* no difference to you whether I *do* it or not.

*Past Tense.**

I *went* there yesterday.

I *loved* her, but she *did* not *love* me.

They *gave* me all I asked.

We *began* to eat at three o'clock.

He *spit* as if he had tasted poison.

Future Tense.

We *shall be* there.

They *will see* what *will be* the result.

You *shall do it*, whether you wish to or not.

Perfect, or Present Perfect, Tense.

I *have done* what I could.

He *has been* to town.

He *has not come* yet.

I *have already done* so.

Pluperfect, or Past Perfect, Tense.

They *had not arrived* when I was there yesterday.

You *had gone* before I got there.

Future Perfect Tense.

When I have finished, I *shall have proved* my case completely.

In that case, I *shall have been defeated*.

Participles and infinitives also express time to some extent, as:

Present—*going, to go.*

Past—*gone*, (the infinitive has no simple past tense.)

Present perfect—*having gone, to have gone.*

Past perfect—(wanting.)

Future—(wanting.)

Error sometimes occurs in using or failing to use the perfect tenses when required by the use of adverbs which imply completeness at a fixed time. We should say, "I have done it already," not "I did it already," and "I have not yet done it," not "I did not do it yet." The tense and the adverb indicating time must be consistent. Likewise, do not say "I have done it yesterday."

The chief difficulty arises in the choosing of tenses in subordinate sentences or phrases. We should be guided by the great principle of *sequence of tenses*, namely,

* Also called the "imperfect" to distinguish it from the past tense of the participle.

LESSON XIII (Continued). Punctuation—Further Study of the Comma.

N. B.—When a noun in apposition with another noun is so closely related to that noun as really to form a single name with it, no comma should be used. The same rule applies to adjectives preceded by *the* following a name.

Examples: William the Conqueror, Richard the Lion-hearted, Frederick the Great.

Rule 5. When the subject of the second part of a compound sentence is different from the subject of the first part, a comma is required before a connecting *and* or *or*. As *but* is contrastive rather than merely connective, it is usually preceded by a comma in such cases as do not require a semicolon, though the semicolon is usually required. Likewise when there is any suggestion of contrast or change of the line of thought, a comma should be used before *and* or *or* even if the subject is the same as in the preceding clause.

Examples: The book was published on the 26th, and we sent out our circulars on the 29th; We published the book on the 26th and sent out our circulars on the 29th. (Observe that in the second sentence there is no change of subject, and no comma is required before "and.")

We were in New York that day, but did not hear of the fire till later. I heard what he said, and must say I admired his spirit.

N. B.—When sentences are so long they are in danger of falling into confusion they may be divided by commas simply to keep together words that belong together.

Examples: We had a long and weary march before we reached the brink of the river, and we felt we must pitch our tents there for the night.

SUMMARY OF RULES FOR THE COMMA.

Rule 1. Words in a true series are separated by commas, and a comma is needed before the conjunction connecting the last two.

Rule 2. Explanatory clauses or phrases are set off by commas, but restrictive clauses or phrases are not set off.

Rule 3. All explanatory words, or words thrown into a sentence, including names of persons addressed, nouns in apposition, etc., are set off by commas.

Rule 4. Clauses or phrases transposed from their natural position in a sentence are set off by commas if this is necessary to prevent confusion.

Rule 5. The principal part of a compound sentence when connected by *and* or *or* require a comma before the conjunction when the subject of the second part is different from the subject of the first part, and before *but* even when the subject is unchanged. A comma before *and* or *or* is also required when the subject remains unchanged if the parts are long, if they are contrasted, or if there is danger of confusion.

Memorize these rules, and be prepared to illustrate each with several examples.

EXPLAINING THE USE OF COMMAS.

If we wish to master the use of the comma we must first learn to assign correct reasons for commas that we know to be rightly used. Until we have the reasons fully mastered we cannot hope to put commas in correctly.

Each of the following sentences offers a clear illustration of the application of one or the other of the five rules we have given. Write a small figure over each comma indicating the number of the rule which applies:

She had no dowry, no expectations, no means of becoming known, understood, loved, wedded by any rich and distinguished man.

She suffered ceaselessly, feeling herself born for all the refinements and luxuries of life. She suffered from the poverty of her home as she looked at the dirty walls, the wornout chairs, the ugly curtains. (Why is no comma required before "as.")

While edition after edition of his book was coming forth his son, as Mr. Croker tells us, was ashamed of it, and hated to hear it mentioned.

For the last time, you can get one free.

M. W. Savage, President of the International Stock Food Co., employing fifty stenographers, has said: "If all my salesmen, clerks, stenographers, etc., could learn to write a correct and effective letter, they would be worth twenty-five per cent more to me, and I should be willing to pay the full value of their services."

Let us see, therefore, what we can do about it.

Yes, sir, I will do it at once.

Did you see J. W. Jones, the man with the white hat, walking down the street?

I desire to call your attention to the fact that in life insurance the rate is always figured at the nearest age, that is, you will be rated at your present age until six months after your birthday; therefore, if my record is correct, your age changes on May 30, increasing the cost of ten thousand dollars' insurance by seven dollars for every year during the continuance of the policy, which aggregates, with five per cent interest for the period named, nearly two hundred dollars.

It secures approval of the risk now, while, if delayed, you might not be able to pass an examination.

When the science of the building is great, great science is of course required to comprehend it: and therefore, of difficult bridges, and light-houses, and harbor walls, and river dykes, and railway tunnels, no judgment may be rapidly formed. But of common buildings, built in common circumstances, it is very possible for every man, or woman, or child to form judgment both rational and rapid. Their necessary, or even possible, features are but few.—*Ruskin*.

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 113, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 80, 85, 92.

Why cannot "myself" be used as the subject of a sentence?

Why is "new beginner" wrong?

Is "news" singular or plural? Use it correctly in a sentence.

Give three or four examples of things that are really "nice," and of some which are often said to be nice but are not.

Give an example of the correct use of "nicely."

Is "none" singular or plural? Give examples of its correct use in whatever ways are correct.

Give an example of your own of the correct use of "not—nor" and one of "not—or."

Give an example of your own of the correct use of "not—but only."

Give examples of your own of sentences in which "a number" is properly plural, and of sentences in which it is properly singular.

What is the difference between "observation" and "observance"? Give illustrations.

When is "O" to be used and when "oh"?

Give a sentence containing "observe" correctly used.

What is the absurdity in "of all others"?

Why is "largest of any" incorrect and "larger than any" correct?

When is "older" to be used and when "elder"?

Is "on to" properly one word or two, and why?

What is the possessive of "one"? May "his" be used? Give an example of the correct use of "one" as an impersonal pronoun.

Give an example of the correct placing of "only" and the incorrect placing.

In what way is "verbal" often misused, and what is the proper word to use in such cases?

Why can "had" not be used before "ought"?

Is there such a word as "overflown"? What is the correct word in speaking of a river?

LESSON XIV. Tense.

Note. Observe that a statement that is universally true is put in the present tense, even after a verb in the past tense which would ordinarily be followed by another past tense. Thus, He told us that electricity is (not "was") a molecular motion, not fluid.

Rewrite the following sentences correctly:

In what state did you say Anaconda (is—was)?

I told him I (would—will) look into the matter.

I wish I (could—can) see him.

I wished (to meet—to have met) her on the pier.

It was a fact that he (was—is) married.

It is a fact that he (was—is) married.

It was your duty (to prevent—to have prevented) his going.

Has he yellow fever? I should certainly say he (had—has).

Washington (is—was) called the Father of his Country.

He asked me how far it (was—is) from Evanston to Chicago.

He expected (to meet—to have met) you on the dock to-morrow.

I gave him notice so that he (might—may) be ready for us.

This country is supposed (to have been—to be) first visited by the Norse.

Can you tell me who first said honesty (is—was) the best policy?

If you would only work, your success (would—will) be certain.

The house was (to be—to have been) sold this morning.

Be virtuous and you (will—would) be happy.

If you were virtuous you (would be—will be) happy.

Next week I (shall be—shall have been) here a month.

Soon after I got here, in comes Charles.

(Being—having been) absent from the last recitation, I do not know where the lesson is.

I am sure he (has been—was) there and (did—has done) what was required of him.

I (will accept—accept) with pleasure your kind invitation.

Verbs in subordinate sentences must be governed by the tense of the principal verb.

We may test and correct the application of this principle by inquiring whether the tenses we use express exactly the relations of time that accord with the facts in the case.

Examples: I *see* the new building every time I *go* to town.

I *saw* it when I *was* there.

He *said* he *would* do it.

He *says* he *will* do it.

To *have done* otherwise *would have been* wrong.

We may not say, "I wish *to have done it*," for it is impossible to "wish for" that which is past. It is more proper to say "I should have liked to do it," than "I should like to have done it," since it is a little awkward for our liking to go backward, though even this is not impossible.

We would not say "The Lord hath given and the Lord hath taken away," since the giving took place before the taking away, and the meaning must be expressed by saying, "The Lord *gave* and the Lord hath taken away."

"John will earn his wages when his service is complete," is illogical and should be expressed, "John *will have earned* his wages when his service shall be complete."

"After we visited New York, we returned, content and thankful, to our retired and peaceful habitation," should obviously be, "After we *had* visited New York," etc.

But we may say, "After we visited New York, we went to Baltimore," since the time is continuous.

"In the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters," requires "to be" in the place of "to have been."

"We have done no more than it was our duty to have done," should be either, "We have done no more than it was our duty to do," or "We did no more than it was our duty to do," according to the meaning intended by the writer.

When the statement in the subordinate sentence is of universal application, whether the time be past, present, or future, we must use the present tense. "The doctor, in his lecture, said that fever always produced thirst," should be, "The doctor, in his lecture, said that fever always *produces* thirst."

"I will attend to the business as soon as I have finished my letter," is correct, though "I will attend to the business as soon as I *shall* have finished my letter," is logically more complete.

LESSON XIV (Continued). Punctuation—Exercises on the Comma.

Insert the commas required in the following sentences and place over each a figure showing what rule you apply:

A question was once somehow or other started between Collins and me.

Its crops were so heavy and its hay so high and its apples so red and its grapes so blue and its wine so rich and its honey so sweet, that it was a marvel to every one who beheld it.

The whole of the little valley belonged to three brothers called Schwartz Hans and Gluck.

Schwartz and Hans the two elder brothers were very ugly men with overhanging eyebrows and small dull eyes which were always half shut so that you couldn't see into them and always fancied they saw very far into you.

He has a thousand pretty fancies and I am sure if you saw him you would like him.

My French almost deserted me entirely when I had to speak to her, and so she drew away and left me to her lord who talked of French politics Africa and domestic economy with great vivacity.

In the dark walks too there are crowds of people whose faces you cannot see and here and there a colossal white statue at the corner of an alley that gives the place a nice artificial eighteenth century sentiment.

I try wine and spirits and smoking and snuff in unsparing quantities. I sleep in a damp room but it does no good.

In spite however of the customary phrase of a man's "making a fool of himself" we doubt if any one was ever a fool of his own free will and accord. A poet therefore should not always be taken too strictly to task.

It was indeed a morning that might have made anyone happy even with no Golden River to seek for. Level lines of dewy mist lay stretched along the valley out of which rose the massy mountains,—their lower cliffs in pale gray shadow descending till they caught the sunlight which ran in sharp touches of ruddy color along the angular crags and pierced in long level rays through their fringe of spear-like pine. Far above shot up splintered masses of castellated rock jagged and shivered into myriads of fantastic forms with here and there a streak of sunlit snow traced down their chasms like a line of forked lightning; and far beyond and far above all these fainter than the morning cloud but purer and changeless slept the blue sky the utmost peaks of the eternal snow.

To attain this tone which is perfectly natural to some people and so difficult to attain by others one must keep oneself in the right frame of mind thinking of the superior as the ideal boss even if it is necessary to idealize him a little and then being perfectly sincere straightforward and natural. Respect yourself as well as your superior and at all times be a gentleman and never forget that you are a subordinate.

Sidney Sheldon the leading authority on letter writing gives in his fifty Instruction Cards for Business Men scores of the most successful letters ever sent out in this country and describes all the latest devices and wrinkles for soliciting by mail collecting money handling agents etc. etc.

When he says he is ready write him a simple straight-from-the-shoulder letter of direction indicating every step just as you would to a child. Say "Go here. You will meet such and such reception. Begin by saying so-and-so in such and such a manner. That should give you the attention of the man you are canvassing. If you don't get his attention drop the matter and refuse to go on till you have it."

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 117, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 93, 103.

When is it proper to use "pair" as a plural and when "pairs"?

What is the plural of "parenthesis" and when is it proper to use it? Do the two marks inclosing a group of words make more than one "parenthesis"?

Can one person rush "pell-mell"?

In what connection may the Latin "per" properly be used?

If young ladies do not "perform" on the piano, what do they do?

What is the difference between "permit" and "allow"?

What is the difference between "perpetually" and "continually"?

Why is "this phenomena" incorrect?

Is there such a word as "pled"? What is the correct form to use?

What is the difference in meaning between "plenty" and "plentiful"?

Be prepared to write on dictation any of the irregular plurals. Give this subject **careful** study. Dictionary of Errors, page 118, and How to Do Business by Letter, page 103.

Write three sentences in which "politics" is used as the subject of a present verb.

What is the difference between "part" and "portion"? Illustrate.

What is the difference between "practical" and "practicable"?

What is the difference between "predicate" and "predict"? Between "present" and "introduce"?

Is there such a word as "preventative"? What is the correct form?

LESSON XV. The Subjunctive.

See Grammar, sections 51 and 52, pp. 54-56.

What is the subject of a verb in the imperative mode?

Is the subjunctive mode ever found except in a subordinate sentence? What does it express?

Give an example of a supposed case.

Give an example of a wish.

Give an example of a sentence arranged to indicate a supposed case, and then alter it to indicate a matter of fact.

Do the present and past tenses of the subjunctive mode indicate present and past time or future time? Is there any future subjunctive?

What is the difference in meaning in the following alternative forms?—

If he were strong he could walk it easily—If he is strong he can walk it easily.

Oh, that you (may be—were—had been) here!

Though he (were—is) pure and honorable at heart, he (will be—would be) corrupted.

In the following, which of the forms in parenthesis is preferable:

If I (were—was) he, I would go at once.

See that no one (is—be) overlooked.

Unless he (hurry—hurries), he will miss the train.

Whether it (pleases—please) him or not, matters not to me.

Whether it (please—pleases) him or not, could not matter to me.

I wish I (was—were) a bird.

Except ye (be—are) born again, ye cannot see my Father.

Unless Mary (take—takes) care of herself, she will certainly catch cold.

I hope that if any one (come—comes) in, you will say I am out.

Beware lest evil (creep—creeps) in.

If the book (were—was) mine, I would give it gladly.

If the book (be—is) mine, I will give it gladly.

The different modes have already been defined. The *indicative* mode, expressing simple, direct assertion, offers no difficulties; the *potential* mode consists in little more than the use of the potential auxiliaries, *may, can, would, should, could, might, must*; the *infinitive* mode has been discussed; the *imperative* mode is peculiar in that it is confined to the second person, or person spoken to, and usually omits the subject. Examples of the imperative mode are—"Do this," "Never do it," "Hear what I say," etc. Perhaps "let" may be looked on as an auxiliary for the imperative mode, permitting reference to other persons than the second, as in "Let me do it," "Let her see you for a moment," etc. In full these forms become, "(Do you) let me (to) do it," "(Do you) let her (to) see you for a moment," etc. Or the *do* may be omitted.

The mode which really gives trouble is the *subjunctive*. It differs from the simple indicative in not forming its third person singular by the addition of *e* or *es*, and we say, "If he do it, it will be of the greatest benefit." The irregular verb *to be*, uses the form *be* throughout the present tense of the subjunctive mode, as "If I be, if you be, if he be, if we be, if you be, if they be"; and *were* throughout the past tense of the subjunctive, as "If I were, if you were, if he were, if we were, if you were, if they were."

It is the office of the subjunctive mode to indicate supposed cases as opposed to cases of fact. Thus, we say, "If he was (as a matter of fact) there, he saw Anna on the stage"; but, "If he were here (as he is not), he would see Anna on the stage." Such phrases as "as it were" are typical of the subjunctive mode, and other conjunctions than *if* may be used with it. Examples: "Unless he do it, it will go hard with him"; "Though he be a giant, he will have to succumb to such oratory"; "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him"; "Whether he improve or not, it matters little"; "Except ye repent, ye shall surely die"; "Reprove not a scorner, lest he hate thee."

The subjunctive mode is used to express *wishes*, which are very similar to suppositions.

It will be noted that the subjunctive mode often indicates that which is in the future, even with the present and past tenses, since what is really accomplished, either past or present, is not a subject for supposition, as a rule. Perhaps this accounts for the omission of *s* or *es* from the third person of the present tense, *will* having been omitted, as in "If he (will) do it, it will be of the greatest benefit."

There is a growing tendency to disregard the subjunctive mode as much as possible, and some writers even deny that it exists at all in the English language. The crude speaker will seldom have occasion to use it, except in idiomatic and well established phrases, such as "as it were," but the precise thinker and reasoner will find the subjunctive mode of the utmost utility, and a means of expressing nice distinctions that are otherwise almost impossible of expression.

LESSON XV (Continued). Punctuation—the Semicolon.

When several sentences are closely connected in meaning, they are often separated by semicolons to indicate a closer relationship than would be indicated if they were separated by periods. The parts of a compound sentence connected by *but* are separated by a semicolon if they are strongly contrasted. Phrases, or groups of words, are often separated by semicolons when they are themselves subdivided by commas.

Examples (taken from Macaulay, a master in the use of the colon and the semicolon):

He was a soldier; he had risen by war.

Its triumphs added nothing to his fame; its increase added nothing to his means of overawing his enemies; its great leader was not his friend.

This constitution in former days used to be the envy of the world; it was the pattern for politicians; the theme of the eloquent; the meditation of the philosopher in every part of the world.

The lines are few, the coloring faint; but the general air and expression is caught.

It burned down the city; but it burned out the plague.

It would be easy to indicate many points of resemblance between the subjects of Diocletian and the people of the Celestial Empire, where, during many centuries, nothing has been learned or unlearned; where government, where education, where the whole system of life, is a ceremony; where knowledge forgets to increase and multiply, and, like the talent buried in the earth, or the pound wrapped up in a napkin, experiences neither waste nor augmentation.

It is despised and rejected of men; and every device and invention of ingenuity or idleness is set up in opposition, or in preference to it.

As a simple example of the last clause in the rule, we offer the following: The list of hero kings of England includes Alfred, called the Great; Richard the Lion-hearted, who did yeoman's service in the crusades; William the Conqueror; and, if we may add a queen, Elizabeth.

SUMMARY OF RULES.

Rule 1. Use the semicolon instead of the period between sentences that need to be grouped together. (Avoid the comma.)

Rule 2. Use the semicolon before *but* and between the parts of a compound sentence when one part is strongly contrasted with the other, or you desire to distinguish sharply. *Also*, *otherwise*, and *therefore* are similar to *but* in indicating contrast.

Rule 3. Use the semicolon to group words which are subdivided by commas.

Many of the sentences that are mistakenly run together with only a comma between may properly be separated by the semicolon so as to show the close relationship that is instinctively felt, yet not violate the rule for the grammatical unity of the sentence. Turn to the second portion of Lesson III. and see to what extent you would wish to use semicolons instead of periods between the sentences where you found a comma wrongly used.

As the proper mark to group words already subdivided by commas, the semicolon is used after different items listed in a letter. The period indicates when the end of the list has been reached. When a price ends each item, that is often sufficient distinction without the semicolon.

EXERCISES ON THE SEMICOLON

State the rule which explains the use of the semicolon in each of the following sentences:

I am flatter than a denial or a pancake; emptier than Judge Parke's wig when the head is in it; duller than a country stage when the actors are off it,—a cipher, an o! (Observe that the subject and predicate are clearly implied in two of these sentences: what are they? Also observe that a dash introduces the summary of all. How useful is punctuation in expressing our meaning?)

I inhale suffocation; I can't distinguish veal from mutton; nothing interests me. I am weary of life; life is weary of me.

You know our "Sure and Easy" fire tube has been thoroughly tested during the past five years. It is quick; it is positive; it injures no fabric, paper, or furniture.

In ordering goods be sure to—

1. Make a list, or arrange in a column, if there are several items, to avoid confusion;
 2. Give sizes, styles, and all other details you possibly can, or clearly explain precisely what you want;
 3. State how much money is sent, or how you intend to make payment;
 4. Indicate how shipment is to be made.
- (In the preceding explain also the use of each comma.)

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 121, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 104, 112.

Why is it wrong to say, "I got here previous to your arrival"?

What is the objection to saying "Where did you procure it?" when this use of "procure" is admitted to be logically correct?

What is the difference between "proposal" and "proposition"?

What is the objection to "proven" in common use?

What is the difference between "propose" and "purpose"?

Exactly what is a "proposition," and how is the word sometimes misused?

What two parts of speech may "provided" be? For which one of them is "providing" often wrongly used? Why is "providing" wrong as a conjunction?

Give a sentence in which "quite" is correctly used.

What is the objection to "quite a good deal"? What should you say?

What is the difference between "raise" and "rise"? Give several examples of the correct use of each, so as to illustrate their differences.

Do you ask for a "raise" of salary or a "rise" of salary? Can you tell why?

Why is "real nice" wrong, and what is the correct form? Criticise "She is a real sweet little baby."

What is the difference between "receipt" and "recipe"? Use each in sentences so as to illustrate the different meanings.

What is the difference between "remember" and "recollect"?

What is the difference between "rendition" and "rendering"?

What is a man's "residence"?

LESSON XVI. Irregular Verbs.

See Grammar, sections 53, 54, pp. 56-60.

Look up in the dictionary and carefully distinguish—sit, set, lie, lay, learn, teach.

What is the difference between a past participle and a simple past tense?

Rewrite the following sentences correctly:

He has (began—began) to do the work.

The rat had (bit—bitten) the rope almost in two.

We will (learn—teach) him the trick yet.

He (laid—lay) the boy down gently.

She (lay—laid) down to take a nap.

It was (laid—lain) on the top shelf.

I have (bore—borne) the brunt of this battle.

Henry had (forgot—forgotten) to tell his sister.

We (saw—seen) the parade.

They had (gone—went) to Minneapolis.

The little boy (did—done) his best.

They have (come—came) over to see us.

Henry had (wrote—written) his sister.

He had (set—sat) down to the table.

The hen was (sitting—setting).

He had just (set—sat) the hen.

Change the present tenses of the verbs in the following sentences to the past tense:

The Charles river overflows its banks.

The girl's mother pleads for her

The blacksmith shoes the horses.

The bird flies high over the trees.

I bid 50c for that picture.

The party alight at our door.

I light the lamp.

Helen swims like a fish.

We have called attention to the various irregularities of the verb *to be* in the different modes and tenses. Besides this verb, there are over one hundred and seventy other verbs that are classed as irregular; but their irregularity extends only to the past tense and the past participle, and forms derived from them.

The following illustrations will serve to indicate this class:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past participle</i>
arise	arose	arisen
build	built	built
bite	bit	bitten
spit	spit	spit
begin	began	begun
put	put	put
catch	caught	caught
teach	taught	taught

The chief difficulty with such verbs arises from confusing the past tense with the past participle. Many people will say "I done it," and some even "I have did it."

There are not many of the irregular verbs that offer difficulty. Before considering them, let us see just when and where we should use the past tense, and where and when the past participle.

The auxiliaries *to be* and *to have* are followed by the past participle in forming the various modes, tenses, etc., of the verb, but all the other auxiliaries are followed by the present form (the present infinitive without the *to*). We can make no error if we always place the participle after forms of *be* and *have*, but use the past form when *be* and *have* are wanting in regular sentences. The following illustrations will serve to enforce this observation. In each case the past tense of the verb is used before the participial form:

- but He *bore* the colors before the regiment;
He *had borne* his comrades from the field.
- but He *bade* me tell you he was ready to see you;
He *was bidden* to apologize.
- but He *came* up here to see you;
He *had come* up here to see you.
- but We all *did* our best;
Everything *was done* that could be done.
- but We *forgot* to ask his opinion;
The incident *was forgotten* an hour later.
- but He *laid* the book on the table;
When he came in he was so tired he *lay* down to rest;
She *had lain* down to rest;
The towel *had been laid* away and I could not find it.

(Note. Distinguish the parts of these two entirely different verbs carefully. They are often confused.)

LESSON XVI (Continued). Punctuation—the Colon.

The nature and use of the colon are not well understood by ordinary writers, and this mark of punctuation is seldom required in ordinary writing. It would be well to dispense with it except in cases where its use is clearly comprehended.

The colon signifies that what precedes is logically equivalent to what follows. It is used in the formal introduction of quotations, especially after such phrases as "as follows." The introduction states that *he spoke*, the quotation following gives the words of his speech. One is the equivalent of the other.

It will be seen that in most cases the colon has a special meaning of its own, and to say that it indicates a pause more abrupt than the semicolon is usually incorrect.

Examples: The wind raged, and the rain beat against the window: it was a miserable day. (The last sentence summarizes the preceding. It will be observed that the colon closes what is really a complete sentence; and the sentence which follows is also complete.)

One thing thou lackest: go thy way, sell whatsoever thou hast, and give to the poor. (Again we see the logical equivalence of the two sentences separated by the colon.)

Note.—The equality between the ideas in sentences separated from each other by colons may be of a great variety of kinds. If the writer wishes to balance two sentences against each other and indicate that one offsets the other, that is, that one is equal to the other in its value as an idea, he may use the colon between the two. Macaulay, who constantly uses the balanced structure as a rhetorical device, employs the colon again and again to indicate that he means to balance his first sentence against his second, though in many cases one is just opposite in meaning to the other. The following are examples:

Hatred and revenge eat into the heart: yet his aspect and language exhibit nothing but philosophical moderation.

The following generation produced indeed no second Dante: but it was eminently distinguished by general intellectual activity.

This is strange: and yet the strangest is behind.

(In very long and complicated sentences the colon was formerly used to show greater separation than is indicated by semicolons in the same sentence. Nowadays such long sentences are not tolerated.)

The colon is the proper mark to use after the salutation of a letter. Do not add a dash, for it does not help in any way and the better usage dispenses with it. Examples: Dear Sir: My dear Friend: Gentlemen:

Use a colon to introduce a formal quotation, but be careful not to use it to introduce an informal quotation, as writers so often do. Mr. Smith said in part: "When I was called on to address you," etc.—that is a formal quotation. Mr. Smith said, "I wouldn't do that if I were in your place"—that is an informal quotation. It is a real error to place a colon after *said* in the latter case. A comma and a dash may introduce a quotation between one that is very formal and one that is quite informal.

MORE EXERCISES ON THE SEMICOLON.

Insert both commas and semicolons where needed in the following:

Any man can make money if he has—1. A good thing to push 2. Big enough margin of profit 3. Protection.

We will supply you everything but the spirit but that must come from you.

They may fail and they may succeed and no man can tell in advance what the result will be but it is true of all business that some ventures pay and some do not.

This provides the machinery for answering all letters that come in but thousands who do not have this machinery for answering letters do not go any further that is they never follow up the inquiries they receive.

I know English is a good thing but I have n't time for anything that does n't bear directly on my business.

Time and space are but physiological colors which the eye makes but the soul is light where it is is day where it was is night and history is an impertinence and an injury if it be anything more than a cheerful apologue or parable of my being and becoming.—*Carlyle*.

Sometimes blazing in gold-laced hats and waistcoats sometimes lying in bed because their coats had gone to pieces or wearing paper cravats because their linen was in pawn sometimes drinking Champagne and Tokay with Betty Careless sometimes standing at the window of an eating-house in Porridge Island to snuff up the scent of what they could not afford to taste they knew luxury they knew beggary but they never knew comfort.

EXERCISES ON THE COLON.

In this book, why is a colon used after the word "Examples"?

Explain the use of colons and semicolons in the following:

Don't begin all your letters in the same well-worn, stereotyped fashion as

"In reply to your esteemed letter of the 12th inst., we beg to apprise";

"In answer to your letter of the 5th inst., we have the honor to inform you."

Begin at once with what you have to say, and acknowledge incidentally the letter you are answering. For example, begin (if the letter contains an order):

"We thank you cordially for the order contained in your letter of the 10th inst., just at hand."

If the letter asks a favor of some kind, begin:

"We have read yours of the 16th carefully, but cannot see our way at present to granting your request"; or

"We fully appreciate all you say in your letter of the 16th inst., just received, but."

(In the preceding, what words are indicated clearly by the colons after "begin"? Why is there no mark after "stereotyped fashion as"?)

Don't say, "Trusting we may have a continuance of your valued patronage." Say anything that is natural, friendly, and intelligent.

I take the liberty of inclosing a statement for a Convertible Term Policy which I know will prove of interest to you, as it has these great advantages: (List of numbered items follows).

Insert colons or other marks where required in the following:

On my saying, What have I to do with the sacredness of traditions if I live wholly from within? my friend suggested "But these impulses may be from below, not from above." I replied "They do not seem to me to be such."

Friend, client, child, sickness, fear, want, charity, all knock at once at thy closet door, and say "Come out unto us."

Discontent is the want of self-reliance it is the infirmity of will.

All the world reads it, all the world delights in it yet we do not remember ever to have read or ever to have heard any expression of respect and admiration for the man to whom we owe so much instruction and amusement.

This incident is recorded in the "Journey" as follows "Out of one of the beds on which we were to repose" etc.

LESSON XVII. Irregular Verbs.

Change the verbs in the following either to perfect or to passive form :
The swallow flies close to the ground.

Who stole my watch?

I wake up in the night.

This shows what a bad man he is.

Are you shoeing my horse?

He speaks like a man of education.

This proves the case.

They lay the case before me.

This state hangs murderers.

I rise at four in the morning.

Those men are going to the train.

Our water froze last night.

That bank president flees to Mexico.

Will you break the news to my wife?

I dove from the pier.

They were driving a flock of sheep along the street.

I forget what you said.

My little boy awakes me every morning at six.

The politician speaks like a talking-machine.

The river is overflowing its banks.

She bears the burden meekly.

The poor child sank three times.

They beseech me for money which I cannot give them.

Helen bade her mother goodbye.

The pressure bursts the pipe.

How many cakes are you eating?

They will hang that man.

- We *saw* the parade;
 but She lives merely to see and to *be seen*.
 The wind *shook* the tree till it trembled;
 but The tree *was shaken* till it fell.
 The sun *shone* in at the window;
 and The sun *had shone* brightly all day;
 but He *showed* us the jewels which *had before been shown* to the prince.

(Note that here we have two entirely different verbs.)

The student may make similar examples for himself correctly using the following:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past participle</i>
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swear	swore	sworn
take	took	taken
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

The common error in the use of the above may be readily seen by placing the past participle where the past tense form should be found. The student will do well to read the above sentences with the past participle in place of the past tense as, "He *come* up here to see you"; and if the past participle is not liable to such misuse, replace the participle by the past tense, as "He *had bore* his comrade from the field." Such an experiment once tried will doubtless put the student on his guard. It is better that the student should try the experiment for himself without writing out the sentence than that his teacher should offer him incorrect examples on which his mind may dwell too long; study should be concentrated on the *correct* usage.

There is a class of irregular verbs in which the principal vowel may be u or a, as "Drink, drank, drunk or drank." Usage differs a little on these, but sometimes both forms are right. In the example given above some use "drank" in both past tense and past participle, to avoid confusion with the adjective "drunk," but "drunk" in the past tense is obsolete. The following table will show the preferred usage with most of these verbs:

drink	drank	drunk
sing	sang or sung	sung
sink	sank or sunk	sunk
spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
swim	swam or swum	swum

"Read" has the same form in all three parts, but the two past forms are pronounced with the short sound of e. "Eat" is peculiar in having "eat, ate, eaten," and it is incorrect to say, "He has eat it all up," and "When he eat his breakfast yesterday morning, etc." is an obsolete use of "eat."

Those who are in the habit of reading standard literature with some thought for the values of words will seldom err in the use of the irregular verbs. "I done it" seems to be the chief survival of barbarism among persons of more or less education. "I seen" is a sign of gross ignorance.

LESSON XVII (Continued). Punctuation—the Dash and the Parenthesis.

The dash indicates an abrupt change in the grammatical construction, or in the flow of thought. When a wholly disconnected clause is thrown into a sentence it may be preceded and followed by a dash, or it may be inclosed within parentheses. Usually in place of a dash at each end we substitute the two parts of a parenthesis. The effect is the same.

The dash is often united with the comma. A comma and a dash are used in place of a colon in introducing a quotation in an easy and flowing manner, the colon being reserved for formal introductions. Formerly nearly all quotations were introduced by colons, but now the comma and dash are preferred in ordinary cases.

Any abrupt change in the middle of a sentence is usually indicated by a comma and a dash.

Such phrases as "Dear Sir" at the beginning of a letter may be followed either by a colon or by a comma and a dash. The colon is general in business letters, the comma and dash in social. In Europe a comma alone is used.

When a sentence is brought to an abrupt termination, being completely broken off, a dash of double length is used.

Examples: All this story was about——what do you think?

Well——I don't know——that is——no, I cannot accept it.

"Gentlemen, I swear by all——" But the sentence was never finished.

The dash is also used in much the same way that the colon is, to indicate equality, especially in summarizing. Macaulay uses it in this way constantly.

Examples: Now, every man pursues his own happiness or interest——call it which you will.

They have already made the science of political economy——a science of vast importance to the welfare of the nations——an object of disgust.

For all possible checks may be classed under two heads,——want of will and want of power.

What Lord Bacon blames in the schoolmen is this,——that they reason syllogistically on words which had not been defined with precision.

A parenthetical clause within another of the same kind must be indicated by some other marks than those used to indicate the larger. We may alternate dashes and marks of parenthesis, and in case of necessity we may use square brackets.

Brackets are regularly used to indicate words thrown into quotations by the writer who quotes. Sometimes these words are comments, sometimes words supplied to complete the meaning.

Example: Compare the following account of Lord Palmerston: "I have heard him [Lord Palmerston] say that he occasionally found that they [foreign ministers] had been deceived by the open manner in which he told them the truth."

When parenthetical words are not very different from the text, dashes should be used; when the difference is greater, the curved marks of parenthesis are to be employed; and brackets are to be used only when special occasion requires them.

EXERCISES ON THE DASH AND PARENTHESIS.

The dash is greatly overworked in business. It should usually be employed only to indicate an abrupt transition and as a mild form of the colon. Explain why the dash is required in the following:

It should be shorter, on different-colored paper, with different style of type—otherwise the man who gets it will say, “Oh, another letter about that project—I know all about it already!”

It sets a date—May 30.

The first is devoted to the question of delay—putting the matter off.

The card might read: Have you any interest in the subject of ——?

Note.—Observe that the writer wraps his hints in a cloud of words.

A headline: Giving a letter the proper tone—how to write to your superior.

Eldridge is doing very well,—better than I expected.

I have just been reading your enthusiastic letter in regard to work in February—Hoyt month—and I feel you are going to make a record we shall all be proud of.

To believe your own thought, to believe that what is true for you in your private heart is true for all men,—that is genius.—*Emerson.*

You can get almost fifty per cent more out of your letters than you do to-day—almost every business man can—and what would that mean to your salary or dividends?

The following is an example of a business letter in which the dash is used to excess. Rewrite this letter substituting some other punctuation mark for the dash wherever you think such a change ought to be made:

I shall receive from the printers Thursday a few advance copies of J. M. Coates' “How to Make a Factory Pay”—a business book that I honestly believe will save you more money—will do more to protect your whole business system—than any other book in print. I want you to see for yourself how it tells—fully—explicitly—exactly how to manage and systematize a modern business.

Think of it! Two dollars—the mere price of a handful of cigars—for the lifetime experience of the highest-salaried factory specialist in the country! And when I make an offer so fair and liberal—when you do not even run a risk in sending for the book—can't I send it to you for criticism next week?

Insert dashes into the following where you think they are required:

Look on every small order as a test, an experiment, which may lead to the largest at any rate to a large total in a year.

But it will pay just as well to give them to the reasonable customer probably it will pay better.

They are usually too long so long that the length shows on the face of it that the letter is a printed form.

Then write another letter to another man you know, a different man.

An ideal premium is one that many people want but which costs the giver very little far less than it would cost the retail purchaser.

I speak not of your grown porkers things between pig and pork those hobbledehoys but a young and tender suckling. *Lamb.*

Carlyle aptly says “The healthy know not of their health, but only the sick.”

Extra lesson and review : Write out Exercise VI, Grammar, page 60.

LESSON XVIII. Pronouns.

See Grammar, sections 55-59, pp. 61-65.

What are the first personal pronouns, and to what do they refer?

What are the second personal pronouns, and what are their antecedents?

Mention half a dozen pronouns in the third person?

To what do third personal pronouns refer, or how may you know what their antecedents are?

Rewrite the following so that it will be clear to what each pronoun refers :

The magician invited Aladdin to go with him into the country. He was rather pleased at the idea and accompanied him. After they had passed through a number of gardens and got out into the country, he told him to gather sticks and build a fire, which he did. Then he threw powder into the fire and a door with an iron ring appeared. This he bade him lift, but he was afraid to do so at first. However, he soon made the attempt and descended into the ground.

Correct the following :

There was a gay party of three girls and as many boys. Each of them brought their lunch, and viand after viand made their way down hungry throats. Every one of the girls could swim and had brought their bathing suit, and all the boys took off their coats preparing themselves to row down the lake. None of them was afraid of exercise, and both Helen and John were champion rowers. Either of them manages a sailboat perfectly, and each of the others are able to row. None failed to do his best, and all had a glorious time.

Many a woman would give their lives for their children.

If any one has not finished let them hold up their hands.

Every householder must pay their water-tax before the 12th

Nobody went out of their way to be cordial.

As we know, a pronoun is a word which stands for a noun; and it requires little reflection to show how very important it is that we should know clearly for what noun each pronoun stands.

Every pronoun must agree with its antecedent in every respect, and the relationship must be easily and clearly traced, without danger of confusion.

We usually have no special difficulty in knowing to whom the first and second persons refer, for one is the person speaking, and the other the person spoken to, the two chief actors in every dialogue, the rhetorical essentials in every written or spoken discourse.

Pronouns of the third person, however, are used so numerously, and even in the same sentence refer so variously to different persons and objects, that confusion is not only easy, but inevitable unless the greatest care is taken. Here is a sentence from Lane's translation of the "Arabian Nights": "Aladdin was so frightened at what he saw that he would have run away; but as *he* was to be serviceable to the magician, *he* caught hold of *him*, scolded *him*, and gave *him* such a box on the ear that *he* knocked *him* down, and had like to have beat *his* teeth down *his* throat." We have to reflect a little to be sure to which of the persons all the *he's* and *him's* refer.

In a case of this kind we may sometimes use consistently the nominative of the pronoun to refer to one of the persons throughout the sentence, and the objective form to refer to the other; but in the sentence above we note that the first *he* in italic refers to *Aladdin*, and the second, the subject of the next clause, refers to *magician*; and the confusion grows to the end.

Of course all nouns denoting male sex will be referred to by *he* and *him* (in the singular), those denoting female sex will be referred to by *she* and *her* (in the singular), and those denoting no sex at all, by *it* or similar sexless pronoun.*

If the pronoun refers to "man or woman," the masculine form must be used, as in "Each of the assembled throng expressed *his* opinion" (unless the "throng" happened to be composed entirely of women).

In referring to children we usually use the neuter form, and refer to them by the use of *it* and *which*.

We must be very careful in the use of pronouns referring to persons or objects described as *each*, *every*, etc., the singular pronoun being required in all these cases. The proper possessive to use in referring to *one* is *one's*, though *his* is used by many writers; for example, we may say, "In a Western mining town one cannot expect to have everything one's own way," or "his own way."

As a pronoun "takes the place of a noun," it is very improper to use a pronoun when the noun itself is present to fulfil its own duties. The most frequent confusion arises when we use the participle in a form in some ways resembling the absolute use, as "The candidate, being elected, was dragged all around the town by the excited citizens," not "The candidate being elected, he was dragged," etc. No educated person would say, "The man, *he* knocked me down," but in more obscure cases like the one cited above, errors are frequently made.

Besides the personal pronouns, we have "adjective pronouns," or adjectives sometimes used as pronouns, like *each*, *some*, *any*, etc. *That*, *this*, *those*, *these* when used as pronouns are called *demonstrative* pronouns. The *intensive* pronouns *himself*, *herself*, *yourselves*, etc., may usually be construed as adjectives or words in apposition.

* Most grammarians deduce from these sex pronouns that the English language has "gender." This is not the fact, however. Nouns in English have no gender except as they refer specifically to males or females, or to objects personified by a figure of speech.

LESSON XVIII (Continued). Punctuation—the Hyphen.

The hyphen is used at the end of a line when a word is broken off and a part of it is placed on the next line. Examples of this are common in every printed book. It is to be noted that the hyphen can never be placed at the beginning of the next line, as some uneducated people would place it. Moreover, a word can be broken only on a syllable, and the division of words into syllables must be well understood if the hyphen is to be used correctly at the end of a line.

Hyphens are also used in compound words. When two words first unite they are commonly joined by a hyphen. After a time the hyphen is omitted. Thus *police-man* once appeared in the dictionary with a hyphen, but it is never so written to-day. Usually it is necessary to refer to the dictionary to find out the proper way to write all compound words or words that may be compound. The black hyphen mark is used in the dictionary to indicate that the hyphen is always to be written, the light hyphen mark merely to divide the syllables.

To-day, to-morrow, to-night, etc., are properly written with the hyphen, though nowadays many omit it.

When a noun is followed by a present participle, the whole forming a verbal noun, the noun and the participle are commonly united by a hyphen, as in the case of *story-writing, well-digging,* etc. An adjective preceding a verbal noun (present participle), or indeed any noun, should never be united to that noun by a hyphen.

There is a great difference between a "green house" and a "greenhouse," a "poor farm" and a "poor-farm."

When a noun preceded by an adjective is used as a sort of compound adjective, the two words (noun and adjective) are united by the hyphen. For example, *common sense* used as a noun and adjective should never be united in any way, either by a hyphen or by being written as one word. But *common-sense reasoning* is a phrase in which the noun *sense* united with its adjective becomes itself an adjective. In the case of *short story writing,* our principles would require a hyphen between *story* and *writing* and also between *short* and *story*. But this would make a combination too long to be elegant, and so the hyphen should properly be omitted in both cases.

The hyphen is used to separate prefixes when emphasis is placed upon them so as to suggest contrast, as in *under-estimate* and *over-estimate,* though either word may omit the hyphen if there is no emphasis or suggestion of contrast. *Re-creation* means *creating again,* but *recreation* means *having a good time.*

When an adjective is used before a past participle in place of an adverb, as the idiom of our language permits, we must always unite it to the participle by a hyphen, else we may seem to be committing the grammatical fault of making an adjective modify a verb. We may say *gaily colored* in which we use an adverb before the past participle, or we may write *gay-colored* and make a compound adjective. When the word before the participle is an adverb in fact, it is a mistake to unite it to the participle by a hyphen. We say "a well dressed man," though many persons have a tendency to insert a hyphen between *well* and *dressed*.

When a phrase is used as if it were a single word, its parts should be united by hyphens, as "He gave me a straight-from-the-shoulder blow." Such phrases are usually adjectives, and when they are not used as adjectives the hyphens may often be omitted with advantage.

In general the hyphen means unity, oneness of idea, and in so far as two or more words run together to form one conception, they require a hyphen until they have been used so long we do remember that they were originally two words. Thus we write—*ten-acre lot, two-foot rule, a first-rate book, a bank-book, controller-general, file-card, folding-machine, hat-maker, death-trap, mail-carrier.*

When there are various kinds of things designated by the same word but distinguished by the word that goes before, the mind instinctively rebels against the use of a hyphen. Mr. Brander Matthews has tried in vain to tell us we ought to write the *short-story* because that is a distinct species, and Mr. Lewis talks about the *form-letter* because that is a well-defined type. So long as there are in the common view other stories besides *short stories* and other letters besides *form letters*, we don't do what was done in forming *bank-book* which does not in any way suggest *grocery book* (at grocery stores we use a *pass-book*) or anything else from which we must constantly distinguish *bank-book*. That is why we write *apple tree* without a hyphen,—because we are always distinguishing the *apple tree* from the *pear tree* or the *peach tree*, and the simple adjective ununited is required to make this distinction in the best way.

Summary of rules for the Hyphen: 1. To break words at the ends of lines; 2. To unite nouns to present participles so as to form single words; 3. To unite adjectives to past participles so as to form a compound adjective; 4. To unite the words of a phrase so the phrase may be used as a single word; 5. To unite nouns to nouns to suggest singleness of idea when the first noun modifies the second as an adjective and there is no reason to distinguish different common varieties of the thing indicated by the second noun.

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 123 (last line), or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 113, 122, 129, 138.

How do you properly "retire"? Are bonds properly "retired"? Do you say of a young girl that she has a "retiring" nature?

What small word is always required before "reverend" and "honorable" used as titles?

What is the difference between "riding" and "driving"?

Why would it not be correct to ask "What quantity of fishes have you caught to-day"?

What things can you "settle" and what can't you "settle"?

What is the difference between "sewage" and "sewerage"?

Carefully distinguish "sit" and "set." Which takes an object? What is the past tense of each? What does a hen do? What does the sun do? What does a coat do?

What is the difference between "art" and "science"? Give illustrations.

What is the difference between "seem" and "appear"?

Give half a dozen examples illustrating as many different ways of using "shall" and "will" correctly.

What is the difference between "sick" and "ill"?

Why is "not a single one" or "not a single individual" incorrect?

When is "as much as" required and when "so much as"?

What is the difference between "solicitude" and "solicitation"?

Illustrate the incorrect use of "so much so" and give an example of the correct use.

Is it proper to say "some better"? What word is required?

What is the difference between "state" and "say"?

Illustrate the difference between "stimulus" and "stimulant."

Do you "stop" or "stay" at a hotel? Why is one right, the other wrong?

Give some examples of the incorrect use of "that."

Explain and illustrate fully when one should use each of the relative pronouns "that," "which," and "who."

When should "the" be repeated before a second noun joined to a preceding by *and*?

Why is "those kind" or "these kind" incorrect?

LESSON XIX. Pronouns.

Rewrite the following correctly:

Neither Lincoln nor Washington failed to serve (their—his) country when (their—his) country needed (him—them).

Let each do (their—his) best.

Nobody should pay (himself—themselves).

The class has elected (its—their) president.

Every man and woman must do (his—her—their) own work in the world.

The moon revolves around the earth, giving (her—its) cool yellow light by night, while the sun gives (his—its) torrid rays by day.

The ship bears (herself—itself) right royally.

The hen gathers (her—its) brood under (her—its) wing.

Fill the following blanks with the proper pronouns:

Sir, — shalt bow — neck to my hand yet, and I will make — wish — (had—hadst) never been born.

Dost — talk of revenge? — conscience has grown dull.

Correct the pronouns in the following:

Mrs. Daniels presents her compliments to Mr. Jones, and says if you don't return my garden hose instanter I will have you arrested.

None of us knows oneself well enough to say what we will do in any given circumstances.

Neither of the three was my friend.

Either Jenny or John or Harry will be glad to do your errand for us.

When you have looked the book over you may return it to myself.

It was me who called you.

Us boys are having a fine time.

Ourselves the glory win or lose.

Such girls as her are not fit to associate with.

The relative pronoun performs the office of conjunction connecting a subordinate sentence to the principal sentence, as well as that of pronoun in taking the place of a noun. The relative may even take the place of a pronoun of the first or second person. In that case the verb following the relative must correspond in person to the pronoun of which the relative is taking the place. Thus we would say, "I, who love you, can best judge you," not "I, who loves you," etc.; and "Thou, that lovest me," etc.

The pronoun *who* always refers to persons, *which* to things. We say nowadays, "Our Father who art in heaven, hallowed be Thy name," though in former times *which* was allowable and we find it in the King James version of the Bible.

Which may refer to persons in distinguishing between two or several, as when we say, "I cannot tell *which* of the girls I prefer." It is also regularly used in referring to children, as stated above. It should always be used in referring to animals. The use of *who* or *whom* where we should expect *which* indicates personification of the object referred to, or an implied comparison to a person.

Who has *whom* as its objective case, and the case must always be determined by the construction of the sentence, principal or subordinate, in which it stands. Thus we say, "I will give it to you who are so worthy of it," but "I will give it to you whom I consider worthy of it."

Whose is the possessive form for both *who* and *what*, though *whose* in the sense of *of which* is nearly obsolete.

That as a relative pronoun refers either to persons or to things.

What is equivalent to *that which*, and its antecedent is often a general idea, sometimes expressed in the portion of the sentence which follows. Thus in the sentence, "What concerns you, concerns me," we see that the subject of the second *concerns* is the *that* implied in *what*, and the antecedent is some such general notion as "thing."

Who, *which*, and *what* may be used interrogatively, and of course they are governed by the expected answer.

LESSON XIX (Continued). Punctuation—Exercises on the Hyphen.

Consider each of the following words and give a good reason why the hyphen was used or why it was omitted:

addressing-machine	handwriting
anybody	hat-maker
any one	hat-store
anything	headline
baggage-check	hothouse
baggageman	house-fly
balance sheet	letterhead
ball-bearing	letterpress (printed matter)
bank-book	low-pressure
bank-bill	lumberman
bedroom	lumsberyard
beeswax	machine-made
bell-boy	machine-shop
blacksmith	master printer
block tin	money-lender
blotting-paper	newsboy
bookbinder	newspaper
by-product	newsstand
cabinet-maker	oil-can
clearing-house	oilcloth
copybook	old-timer
deckle-edged	outgoing
I am going down town	It is an overcharge
Your down-town address	He over-charged me
engine-room	over-confident
everybody	over-production
An every-day affair	piece-work
We do it every day	pin-money
Every one	pocket edition
expressman	pocket-knife
facsimile	postal card
fire clay	post card
foolscap	post office
foot-note	postman
gaslight	postmaster
gas stove	price-list
gateman	proofreader
good-bye	proof-sheets
good-for-nothing	receipt-book
graniteware	return ticket
handbag	road-bed
vice president	rolling-stock
typewriter	salesman
under-estimate	sales manager
under-expose	saleswoman
working class	sample-card
workshop	school district

schoolroom
schoolteacher
schoolboy
second-hand
showcase
show-window
silverware

southeast
stock-market
stock-room
subject-matter
two thirds
three-quarter length
time-table

Divide the following words into syllables: advantage, appellant, financier, fortune, foundation, further, grammar, important, Indian, market, million, plaintiff, actress, butcher, children, frustrate, instructor, pitcher, business, colonel, double, mobile, noisy, patron, product, progress, trouble, woman.

It is foolish to agree that a "gas-stove" is one that uses gas, while a "gas stove" is one made of gas, for the very idea of a stove made of gas is too absurd even to think of. Metonymy is a universal figure of speech and well understood.

EXERCISES ON WORDS OFTEN MISUSED

See Dictionary of Errors, page 132, or How to Do Business by Letter, pages 139, 147.

What is a split infinitive? When should it be avoided? Is it ever justified? Give an example.

Why is "Where are you going to?" incorrect?

Give a correct example of the use of "transpire."

What objection is there to "twice over"?

Why is "understand about" incorrect?

Why is "United States" singular?

What objection is there to "universally by all"? What is "tautology"?

Give examples illustrating the difference between "use" and "usage."

What is the difference between "veracity" and "truth"?

Illustrate the difference between "venal" and "venial."

Why is "very pleased" incorrect? What is the correct form?

What is the objection to "a great ways off"? What is the correct form?

What is the objection to "but what"? What part of speech is each word? Is "what" ever used as a conjunction? Is "that"? What is the correct form?

Why is "from whence" wrong? Was it ever correct? In what good book do we find it?

Give examples of the correct and incorrect use of the interrogatives "who" and "whom."

Illustrate the difference between "whole" and "entire."

What is the possessive case of "which"?

Why is "widow woman" objectionable?

Explain and illustrate the difference between "without" and "unless."

Note.—While certain idioms in common use have been criticised by purists, it seems advisable not to insist too much on these criticisms, since the student may feel that they are unpractical and captious, and so involuntarily drift into complete neglect of the rhetorical criticism of words. Attention has been called to most of these cases in the Dictionary of Errors, and in passing the teacher should refer to them. The most important matters have been brought out in the questions.

LESSON XX. Relative Pronouns.

Note. When a relative refers to both persons and things, "that" is preferable to "who" or "which"; but "that" can never follow a preposition. "As" is a relative pronoun after "such" and "same."

Supply the proper relative pronoun in the following:

Washington, — was the first President, died in 1799.

That is all — I require.

There are many — like tea without sugar or cream.

Cats and dogs, with — our neighborhood is overrun, are the bane of my life.

This crystal, — is so perfectly transparent, is only spar.

He spends all — he earns. (Note. "That" is often omitted).

The cat — Helen gave me is dead.

There are many — do not believe he is honest.

It is the same — I gave you. (Note. Look up in the dictionary the difference in meaning between "same that" and "same as").

I trust my horse, — will take me home in the darkest night.

All the men, horses, and cattle — had been sent aboard were burned.

What I like best about it, and — really appeals to me, is the exciting quality of the music.

The men, horses, and wagons — you saw belong to the army.

The man — money I have will return to-day.

The horses (whose—of which the) harnesses were damaged are Mr. Morgan's.

The plant — leaves he has is a rare one.

— can this letter be from?

— ever it is, I do not like it.

One letter was from a man — I learned had never lived in the city.

He did not know as much about it as (I—me).

I like bread and butter better than (she—her).

— do you think the boy looks like?



LESSON XX (Continued). Punctuation—Quotation and Other Marks.

Every exact quotation should be inclosed within quotation marks. A quotation within a quotation is inclosed within single marks, and a quotation within that by double marks again.

Example: "Said he, "Can you tell me what "Cut it out" means?"

Each new paragraph begins with quotation marks if the quotation includes several paragraphs, but only the paragraph at the very end closes with quotation marks.

Slang words or phrases for which the writer does not care to take personal responsibility may be included within quotation marks, as "Cut it out" in the preceding example. Likewise words used in peculiar or technical meanings should be quoted.

Observe that while commas and periods are always printed inside of quotation marks whether they belong there or not, all high marks are put inside the quotation marks if they are a part of the sentence or phrase quoted, and outside if they are not part of the quoted words. Find five examples of this rule on this page or in this text.

Any word mentioned as a word and not with reference to its meaning, as when I say *and* is a conjunction, should always be distinguished either by quotation marks or by being printed in italic. Otherwise confusion is sure to exist. The same rule applies to titles of books or articles.

An apostrophe is used not only as the sign of the possessive case of nouns, but also to indicate any omission of letters in a word, as in the abbreviations "I'H" for "I will," "ne'er" for "never," etc.

When a few words are left out of a quotation, the places where the omissions are made are filled with two or three periods, or with stars. These signs are most commonly required in making long quotations which must be condensed.

Reference to notes is usually indicated by a star. When there are several notes on the same page, the star is used for the first note, the single dagger usually for the second, the double dagger for the third, and after that two stars, the sign for the paragraph, or other signs may be used as taste dictates. When the notes exceed three it is usually better to employ small superior figures.

In writing, the sign of the paragraph may be prefixed to the first word of a sentence which the writer wishes especially to indicate as the beginning of a new paragraph. This sign is common when indentation has been forgotten or overlooked, or is not sufficiently clear.

The use of special signs will be found fully explained at the back of Webster's Dictionary.

READING PROOF.

Every person ought, however, to know the printer's proof-marks and be able to use them in correcting the proof of an article, booklet, or advertisement. The following signs are placed in the margin at either side, and the word or letter to which attention is directed is underscored or circled. Usually a line leads from the word or letter to the mark.

Observe—that a sloping line is placed at the right of any letter or character which is intended to be inserted into the text, but NOT at the side of any sign or abbreviation indicating what the printer is expected to do. This rule is not as generally observed as it ought to be.

Words to go in italic are rewritten in the margin and underscored once, to go in small capitals they are underscored twice, to go in capitals they are underscored three times, to go in italic capitals they are underscored four times. Also the word or words in the text may be circled and a direction written in the margin as "ital.," "sm. c.," etc .

- Δ, or ∂ (*dele*). Delete, take out, or expunge.
- ∅ Turn a reversed letter.
- ⊗ A space, or more space between words, letters, or lines.
- ~ or ∪ Less space, or no space, between words or letters.
- └, or ┘ Carry a word, letter, etc., further to the left or to the right.
- Indent.
- ⌊ Elevate a letter, word, or character that is sunk below the proper level.
- └ Sink or depress a letter, word, or character raised too high.
- | shows that a part of a paragraph projects laterally beyond the rest.
- └ directs attention to a quadrat or space which improperly appears.
- X, or + directs attention to a broken or imperfect type.
- [Bring a word or words to beginning of line ; also, begin paragraph.
- ≡ or, ≡≡ or, ≡≡≡ Straighten (a crooked part).

- ⌒ Print as a dipnthong, ligature, or single character ; as, *æ*, *fl* (*i. e.* ; print *æ*, *fl*).
- ¶ Make a new paragraph.
- Put in Italic ; also, change from Italic to Roman, or from Roman to Italic, as the case may be.
- ≡ Put in small capitals.
- ≡≡ Put in capitals.
- ☞ Other marks are self-explanatory ; but the following *abbreviations* require explanation :—
- wf*. Wrong font ;— used when a character is of a wrong size or style.
- tr*. Transpose.
- l. c.* Lower case ; *i. e.*, put in small or common letters a word or a letter that has been printed in capitals or small capitals. [*tals.*]
- s. caps.*, or *sm. c.* Put in small capitals.
- Qu.*, *Qy.*, or ? Query.
- out, s. c.* Words wanting, see copy.

Write the following with a capital and small capital headline, and correct as a professional proofreader would the sixteen distinct errors :

THE CROWNING OF PETRARCH.

Nothing can be conceived more affecting or noble than that ceremony. The superb palaces and porticoes had by which rolled the ivory chariots of Marius and Ceasar had long mouldered into dust. The laureled fasces, the golden eagles, the shouting Legions, the captives and the pictured cities were indeed wanting to his victorious procession. The sceptre had passed away from Rome. But she still retained the mightier influence of an empire intellectual, and was now to confer the prouder reward of a intellectual triumph. To the man who had extended the dominion of her ancient language—who had erected the trophies of philosophy and imagination in the haunts of ignorance and ferocity, whose captives were the hearts of admiring nations enchained by the influence of his song—whose spoils were the *treasures* of ancient genius—the eternal city offered the glorious and just tribute of her gratitude.

EXERCISES ON SPECIAL MARKS.

Find a dozen examples of quotations of different kinds, and quoted and italic words in this textbook. Then let the teacher dictate any exercise page, which students should be able to write out correctly as to paragraphing, punctuation, and marks of all kinds.

LESSON XXI. Adverbs and Adjectives.

See Grammar, sections 60-65, pp. 65-68.

Where should "an" be used and where "a"?

What two ways are there of indicating degrees of comparison in adjectives?

How do most adverbs end?

Mention a dozen adverbs which do not end in *ly*.

What is the difference between an adverb and an adjective?

Explain the difference between a predicate adjective and an adverb.

Are such words as "look," "feel," "taste," "smell," etc., usually followed by adverbs or adjectives? Can you explain just why?

Underscore the adjectives and adverbs in the following, stating in each case just why an adjective or an adverb is required. Rewrite the sentences correctly:—

He is a fine jumper. He jumps (fine—finely).

That is a beautiful dress. That dress looks (beautiful—beautifully).

The proceeding was very strange. They acted (strange—strangely).

His words were unkind and harsh. He spoke (unkind—unkindly) and (harsh—harshly).

His words sounded (unkind and harsh—unkindly and harshly).

The bigger the engine, the easier the action. The bigger the engine, the (easier—the more easily) it acts.

He looks (sick—sickly).

(Note. Observe that not all words ending in *ly* are adverbs. "Sickly," "likely," etc., are adjectives).

Washington always appeared (calm—calmly) before his soldiers.

The answer was returned (prompt—promptly). He seems (prompt—promptly) enough.

That smells (good—well). I feel (good—well).

(Note. Observe that while "good" is always an adjective, "well" is sometimes adjective and sometimes adverb).

Speak a little (louder—more loudly).

It was an (exceeding—exceedingly) bitter dose to him.

He can run (swifter—more swiftly) than I.

Adjectives. Any word which limits or qualifies a noun may properly be called an adjective. *A* (*an*) and *the* were formerly reckoned a separate part of speech, and were called *articles*. They serve to designate nouns as taken in a general or specific sense, but their use is liable to no special confusion.

An is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound. It is also properly used before the sound of *h* in a syllable not accented, but *a* is required when the syllable beginning with the sound of *h* is accented. We would say "a history," but "an historical work." *A* is also used instead of *an* before a word beginning with *u* long, as "a university," "a European," etc. In England *an* is still used, though obviously not euphonious.

Closely akin to *the* are the demonstrative adjectives (also used as pronouns) *that*, *this*, *these*, *those*. Of course the singular form must be used before a singular noun, and the plural form before a plural noun. We would not say "I do not like these kind of people," but "this kind."

The relative pronouns *which* and *what* are also used as adjectives, as in "I do not know *which* boy to send," or "It is hard to tell *what* good can come of it."

Most adjectives may express *degree* by what is called "comparison," as in referring to that which is "beautiful, more beautiful, and most beautiful." The adverbs *more* and *most* indicate these degrees of comparison, but also the endings *er* and *est* may be used and really form the regular way of indicating comparison, as in "great, greater, greatest."

Almost the only difficulty that arises in connection with the comparison of adjectives is in choosing between the endings *er* and *est* and the adverbs *more* and *most*. The determination is commonly made purely on the ground of euphony. If the endings are easily and naturally pronounced, we use them; if they are not easily and euphoniously pronounced, the two adverbs are used. We would ordinarily say "shy, shyer, shyest," but not "splendid, splendor, splendor." There are a few irregular methods of comparison, as "good, better, best," and "bad, worse, worst."

Adverbs. Adverbs may regularly be formed from adjectives by adding *ly*; but there are many irregular adverbs, such as *very*, *much*, *well*, etc., which are in some cases identical with adjective forms (as *much* and *well*).

The first office of adverbs is to modify verbs, and as the notions of *time*, *place*, and *manner* can be connected as a usual thing only with the notions of actions or condition of being, that is, with verbs, usually all words indicating time, place, or manner are adverbs or adverbial phrases. Thus we can hardly imagine a way in which such words as *here*, *now*, *how*, etc., can be applied to nouns. Some of these words, however, may be applied to adjectives, and also to other adverbs. So we speak of a word or phrase that modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb as *adverbial*.

We have seen that a verb may be followed by an adjective in the predicate, to express a quality or limitation which is affirmed of the subject. Such an adjective really modifies the subject through the verb, and is in no sense adverbial.

Almost the only difficulty in the use of adverbs comes from confusing predicate adjectives with adverbs. Often we see an adverb where a predicate adjective is really required.

After the verb *to be* and its parts the adjective seems so natural that no confusion is likely; but after some other verbs whose significance is varying or uncertain we often find an adverb where an adjective is required. We say "She looks beautiful," not "beautifully," since "beautiful" is a quality of the subject, not a word used in any way to describe the manner of looking. In the same way we would say "He felt bad," since there is no question of his doing or enduring the feeling badly or the reverse. *Bad* describes his condition, and hence must be an adjective. So after most verbs referring to sensations an adjective is properly used, as "It looked hot," "It sounded sweet," "It tasted sour," etc.

Though many adverbs end in *ly*, not all words ending in *ly* are adverbs, as for instance *likely*.

Adverbs may be compared sometimes as adjectives are, and often the comparative form of the adjective is used as the comparative form of the adverb without change, as "He behaved *worse* than ever before." Confusion is often obviated by using the adverbs *more* and *most* before the regular adverbial form, as "He sang *more* sweetly, *most* sweetly." The comparative endings cannot be attached to adverbs in *ly*, but we have *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest* and *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*.

LESSON XXI (Continued). Miscellaneous Matters of Form in Writing.

The following points are important to remember :

1. Abbreviations are very seldom to be used in continuous text. In giving a formal address you may abbreviate the state but never the city. "Phila." for "Philadelphia" is bad everywhere and at all times. While you may write, "He lives at 25 Laurel Ave." you assuredly would not write, "As I was strolling down Laurel Ave. the other day," but always spell the word out.

2. Figures should never be used to begin a sentence except occasionally for special emphasis in circular letters where it is important that the price be caught at the first glance. If you are not presenting a series or statistics, small numbers and round numbers should be written out in all text, including the body of a letter. Write, "We have on hand nine barrels of pork, and ask you what we shall do with them" (not "We have on hand 9 bbls."), and "He said he needed about a thousand dollars" (not "about \$1,000"—that is a lazy way of writing). If you are writing statistics and one exact number is being compared with another, figures are preferred; but even in that case they should not be used to begin a sentence. Change the construction so that some other word comes first, or else spell out the number.

3. The short form for *and* (&) should always be used in firm names such as "R. Hoe & Co.," "Carson, Pirie, Scott & Co." It should never be used in the body of a letter, nor even in reports where other abbreviations occur. *Etc.* is an abbreviation for the Latin *et cetera* and is therefore better than *&c.* though the latter is not wrong. Of course *& etc.* would be absurd.

4. While it is entirely good form to speak of "Mr. Jones" anywhere, using the abbreviation for Mister, it is not good form to use the abbreviation for *doctor* or *professor* except when the first name or initials are used. We may say "Dr. Henry Miller" or "Prof. E. J. McLaughlin"; but it is bad form to abbreviate "Professor McLaughlin" or "Doctor Miller." The title "Reverend" should not be used at all except with the first name or initials, as "the Rev. Joseph Carey," or with Mr. as "the Rev. Mr. James." It is bad form to write "the Rev. Carey" or even "the Reverend Carey." In the same way the English title "Sir" is used only with the first name, as "Sir John Barton," never "Sir Barton." In formal texts "Reverend" and "Right Reverend" are spelled out even with the full name.

5. Such forms as "Jas.," "Chas.," "Wm." are allowable abbreviations, though many owners of these names dislike to see them shortened. They are to be followed by periods. Nicknames like "Tom," "Bill," or "Bob" are not abbreviations and are not followed by a period.

6. In writing the year, always make it complete, as 1919, not '19, unless you are referring to your school class. It is a poor way to write "Jan. 15, 1911" as "1-15-11." In the body of a letter do not write "Jan. 15," but spell out January. In the date line of a letter you may abbreviate long names of months, but not such short names as May, April, or June.

7. The only abbreviations that are never spelled out are Mr., Mrs., Messrs., Jr., and Sr.

8. Observe that the plural of a figure, letter, or word used merely as a word and not with its ordinary meaning is formed by adding an apostrophe and s, as in the case of a possessive. Thus we say, "Dot your i's," "Mind your p's and q's," "Do not confuse your 8's and 3's," "Count the number of *if's* in this lesson."

9. Some persons form possessives of names ending in an s sound by adding only an apostrophe, but a second s is always to be preferred, as *Dickens's*, while the plural would be *the Dickenses*, and the possessive of the plural would add an apostrophe to make *the Dickenses'*. There are a few phrases which seem to be exceptions to these rules, such as "for goodness' sake," "for conscience' sake," for "for Jesus' sake."

Some persons regard certain apparent possessives as simple adjectives and omit the apostrophe, as in "the Authors Club of New York." "The Adams Express Company" is clearly an example of a name used as an adjective.

10. Headlines (observe that this is one solid word with no hyphen) in any article or composition should always be underscored so there will be no possibility of confusing the title with the text. Notice also that there are main heads and sub-heads, and the main heads have two lines under them, while the sub-heads have but one line. If this rule is not followed there will be danger that the two different kinds of heads be confused with each other. Pick out the main heads, sub-heads in the middle of a line, and the side-heads in this textbook.

11. When *the* is the first word of an actual title, it should be capitalized; but when you do not care to indicate precisely every word in the title it is better not to capitalize an initial *the*, which will then be understood either to be or not to be part of the actual title. Thus we may write, "This company has just published *The Rising of Helena Ritchie*" but "We have all read that primitive work of fiction, *the Arabian Nights Entertainment*, which is almost as commonly known as the Bible."

12. Except in contract letters and the like, do not add two ciphers after even dollars, as "The price is \$1 a dozen" (not "\$1.00 a doz.").

13. Women do not seem to know how to sign their names so strangers are relieved of the embarrassment of wondering whether to address them as "Miss" or "Mrs." The really correct way for a married woman to sign her name is to write her own personal name out in full and then her husband's name preceded by "Mrs.," all in parentheses. E. g.:

Helen Hunt McAvoy
(Mrs. John McAvoy)

If a woman's name is not signed thus in a business letter we may assume she is unmarried and address her as "Miss," but placing "Miss" before the name in parentheses in writing to strangers in business is simpler and more considerate. A married woman also may precede her name with "Mrs." in parentheses, but it is never allowable to sign the "Mrs." or "Miss" not in parentheses, and it is equally bad form for a doctor to sign himself "Dr. Smith" rather than "Henry Smith, M. D." When women sign only initials it is to be supposed they expect to be addressed as "Mr."

Extra lesson and review: Exercise VII, Grammar, page 73.

LESSON XXII. Conjunctions and Prepositions.

See Grammar, sections 66-68, pp. 68-72.

Mark "c." under each conjunction and "prep." under each preposition in the following, and state why one is a conjunction or the other a preposition. Does a conjunction ever introduce an objective case?—

He likes candy as well as I.

Behave yourself like him. Do as he does.

No president except Roosevelt was ever elected to the office after having served by reason of having been vice president.

Unless ye repent ye shall surely die.

I do not know that that is right.

I would not act like that for anything.

Roosevelt, than whom no Republican was ever more popular with Democrats, will hardly run for the Presidency a second time.

Miscellaneous. See Grammar, Sections 80-88.

What are the two objects of the verb in the following and what are they called?—Give it him.

In what case are the italicized nouns in the following and how are they explained?—I am going *home*. The child is twelve *years* old. He arrived a *day* later. He offered *Cæsar* the *crown* three *times*.

Write the possessive case of the following: Jones & Markham, the King of Great Britain, the President of the United States, David my servant, William the Conquerer.

Improve the following: My friend's wife's sister, Chamberlain of Birmingham's seat, John's mother's sister's husband's death.

What is the difference between "John and Eliza's fortune" and "John's and Eliza's fortunes"? Would "John's and Eliza's fortune" be correct in any case?

What is the subject of the following sentence?—That he should use the society's money is abominable.

Which is correct?—"By killing his victim he lost all sympathy," or, "By the killing of his victim he lost all sympathy." Is it correct to say, "By the killing of his victim he lost all sympathy"? What rule applies?

Which is correct, "I could not prevent his doing it," or, "I could not prevent him from doing it"? Why is it wrong to say, "I could not prevent him doing it"?

Prepositions. Prepositions serve to introduce nouns to other nouns, or to verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. They are connecting links with some meaning of their own, but depending largely for their significance upon the words they connect. A preposition and its noun, forming a prepositional phrase, are to be construed like an adjective or an adverb, and may modify any word that an adjective or adverb may modify. There are only a few of them, but those few are used in an infinite number of ways, or rather with an infinite variation of values. These variations can be mastered only by long and thoughtful reading of standard literature, with a habit of observing the uses of prepositions. Culture in the use of language finds one of its highest tests in the correct employment of prepositions.

Conjunctions. All words which connect or introduce sentences have conjunctive value. Some of these words also serve as pronouns, and we call them "relative pronouns," and some serve as adverbs, and we call them "relative adverbs." Such are *who, which, what, that;* and *where, when, while, before,* etc. Another class of words serves only to express relationship between a subordinate verb and its principal verb. Such are *if, unless, whether, why, that,* etc.

We also have a class of words which serves merely to associate two words or two clauses or sentences of equal rank, such as *and, or, but.* These are conjunctions in their simplest form. This class of conjunctions shows relationship without any suggestion of dependence, and in that respect these words differ from prepositions. The relative conjunctions described above are very like prepositions, practically performing for sentences the office which prepositions perform for nouns.

The distinction between conjunctions and prepositions—that prepositions introduce dependent nouns, and conjunctions introduce dependent sentences—becomes very important in the case of two conjunctions of comparison somewhat adverbial in nature, namely *as* and *than.* These two words are seldom used as prepositions, and of course as conjunctions they always imply verbs after them. In many cases these verbs are not expressed, and subjects or objects stand without their verbs. This gives rise to the supposition that the conjunctions are prepositions and the nouns or pronouns should be regarded as objects of the particle (*as* or *them*).

For example, "I will do it as soon as he (will do it)" (the first *as* is an adverb modifying *soon*, which in turn modifies the verb *do* in the main sentence, and the second *as* is an adverbial conjunction introducing the implied verb *will do*, of which *he* is the subject); "I will not charge more than he (will charge)"; etc.

Grammar, Sects. 80-88.

Indirect object. Sometimes after an active verb (or one which is capable of taking a direct object) we find two objects which are certainly in no way dependent upon, or equivalent to, each other. Thus if we say, "Give me the book," "book" is the direct object, but "me" appears to be an object, too. The relation is clear if we supply the preposition *to* and say, "Give (to) me the book."

Adverbial nouns. Many nouns signifying time, place, etc., are used in an adverbial sense without prepositions. To all intents and purposes they are adverbs; yet they retain the powers of nouns. Examples: "I am going *home*"; "He arrived a *day* late," or "a *day* later"; "I walked a *mile* to-day"; "He offered Caesar the crown three *times*." The construction may usually be seen if we insert a preposition and other words and say, for example, "I am going (to my) home"; "He arrived late (by) a day"; "I walked (for, or over) a mile to-day"; "He offered Caesar the crown (to the number of) three times."

We have already seen that it is awkward to repeat the sign of the possessive, and that modifiers of a possessive cause awkwardness. The usual way to obviate this is to regard the noun and all its modifiers as a compound word, though no hyphens be used, and place the sign of the possessive near the end of the entire expression. Thus we say, "The King of Great Britain's possession," "For David my servant's sake," "Give me John the Baptist's head," etc.

The noun preceded by *of* is usually equivalent to the possessive, and in case of awkwardness we usually change the form. Thus when two possessives follow each other, we change one of them, and in place of "my friend's wife's sister," we say, "the sister of my friend's wife"; for "Chamberlain of Birmingham's seat," say "the seat of Chamberlain of Birmingham."

When two nouns are coupled, we may put the sign of the possessive after the last one only, to show that what is possessed belongs to them in common, as in "John and Eliza's fortune." If there were two fortunes, one belonging to John and the other to Eliza, we should indicate it by saying, "John's and Eliza's fortunes."

LESSON XXII (Continued). Abbreviations.

There are certain abbreviations that are so common that every one should know them. Such will be found in the following list. Many other abbreviations found in books, such as the letters indicating honorary degrees and official titles, may be looked up at any time in the dictionary. There is a special list of abbreviations in every good dictionary, usually at the back, and in this list one may expect to find almost any recognized abbreviation.

It is dangerous to make abbreviations for oneself, because unless others understand them they will prove worse than useless. Each person in his own line of business will pick up the abbreviations that are understood in that line; but care must be taken not to use them in writing to persons who are not in that special line and so should not be expected to know them.

Avoid abbreviating words where little or nothing is gained by the abbreviation, as in using "hlf." for "half." If the period is counted as a character, there are as many characters in the abbreviation as in the original. States containing not over four letters, such as Ohio, Iowa, and Utah, should never be abbreviated.

In any case, abbreviations are NEVER TO BE USED in the bodies of letters or other compositions where the words are used but once in a continuous, normal sentence. Abbreviations are for lists, statistics, etc., where there is much repetition. They disfigure plain text, both in printing and in writing.

Account	acct., a/c.	Charged	chg'd.
Ad libitum (at pleasure).....	ad. lib.	Christmas	Xmas
Administrator	Admr.	Clerk	clk.
Administratrix	Admx.	Collector	Coll.
Agent	Ag't.	Congress	Cong.
Against (versus).....	v. or vs.	Company	Co.
American	Am. or Amer.	Commission	Com.
Amount	Amt.	Commerce	Com.
And others (et alii).....	et al.	Committee	Com.
Answer	ans.	Common Pleas.....	C. P.
Anonymous	anon.	Congregational	Cong.
Arithmetic	Arith.	Corresponding Secretary.....	Cor. Sec.
Assistant	Asst.	Corner	Cor.
At or to (mercantile).....	@	County	Co. or Co.
Attorney	Atty.	Court House	C. H.
Avenue	Av. or Ave.	Credit, creditor.....	Cr.
Balance	bal.	Cent, cents.....	ct., cts.
Bank	bk.	Clerk	clk.
Barrel, barrels.....	bl., bbl. or bls.	Cash on delivery.....	C. O. D.
Bill Book	B. B.	Debtor	Dr.
Bills Payable.....	B. Pay.	Deacon	Dea.
Bills Receivable.....	B. Rec.	Defendant	Deft.
Borough	Bor. or bor.	Ditto (the same).....	do.
Bought	bot.	Discount	dis. or disc.
Brother, Brothers.....	Bro., Bros.	District	Dist.
Bushel	bu., bush.	Dividend	div.
By the (per)	P., p. or ₧	Dollar, dollars.....	dol., dols.
Care of.....	c/o.	Dozen	doz.
Cashier	Cash.	Each	Ea.
Cash Book	C. B.	East, E.; West, W.; North, N.; South, S.	

Errors excepted..... E. E.
 Errors and omissions excepted.....
 E. & O. E.
 Et cetera (and the rest)..... etc., &c.
 Executive Committee..... Ex. Com.
 Foot or feet..... ft.
 For example (exempli gratia)..... e. g.
 Forward For'd.
 Free on board..... f. o. b.
 Freight Fr't.
 Gallon gal.
 God willing (Deo volente)..... D. V.
 Gross gr.
 Handkerchiefs hdkfs.
 Hogshead hhd.
 Hundred C.
 Hundred weight cwt.
 Id est (that is)..... i. e.
 Incognito (unknown)..... incog.
 Inches in.
 Insurance Ins.
 Interest int.
 Inventory Inv.
 Invoice Inv.
 Invoice Book I. B.
 Island Isl.
 Jesus the Savior of Men..... I. H. S.
 Journal Jour.
 Journal Folio J. F.
 Junior Jr. or Jun.
 Justice of the Peace..... J. P.
 Lake L.
 Ledger L.
 Ledger Folio L. F.
 Manuscript MS. (pl. MSS.)
 Member of Congress..... M. C.
 Memorandum mem.
 Merchandise mdse.
 Methodist Episcopal M. E.
 Mountain or Mount..... Mt. (pl. Mts.)
 Number, numbers..... No., Nos.
 Order Book..... O. B.
 Ounce oz.
 Package pkg.
 Page, pages..... p., pp.
 Paid pd.
 Pair pr.
 Payment payt.
 Peck, pecks..... pk., pks.
 Per annum (by the year)..... per an.
 Per cent (by the hundred)..... per cent.
 Pennyweight pwt.
 Petty Cash Book..... P. C. B.

Pint, pints..... pt., pts.
 Plaintiff Plff.
 Postscript P. S.
 Postoffice P. O.
 Postmaster P. M.
 Pound, pounds..... lb., lbs.
 Premium prem.
 Presbyterian Presb.
 Pro tempore (for the time)..... pro tem.
 Protestant Episcopal..... P. E.
 Quart, quarts..... qt., qts.
 Quarter, quarters..... qr., qrs.
 Railroad R. R.
 Railway Ry.
 Returned ret'd.
 Received rec'd.
 Receipt rec't.
 Recording Secretary..... Rec. Sec.
 Right Honorable..... Rt. Hon.
 River R.
 Roman Catholic..... Rom. Cath. or R. C.
 Sales Book..... S. B.
 Secretary Sec.
 Senior Sr. or Sen.
 Shipment shipt.
 Square sq.
 Steamship S. S.
 Street or Saint St. (pl. Sts.)
 Superintendent Supt.
 Take Notice (Nota Bene)..... N. B.
 Thousand M.
 Township tp.
 Time—Hour h.; minute, min.; second, sec.
 Afternoon (post meridiem)..... p. m.
 Before Christ B. C.
 By the year (per annum)..... per an.
 Forenoon (ante meridiem)..... a. m.
 In the Christian Era (Anno Domini) A. D.
 Last month (ultimo)..... ult.
 Next month (proximo)..... prox.
 Noon (meridiem) M.
 Month, months..... mo., mos.
 This month (instant)..... inst.
 Year, years..... yr., yrs.
 Week wk.
 Videlicet (namely) viz.
 Volume vol.
 Weight wt.
 Without deduction net.
 Yard, yards yd., yds.
 Young Men's Christian Association.....
 Y. M. C. A.
 Young Women's Christian Association.....
 Y. W. C. A.

LESSON XXIII. Miscellaneous Idioms.

See Grammar, sections 89-104.

What nouns can be used in the possessive case?

How do you justify "Chicago's beauty", "the city's progress", "a day's work", "an hour's ride"?

What is the construction of the italicized noun in the following sentence?—In the battles of Manchuria, four Japanese soldiers were about equal to five Russian, a *fact* that not even the Russians deny.

(Note. Observe that in such a sentence it is not good usage to make a relative pronoun in apposition with a whole clause, as would be the case if we wrote "*which* not even the Russians deny.")

Give an example of a sentence in which two nouns joined by "and" may properly be followed by a singular verb.

In "They were offered a pardon", what is the construction of "pardon"?

Why should a hyphen be used in "story-writing" and not in "short story writing"?

What is the antecedent of "it" and how do you explain the word in such sentences as "It rains", "It does not make any difference to me", etc.?

How do you explain the double possessive in "This is a book of John's"? In what positions are "hers", "mine", "ours", etc., used for "her", "my", and "our"?

Give an example of a pronoun of which the antecedent follows instead of preceding.

What is the subject of each verb in the following sentence?—As has been said, every verb must have a subject.

Give an example of the historical present.

When a verb comes between two nouns, one singular and one plural, with which does it agree? Give an example of such a case.

Rewrite the following sentences correctly: The king, with the lords and commons, (forms—form) an excellent frame of government; When a single noun, followed by other nouns introduced by "with", (constitutes—constitute) the subject, should the verb be singular or plural?

Is it incorrect, or if not incorrect is it objectionable, to say "He or I am the man", and why?

What is the tense of the italicized verb in the following sentence?—He *was gone* before I got there. What can you say of this usage?

Give a sentence containing "so to speak" and state its construction. Write a sentence in which "go" is properly followed by a predicate adjective.

Modern usage is restricting the possessive case as far as possible to persons, or at any rate to animals, or inanimate objects which have been personified. We may say "John's bag," "Alexander's empire," "the pupil's work." We would not say "the pigpen's side," "the rock's opening," but "the side of the pig-pen," "the opening of (or in) the rock," etc. If we say "Chicago's beauty" we seem to personify the city; and perhaps something of the sort may be discerned in "the city's progress." "The day's work," "an hour's ride," are old forms that have survived so far.

A noun may be in apposition with a general idea contained in a variety of phrases and clauses, as when we sum up a long statement by saying, "a *state* of things which we must admit to be wholly bad"; or "a *fact* no one will deny"; or "a *thing* which is obvious."

Sometimes one noun is made to modify another as an adjective. In such cases there is a strong tendency to run the two words into one, as *coalbin*, *policeman*, *rosebush*, etc. Nouns followed by a present participle used as noun should be connected with the participle by a hyphen, as *story-writing*, *paper-making*, etc. But in *short story writing* no hyphen can be used, because *short* modifies *story*, not *story-writing*.

Peculiarities of Pronouns.

Though it is an established rule that every pronoun must have its antecedent (expressed or implied), there is one case in which it would be very hard to find anything that could be regarded as antecedent. When we say "It rains," "It freezes," "It looks like snow," evidently *it* is as nearly devoid of meaning as a pronoun can be. It is merely a dummy subject thrown in to fill up the gap so that we may use the verb.

When we say "Here is a book of John's," we seem to have a double possessive in "of John's," but if we understand that *books* is implied—"a book of John's (books)"—the construction is clear.

Though the "antecedent" of a pronoun may follow the pronoun instead of preceding it, the construction should always be avoided when that is possible. When the antecedent follows the pronoun, the reader or listener is kept in suspense till the explanation of the pronoun is forthcoming. This is sometimes a justifiable rhetorical artifice, as in this sentence: "There was therefore, *which* is all that we assert, a course of life pursued by them, different from that which they before led"; also in "I, John, saw all these things."

Peculiarities of Verbs.

Every verb must have its subject, but it is not easy to find the subject of the verb in such idiomatic expressions as "as follows," "as appears," "may be," etc. Some maintain that *as* is a pronoun and the subject of the verb that follows, some that the subject varies and is implied from what goes before.

In the narration of past events we sometimes use the present tense for the sake of vividness, as in this sentence: "He enters the territory of the peaceable inhabitants: he fights and conquers, takes an immense booty, which he divides among his soldiers, and returns home to enjoy a vain and useless triumph." This is called the "historical present."

When a copulative verb like *to be* or any of its forms comes between two nouns (or pronouns), one of which is singular and the other plural, the first is naturally the subject and the one which follows the verb is the predicate complement.

When a single noun, followed by other nouns introduced by *with*, constitutes the subject, or when a combination of words like that which forms the subject of the preceding part of this sentence itself, stands in relation to the verb as subject, the verb should be singular according to strict grammatical rule.

When two nouns or pronouns connected by a disjunctive pronoun (*or*) form the subject of a verb, the English idiom requires agreement of the verb with the second or last, as in "He or I am the man"; "He or we are going to have that money." Such constructions are manifestly awkward, however, and should be avoided as much as possible.

In such sentences as those containing "so to speak," the infinitive in English seems to be used independently, very much as the participle is with the nominative absolute.

By an English idiom verbs of motion sometimes take a predicate adjective after them, as if they were equivalent to *to be*. Examples: "I shall go *mad* if this continues"; "Scipio's ghost walks *unavenged* amongst us"; "I do not enjoy going *hungry*."

LESSON XXIII (Continued). Synonyms.

If it were not for the fact that we have several words meaning the same thing, it would be impossible to avoid many very disagreeable repetitions. We are always in danger of using the same word over so many times that it jars on the sensitive ear when the sentence or paragraph is read aloud. Some people imagine the sounds as they read to themselves and are offended by the repetitions even when they do not read the passage aloud.

The only way to avoid these unpleasant combinations is to read every composition aloud for the express purpose of catching them. Once you find them you have before you a problem in the choosing of another word that will rightly and suitably express your meaning.

Again, we must choose one word or another with the same meaning with a view to getting that word which accords best with the style we are writing. For example, the Anglo-Saxon word *begin* means identically the same as the Latin word *commence*. In ordinary letter writing and conversation it is always best to use the Saxon or native English word, for it is the simplest and strongest. It is far better to say, "I began to write this essay at seven o'clock this morning" than to say "I commenced." On the other hand, if you were making a speech where you wished to carry along the swinging rhythm of somewhat elevated sentences you would find the Latin word more harmonious. In all cases, if you had used *begin* more than once you would prefer to say *commence*, which is nearly as good a word, especially if it is not used in an emphatic position.

Other words are used interchangeably when variation is necessary; but when they are especially emphasized they may indicate very distinct shades of meaning. *Answer* and *reply* are the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin for precisely the same idea; but *answer* has several special meanings such as *answer for* and *answer to*. If you ask a child a question you say to him, "Answer me," not "Reply to me"; but you are more likely to "reply to arguments," though "arguments" may also be "answered."

It is important to remember that differences in meaning usually have to be indicated by association with some other words or by emphatic positions in the sentence.

For each of the following pairs of words write one sentence in which both words are used with the same meaning, the change being made simply to avoid an unpleasant repetition of sound. Then distinguish each word in its special character in a separate sentence.

abandon, desert
ability, power
eradicate, root out
absolve, clear
absent-minded, absorbed
adept, handy
adequate, suitable
adjacent, near
assert, state
alike, identical
wary, watchful
hint, suggestion
amplify, extend
faultless, flawless
likely, probable
conceivable, presumable
futile, useless
fruitless, vain

response, retort
apparent, evident
apprehend, comprehend
arrogance, pride
artist, artisan
assent, agree
impertinence, impudence
atom, particle
attain, accomplish
achieve, secure
arrive at, reach
flame, flare
customary, habitual
fanciful, imaginative
faithful, loyal
ignorant, uninformed
indispensable, necessary
labor, work

There are thousands of pairs of words like these, and often six or eight with the same meaning. This lesson should show the student how to discriminate.

THE USEFUL VERB "TO GET."

I got into my auto the other morning just after getting your telegram. I urged the chauffeur to get me to the depot in the quickest time possible. When I got to the station I got aboard the train. The train had gone but a short distance when we got news from the conductor that a cow had got on the track and was killed. When the roadmaster got the animal off the track, the train got under way again. When I got to Philadelphia it was raining hard, and in going from the station to the hotel I got wet through and now have got such a bad cold as I shall not be able to get rid of in a hurry. After changing my clothes I went out and got to the bank just before closing time. The cashier told me that I must get some one to identify me before I could get my check cashed. After getting the money I came out of the bank and got into a cab. When I got to my hotel again I was tired and was getting hungry. When I got through dining, I hailed a bootblack and got my shoes shined. Later in the evening, having nothing to do, I got myself into bed and got a good night's rest.

Find synonyms for the various forms of *get* in the preceding, rewriting in good form.

LESSON XXIV. Miscellaneous Idioms.

See Grammar, sections 105-120, omitting 116.

Give sentences in which "as" is a conjunction, a relative pronoun, and an adverb.

What is the difference if any between "as if" and "as though"?

Explain the construction of the italicized words in the following sentences: It lay *just below* the surface; He arrived *too late to see* his sister.

What does "only" modify in the sentence "Genius can breathe only in the atmosphere of freedom"?

What are "since when" in the sentence "Since when have you learned to hate money"? Give a sentence in which "since" is a conjunction and "when" an adverb used conjunctively.

Give an example of "but" used as a preposition.

Give an example of a preposition consisting of two words.

What part of speech is "the" in "the more the merrier"? Is this the same word as the article?

What is the real meaning of "It is not ungrammatical", and is the sentence correct?

What is the matter with "I never did repent of doing good, nor shall not now"?

What is the rule for two negatives in an English sentence?

What is objectionable in "more perfect" "deader", "more circular", "more complete"? Are these forms ever justified?

Write the following with the correct article:

This is a rare kind of (an) eagle.

He suffered from (the—a—omit) thirst.

He failed to tell me what kind of (a—the—omit) pencil he wished.

Nouns have two numbers, (a—the—omit) singular and (?) plural.

Our country is equally honored by the soldier, (the) statesman, and (the) poet.

This is a cotton and (a) silk fabric.

(The—an) eagle is (the—a) national bird.

You will find it in the first and (—) second section—the first and (—) second sections.

The team consisted of a black and (—) white horse.

Other Peculiarities.

Our definitions do not tell us that an adverb may modify a preposition, nor that an infinitive may modify an adverb, but we can find apparent instances of both in the idioms of the language. Examples: "It lay *just below* the surface." *Just* is here an adverb modifying the preposition *below*, but it may be explained on the ground that *below* partakes also of the nature of an adverb, and in that capacity it may take an adverbial modifier. "He arrived too late to see his sister": *To see* evidently modifies the adverb *too*—as a little reflection will show, unless we look on the infinitive as modifying the verb as it in turn is modified by the adverb *late* and that in turn by *too*. In any case, the construction is idiomatic.

A word may modify a whole phrase as if it were a single word, as in this sentence: "Genius can breathe *only* in the atmosphere of freedom," in which *only* modifies the entire phrase *in atmosphere* as if it were a simple adverb.

An adverb may become a noun, as *when* in the sentence "Since when have you learned to hate money?" *Since* is a preposition governing *when*, which still retains its conjunctive qualities, and even something of its adverbial significance.

A conjunction may become a preposition, as *but* does in the sentence "I will have nobody *but* him," and there are cases in which it even appears to be a relative pronoun, as in "There is not one of them *but* is a beauty."

An adverb may follow a preposition, in such idiomatic phrases as *at once*, *before now*, etc., just as if it were a noun.

Sometimes an adverb like *off* becomes an adjective, apparently, as in the idiomatic phrase "He is well *off*."

We seem to have the force of a single preposition expressed by two words, as "Out *of* the depths," "The song rose *up to* heaven," "He jumped *on to* the table." The first of the pair in each case may be parsed as an adverb, however.

The relative adverb *where* may be used for *in which*, as in "This is a case *where* a doctor should be called"; and other words are also often implied in its use in addition to *in which*.

In such cases as "the more, the merrier," *the* appears to be an adverb. The use is purely idiomatic. In Anglo-Saxon it was a different word from the article.

In some languages two negatives serve to intensify the negation, but the English language follows strict logical principles in this matter, and so in English two negatives destroy each other, or create an affirmative. Examples: "His language, though inelegant, is not ungrammatical,"—that is, it *is* "grammatical"; "I never did repent of doing good, *nor* shall *not* now"—an evident absurdity; "Tasso, *no* more than Raphael, was *not* born in a republic"—another absurdity.

The comparative and superlative degrees are not appropriate to such adjectives as *perfect*, *circular*, *complete*, etc., since they express an absolute, not a relative quality. What is *perfect* is *absolutely perfect*, and cannot be *more perfect*. Something may be *more nearly perfect*, however, *more nearly complete*, *more nearly circular*. By a sort of syncope, the *nearly* is often omitted, and while *more circular* can perhaps never be found in good writers, and *more perfect* seldom, *more complete* is very commonly used. The general principle applies to many other adjectives and some adverbs.

The difference in meaning that may result from the use or omission of the small word *a* is illustrated in the following: "He behaved with little reverence," and "He behaved with *a* little reverence."

And has a peculiar idiomatic use in parenthetical sentences such as the following: "The sky is changed (*and such a change!*)"

LESSON XXIV (Continued). The Right Preposition.

See Dictionary of Errors, page 87 *et seq.*, or How to Do Business by Letter, page 153.

The correct English preposition is often indicated by the meaning of the Latin preposition found as the prefix of the word that is followed by the preposition. Find out the meaning of the prefixes in the following words and write after each the preposition by which it should be followed:

abstract	concur	exhale
adhere	connect	intervene
compare	depart	inter
correlate	extract	

In other cases the prepositional prefix is not repeated in the form of an English preposition, but the verb takes a direct object. Write sentences showing that no preposition is required after each of the following, and explain the meaning of the prefix:

antedate	bisect	observe
circumnavigate	perform	postpone
extradite	permit	retrograde
counteract	produce	supervene

Still others require different prepositions in English. Write sentences illustrating the correct preposition to use after the following:

translate	prepare	object
subtract	conduct	recoil

In other cases the meaning is different according to the preposition that is used. Write each of the following words in sentences that will illustrate the difference in meaning with different prepositions:

wait	attend	tell
ask	argue	transform
angry	work	conform
anxious	subscribe	fit
call (three)	indulgent	

In the list of prepositions and words they may follow on pages 89, 90, and 91 of the Dictionary of Errors, pick out such words as do not seem at first thought to require after them the preposition they are listed under, and illustrate in what special connection the preposition would be correct.

A common error is the use of the infinitive after a word that more properly requires a verbal noun after "of" or the like, as in "It was an example of his love to form comparisons" (should be "of forming"—Dictionary of Errors, page 91). Find an example of this error, criticised in a preceding lesson.

FRIENDSHIP.

CHAPTER I.

Real Friends.

My life is like the waves on a stormy sea! I will for the first say something about real friendship. What is real friendship? As long as you have lots of money and everything goes well your friends seem to be many. Everybody wants to be your friend. But are they really friends? Can a real friend be bought for money? I say no.

How many are those who will be your friend as long as luck and welfare are thy lot? But the days go by. You are some way or another crossed in Life. You have no money, no home, no work, no clothes, and, perhaps, little to eat.

But your friends, where are they?

Take, for an example, here is a young man. He goes out in a crowd of young people. Here's a girl. She is fond of friends. She is just the one. I don't love her, but take her company just to show off that you have the chance to go with her a little bit. But would you for once say I don't love nor I don't intend to marry you?

Sweetheart—honey—dear—dearest. And should you once happen to talk to another boy you'd at once see a sober look on their faces. And after a little while they are gone off with another.

Well, I never was rich, but still I can tell many queer stories of life if I only get time.

CHAPTER IV.

Human Love May Be Untrue.

Well, Mary, how did you like your trip to Grantsburg?

O, fine. I had a lovely time out there. I wish I could of staid longer.

Indeed! You must have had quite a good time. You hardly had time to write to me while you was there. I almost thought you had gotten your eyes on some one else you like better.

O, Willie, how you talk!

Well? (A pause.)

He pressed her close and kissed her firmly.

I notice you have a new jacket, Mary. How well it becomes you.

O, it's only a cheap one, but it will have to do.

That's all right, Mary. The day will come when you can afford to have an expensive one.

Is that so?

Yes, that's so, dear. Mary, how would you like to go with me to Chicago?

O, I should like to offle well. Yes, sir, I should be very much delighted to go.

Wouldn't it be lots of fun, though? What's the matter with going next fall?

All right, I guess.

This and many other things did he promise her, but we will later find how he kept his promises.

Loving hearts on earth are fond.

Purest friendships here abound.

Heaven's sweet love is best for you.

Human love may be untrue.

CRITICISM ON THE PRECEDING.

You have no doubt read the preceding with interest and amusement. Its evident sincerity and naïveté make it interesting; but its trite and commonplace statements, its lack of connection between some sentences and those adjoining, and its wonderful mixture of pronouns, to say nothing of all kinds of errors of grammar and misuse of words, make it highly amusing.

Trace out each pronoun, and see how the writer changes from the first to the second person and then to the third, and soon to the plural. Make lists in three columns of the pronouns as used, the antecedents of the pronouns, and the pronouns that ought to be used.

Make a list of the words that are entirely incorrect, and give opposite each the word that was intended.

Make a list of the violations of rules of grammar with which you are familiar.

Write a short criticism on the paragraphing and general coherence of the composition from sentence to sentence.

LESSON XXV. Shall and Will.

See Grammar, section 116, page 89.

In what cases is "will" proper after "I" or "we"?

In what cases is "shall" proper after second and third persons in indicative sentences?

When is "shall" substituted for "will" in questions?

When is it proper to use "should" and when "would"?

Give a sentence in which "should" has the meaning of "ought".

Rewrite the following sentences correctly:

I (will—shall) be there, I think at twelve.

I (will—shall) never consent.

We (would—should) be very glad indeed to accept the invitation.

(Shall—will) you be able to join us later?

(Shall—will) you give me a dollar?

(Shall—will) he be allowed to play all day on the street?

(Should—would) you do such a thing?

(Should—would) this compensate you?

I (will—shall) be drowned; nobody (will—shall) help me.

I (shall—will) be very glad to give what you ask.

We (shall—will) be very much pleased to grant your request.

I (would—should) not do it if I were in your place.

If he comes, he (shall—will) have my place.

If you will give me twenty dollars, I (will—shall) give you a receipt in full.

Henry says he (will—shall) be quite willing to go.

He thinks he (shall—will) leave town next week.

I tell you, you (shall—will) not see me.

(Will—shall) the amount be fixed in advance?

If he does that he (should—would) be punished.

He has made up his mind that he (shall—will) not reply.

I asked John whether he (should—would) come with us.

Note. In case both forms are correct with different meanings, say so in your answer.

As has already been said, simple prediction of the future is indicated by the use of *shall* with the first person, and *will* with the second and third persons. If we wish to express willingness in any degree whatever, we may use *will* with the first person, as, "If you wish, I will go to town to-morrow"; or in any sentence in which the words "am willing to" could be substituted with any propriety.

Shall is used with the second and third persons to indicate compulsion, as "You shall do it, whether you wish to or not." Any case which assumes that the person speaking will use his will power to induce or compel calls for *shall* in place of *will*.

Shall may also be used (and indeed is almost required) in asking a question for which the anticipated answer is *I shall* or *shall not*, or *we shall*. Thus we say, "Shall you go to the opera to-night?" Answer, "I shall." The same principle applies to indirect discourse, as "He says he shall go."

Shall is seldom, if ever, wrongly used, but many good writers and most conversationalists use *will* more or less with the first person for mere prediction when there is no emphasis on the word and especially when the use of *shall* might seem to imply emphasis of some kind. Purists condemn this usage. The fact is, instinct does not warn us of any special difference between those cases in which willingness may be appropriately expressed, and those in which the nature of the ideas seems to exclude willingness. Nearly all critics condemn the practice, and nearly all English speaking people (except, perhaps, those of England, not including Scotland and Ireland) are addicted to it. See the dictionary.

All that has been said of the use of *shall* and *will* applies with equal force to the past tenses, *should* and *would*. We may add that "should" frequently signifies "ought," as in "You should say 'It is I.'" To avoid giving this significance we often use *would* after a first personal pronoun for mere prediction, as in "We would (naturally) say 'It is I.'"

LESSON XXV (Continued). Amusing Examples of Illogical Sentences.

If we would think clearly and express our meaning with logical accuracy we should obey most of the rules of grammar without knowing it. But our minds are always getting confused and putting the cart before the horse. That is why we need continually to study our sentences to see if the logical chain is complete. Other languages have inflections to show which words go with which others, but in English the position of the word in the sentence is everything. We must train our minds continually to follow out the grammatical (logical) relationships of words in our sentences to be sure there is no break in the chain. In the following there are examples of one word including the other, as "vegetables and potatoes" (of course "potatoes" are vegetables, but perhaps "green vegetables and potatoes" was the meaning, and this would be correct, for though potatoes are vegetables, they are not "green vegetables"). In other cases there is a ridiculous implied meaning of which the writer had no thought. If we form the habit of taking a quick glance around each word we shall not fall into such errors. Rewrite the following in correct form:

IT MUST BE A PRETTY LARGE SUIT.

"I am trying to get one of my suits on 5,000 men's backs," announces a former candidate for the mayoralty.

SPEAKING OF EDUCATED PIGS—

Harry Brown, the well known hog breeder, shipped one of his choice male Chester hogs to James Frances of Chamberino, New Mexico. He was educated at the Union Christian college at Merom.

ARE ART AND LITERATURE DEAD TOPICS?

Delightfully frank is the announcement of the program of the woman's club of Cañon City, Colo.: "The course of study is unusually attractive this year, embracing art, literature, and a few live topics."

"FRESHMEN" AND "CO-EDS" ARE NOT "STUDENTS."

This is the way the Wisconsin State Journal classifies them: "Professors, freshmen, co-eds, and students are once more back on the campus."

Speaking of "musical and singing," park signs in Cedar Rapids read: "Removal of ferns and plants strictly forbidden." While the Bloomington Telephone relates that "she left several children and one son." And the St. Joseph News-Press mentions "portraits and illustrations."

SURE-DEATH BRISLEY.

Say, friend, send your drug order to Brisley's. No one ever lived to regret it.

SPEAKING OF POTATOES AND VEGETABLES—

Wanted—Lady or young widow as cashier and manager in a department store.

PROMINENT COLORED CITIZEN.

Lost—A light green man's beaver hat. Return to office and receive reward.

THEY MUST HAVE BEEN UNCOMMONLY ELASTIC.

(From the Evening Wisconsin.)

Mayor Seidel sat around a table gloomily.

(From the St. Paul Dispatch.)

Senator William Field of Catskill was seated about the enormous fireplace in Keeler's hotel the other night.

WHAT AN EXTRAORDINARY GENTLEMAN!

Sign on Wentworth avenue: "To be disposed of, a mail wagon, the property of a gentleman with removable headpiece as good as new."

WAS HE AN ARTIST IN SWEARING?

(From the Logan Square Herald.)

If you have a stove to put up or a glass to put in and don't want to swear, let J. H. Fuog of the Fair do it. He is an artist.

WHAT IS THE MATTER WITH THIS?

According to the management of the Columbia theater, "50,000 square feet of fresh air are blown into this auditorium every minute."

AN ALL-AROUND GOLF COURSE.

(From an advertisement of Biloxi, Miss.)

You can sail, bathe, motor, play tennis, or play golf on the finest nine-hole golf course in the South.

WHAT SORT OF COSTUME IS "HALF-IMPATIENT ANTICIPATION"?

(From a lodge paper.)

Merry groups of gentlemen and ladies suitably attired for the evening, the ladies beautiful in their half-impatient anticipation, crowded the foyers.

IT DOESN'T PARSE.

Many moons ago, down in Pumpkin Center, where I spent my childhood days, is where I want to spend the remainder.

WHAT'S THE GAME?

Hugh Metcalf had a horse which got so disgusted over the storm that we had on the night of the third that she committed suicide by playing with its mate and lost her balance and fell over the partition and hung herself.—*Cando Herald*.

WHAT ARE THE SEVEN SENSES?

Mrs. Will Marion (née Rose Greeley) accidentally fell last week while at her home in Aurora and struck her nose against a marble washstand, nearly fracturing this useful member of the seven senses.—*Shabbona Express*.

LESSON XXVI. Review.

Key to the review questions in this and following lessons may be found in the Dictionary of Errors, beginning on page 11, and "How to Do Business by Letter," page 157.

Diagram each of the correct sentences in Lessons XXVI-XXIX, using the back of the page or a separate sheet of paper.

Rewrite the following sentences correctly, at the same time stating the principle which governs the choice of form:

It is (I—me); It is (they—them); It is (he—him).

Between you and (me—I); (Whom—who) will the paper be read by?

(Let you and me—Let's you and I) go to the postoffice.

There is no one who can run so fast as (him—he); She liked no one better than (he—him).

They believed it to be (him—he).

Each of them (has his own way of doing it—have their own way of doing it); The company ordered (its—their) men to leave.

I, who (am—are) above you, sacrifice myself for you.

Is it John or Mary who (stand—stands) at the head of (his—her—their) class?

A day lost (?) Five days to be made up on our journey (?) I knew it could n't be done.

Every one of those men (have—has) a pickax; Each of the thousand tiny points of life (is—are) as clear as a star; The woman or the tiger (comes—come) out.

The company (is—are) going to raise our pay; The factory (says it has n't—say they have n't) found it.

A number of men (are—is) running across the campus; A certain number of men (is—are) selected each year.

None of these women (is—are) dressed for a shower; None of the critics of our day (are—is) equal to Sainte Beuve.

Montgomery Ward & Co. (have—has) settled the strike; The Montgomery Ward Company (has—have) settled the strike.

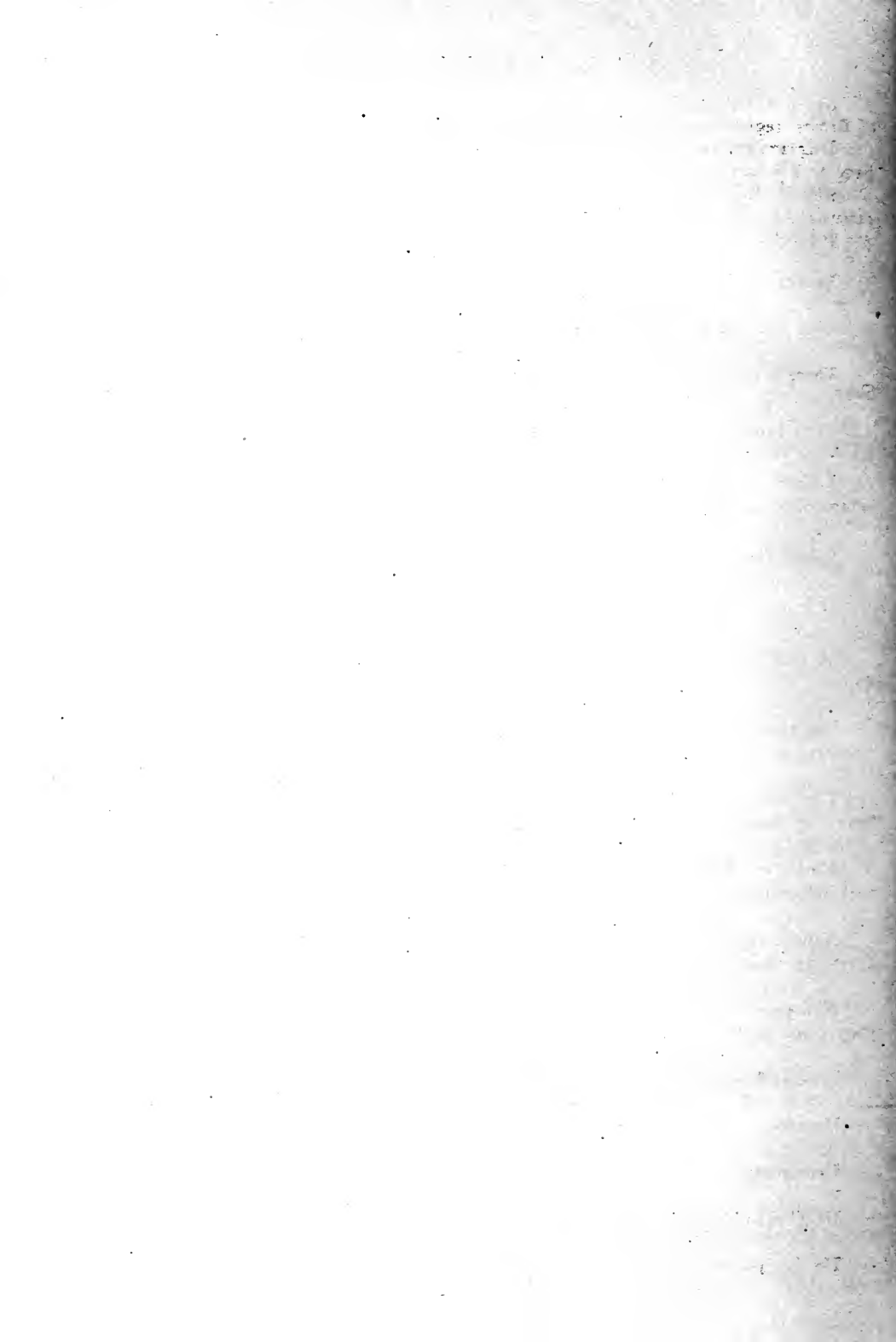
Love and beauty (is—are) his theme through the book.

He (don't—does n't) like my style; It (don't—does n't) do to speak too freely.

I am going to be invited to the country next week, (ain't—are n't) I?

He (began—begun) to do it; He (did—done) the job.

He (sunk—sank); He (swam—swum); He (sprang—sprung).



LESSON XXVI (Continued). Good Advice Tersely Written.

You may learn to avoid all the errors that man ever made yet you would not be a good writer, since good writing means positive qualities. You get these positive qualities from studying writings that are so filled with them that unconsciously you imbibe them. It is dangerous to spend too much time analysing bad writing, though only by weeding out the faults of others will you learn to weed out your own.

Mr. Edwin H. Lewis has written a book on "Business English" that is such a fine example of good English in itself that those who read it cannot help unconsciously absorbing its energetic effectiveness. As a contrast to the examples of ridiculously weak English in other lessons, I wish to give in this lesson some quotations from Mr. Lewis's book in exactly the English he recommends.

"There is an old adage," writes Mr. Lewis, "that clear thinking makes clear writing. And it is perfectly true. And perhaps you feel that it is perfectly useless. What use is there in telling a man to run along and think clearly? Thinkers, you say, are born, not produced by command. Young men in business get tired of the sage advice that is presented to them weekly in the Sunday papers and monthly in the commercial magazines. They are perfectly familiar with it. Be judicious, be tactful, be industrious, be clever, be persevering, be intellectual: in short, go and get yourself born again.

"I sympathize with the advice-bespattered youth. But these old saws have their uses—after one has taken a rest from them. 'Stop! Look! Listen!'—that railway crossing sign has saved a good many lives. And maybe the advice to think clearly has done the same. It is certain that we think more clearly when we are determined, no matter how much pain it costs, to do so."

In another chapter he goes on, "'Connection,' said Jowett of Oxford, 'is the soul of good writing.' If so, a good many pieces of English are lacking in point of soul. This is true even in the case of certain famous and valuable authors.

"When you read an advertisement you are irritated if the text is divided by pictures, or written in two columns, between each two opposite lines of which you have to make a jump.

"We like to get on. We like to move easily from sentence to sentence, from paragraph to paragraph, and come to a logical and satisfying close. If we like to do this, how shall we help others to find the same smooth effect in our own writing?

"These shoes ought to have style. But these shoes have no style. They have good material in them, but the workmanship and the form are clumsy."

"That is not an incoherent paragraph. It is short, and the sentences are short, and the meaning is clear enough. But the coherence could be improved, thus:

"These shoes ought to have style. But style is exactly what they haven't. They have good material, but the form and the workmanship are clumsy."

"You see what has been done. The last words of each sentence are echoed in the first words of the following. The gain in connection is not great between sentences so short and simple. But you can see that in longer sentences it might be very valuable to weld ends and beginnings in that fashion.

"Notice that the sentence 'But style is exactly what they have n't' throws *style* and *have n't* into strong relief. The beginning and the end of a sentence are the most emphatic places. Mr. Wendell, of Harvard, has formulated this rule: 'Begin and end with words that deserve distinction.'"

"In Dean van Benthuyssen's excellent brochure on English in Commercial Correspondence the following is quoted:

"I am in receipt of your letter of the 9th instant, relating in part to the stenographer and typewriter examinations next spring and also the question of local examinations in connection with the conducting of Civil Service examinations, concerning the latter of which I would say that with the exception of the route examinations which are conducted by the various district secretaries, the examinations are held by the employees of the post office at the different places of examination, who have been specially designated for such purpose under a provision of the Civil Service rules."

"The youth who got that must have felt as if he were perusing a railroad time-table. Good mental exercise? Never, never use that argument. To cause your reader or correspondent unnecessary mental labor is the greatest of all blunders in business English. The more patience he spends in getting at your thought, the less he will have for your proposition. Let us turn that alleged sentence into a paragraph. There are several versions that might be made."

"The paragraph gives the writer room. It allows him to take breath. He can proceed in a leisurely manner to make one point and then another. And precisely as these are advantages to the writer, they are advantages to the reader.

"Another thing. This great modern invention, the paragraph, permits the writer to emphasize the important thought. Suppose that the paragraph is to deal with a group of details which are all of the same sort, but one of which is the most important. He can run a group of details together in one sentence, using semicolons if necessary, and save a short, strong sentence for the one detail that deserves it.

"Note how the emphasis is distributed in the following excellent paragraph:

"There is always one by which the rest are measured. In the magazine world, that one has always been and is today the Century. Ask writers where their best productions are first offered; ask editors which magazine they would rather conduct; ask public men where articles carry most influence; ask artists where they would prefer to be represented; ask the public what magazine is the first choice of real influence, and the answer to each question is the same: THE CENTURY."

To the student: Find in some book or newspaper a paragraph as good as the last one. Then write over in good form the long sentence about examinations.

Show by reading aloud how Mr. Lewis attains force by varying the length of his sentences—that is, read aloud examples of short sentences with longer sentences to show how effective they are on the ear.

Point out ten figures of speech—that is, comparisons and illustrations, or implied comparisons and illustrations, used to make his meaning clear.

What single idea is set forth in several paragraphs, each time in a different style? How does this repetition avoid monotony? Why is this fresh and interesting repetition needed to get the idea fully into the mind of the reader?

LESSON XXVII. Review.

Rewrite the following sentences correctly, at the same time stating the principle which governs the choice of form:

He had (awaked—awoke); He has (bore—borne) up well; The cart has (broke—broken) down.

He has (drunk—drank) all the water; The bird has (flown—fled) away.

She has (sung—sang) the old song; The ship has (sunk—sank).

He has (swore—sworn) an oath; The man has (swum—swam) over the river.

He has (got—gotten) home; She has (ridden—rode) ten miles.

He has (forgot—forgotten) his lesson.

He (wrote—has written) to me yesterday; I (saw—have seen) him in 1901.

I (saw—have seen) him before I saw you; I (was—have been) told after I left you.

I (haven't heard—didn't hear) from you yet; He (has done—did) it already.

He (has not spoken—did n't speak) to me so far.

It had happened before I (saw—had seen) him; I (should like to have done it—should have liked to do—to have done it).

From the little conversation I had with him he appeared (to be—to have been) a man of letters.

It required so much care that I thought I should have lost it before I (had reached—reached) home.

The doctor in his lecture said fever always (produced—produces) thirst.

Would I (were—was) an angel! I wish I (was—were) at home.

If he (were—was) here I should be happy; If he (is—be) here, I am happy.

Reprove not a scorner lest he (hate—hates) thee.

If Anna (was—were) on the train, he must have seen her; Unless he (have—has) done it, there will be no punishment.

Having done all he could, he ordered the freight agent to send the box ahead.—Having done all he could, the box was ordered sent ahead.



LESSON XXVII (Continued). The Paragraph.

One of the most important things to learn in writing is how to take up one thought at a time and elaborate it fully in a paragraph, then passing on to the next. Paragraphs should be kept just as distinct as sentences.

The following little series of paragraphs describes a poor but pretty French woman, alternating between the two general subjects of her low position in the world and her dreams. The sentences are also peculiar in that many of them contain a number of phrases all just alike in form. Observe the effect of these balanced phrases.

THE NECKLACE. BY GUY DE MAUPASSANT.

She was one of those pretty and charming girls who, as if by a mistake of destiny, are born in a family of clerks. She had no dowry, no expectations, no means of becoming known, understood, loved, wedded by any rich and distinguished man; and so she let herself be married to a petty clerk in the Bureau of Public Instruction.

She was simple in her dress because she could not be elaborate, but she was as unhappy as if she had fallen from a higher rank, for with women there is no distinction of higher and lower: their beauty, their grace, and their natural charm fill the place of birth and family. Natural delicacy, instinctive elegance, a lively wit, are the ruling forces in the social realm, and make daughters of the common people the equals of the finest ladies.

She suffered ceaselessly, feeling herself born for all the refinements and luxuries of life. She suffered from the poverty of her home as she looked at the dirty walls, the worn-out chairs, the ugly curtains. All those things of which another woman of her station would be quite unconscious tortured her and made her indignant. The sight of the country girl who was maid-of-all-work in her humble household filled her almost with desperation.

She dreamed of echoing halls hung with Oriental draperies and lighted by tall candelabra, while two tall footmen in knee-breeches drowsed in great armchairs by reason of the heating stove's oppressive warmth. She dreamed of splendid parlors furnished in rare old silks, of carved cabinets loaded with priceless curiosities, and of entrancing little boudoirs just right for afternoon chats with bosom friends—men famous and sought after, the envy and the desire of all the other women.

When she sat down to dinner at a little table covered with a cloth three days old, and looked across at her husband as he uncovered the soup and exclaimed with an air of rapture, "Oh, the delicious stew! I know nothing better than that," she dreamed of dainty dinners, of shining silverware, of tapestries which peopled the walls with antique figures and strange birds in fairy forests; she dreamed of delicious viands served in wonderful dishes, of whispered gallantries heard with a sphinx-like smile as you eat the pink flesh of a trout or the wing of a bird.

She had no dresses, no jewels, nothing; and she loved only that, she felt made for that. She was filled with a desire to please, to be envied, to be bewitching and sought after. She had a rich friend, a former schoolmate at her convent, whom she no longer wished to visit because she suffered so much when she came home. For whole days at a time she wept without ceasing in bitterness and hopeless misery.

Make a summary of the preceding, paragraph by paragraph.

Show how the general subject is set forth in the first sentence, and the whole summarized in the last paragraph.

Study the transitions from one paragraph to the next, and indicate just how much of a change there is.

HOW TO ATTAIN FORCE IN WRITING.

Let me quote from "Literary Composition" the following summary of how to attain force:

1. By using words which are in themselves expressive;
2. By placing those words in emphatic positions in the sentence;
3. By varying the length and form of successive sentences so that the reader or hearer shall never be wearied by monotony;
4. By figures of speech, or constant comparison and illustration, and making words suggest ten times as much as they say;
5. By keeping persistently at one idea, though from every possible point of view and without offensive repetition, till that idea has sunk into the mind of the hearer and has been fully comprehended.

In the preceding lesson I have referred to some paragraphs quoted from Edwin H. Lewis as particularly well written—that is, particularly forceful. Let us see how Mr. Lewis illustrates the rules given above.

First of all, we notice that his sentences are very short on the whole, yet varied in length (point 3). Several of them begin with *and*. On this point he says himself, "*And* is rarely used at the beginning of a sentence. There is no fixed rule against doing so; this is a free country, and occasionally an initial *And* is worth using. Being the simplest and most childlike of connectives, it gives a somewhat naive effect, but sometimes an innocent *And* sentence is just what you want. Do not worry on this point. Worry as to whether you have said *And* when you meant *But*, or *But* when you meant *And*. Connectives are worse than useless unless they are correctly used."

Why did Mr. Lewis begin so many sentences with *and*?

Point out ten particularly expressive words which he has used.

Point out ten examples of words placed in emphatic positions.

LESSON XXVIII. Review.

Rewrite the following sentences correctly, at the same time stating the principle which governs the choice of form:

While sitting on my doorstep, I caught sight of a beautiful butterfly—While sitting on my doorstep, a beautiful butterfly caught my eye.

By doing so you will clear the matter up—By doing so the matter will be cleared up.

On weighing the sugar he found a shortage—On weighing the sugar a shortage was found.

I hardly knew what to make of that (man's—man) jumping over the fence.

I saw (him—his) doing it; I approve (him—his) doing it.

What do you think of (me—my) going to town?

I heartily approve the (church's—church) acting now.

Congress received a report on whether Washington Monument should be placed south of the White House—on Washington Monument being placed south of the White House.

(John and Mary's—John's and Mary's) house now came in sight; I picked up somebody's hat, either Fanny's or Jenny's.

His grandfather cleaned the Duke's of Wellington boots—Duke of Wellington's boots.

I was frightened at the length of that lesson—at that lesson's length.

Chicago's drainage system—the drainage system of Chicago.

He spoke of the land's fertility—the fertility of the land.

For (goodness'—goodness's—goodness) sake; Art for art's sake—for the sake of Art.

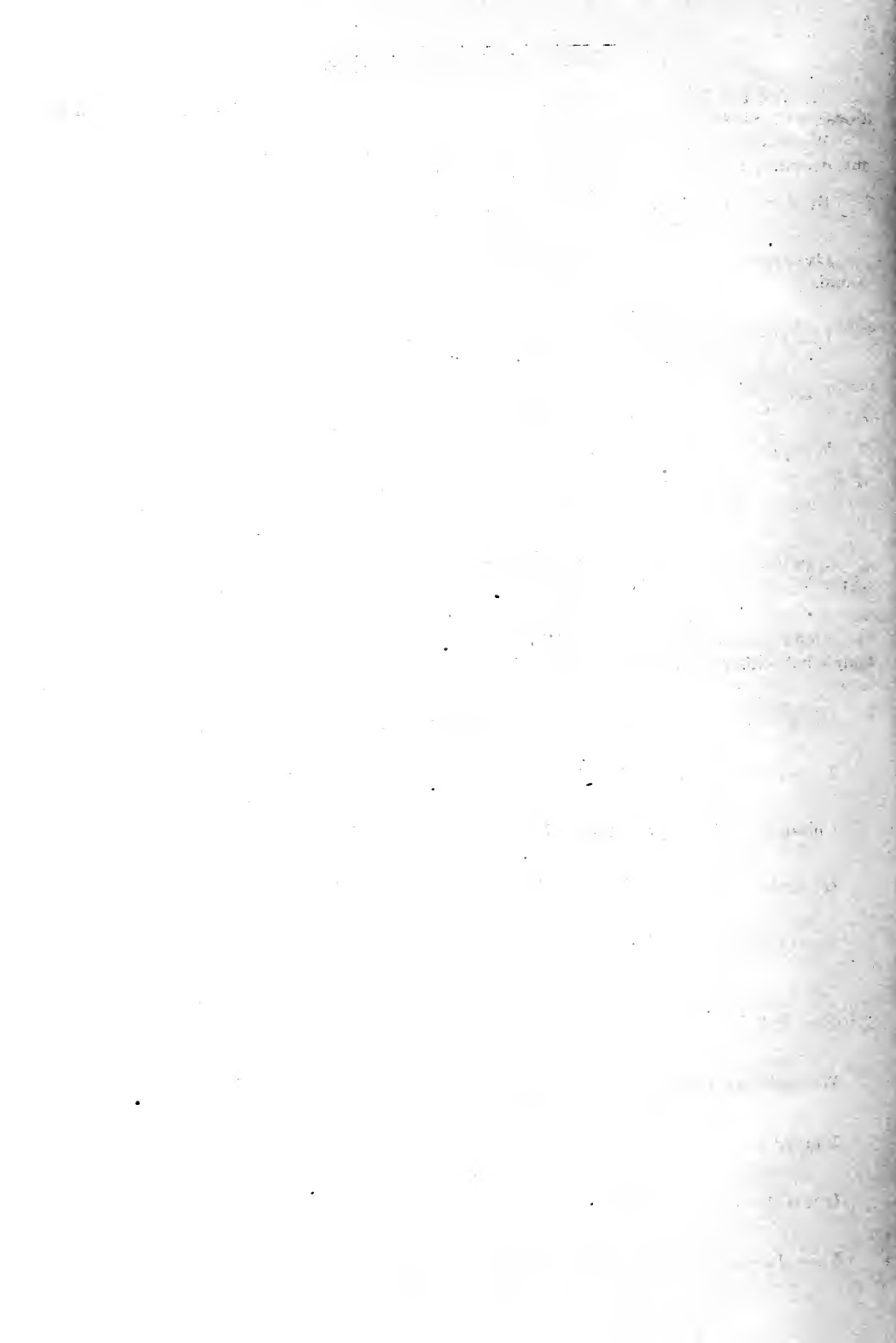
The building of the ship—the building the ship; It is the using of it before "most"—the using it before "most".

We took our (part—parts) in the proceeding, each according to his own ability.

I never saw a (sweeter—more sweet) child.

It was the (most complete—most nearly complete) collection of butterflies in the country.

Your drawing is (more circular—more nearly circular) than mine.



LESSON XXVIII (Continued). Tone in Writing.

The question whether it is allowable to use colloquialisms or even slang in business-letter writing easily resolves itself if we study a little the tone in which we should write to different persons.

If you were making an address before an audience of professors you would not dream of introducing slang words, or even colloquial expressions. Your auditors have been educated on book English, and are accomplished critics on the fine distinctions of words. If you wish to make an impression on such an audience you will speak to it or write to it with the utmost care in the choice of words and methods of expression.

If you were addressing the President of the United States in his official capacity, you would do the same.

On the other hand, if you were a boy playing with boys in a football game, you would use the football language and boys' college slang; otherwise you would be kicked off the field as an affected nincompoop. You would not need to use any foolish slang expressions; but you would have to speak the language the boys would best understand.

If you were writing a letter to a strange lady you would be much more careful in your choice of words than if you were writing to your mother or sister. Yet you would be more careful in writing to your mother or sister than in writing to your brother or a school chum.

Likewise when you write to a business man, it is your duty to use the language that the business man will best understand. If you talk to him about letters that will "get in" business you seem to him very weak because you do not seem familiar with his technical word "letters that pull." If you speak to him about "getting down to brass tacks" he knows what you mean, and that you are going to do just what he wants you to do, namely get to the point in a hurry.

The present writer has had much to say of the necessity of using colloquial English in business, and is glad of an opportunity to quote the opinion of some one else,—Professor Lewis in his "Business English," Chapter XII:

"Business English must admit colloquialisms. It may even admit fresh slang now and then. But nobody likes stale slang, and few buyers care for even fresh slang all the time. Mr. Walter D. Moody in his 'Men Who Sell Things' remarks, 'The purest of king's English will secure an audience and hold attention for the salesman anywhere, while slang and short cuts of speech often excite distrust and offend the ear of the truly refined.' As a general proposition this is sound and unassailable.

"But just what is here meant by 'the purest of king's English' is not so clear. As one turns the leaves of Mr. Moody's vigorous and optimistic book, one sees that he is writing to commercial travelers, and has been taught expressions that a college man has been told to reject. Mr. Moody never uses the word drummer; he evidently considers that below tone. On the contrary he dignifies the word 'salesman' all he can, even calling him an 'ambassador plenipotentiary.' That is high-toned language, surely; perhaps a trifle too high-toned. But some words which Mr. Moody uses might fairly be called drummer's English rather than the English of ambassadors. Take the phrase 'persevering hustle' (page 25). It is rather good, is it not? 'Hustle' is slang, but 'persevering' is literary, and the combination is clear and fresh. Chapter III is headed, 'The Knocker.' That is slang for the Disgruntled Man, or The Critic, or The Complainer. Mr. Moody uses it because he knows it means a great variety of unpleasant qualities to the traveling man. It fits the tone of the road. He would not seriously maintain that it would be the best word to employ in every business situation. He would not advise a correspondent to begin a letter thus: 'My dear Madam; Your knock received and contents noted.'"

Under the head of "The Business Correspondent" Mr. Lewis has a conversation with an old pupil of his who has since become a successful business man. Here is an abstract from it:

"In college I went in for purity of diction and all that. I was always trying to be correct," said Frank.

"And you 've had to unlearn it"?

"Some of it. You can't always be thinking about paragraphs and sentences and pure diction. If you do, your letter will sound cold and dead. Dead! that is the word. Half the letters written by college graduates are dead ones. You've got to make your letters live. You've got to talk a language that the other man will understand. You've got to make him feel that you are doing business with *him*, not dictating a form letter or a copybook model."

"Sounds incontestable," I murmured.

. . . . "My college English all comes in handy, especially what we had about organization. All I mean is that the technique mustn't get in the way. You have to forget it, just as a piano-player has to forget his finger exercises. You can't write good letters by rule. All the principles, hundreds of them, must have soaked in. You must digest your rules and assimilate your knowledge."

The following letter was written by Professor Lewis to a humorous column in the Chicago Tribune, where slang in the hands of a literary artist is the prevailing language. It is an excellent example of the colloquial tone properly used.

Sir: You remark that John Spargo talked at Lewis Institute on Socialism. O, no, dear sir, he didn't. He talked on "The Problem of Pure Milk." As the author of a book on this subject he was invited to address the women who are studying bacteriology, and the men who are going in for B. S. And being a gentleman, he stuck to his topic. He did not utter one solitary sentence of all those which are attributed to him by the Evening Post. He didn't mention Dr. Abbott, or say that Socialism seeks to extend private property. He talked about Milk, first, last, and all the time. The Post report belongs in the same category of pleasant fiction as Miss Pants' interview with Mr. Mabie. You can't even put it with Artemus Ward's lecture "On Milk," for though Ward said nothing about milk, he always began by drinking a glass of it.

E. H. LEWIS,
Dean of College Students,
Lewis Institute.

EXERCISES IN TONE.

Bring to the class a paragraph from a letter you have actually written to your mother, or would write to-day about what you are doing if she were away from home.

Bring to the class a paragraph from a letter to a young lady cousin whom you know fairly well, or a sister, or to a lady friend; or if you are a girl, a letter to a brother or a relative or a friend you have known since childhood.

Bring to the class a paragraph from a letter addressed to the president of a college, real if possible, or such a letter as you might now write asking permission to make a change in a course of study.

Bring to the class a paragraph of some length from a real letter to a school chum describing some game or meeting or amusement in the language you would naturally use in telling about the affair face to face, or prepare such a paragraph for the purpose, observing that you may use colloquial language if necessary to express yourself simply and naturally, but never words touched with vulgarity, or slangy without being expressive.

LESSON XXIX. Review.

Rewrite the following sentences correctly, at the same time stating the principle which governs the choice of form:

I do not like that kind of apples—those kind of apples.

I can't tolerate that sort of people—those sort of people.

He was the (wealthiest—wealthier) man of the two.

She was the (younger—youngest) of the three sisters.

He does his work very (well—good); He came (previous—previously) to seeing you.

He acted (conformable—conformably) with the rules laid down.

He came (agreeable—agreeably) to his promise; He could not have acted (more nobly—nobler) than he did.

He feels (bad—badly) about it; He looked (white—whitely).

The carriage rides (easy—easily); The general stood (firm—firmly).

He was a (good-looking—good looking) boy; He was a (well-dressed—well dressed) fellow.

He need not, (and—nor) does not, lessen his operations on my account.

Lost by a gentleman, a Scotch terrier with his ears cut close—Lost, a Scotch terrier, by a gentleman, with his ears cut close.

I (only mention—mention only) one of the charges.

Question: How are adverbs compared?

I am a little older than (he—him); He always acts (like me—like I do).

He has made alterations (and additions to the work—in the work and additions to it).

You may and ought to use stories and anecdotes—You may use stories and anecdotes and ought to do so.

Every man of taste and possessing an elevated mind—Every man of taste who possesses an elevated mind.

They very seldom trouble themselves with inquiries, or with making useful observations—with inquiries or making useful observations.

He left a son of singular character, who behaved so ill he was put in prison—and who behaved so ill.

11/11/11

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for the integrity of the financial system and for the ability to detect and prevent fraud. The text notes that without reliable records, it would be difficult to verify the accuracy of financial statements and to identify any irregularities.

2. The second part of the document outlines the various methods used to collect and analyze data. It describes the process of gathering information from different sources, such as interviews, surveys, and document reviews. The text also discusses the importance of ensuring the reliability and validity of the data collected, and the need to use appropriate statistical techniques to analyze the results.

3. The third part of the document focuses on the interpretation of the data and the drawing of conclusions. It explains how the collected information is used to identify patterns and trends, and how these findings are used to support or refute the hypotheses being tested. The text also discusses the importance of being objective and unbiased in the interpretation of the data, and the need to consider alternative explanations for the observed results.

4. The fourth part of the document discusses the implications of the findings and the need for further research. It notes that the results of the study have important implications for the understanding of the phenomenon being studied, and that further research is needed to explore these findings in more detail. The text also discusses the need to communicate the results of the study to a wider audience, and the importance of being transparent and honest in the reporting of the findings.

5. The fifth part of the document concludes the study and provides a summary of the key findings. It reiterates the importance of accurate record-keeping and the need for rigorous data collection and analysis. The text also expresses the hope that the findings of the study will contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon being studied, and that the methods described here will be useful to other researchers in the field.

LESSON XXIX (Continued). Vices that Destroy Force in Writing

Force is destroyed by the—

Vice of repetition with slight change or addition;

Vice of monotony in the words, sentences, or paragraphs:

Vice of over-literality and exactness;

Vice of trying to emphasize more than one thing at a time;

Vice of using many words with little meaning; or words barren of suggestiveness and destitute of figures of speech; and its opposite, the

Vice of overloading the style with so many figures of speech and so much suggestion and variety as to disgust or confuse.

These vices have been named tautology, dryness, and "fine writing."

What vice is particularly illustrated by each of the following amusing examples of weak writing?

WHY NOT CAN SOMETHING?

The canning company has started in the canning business for the season, the first being canned last week. Tomatoes were put in cans first and sweet corn will no doubt be canned this week.—*Tri-County Press*.

PERIPHRAISIS.

Joe Minsky, the horse buyer, was a business transactor in town Wednesday.—*North Iowa Times*.

INTERESTING!

St. Giles' church, built in the twelfth century, is the most interesting church. John Knox's house is very interesting. It extends a little over the street with a red tiled roof. We were greatly interested in the curious old windows, and the very interesting door with its extremely picturesque knocker and interesting old lock.

A SENTIMENTAL JOURNEY.

It was almost a day's ride from London to Edinburgh. On the way I saw old castles, but the most interesting feature was an old water mill with a large wheel, turned by water (1). Such as we read in English stories (2). The wheel was turning as we passed (3). When we arrived in Edinburgh (4), we were taken to the Cockburn hotel, a house builded (5) with towers on the corners, all of stone. Edinburgh is known as (6) "Modern Athens." It is the seat of a famous university, founded in 1582. However, the Glasgow university is more famous now (7), it is located near the Firth of Clyde.

We visited the Holyrood palace builded (8) 1670. This contains a chapel, Queen Mary's bedrooms (9), just as they were years ago, above which is (10) Lord Darnley's apartments (11), the tapestry and bed coverings are decaying and moldering away. We saw the bath house (12) of Queen Mary out in one corner of the court yard (13). A dagger is shown in the apartments that is supposed to have been the one used to kill Lord Darnley, Mary's husband. This dagger was found in the bath house.

Each glaring error of style, grammar, or punctuation is marked by a number. Indicate clearly what each error is.

THERE!

[From the Bangor News.]

State versus Willis Thompkins for conveying hack saw into jail with intent that one Joseph Pearson, a prisoner therein, lawfully detained, should by means thereof escape therefrom.

We cannot "expect" (look forward to) that which has already happened. We may perhaps "expect to find that such and such is true," but to condense this into "I expect you liked the play first rate" makes very poor English. When one gets the habit of an expression like this and uses it over and over it becomes particularly objectionable.

GREAT EXPECTATIONS.

[From Elinor Glyn's "The Reason Why."]

"It is all story book stuff—that almighty passion, I expect." P. 7.

"You understand something of life, I expect." P. 13.

"Remember, it is a false sentiment." "O, I expect so." P. 42.

"I expect Zara would like it better if you did not meet until after then." P. 44.

"I expect you don't, but I do." P. 66.

"Bit of Vesuvius underneath, I expect." P. 182.

"She looks stormy—expect it's pretty well worth while, though, when she melts." P. 182.

"I expect Tristram's pulled the curb." P. 183.

"I expect she would not let them put her off." P. 183.

"I should feel sorry for the poor birds, I expect." P. 245.

"Rather an ordeal, I expect." P. 249.

WONDERFUL!

[From Ty Cobb's Account of the Game.]

"Marquard pitching wonderful ball."

"The two wonderful batsmen of the Athletics."

"A truly wonderful pitcher."

"Snodgrass' wonderful throw to second."

"The Giants had that wonderful requisite."

"Another such wonderful game."

LESSON XXX. Review of Punctuation.

Rewrite the following with the proper capitals:

the south, the west, the east, the orient, the president and congress, the constitution of the united states, the constitution of the state of Louisiana.

We will refer the matter to our corset department.

The english report an increase in the exports of the united kingdom.

Send the goods c. o. d.; I will go d. v.; Make the bill read e. & o. e.

He said, "this man owes me money and I will kill him"; He said that this man owed him money and he would kill him; He said this man owed him money and he would "wring his neck till he was dead" before he would let him go.

It is a wise man who always follows the rule, never spend a dollar before you have it to spend.

Properly punctuate and capitalize the following: ms, e g, feb, assn, bldg.

Do the relative clauses in the following require to be set off by commas? Give your reason:

Did you see Jenny Jones who was wearing a picture hat? Did you see the man who knocked that woman down?

Why is a comma required or not required in the following?—

When I get there I shall see what I can do; When I have told you again and again that I will not tolerate such conduct why do you go on doing these things?

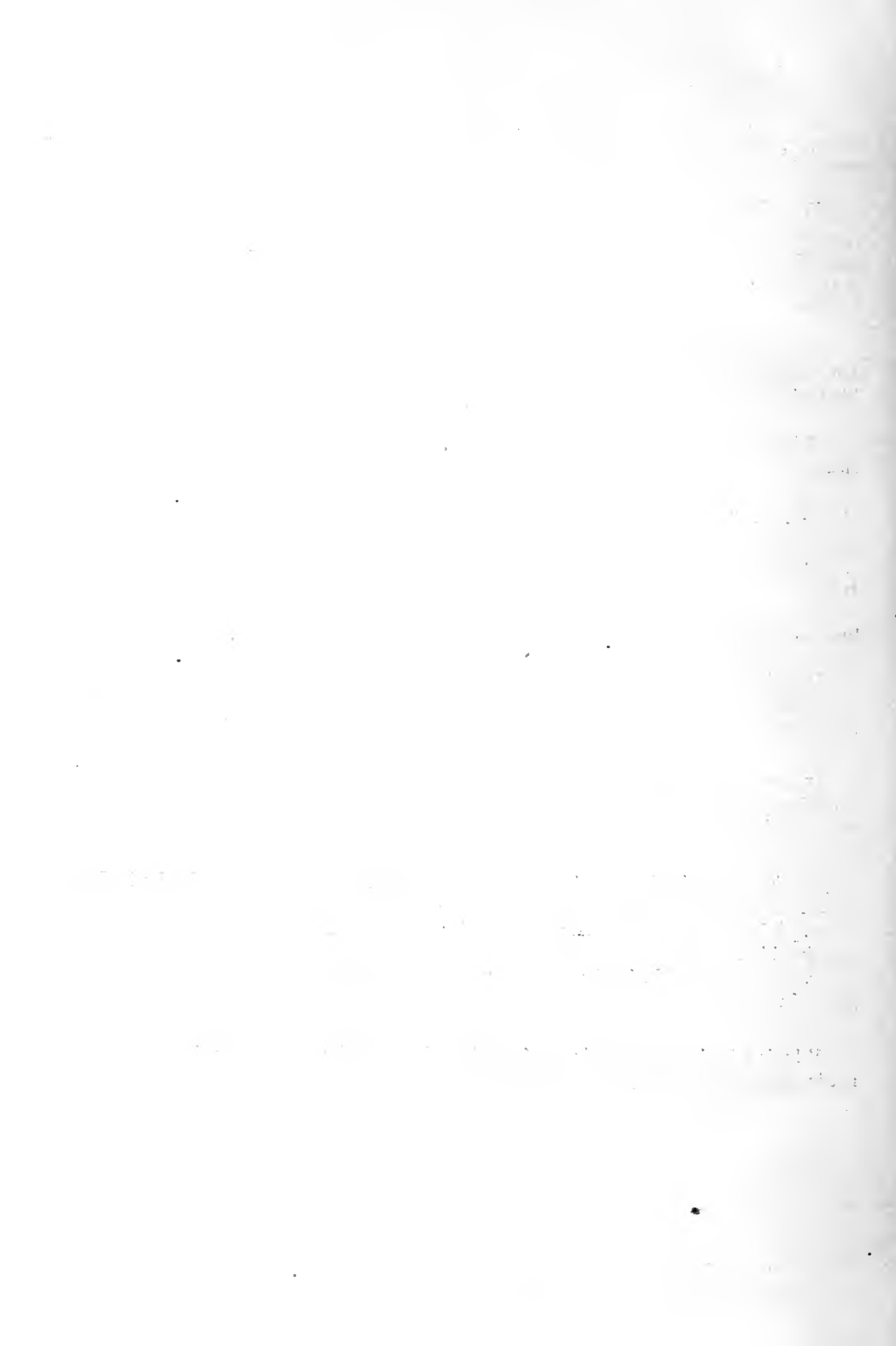
In what cases is a comma required before "and"? Correctly punctuate the following: I told him I did n't like the way he was going on, and then I explained to him just what the effect of his conduct would be on the other employees.

In what cases should "but" be preceded by a comma and when by a semi-colon? Punctuate the following correctly:

1. John came over and talked to me for a long time but I could n't see my way to granting his request.

2. We have fought hard and won but for all that I am willing to yield if it is for the good of the party.

Why is a hyphen required in the following—Good-looking, man-eating, letter-writing; but not in these—Finely built, business letter writing, short story writing, well intentioned?



LESSON XXX (Continued). Miscellaneous Exercises in Criticism.

Study carefully "General Faults," Dictionary of Errors, pp. 91-95, or How to Do Business by Letter, pp. 155-157.

Read carefully the section "Half-baked Criticism of English," Dictionary of Errors, pages 86, 87.

We study criticism merely that we may improve ourselves. It is easier to see the faults in others than in ourselves. We may study the faults of others that we may see our own more clearly; but we should be extremely chary of letting any one know what faults we find in others. Our own pride may be depended on to make us keep to ourselves the faults we find in our own work. We cannot become too competent in self-criticism; but the chances are that in criticising others we fail to understand clearly what they meant to say, and only in the case of our own writing can we be sure precisely what was meant.

As an exercise that will help us to criticise ourselves more effectively, let us examine carefully and rewrite the following:

[From an advertisement.]

It is a unique perfume, which at each gesture throws off an atmosphere of trouble and adoration! (1) It is a perfume which gives to she (2) who uses it such irresistible charm that one cannot separate the suavity (3) of the aroma from the seduction of the woman. It is a perfume that one cannot forget, which follows one like an obsession of love, a perfume which makes one relive the happy hours and falls upon the heart like an adorable dew, the perfumed drops of memory (4).

1. What possible connection can "trouble and adoration" have with each other or with a perfume? 2. What is the matter with the grammar of "to she"? What is really the subject of "uses"? 3. Can you conceive what "suavity of the aroma" means? 4. Mixed metaphors are implied comparisons with objects that do not precisely harmonize: do you find any in this passage?

Rewrite this so as to make a really alluring advertisement, yet one that makes sense and has some chance of producing an effect on a real person. Talk like this is so overdone it fails wholly to convince.

[From the Star.]

Such a mustering of beautiful women and brave men, such enchanting groups of slim, satin clad (5) figures, such visions of radiant girlhood and sweetly ripened womanhood were never seen in a ballroom before. Fully 600 (6) pairs of feet of varying sizes danced gayly over the polished floor (7) and the tiers of seats that rose arena-like about the gleaming rectangle (8) were crowded with richly dressed spectators throughout the evening.

5. Do you need a hyphen between "satin" and "clad"? 6. What is the rule for writing figures in the body of an article? 7. What punctuation is required here? 8. What kind of language is "gleaming rectangle"?

Rewrite this so it will be convincingly attractive, but leave out the well-worn old phrases of which we are all so weary.

"Many of these evening scarfs," says the ad, "are lined with contrasting colors which makes them a real protection against a sudden change in temperature." (9)

9. Which colors do you think would make the warmest lining when placed in contrast?

TREPANNED, WE INFER.

[From the School Agency.]

The principals (10) upon which we operate make all of our patrons our friends.
10. What is the correct form of the word intended here?

[From an Open Letter by a Candidate for Mayor.]

I've somewhat outlined my course of procedure; I will hew (11) to that line of thought. I expect to encounter snags, swails, and cesspools (12) in the discharge of duties. I will attempt to cross (13) them the best I can. I will bridge over them with pillars (14) that seem to be safe and cost the least, and I will plank the way with you and compel you to assist in reaching the opposite shore in safety (15).

11. Is the metaphor suggested in "hew" a good one? 12. Do you think so nasty-smelling a thing as a cesspool makes a good figure of speech? Is it harmonious with "snags and swails"? 13. Does one "cross" "cesspools"? 14. Are "pillars" used in building bridges? 15. What other mixed comparisons do you find here?

THE KIND OF SLANG THAT EXPRESSES NOTHING.

Overheard on a North State street car:

"Bad night."

"You bet; nasty weather."

"You bet; need it though."

"You bet; might be worse." [Gets off.]

"Good night."

WHAT KIND OF WRITING IS THIS?

"He is not alone," warbles the Lauralei.

"A girl much fairer than herself (16) rests in his claspings arms as they float thither and yon to the mad merry dance music."

16. This extract is taken out of its connection. What does "herself" probably refer to?

IN THAT VICINITY.

Patrolman Jenkins ordered him to drop the knife, but he failed to obey, and, in consequence, was shot in the west end or thereabouts (17).—*Country Paper*.

17. What is the matter with this?

A PERFECTLY GOOD MULE.

Some time during the night the mule caught its head in the wire in such a manner as to cause its death. The next morning Mr. Bowling found the mule hanging perfectly dead (18).—*Carrollton Democrat*.

18. What is the difference between dead and "perfectly dead"?

\$1.00 to farmer boy 15 years old for best information how to learn a calf to drink milk (19).—*Sentinel-Leader*.

19. Correct three faults in this.

MUST HAVE TAKEN HER NAME.

Miss Edna Wohlgemuth was married on Tuesday of last week to a young gentleman from Oregon, the wedding taking place at the home of the bride's parents, the Rev. Smith of the Congregational church performing the ceremony (20).—*Register*.

20. Be exceedingly careful you do not leave out the most important thing in what you have to say. Is "Rev. Smith" wrong?

DON'T COIN WORDS.

"I office (21) with two other lawyers," writes a young man; but where does he house and bedroom?

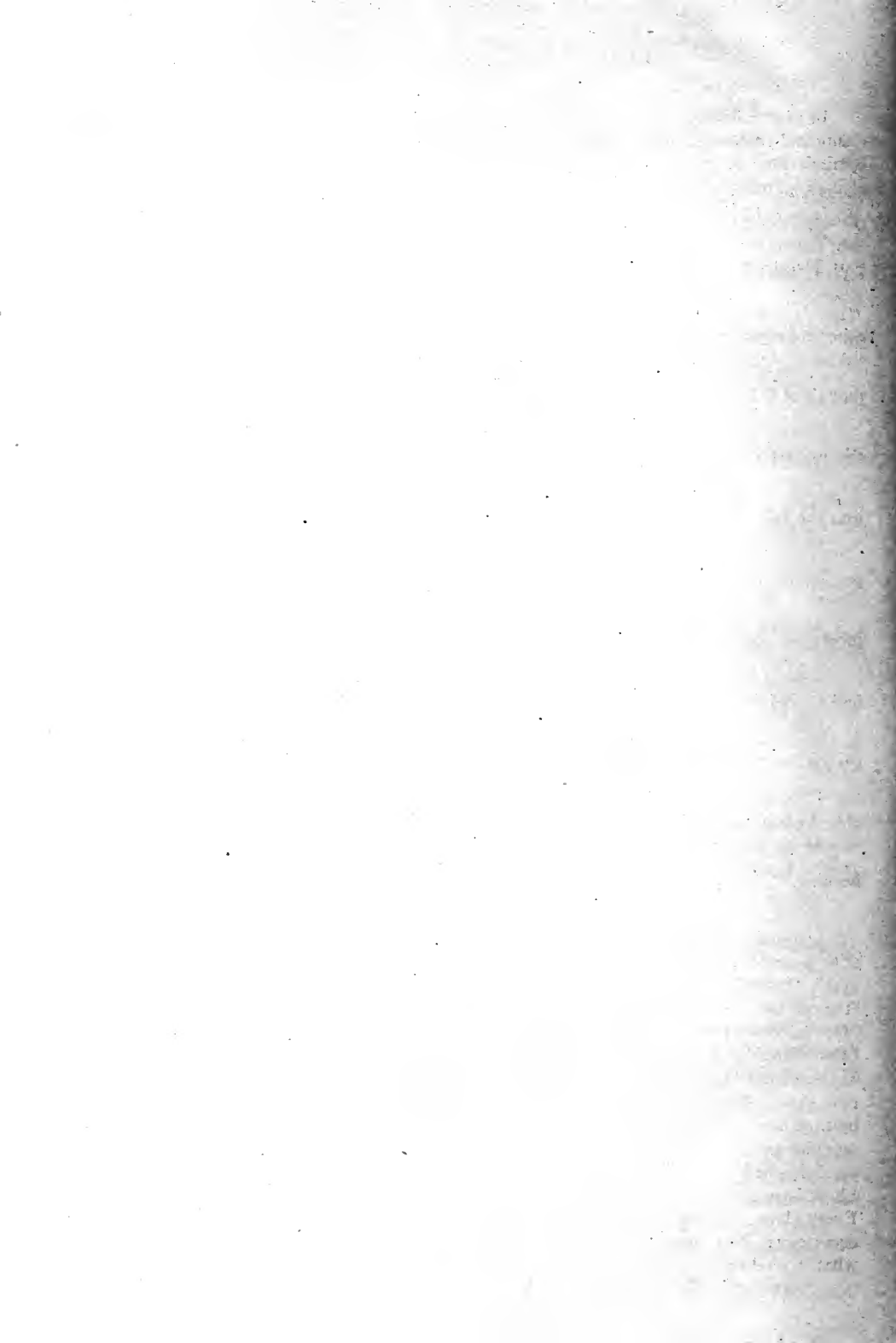
21. Making verbs out of nouns is always objectionable. It inevitably leads to confusion.

LESSON XXXI. Clauses and Phrases.

In the following, underscore the phrases and enclose the clauses, including parts of compound sentences, in parenthesis. Observe that explanatory phrases and clauses set off by commas may be omitted and still leave complete sense. Rewrite, omitting all explanatory clauses, phrases, and words.—

It would be tedious, perhaps, to my wiser readers, who may not have that foolish fondness for odd and obsolete things to which I am given, were I to mention the other make-shifts of this worthy old humorist, by which he was endeavoring to follow up, though at a humble distance, the quaint customs of antiquity. I was pleased, however, to see the respect shown to his whims by his children and relatives, who, indeed, entered readily into the full spirit of them, and seemed all well versed in their parts, having doubtless been present at many a rehearsal. I was amused, too, at the air of profound gravity with which the butler and other servants executed the duties assigned them, however eccentric. They had an old-fashioned look, having, for the most part, been brought up in the household, and grown into keeping with the antiquated mansion and the humors of its lord, and most probably looked upon all his whimsical regulations as the established laws of honorable louse-keeping.

Questions: Is it strictly true that every sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period? With what other marks may a sentence end? Why are "perhaps", "however", "indeed", and "too" set off by commas in the selection above? Why are the phrases "though at a humble distance", "having doubtless been present at many a rehearsal", and "for the most part" set off by commas? In how many places in this selection do you find "and" preceded by a comma? Could you place a period in position of the comma in each of these cases and still feel that what went before made complete sense in itself? In what case should the second part of a compound sentence introduced by "and" not be preceded by a comma? Give an illustration of such a case. Examine each participle and tell what it modifies or how it is used. Examine each verb and tell whether it is complete or has some word implied before it. What is the main subject and main verb of each sentence above? Show how each subordinate sentence is related to the principal sentence in which it stands? Every clause and every phrase taken as a whole may be looked on as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun: Tell what part of speech each clause and each phrase is in the passage above, and what it modifies.



THE MAN WITH THE IRON TOES.

George Fitch, editor of The Herald Transcript, and the well known "Transcript" man, had the misfortune yesterday to drop a heavy plank upon one of his toes, breaking it (22) in two places.

22. Was "it" the plank? How would you express the real meaning?

State Board of Prison Industries—Springfield:

Gentlemen:

Please order the furniture plant at the Joliet Prison to manufacture for this institution six small tables like women use who sew with folding legs (23). Yours truly,

ILLINOIS SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF.

23. Whose legs were they? Rearrange this so as to avoid an incorrect suggestion.

DID HE SEEM INTERESTED?

[From the Evanston News.]

The engagement of Miss Margaret Roesing, daughter of Mr. B. Roesing, 2711 Harrison street, has been announced to (24) Arthur Croxson.

24. Arrange this so the meaning will be clear. Observe that in English the position of words in a sentence is far more important than it is in any inflected language like French, German, or Latin.

[Received from a Carbondale man.]

"dear sir—will you please Give me your price of ships feed per ton. in Cars at Carbondale. i farm a little and want this to feed myself. Yours trulys." (25)

25. How many mistakes are there in this letter? Correct them all. Which mistake is the worst?

WHAT DOES HE MEAN?

[From the Daily News.]

I will not be responsible for any debts contracted by any one but (26) those that I make. Alex Paul Gandt.

26. What part of speech is "but" here? What other word might have been used? How many mistakes are there in all?

AVOID TAUTOLOGY.

"The community," says the valued Post, "must follow up the present outrage to its very ultimate end." (27) But it should not pause there; it should go on to the final conclusion.

27. Would "to the very end" be wrong? Would "ultimate conclusion" be wrong? What is objectionable about "ultimate end" and "final conclusion"?

THE VICE OF FINE WRITING.

One of the most detestable vices in writing is that of trying to use words you do not understand and express ideas that are beyond your powers of language. The only safe way is to feel your feet on the ground all the time.

[From the Independent.]

A true knight of King Arthur he looked, the young groom in his strong, eager manhood; while the fair girl at his side in her daintily simple white gown, holding a shower bouquet of lilies of the valley, was easily the fairest blossom among all the greenhouse (28) treasures

28. This is an example not only of fine writing, but of mixed tones—"greenhouse treasures" is a drop.

Put the following into business-like, plain English:

BYRON WROTE MOST OF THIS.

Julf Husman, who has been busy for the past several months building a fine new house and barn, celebrated their completion with a barn dance Wednesday night. "The beauty and chivalry" of Wayne and adjoining townships attended and "did chase the glowing hours with flying feet," with as much enthusiasm and pleasure as did the guests "When Belgium's capital had gathered then and bright the lamps shone over fair women and brave men."—*Monticello Times*.

AS IT WERE.

She gave an exuberant reading on "Easter" and rendered a very pretty piano solo of metamorphose. She captivated her listeners in her renditions with exciting wonder. Ecomiastic remarks were given and the club movement was highly indorsed by the visitors.

A LITTLE DESCRIPTION OF A MUSICAL EVENT.

The rising of the curtain of 1911 upon the initial appearance of the world famous Flonzaley string quartet offers a gift transcendent from the hand of the Muse, and writes in letters golden the date of January 9, a musical "All Saints day." The tireless devotees of the Mozart club, in their bestowal of a benediction so superlative, more deeply still, lay tribute upon the art world, as their grateful debtor. The audience room of the Unitarian church, so fortuitous in acoustic responsiveness, will long seem a shrine for memories haunted by the "souls of strings" quivering into melodies and harmonies. History, with a gold embroidery of aristocratic traditions, decorates chamber music as the priestess of the art, embodying reverently the consecrated forms of the classic, and keeping its altar fires ever burning in worship of the eternal truth and mystery of beauty. To a rigid and high schooling in the classics, surmounting the complete technique of virtuosi, the Flonzaley quartet brings all the many hued emotionalism of the Latin race, and an atmosphere of poetry, exhaling through all, the sensitive abandon, restrained passion, and noble vision of their interpretations.

FROM A SPEECH BY THE MAYOR OF _____.

It is an eminent satisfaction to realize that our men and women have got far enough along to keenly enjoy* a real delight in rambling through the jungles of human conceptions assembled and tendered to the public through the medium of the modern chautauqua. This instinct to penetrate the mysteries of the unknown is probably the divine afflatus that lifts the intellectual lifting machine which carries humanity above the squalor and grime of brutality, up to the mountain peaks of mercy, altruism and justice. Ideas are invisible blessings craving protection, preservation and shelter in the belfry of the temple of the soul. Lecturers are specialists in the realm of ideas. They are expert in stringing them into pleasing galaxies of thought. They frame up graceful and bewitching disquisitions supporting the tenet they would teach and with diplomatic system support the central ideas with charming clusters of corroborative sentiment until their proposition becomes amazingly irresistible. And then with trained thorax they send their admonitions in poetic prose with lucid explanations on waves of silvery sound to the eager ear of their audience, from whence they carom to the brain, in their quest for rootage and a chance to pullulate and grow. The mind finds opportunity in this necessitious diversion, to stretch out and grab off something good to feed upon. The Lincoln Chautauqua is on deck with its banquet of brain food. It is here with the goods. Its canvas pavillion now shelters us, and its hampers of noodle nourishment are ready to be opened and served. The torrent of thought is ready to be turned on, and the hopper of Abingdon's intellectuality has been primed for the reception of the psychological inundation.

Look up in the dictionary all doubtful words. Many are misspelled or misused.

*Avoid, if possible, "splitting" an infinitive by inserting an adverb between the *to* and the verb.

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