

A BRIEF COURSE IN COMPOSITION.

OUTLINE  
OF  
SENTENCE-MAKING

C.W. BARDEEN.

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BARDEEN'S

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OUTLINES  
OF  
SENTENCE-MAKING

A BRIEF COURSE  
IN  
COMPOSITION

BY  
C. W. BARDEEN

AUTHOR OF "A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF RHETORIC," "ELEMENTS OF PRACTICAL  
RHETORIC," "A SYSTEM OF ADVANCED RHETORIC,"  
"VERBAL PITFALLS," ETC.

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1884

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1884

## PREFACE.

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THE instruction in Sentence-Making here given differs from that usually found in so-called "Composition Books," in that it treats the subject from a point of view purely rhetorical. Hence arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses is made prominent, the principles under this head being distinguished from the rest under the title of "Observations."

The treatment of Punctuation is particularly complete, and is believed to be unusually clear.

Throughout the book there is a profusion of illustrations, believed in this subject to be particularly essential. Anecdotes have been chosen wherever practicable, because a blunder that is ludicrous is more easily remembered and avoided. The bearing of the anecdote on the principle illustrated will not always be seen at a glance by most pupils; but the point will be found when searched for, and the profit will be greater for the search. Throughout, the author has aimed to be suggestive rather than exhaustive; to quicken thought, as well as to convey information.

NOVEMBER 2, 1883.



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PART I.

SENTENCE-MAKING.

## PART I.

### *SENTENCE-MAKING.*

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#### SECTION FIRST.

##### SIMPLE SENTENCES.

**Composition** is the art of arranging our thoughts, and expressing them in appropriate language.

All thoughts are expressed by means of Sentences.

The formation of Sentences is therefore the first step in Composition.

**The Simple Sentence** is the basis of composition, and the foundation of all other sentences. It is so called because it is the expression of a single thought, and contains only one Subject and one Predicate.

All other sentences are merely combinations of Simple Sentences. They must therefore contain two or more Subjects, and two or more Predicates.

**The Subject** in every Simple Sentence is that of which something is affirmed; the **Predicate** is that which is affirmed of the Subject.

*Examples.*

| SUBJECT.  |                    | PREDICATE                                |
|---|--------------------|--|
|   | Birds              | fly.                                     |
|   | Some birds         | fly swiftly.                             |
|   | Some birds of prey | fly very swiftly.                        |
| Some birds of prey having secured their victim, |                    | fly very swiftly with it to their nests. |

In the first example we have the simplest form of the Subject and Predicate; in the other three, we have expanded forms.

**The Object.**—When the Predicate contains a transitive verb, it can be subdivided into Predicate and Object. Thus:

| SUBJECT.                                    | PREDICATE.                      | OBJECT.                           |
|---|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| The scholar                                 | repeats                         | the lesson.                       |
| The diligent scholar                        | repeats correctly               | the lessons of the day.           |
| The diligent scholar being always prepared, | repeats correctly to his master | the different lessons of the day. |

## THE SUBJECT.

**The Subject** of a Simple Sentence may be either (1) a Noun, (2) a Pronoun, (3) an Adjective used as a noun, (4) an Infinitive, or (5) a Participle. Thus:

(1) *Procrastination* is the thief of time.—YOUNG. (2) *He* taught us how to live and how to die.—TICKELL (of Addison). (3) *The upright* shall prosper. (4) *To suppress* the truth may be a duty to others; *never to utter* a falsehood is a duty to ourselves.—HARR. (5) *Doing* his duty is the delight of a good man.

**EXERCISE I.**—Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate subjects.

**NOTE I.**—Every affirming sentence begins with a Capital, and ends with a Period. See page 143.

*Example.*—*The shepherd* tends his flock. —tends his flock. —praises the scholar. —overcomes difficulties. —enlightens the earth. —promotes health. —import cargoes. —succeeds summer. —cultivates the ground. —produces fruit. —moves the train. —gather moss. —lash the shore. —sounds the charge.

—cleaves the air. —ploughs the main. —build nests. —make long voyages. —guards the house. —yields a costly fur. —buries its eggs in the sand. —walks rapidly over the hot desert. —often baffles the horns. —is adapted to their kind of life. —are termed oviparous. —forms a diphthong. —are called polysyllables. —is the ear. —directs all animals in the choice of food. —lies between the tropics. —is situated between the torrid and the north frigid zone. —affords a striking illustration of the dream of insatiable ambition. —cannot vie with the beauties of nature. —will prove a source of happiness.

**Obs. 1.**—The subject usually precedes the predicate; but may follow it when the sentence is introduced by *it*, *this*, *there*, *now*, etc., as in the following sentence: It is easy to go.

It is necessary that there should be a general understanding as to the relative position of the subject and the object, since both have in English the same form. In the sentence, *John struck James*, it would be impossible to tell which struck and which received the blow except on the general principle of arrangement that the subject precedes and the object follows the verb. Hence in poetry, the fact that this principle is often disregarded may occasion ambiguity. Thus:

And all the air a solemn stillness holds.—GRAY.  
The duke yet lives that Henry shall depose,  
And him outlive, and die a violent death.—SHAKESPEARE.

See also pages 179, 180.

**Infinitives** commonly give up their formal place as subject or as object, mostly in favor of a provisional pronoun—*it*, *this*, *that*.

The anticipation of the infinitive by means of *it* is exceedingly frequent. "It was not easy to wound his feelings;" "My patron had it not in his power to introduce me personally;" *it* is the formal subject in the one case, and the formal object in the other, while the infinitives *to wound* and *to introduce*, which are the real subject and object, are formally said to be in apposition to the

pronoun. In careful writing, the form in *so* has a monopoly of this usage. — BAIN.

Thus, we should not say, "It was not easy wounding his feelings;" "He had it not in his power introducing me personally."

**Obs. 2.**—The natural order of words in a sentence may be varied in accordance with the first law of Force, that *emphatic words must stand in positions emphatic because unusual*; as when the subject is removed from the beginning of a sentence, or the predicate is put there. Thus:

Much is this indicated by Cleo and Quintilian.—BEAUR.

Flushed all their cheeks here.—TENTON.

And strikes the wild sea-mon.—BYRON.

But whose went his rounds, when few but, fitted might.—BROWNING.

When the subject is a pronoun, the object may in like manner be put before the verb. Thus:

Some he imprisoned, others he put to death.

Military courage, the boast of the sottish German, of the frivolous and prating Frenchman, of the romantic and arrogant Spaniard, be neither possession nor value.

But where both subject and object are substantives, such inversion would produce ambiguity (see Obs. 1, page 19). To indicate emphasis, therefore, the form of the sentence must be changed. In the sentence, "John struck James," we can in speaking give special stress to either of the three words that we wish especially to emphasize. In writing we can italicize either of the three, as, "*John* struck James," where it is assumed that James is struck, and the question is as to who did it; or, "John *struck* James," where it is assumed that John did something to James, and the question is as to what he did to him; or, "John struck *James*," where it is assumed that John struck somebody, and the question is as to whom he struck. But both vocal emphasis and written italics are so frequently misused that it is better so to construct the sentence that the arrangement shall make the meaning clear. Thus the three meanings of the sentence given are indicated clearly as follows:

It was John that struck James; What John did to James was to strike him; It was James that was struck by John.

The emphasis of the predicate might be shown by this arrangement, "Struck was James by John." This inversion would be suitable in poetry, and is sometimes unobjectionable in prose of an elevated character. But with ideas and words so commonplace as those such an arrangement would be bombastic.

**Obs. 3. Inversion.**—We can often put the verb before the subject by beginning with an adverb, or otherwise changing the form of the sentence. This structure is called Inversion. Thus:

There goes a man, down the road.

Scarcely had Tom spoken, when, etc.

Then came the crisis.

Such was his fate.

Now is your time.

No sooner had we started, than.

How are the mighty fallen.

Swiftly flew the arrow.

Especially in the Subjunctive Mood, is it common to use such forms as, *Were I an officer*, instead of, *If I were an officer*.

Some writers practise this degree of inversion, which our language bears, much more than others; Lord Shaftesbury, for instance, much more than Mr. Addison; and to this sort of arrangement is owing, in a great measure, that appearance of strength, dignity, and measured harmony which Lord Shaftesbury's style possesses. This will appear from the following sentences of his "Inquiry into Virtue;" where all the words are placed, not strictly in the natural order, but with that artificial construction which may give the period most emphasis and grace. He is speaking of the misery of vice:

This, as to the complete immoral state, is what, of their own accord, men readily remark. Where there is this absolute degeneracy, this total apostasy from all candor, trust, or equity, there are few who do not see and acknowledge the misery which is consequent. Seldom is the case misconstrued, when at worst. The misfortune is, that we look not on this depravity, nor consider how it stands, in low degree. As if, to be absolutely immoral, were, indeed, the greatest misery; but, to be so in a little degree, should be no misery or harm at all. Which, to allow, is just so reasonable as to own that 'tis the greatest ill of a body to be in the utmost manner maimed or distorted; but

that, to lose the use only of one limb, or to be impaired in some single organ or member, is an ill worthy of the least notice. (II. 82.)

Here is no violence done to the language, though there are many inversions. All is stately, and arranged with art; which is the greatest characteristic of this author's style.

We need only open any page of Mr. Addison to see quite a different order in the construction of sentences.

Our sight is the most perfect, and most delightful, of all our senses. It fills the mind with the largest variety of ideas, converses with its objects at the greatest distance, and continues the longest in action, without being tired, or satiated with its proper enjoyments. The sense of feeling can, indeed, give us a notion of extension, shape, and all other ideas that enter at the eye, except colors; but, at the same time, it is very much strained and confined in its operations, &c.—*Spectator*, No. 411.

In this strain he always proceeds, following the most natural and obvious order of the language: and if, by this means, he has less pomp and majesty than Shaftesbury, he has, in return, more nature, more ease and simplicity: which are beauties of a higher order.—**BLAIR.**

It is not upon such changes as those that I propose to remark, but upon certain rather perplexed forms of expression which seem to me affected and not felicitous. The first of these which I shall bring up is a change in the position of the verbs *to be*, *to have*, and *to do* in sentences in which the latter clause makes a comparison with something set forth in the former. For example:

Lord George was displeas'd—more thoroughly displeas'd than *had been* his wife.  
—*Tacticon*: *Poetology*, Chapter 4.

Bankruptcy has touch'd, as might have been expected, to produce bankruptcy; and for all purposes of trade as well as business, New York and London are no less or more London and Manchester a few years ago.—*Phil. Bull Budget*, June 8, 1873.

It is needless to give more instances; the writing of the day is full of them, and Mr. Trollope, the chief, and one of the earliest, if not the earliest, of offenders, is but the foremost man of a multitude. This placing of the verb directly after the conjugation or proposition is a new trick in style. It is sheer affectation, and, if I do not err, is quite un-English. In such sentences as those given above, the simple English construction is, "more thoroughly displeas'd than his wife *had been*," "are no less or more London and Manchester *were* a few years ago." The placing of the subject of the verb after it, except by poetic licence, or in very elevated prose (and even there with great discretion), is not English, it is not clear, it is not natural. No good speaker of English would talk in this style, even in the most conversational. If I remember rightly, Macaulay never uses this construction, nor Cardinal Newman, a very correct writer, whose taste is unquestionable. The fashion seems to not long ago through the desire to avoid a verb of one syllable at the end of a sentence. For example: "Mary was not so beautiful as her sister was." To end the sentence with a disyllable instead of a monosyllable (a very weak affectation), the verb was transposed, and we had, "As was her sister." Whoever wishes to write clear, manly, and simple English will avoid this foolish fashion, which, however,

has become so prevalent that it appears with a most ridiculous incongruity even in such writing as that of the following passage from a report of a dramatic performance by "Count Jeanne":

"In the audience last night were many Yale students, who were, of course, boisterous and jolly, and set the attacks, but justice requires the remark that they did not say as many funny things as did two or three newsboys in the gallery."—**H. G. WARR.**

**EXERCISE II.**—In the following sentences, change the form so as to put the Predicate before the Subject.

**NOTE II.**—An inverted clause is usually set off from the rest of the sentence by a *Comma*. See page 179.

**Examples.**—The express is going; *There goes* the express. The tug of war is coming; *Now comes* the tug of war. What he said is as follows; *This is* what he said.

I never before saw such a show. If I had known you were sick I should have come up. I am very glad to see you again. He jumped up. The thermometer dropped down. The chair fell over. She was, he said, the best of mothers. The issue, my lawyer writes, is doubtful. He was not once defeated. Satan came also, last of all. They didn't care for him. He shall go.

After inversion, the usual order of subject and predicate seems awkward; as, No contemptible orator he was.—**BLAIR.**

**EXERCISE III.**—Reconstruct the following sentences so as to show (1) that the emphasis is on the subject; (2) that it is on the predicate; and (3) that it is on the object.

**Example.**—(2) Found was the water by the crow. Water was found by the crow would usually answer for either (1) or (3), but if more positive emphasis is required, (1) It was the crow that found the water; (3) It was water that the crow found.

The crow found the water.

The boy threw pebbles.

Mary broke the pitcher.

The ostrich inhabits the desert.

The farmer raises corn.

**Obs. 4.**—When the subject is long or complicated it is well to summarize it before the verb.

For examples, see page 169.

#### THE OBJECT.

**The Object** of a simple sentence may be: (1) a Noun, (2) a Pronoun, (3) an Adjective used as a noun, (4) an Infinitive, or (5) a Participle.

*Examples.*—(1) Who steals my purse, steals trash. (2) We loved her, but she died. (3) His views and affections take in only the visible. (4) Learn to labor and to wait. (5) He prefers walking to riding.

**EXERCISE IV.**—Supply objects to the following transitive verbs.

*Example.*—The sun gilds the hill-top. The sun gilds—. The diligent boy deserves—. Education improves—. Fools despise—. Rain refreshes—. The gardener prunes—. The boy repeats his—. The king levied—. The physician prescribes—. Spring revives—. The hunter climbed—. The weary laborer reached—. Good men comfort—. Good kings love their—. The bridge spans—. Ducks frequent—.

**Participles and Verbal Nouns** differ in that a Participle retains the notion of time and agrees with the noun, while the Verbal Noun expresses only the abstract idea of the action, and is the object of the noun in the possessive.

**Obs. 5.**—Verbal Nouns should be avoided where verbs can be used instead, because unless immediately preceded by prepositions they may often be mistaken for participles.

**EXERCISE V.**—Change the following sentences by converting the verbal nouns into phrases.

*Example.*—When Horace trembled for the life of Virgil, it was an interesting moment, etc.

Horace [Horace's] trembling for the life of Virgil is an interesting moment [episode] in the history of poetry and [of] friendship.—GIBBON.

I assure you therefore seriously, and upon my honor, that the carrying [of] this point seems essential to the success of this measure.—W. PITT.

In hot climates, the letting into a country of a mass [of] stagnant water, etc.—BENTHAM.

The ascertaining [of] a principle in metaphysical science is sometimes the clearing up of a doctrine of revelation.—W. J. FOX.

Mr. Mill will see that the point of dubiety spoken of was one which suggests not the hanging of the culprit, but the sparing [of] him.—P. P. ALEXANDER.

In approaching the practical problem, there are two parts that will need to be kept distinct—the first starting of the new system, and the keeping [of] it going after it has been started.—CAVENS.

#### MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT AND OF THE OBJECT.

**KINDS OF MODIFIERS.**—The Subject or the Object may be expanded by Modifiers of the following kinds: (1) Adjectives; (2) Possessives; (3) Appositives; (4) Participles; (5) Infinitives; (6) Preposition Phrases; (7) Adverbial Phrases; (8) Clauses.

(1) **Adjectives** may be roughly classed as (a) Descriptive, or as simply (b) Demonstrative.

a. **Descriptive Adjectives** limit the noun by naming some quality belonging to it.

**EXERCISE VI.**—Supply appropriate adjectives in the following sentences.

*Example.*—A disobedient child is a grief to his parents. A—child is a grief to his parents. A—zephyr played on the surface of the lake. The elephant is a very—animal. Gold is the—of all metals. A red morning sky betokens a—day. Hindostan has a

—climate. Money is a—source of strife. Some ground requires —wooding. The—heavens are a sublime spectacle. A—bower is pleasant in summer. The sheep supplies us with an endless variety of—material. Wheat was at one time a—article of food in this country. The rivers afford an—supply of fish. A—friend is the cordial of life. Milk is an—article of diet. Hannibal was a—enemy to the Romans. Belgium is a very—country. The Dutch are a very—people. Alfred was a—monarch. The wasp has a—waist.

**Obs. 6.—Fitting Adjectives.**—The descriptive adjectives employed indicate more surely than any other feature the quality of the author's style.

Don't say

|                            |               |                                  |
|----------------------------|---------------|----------------------------------|
| It tastes <i>nice</i> ,    | WHEN YOU MEAN | It tastes <i>delicious</i> .     |
| She walks <i>nice</i> ly,  |               | She walks <i>gracefully</i> .    |
| He did it <i>nice</i> ly,  |               | He did it <i>skillfully</i> .    |
| She looks <i>nice</i> ,    |               | She looks <i>charming</i> .      |
| The water is <i>nice</i> , |               | The water is <i>refreshing</i> . |
| He is a <i>nice</i> man,   |               | He is a <i>pleasant</i> man.     |
| A <i>nice</i> odor,        |               | A <i>savory</i> odor.            |
| A <i>nice</i> landscape,   |               | A <i>lovely</i> landscape.       |
| A <i>nice</i> smile,       |               | A <i>winning</i> smile.          |
| A <i>nice</i> mansion,     |               | A <i>luxurious</i> mansion.      |
| A <i>nice</i> cottage,     |               | A <i> snug</i> cottage.          |
| A <i>nice</i> companion,   |               | An <i>agreeable</i> companion.   |
|                            |               | etc., etc.                       |

That stupid vulgarity by which we use the word *nice* to denote almost every mode of approbation, for almost every variety of quality, and from sheer poverty of thought or fear of saying anything definite, wrap up everything indiscriminately in this characterless domino—speaking in the same breath of a *nice* cheese-cake, a *nice* tragedy, a *nice* oyster, a *nice* child, a *nice* man, a *nice* tree, a *nice* sermon, a *nice* day, and a *nice* country.—ARCHDEACON HARRIS.

When I first looked upon the Falls of the Clyde, I was unable to find a word to express my feelings. At last a man, a stranger to me, who arrived about the same time, said, "How majestic!" (It was the precise term, and I turned around, and was saying

"Thank you, sir! that is the exact word for it," when he added, *codum flate!*—"Yes, how very pretty!"—COLLIERIE.

**EXERCISE VII.**—Substitute other adjectives in the following sentences.

*Example.*—For *indigent*, poor, needy; *insufferable*, intolerable, unendurable; *jeering*, sneering, scolding; *community*, fraternity, society; *flung*, threw, cast; *individual*, character, person; *kicked*, drove, spurned; *rage*, fury, passion; *mean*, slavish, servile; *unruly*, ungovernable, intractable; *wealthy*, rich, opulent; *longing*, pining, desiring; *forgiven*, excused, pardoned; *conspicuous*, distinguished, illustrious.

At Oxford, Johnson lived during about three years. He was indigent even to raggedness; and his look provoked a mirth and a compassion which were equally insufferable to his haughty temper. He was expelled from the quadrangle of Christ Church by the jeering looks which the members of that aristocratical community flung at the holes in his shoes. Some charitable individual placed a new pair at his door, but he kicked them away in a rage. Distress made him, not mean, but reckless and unruly. No wealthy gentleman commoner, longing for one-and-twenty, could have used the academical dignities with more gross disdain. Much was forgiven, however, to a stripling so loftily conspicuous by abilities and attainments.

In that portion of the western section of this empire which is ordinarily designated Somersetshire, there lately resided, and perhaps lives still, a gentleman whose appellation was Allworthy, and who might well be termed the favorite of both nature and fortune, because both of these seem to have striven which should bless and endow him most. In this contest, nature may appear to have come off triumphant, as she bestowed on him many endowments, while fortune had only one gift in her power; but in lavishing this, she was so very lavish, that others perhaps may consider this one endowment to have been more than equal to all the diversified blessings which he enjoyed from nature. From the anterior of these he received an agreeable appearance, a sound constitution, a solid intellect, and a good heart; by the latter, he was appointed to the heirship of one of the largest possessions in the country.



**Forms in Comparison.**—As a general rule, the comparative and superlative degrees are formed by appending *er* and *est* to adjectives of one or two syllables, and by prefixing *more* and *most* to adjectives of more than two syllables. The rule is not, however, arbitrary, and some writers allow themselves great liberty in the matter.

We find "honorablist" in Bacon; "virtuousest" in Milton; "beautifuler," "beautifullest," in Carlyle; "unrivalledest" in Howells.

Dean Alford speaks of "a more neat way of expressing."

Groans and tears, looks and gestures, a flush or a paleness, are often the most clear reporters of the heart, and speak more directly to the hearts of others.—*Cornhill Magazine*.

Double comparatives are of course inadmissible; as, The last are indeed more preferable.—*ANDERSON*.

**Obs. 7.—The comparative degree** must be used only of different objects, or of the same object at different stages of its existence. Therefore when a comparative is followed by *than*, the thing compared must be always excluded from the class of things with which it is compared, by *other* or some such word. Thus:

The letters published after C. Lamb's death and that of his sister, by Mr. Talfourd, make up a volume of more interest to me than any [*other*] book of human composition.—*C. R. LEXLIE*.

Probably Lord Halifax is better versed in the real history of the period . . . than any [*other*] living man or ("Bear" Ellis excepted) than any [*other*] man who ever lived.—*Political Portraits*.

"Your Englishman is just as serious in his sports as in any [*other*] act of his life." "Much more so," observed Mr. P.—*C. DELMER*.

Compare: "Scott's works were the daily food, not only of his countrymen, but of all educated Europe." Bain corrects this to "but of all the rest of educated Europe," or to "the daily food not of his countrymen alone:" otherwise the implication is that Scott's countrymen were not educated.

The objects compared must be in the same category. We cannot say, There is no nobler *calling* than a *teacher*.

Compare this sign in Essex, England:

NO HUNTER BIRD OR SUNDAY,  
Except Sickness and Death.

**Obs. 8.—The superlative degree**, on the other hand, must be used only of objects in the same class.

Thus, St. Peter's is greater than any other church (not than any church), but, St. Peter's is the greatest of all churches (not, of all other churches).

EXERCISE VIII.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—It was the happiest time he had ever spent.

It was the happiest time he had ever yet spent.

This work was, however, destined to cause Lady Morgan more trouble and annoyance than she met with in the whole course of her literary life.—*Memoirs*.

Adam,  
The comeliest man of men since born  
His son. The fairest of his daughters Eve.—*MILTON*.

The very class who, of all other citizens, were least to be trusted. . . . Who they pronounce to be of all others the least fallible in their judgment. . . . It was the most amiable, although the least dignified, of all the party squabbles by which it had been preceded.—*JAMES WILLIAMS*.

Mr. Stanley was the only one of his predecessors who slaughtered the natives of the regions he passed through.—*The (London) Examiner*.

Errors in education should be less indulged than any.—*LOCKE*.

I know none so happy in his metaphors as Addison.—*BLAIR*.

No writer in our language is so purely English as he is, or borrows so little assistance from words of foreign derivation.—*BLAIR*.

This noble nation hath of all others admitted fewer corruptions.—*SWIFT*.

The vice of covetousness is what enters deepest into the soul of any other.—*Guardian*.

There is no talent so useful toward rising in the world or which puts men more out of the reach of fortune, than that quality generally possessed by the dullest of people, and that is, in common language, called discretion.—SWIFT.

**Obs. 9.**—The superlative of two seems on its face an absurd expression, and the young writer is advised in comparing two objects to use the comparative degree, preceded by the definite article.

Thus, He is the taller of the two; not, He is tallest of the two.

DUAL FORMS, pertaining to two objects and not to more than two, are often misused in composition, but should be respected by those who would write irreproachably. Campbell says:

“Most languages distinguish dual from plural in numeral [*demonstrative*] adjectives. Thus in English,

|                                 |                  |
|---------------------------------|------------------|
| When the discourse is of        | two; of several; |
| collectively,                   | both, all;       |
| distributively,                 | each, every;     |
| indiscriminately,               | either, any;     |
| exclusively,                    | neither, none;   |
| relatively and interrogatively, | whether, which.  |

“This distinction in French hath been overlooked altogether, and in English is beginning at least in some instances to be confounded.”

That Campbell himself confounds it in the case of the comparative is shown in the following statement:

We say rightly either “This is the weaker of the two,” or “the weakest of the two.”—*Rhetoric*, i. 383.

HOW MANY ALTERNATIVES?—We are grateful to our esteemed contemporary, the *Reverend*, for calling our attention in the phrase “three alternatives,” which, it seems, has got into our columns, and for proclaiming it bad English. We like nothing better than to be corrected when we are in the wrong. Such correction is the sure means of improvement, and improvement, progress, is one of the great ends of this mortal life. Can we also compel us to say that the *Reverend* is correct in its criticism, and that the dictionaries generally take that view of the question which it propounds. Strictly speaking,

an alternative relates to the opportunity of choosing between two things; and yet if a writer speaks of three or four alternatives, his English is not absolutely vicious, because in that case he imagines the choice to be made between one of the things he refers to on one side and all the others on the other. For instance, when the order of the *Osmail* was offered to Mr. Bennett in Constantinople, in recognition of his distinguished talents as a journalist, he had several alternatives, namely, first, to accept the commission or to decline it; secondly, to accept it unconditionally, or to accept it on condition that he should be made an *Osmail* of the first class, instead of the second or third class, which was offered him; thirdly, to accept it on condition that the act should be approved by the Administration at Washington and by Congress; fourthly, to accept it, whether with conditions or without, and to keep the fact private; or fifthly, to accept it and make the fact notorious. Does not this make five alternatives open to Mr. Bennett in regard to this single decoration of Turkish knighthood? Could he not choose either one of them and reject all the rest, putting the one he chose on one side and all the others together on the other, thus complying with the strict sense of the phrase by making his choice between two things only?

We take pleasure in the discussion of these nice questions of language with a learned and critical journal like the *Reverend*; and we trust that whenever it sees us falling into a blunder, it will administer the necessary correction.—N. Y. *Spectator*.

EXERCISE IX.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—The mother seemed the younger of the two.

The mother seemed the youngest of the two.—THACHERAY (in *Essays*).

If we consider the works of nature and art, as they are qualified to entertain the imagination, we shall find the last very defective in comparison of the former.—ARISTOTEL.

The question may be said to be entirely open to the peculiar views of the presiding judge and the witnesses in each case, *neither* of whom have a definite standard of action in law or in medicine to guide them in their investigation.—*North American Review*.

That he [*Shakspeare*] wrote the plays which bear his name we know; but except by inference we do not know the years in which they were written, or even that in which *either* of them was first performed.—RICHARD GRANT WHITE.

Peasant, yeoman, artisan, tradesman, and gentleman could then be distinguished from each other almost as far as they could be seen. Except in cases of unusual audacity, *neither* presumed to wear the dress of his betters.—ID.

**Obs. 10.**—Adverbs for Adjectives.—By ellipsis adverbs sometimes do duty as adjectives. Though not without authority, this custom should be avoided.

There are a few disagreeable matters of style, such as the repeated use of the adverb *almost* as an adjective, "an *almost* child;" and the same misuse of other adverbs, as in—"to think on the *over* themes is to be by my *once* self;" and "joy at this house's *now* despair." Such things as these are too dreadful to criticise.—H. B. FURMAN.

We seem to remember remarking that David Davis wouldn't look badly in the chair.—*Springfield Republican*. "Look badly" looks bad. Overhaul your grammar.—*Lowell Courier*. We copy the above in the hope that it may meet the eye of the schoolmaster. Among people who lay claim to culture we know of no more prevalent solecism than this "look badly," "feel nicely" atrocity. One might as well say "feel coldly," or "feel hotly."—*Boston Transcript*.

EXERCISE X.—Change the following sentences so as to escape the use of adverbs as adjectives.

*Example*.—In the situation he was then in.

In his then situation.—JOHNSON.

The seldom use of it.—TREXCH. (Here infrequent may be substituted for seldom.)

Our Lord's own use so frequently of the term.—TREXCH.

For in my then circumstances, the note was of much more consequence to me.—TRACKEMAY.

After the then country fashion.—KINGLEY.

My Lord Duke's entertainments were both *seldom* and *shabby*.—TRACKEMAY.

**Adjectives for Adverbs.**—The use of adjectives for adverbs is inexcusable. Thus:

If with your inferiors speak no coarser than usual; if with your superiors no finer.—ALFORD.

He that lays open his vanity in public acts is no less absurd than he that lays open his bosom to an enemy whose drawn sword is pointed against it; for every man hath a dagger in his hand ready to stab the vanity of another whenever he perceives it.—FIELDING.

It should be added that a speaker's being well heard does not depend *near* so much on the loudness of the sounds, as on their

distinctness; and especially on the clear pronunciation of the consonants.—WHATELY.

**Obs. 11.**—The English adjective usually precedes the noun. The advantages of this arrangement are thus stated:

Is it better to place the adjective before the substantive, or the substantive before the adjective? Ought we to say with the French—*un cheval noir*; or to say as we do—a black horse? Probably most persons of culture would decide that one order is as good as the other. Alas! to the bias produced by habit, they would ascribe to that the preference they feel for our own form of expression. They would expect those educated in the use of the opposite form to have an equal preference for that. And thus they would conclude that neither of them instinctive judgments is of any worth. There is, however, a philosophical ground for deciding in favor of the English custom. If "a horse black" be the arrangement, immediately on the utterance of the word "horse," there arises, or tends to arise, in the mind, a picture answering to that word; and as there has been nothing to indicate what kind of horse, any image of a horse suggests itself. Very likely, however, the image will be that of a brown horse; brown horses being the most familiar. The result is that when the word "black" is added, a check is given to the process of thought. Either the picture of a brown horse already present to the imagination has to be suppressed, and the picture of a black one summoned in its place; or else, if the picture of a brown horse be yet unformed, the tendency to form it has to be stopped. Whichever is the case, a certain amount of hindrance results. But if, on the other hand, "a black horse" be the expression used, no such mistake can be made. The word "black," indicating an abstract quality, arouses no definite idea. It simply prepares the mind for conceiving some object of that color; and the attention is kept suspended until that object is known. If, then, by the precedence of the adjective, the idea is conveyed without liability to error, whereas the precedence of the substantive is apt to produce a misconception, it follows that the one gives the mind less trouble than the other, and is therefore more forcible.

Possibly it will be objected that the adjective and substantive come so close together, that practically they may be considered as uttered at the same moment; and that on hearing the phrase "a horse black," there is not time to imagine a wrongly colored horse before the word "black" follows to prevent it. It must be owned that it is not easy to decide by introspection whether this is so or not. But there are facts collaterally implying that it is not. Our ability to anticipate the words yet unspoken is one of them. If the ideas of the hearer kept considerably behind the expressions of the speaker, as the objection assumes, he could hardly foresee the end of a sentence by the time it was half delivered; yet this constantly happens. Were the supposition true, the mind, instead of anticipating, would be continually following more and more in arrears.

If the meanings of words are not realized as fast as the words are uttered, then the loss of time over each word must entail such an accumulation of delays as to leave a hearer entirely behind. But whether the force of these replies be or be not admitted, it will scarcely be denied that the right formation of a picture will be facilitated by presenting its elements in the order in which they are wanted, even though the mind should do nothing until it has received them all.—HEARNER BRIDGES.

**Ambiguity** sometimes results from a neglect of this principle.

Thus a newspaper summarizes an official report as follows :

The report of Postmaster D. for the month of July to the Post-office Department shows that during that month there were 60 carriers employed, who made 24,344 delivery and 24,545 collection trips only.

In other words, each carrier made nearly a thousand trips a day. Of course "daily trips" was intended, but the transposition makes of the adjective an adverb.

Even when the adjective modifiers are many and various, it is sometimes best to bring them in before the subject, especially in poetry.

**Obs. 12.**—In some cases, however, it is better that the adjective should follow the noun.

(a) *Custom* has fixed certain forms; as:

Poet laureate, governor-general, lord paramount, knight errant, States General, court martial, body politic, notary public, sign-manual, Theatre Royal, letters patent, time immemorial, bride elect.

Compare lord-lieutenant, duchess-dowager, Knight Templar.

(b) *Complicated Adjectives*, whether aggregated or modified, usually follow, that the noun be not too long delayed. Thus:

His wife, *stout, ruddy, and dark brow'd*. A system *worthy of the name of religion*. Details *requisite for the house of a moderate gentleman*. A man *wise in his own conceit*.

**Obs. 13.**—A serious and very common error of arrangement is to place the noun between the adjective and the modifiers of the adjective.

*High voices in altercation*, and *voices high in altercation*, are by no means equivalent expressions. The first represents the voices as pitched high by native quality, and the other as pitched high by the excitement of the occasion.

In the following example, tastes would vary as to whether the adjectives should precede:

But while long, though unconscious, discipline has made it do this efficiently.—HERBERT SPENCER.

**b. Demonstrative Adjectives** distinguish the noun as an individual from others of its class, by *pointing out* instead of describing it.

These adjectives may be classified as (i.) Definite, (ii.) Indefinite, and (iii.) Numeral.

**i. Definite Adjectives** include (a) The Definite Article, (β) the pronoun adjectives, This and That.

**a. The Definite Article** is used to refer to something already distinguished in the mind from others of its class, or about to be distinguished by limitation.

Less frequently it is prefixed to plural adjectives; as, "Naught save good of the departed;" or to singular adjectives to form an abstract noun; as, "Worship of the cloth;" or before a singular noun to represent a class; as, "The oak is harder than the elm." It is also prefixed to superlatives to make them more emphatic, and to comparatives when followed by *of*, or in phrases like "the more the merrier."

The definite article is nothing in itself; it is a pointing word, and what it points to is given in the first instance by a relative clause to follow; "the book that you wish," "the shop that we have passed." By the curtailments of the clause we reach the participial phrase, and then the adverbial phrase, the commonest of all ways of signifying the reference of the article; "the clock in the steeple," "the way to glory," "the Tower of London." The vague preposition "of" answers the purpose.—BAIRD.

**Obs. 14.**—The article must be repeated when the second of two connected nouns refers to a different object (see Obs. 35, page 56). Thus:

*Referring to one object.*  
The secretary and treasurer.  
A black and white horse.

*Referring to two objects.*  
The secretary and the treasurer.  
A black and a white horse.

This applies also to adjectives that accompany the article and belong to both objects; as, Philosophers rejected with equal fervor the established religion and the [established] political creed.—LESLIE STEPHEN.

**EXERCISE XI.**—Improve the following sentences by repeating articles and adjectives where necessary.

*Example.*—They possessed both the civil and the criminal jurisdiction.

They possessed both the civil and criminal jurisdiction.—HUME. The elder and younger son . . . were, like the gentleman and lady in the weather-box, never at home together.—THACKERAY. The pursuers and pursued entered together. The lords spiritual and temporal, wisdom and folly, the virtuous and the vile, the learned and ignorant, the temperate and debauched, all give and return the jest.—BROWN. My Christian and surname begin and end with the same letters.—SPECTATOR. The French and English writers.—BLAIR. The creed of Zoroaster supposes the co-existence of a benevolent and malevolent principle.—WALTER SCOTT.

**EXERCISE XII.**—In the following sentences, state whether one object or more than one is referred to, and how the meaning may be changed by repeating or omitting the article.

*Example.*—Wanted a nurse and housemaid, means that the same person is to be both. Wanted a nurse and a housemaid, means that two persons are wanted.

The Town and County Bank. Alike the busy and the gay. And owns the patron, patriot, and the friend.—SAVAGE. She never considered the quality but merit of her visitors.—Wm. PENN.

Before the use of the loadstone, or knowledge of the compass.—DIXON.

**Obs. 15.**—Sometimes, especially when there are more than two connected nouns referring to the same object, the

article is repeated for emphasis. In such cases, the ambiguity is usually removed by the context. Thus:

Dare any soul breathe a word against the sweetest, the tenderest, the most angelical of young women?—THACKERAY.

Of these pamphlets the longest, the bitterest, and the ablest was commonly ascribed to Ferguson.—MACAULAY.

I returned a saddler and a wiser man.—COLERIDGE.

**Obs. 16.**—Whether we should say “the first two,” or “the two first,” is a matter of discussion.

The meaning to be expressed is, bring me the first, second, and third of a row; or bring me all from the first to the third. Desiring a shorter mode of statement, we are accustomed to say “the first three,” or “the three first,” neither of the forms admitting of being construed strictly.

The following occurs in Mätzner:

In connection with *first* and *other*, the cardinal number is found before or after: “The four *first* acts” (Sheridan, *Critic*, l. 1); “For the *first* ten minutes” (Cooper, *Rep.*, 32); “Four *other* children” (Lewes, *Geology*, l. 12); “*Other* seven days” (Gen. vii. 12).

The preference of grammarians is for the “first three;” with regard to “three first,” they ask, How can three be first? The only answer is to retort that the “first three” is inapplicable to the first, second, and third of a single pile; it supposes a line of three abreast.

We find in good use such expressions as these: “the *two highest* men;” “the *two succeeding* chapters;” “the *two next* candidates.” Of a work brought out in two volumes, a critic said—“the *five best* volumes of light reading that have appeared this year.” This would have been a case for “the best two volumes.”

Gibbon says of the history of Rome:

“The *seven first* centuries were filled with a succession of triumphs.” This is hardly to be imitated; no more can we commend “the *first seven* centuries.” Better avoid the form altogether. “For seven centuries (from the first) the history was a succession of triumphs.”—BAX.

( $\beta$ ) **This** and **That** are used to refer distinctively to two objects already mentioned.

**Obs. 17.**—For this purpose we have a series of adjective couples; as,

|                  |                      |
|------------------|----------------------|
| That,            | This,                |
| The one,         | The other.           |
| The former,      | The latter.          |
| The first,       | The second.          |
| The first named, | The last named, etc. |

By writers generally, the couple "former and latter" is more used than any of the rest. In my judgment, the other forms are in many instances preferable. From an extensive examination of cases, I am inclined to believe that the reference by "former and latter" is frequently very obscure. I subjoin a few examples, selecting first from Gibbon, who makes great use of the construction.

We have computed the inhabitants, and contemplated the public works of the Roman Empire. The observation of the number and greatness of its cities will serve to enlarge the former and multiply the latter.

A most perplexed reference. The antecedent to "former" should have been "[we have given] a computation of the inhabitants," while "multiply the latter" refers simply to *public works*. There is, moreover, the very common fault of such references—too great a distance from the subjects. Nothing short of repeating the subjects themselves, or giving a various wording of them, would enable a reader easily to follow the passage. The second sentence might run thus:

A consideration of the number and the greatness of the cities belonging to the Empire, will confirm our statement of the population, and enhance our estimate of the public works.

The productions of happier climates and the industry of civilized nations were introduced into the West; and the natives were encouraged to multiply the former and improve the latter.

In this case, "the one and the other," a more homely English form, or "the first and the second," would answer equally well. But the double reference itself is of questionable propriety in such

cases. It is very artificial and clumsy, if not slovenly. We are introduced to two subjects, but are not warned to keep in mind the precise order that they are given in; presently we come upon words that direct us to recall first one and then the other, in the exact order; the hardship being aggravated by the absence of any marked natural sequence. Further, the suggestion of the idea of *contrast* is not inconsiderable; a contrast, however, that turns out, on examination, to be merely a contrast of position, or one of statement. . . .

Compare with these instances Macaulay's practice:

James had, during the last year of his reign, been even more hated by the Tories than by the Whigs; for to the Whigs he was only an enemy, and to the Tories he had been a faithless and thankless friend.

Our translation of the parable of the Pharisee and the Publican is an interesting example of our mode of reference for a twofold object.

Two men went up into the temple to pray, the one a Pharisee and the other a Publican. The Pharisee stood and prayed thus— And the Publican, standing afar off, would not lift up so much as his eyes unto heaven. . . . I tell you this man went down to his house justified rather than the other.

First the subjects are introduced by their special designations, along with the correlatives "the one" and "the other," which serve to indicate a contrast, and to warn the reader that they are to be kept distinctly separate. On the first recurrence of the subjects, the names are repeated; on the second occasion, "this" is used for the second of the two, being the nearest; "the other" is used for the first. . . . The following old paraphrase of the passage now quoted shows the more usual practice in making "the one" and "the other" stand for "the first and the second," or "the former and the latter."

Did two go up to the temple to pray?  
Or rather say the one went up to pray, the other to pray,  
The one the nearer to the altar stood,  
The other nearer to the altar's God.

In easy cases, I should prefer this form. Next to it, in my judgment, is "first" and "second."—BAIN.

**THIS SIDE OF THE OTHER.**—"Say, mister, are we on this side of the bridge or the other?" asked a placid old lady of a gentleman on a Court Street car yesterday morning.

"We are on this side," responded the gentleman, gravely.

"Leave me! Then we ain't anywhere near Greenwood Cemetery yet?"

"Yes, madam, we are within a few squares of it."

"Sakes a mussy! I thought Greenwood was on the other side of the bridge!"

"No, madam; on this side."

"Well, that pesky conductor told me it was on the other side when we started."

"It was, madam, on the other side then, but we have crossed the bridge."

"Then we are on the other side!"

"No, madam, we are on this side of the bridge. We've passed it."

"And is Greenwood on the other side?" she asked, starting up in alarm.

"No, it is on this side."

"Don't try to fool me with your nonsense," exclaimed the old lady, indignantly.

"Don't try to make me think that Greenwood is on this side of the bridge when I know better, and don't try to make me believe I'm on this side of the bridge when I know I'm on the other! Don't ye do it."—*Brooklyn Eagle*.

(ii.) **Indefinite Adjectives** include (a) the Indefinite Article; (β) the pronoun adjectives, except **This** and **That**.

(α) **The Indefinite Article** is the sign of the singular number.

Our language has, however, two idioms that form exceptions. The article may be used (i.) with a plural adjective, a singular noun, and a singular verb; as, "Many a man does it;" (ii.) with an adjective of multitude, a plural noun, and a plural verb; as, "A thousand liveried angels beckon'd her."—*MILTON*.

A common noun in the singular, not preceded by some other adjective or by the definite article, takes the indefinite article, except in the following cases:

(i.) In address; as, **Wretch**, I dare thee.

(ii.) Where the singular is used instead of the plural to express with more emphasis the attributes of a class; as, **Man** is mortal. Poet and Philosopher alike employ imagination.

(iii.) In such expressions as, **He** became captain, **He** was elected chairman, **The** rank of major, **The** relation of mother and child.

(iv.) In some few recognized idioms, growing out of effort to be concise; as, brought to table, leaving town, going to school, down hill, and the like.

For repetition of the article before connected nouns, see page 35.

**Obs. 18.**—THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE indicates one thing of a kind, and therefore must not be used to denote the whole kind.

We may say, The unicorn is a kind of rhinoceros, but not, The unicorn is a kind of a rhinoceros.

(iii.) **Numeral Adjectives** are the strictest mode of assigning degree, and are used in all exact measurements. They are either (α) Cardinal, or (β) Ordinal.

"John Phoenix" even went so far as to propose a system of numerical adverbs of degree.

Let us then represent by the number 100, the maximum, the *se plus ultra* of every human quality—grace, beauty, courage, strength, wisdom, learning—everything. Let perfection, I say, be represented by 100, and an absolute minimum of all qualities by the number 1. Then by applying the numbers between, to the adjectives used in conversation, we shall be able to arrive at a very close approximation to the idea we wish to convey; in other words, we shall be enabled to speak the truth, clearly, and inspiring idea! For instance, the most ordinary question asked of you is, "How do you do?" To this, instead of replying, "Pretty well," "Very well," "Quite well," or the like absurdities—after running through your mind that perfection of health is 100, we health at all, I—you say, with a graceful bow, "Thank you, I'm 92 to-day;" or, feeling poorly, "I'm 14, I'm obliged to you;" or "I'm 65," or "75," or "87½," as the case may be! Do you see how very close in this way you may approximate to truth; and how clearly your questioner will understand what he so ardently wishes to arrive at—your exact state of health?

Let this system be adopted into our elements of grammar, our conversation, our literature, and we become at once an exact, precise, mathematical, truth-telling people. It will apply to everything but politics; there, truth being of no account, the system is useless. But in literature, how admirable! Take an example:

As a 19 young and 56 beautiful lady was 32 gayly tripping down the sidewalk of our 84 frequented street, she accidentally came in contact—100 (this shows that she came in close contact—with a 73 fat, but 87 good-humored looking gentleman, who was 61 (i.e., kindly) gazing into the window of a toy-shop. Gracefully 56 extricating herself, she received the excesses of the 76 embarrassed Falstaff with a 68 bland smile, and continued on her way. But hardly—7—had she reached the corner of the block, ere she was overtaken by a 24 young man, 32 poorly dressed, but of an 85 expression of countenance; 81 hastily touching her 54 beautifully rounded arm, he said, to her 67 surprise—

"Madam, at the window of the toy-shop yonder you dropped this bracelet, which I had the 71 good fortune to observe, and now have the 54 happiness to hand to you." (Of course the expression "54 happiness" is merely the young man's polite hyperbole.)

Blushing with 70 modesty, the lovely 70, as before, of course) lady took the bracelet—which was a 24 magnificent diamond clasp (24 supercilious, playfully sarcastic; it was probably not one of Tacker's)—from the young man's hand, and 84 hesitatingly drew from her beautifully 35 embroidered reticule a 67 portemonnaie. The young man noticed the action, and 73 proudly drawing back, added—

"Do not thank me; the pleasure of gazing for an instant at those 100 eyes (perhaps

**THIS SIDE OR THE OTHER.**—"Say, mister, are we on this side of the bridge or the other?" asked a placid old lady of a gentleman on a *Swart Street* car yesterday morning.

"We are on this side," responded the gentleman, gravely.

"Laws me! Then we ain't nowhere near Greenwood Cemetery yet?"

"Yes, madam, we are within a few squares of it."

"Sakes a massy! I thought Greenwood was on the other side of the bridge!"

"No, madam; on this side."

"Well, that pesky conductor told me it was on the other side when we started."

"It was, madam, on the other side then, but we have crossed the bridge."

"Then we are on the other side!"

"No, madam, we are on this side of the bridge. We've passed it."

"And is Greenwood on the other side?" she asked, starting up in alarm.

"No, it is on this side."

"Don't try to fool me with your nonsense," exclaimed the old lady, indignantly.

"Don't try to make me think that Greenwood is on this side of the bridge when I know better, and don't try to make me believe I'm on this side of the bridge when I know I'm on the other! Don't yo do it."—*Dredlyn Eagle*.

(ii.) **Indefinite Adjectives** include ( $\alpha$ ) the Indefinite Article; ( $\beta$ ) the pronoun adjectives, except *This* and *That*.

( $\alpha$ ) **The Indefinite Article** is the sign of the singular number.

Our language has, however, ten idioms that form exceptions. The article may be used (i.) with a plural adjective, a singular noun, and a singular verb; as, "Many a man does it;" (ii.) with an adjective of multitude, a plural noun, and a plural verb; as, "A thousand liveried angels lackey her."—MILTON.

A common noun in the singular, not preceded by some other adjective or by the definite article, takes the indefinite article, except in the following cases:

(i.) In address; as, *Wretch*, *I dare thee*.

(ii.) Where the singular is used instead of the plural to express with more emphasis the attributes of a class; as, *Man is mortal*. Poet and Philosopher alike employ imagination.

(iii.) In such expressions as, *He became captain*, *He was elected chairman*, *The rank of major*, *The relation of mother and child*.

(iv.) In some few recognized idioms, growing out of effort to be concise; as, *brought to table*, *leaving town*, *going to school*, *down hill*, and the like.

For repetition of the article before connected nouns, see page 35.

**Obs. 18.**—THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE indicates one thing of a kind, and therefore must not be used to denote the whole kind.

We may say, The unicorn is a kind of rhinoceros, but not, The unicorn is a kind of a rhinoceros.

(iii.) **Numeral Adjectives** are the strictest mode of assigning degree, and are used in all exact measurements. They are either ( $\alpha$ ) Cardinal, or ( $\beta$ ) Ordinal.

"John Phoenix" even went so far as to propose a system of numerical adverbs of degree.

Let us then represent by the number 100, the maximum, the *no plus ultra* of every human quality—grace, beauty, courage, strength, wisdom, burning—everything. Let *perfection*, I say, be represented by 100, and an absolute minimum of all qualities by the number 1. Then by applying the numbers between, to the adjectives used in conversation, we shall be able to arrive at a very close approximation to the idea we wish to convey; in other words, we shall be enabled to speak the truth. Glorious, soul-inspiring idea! For instance, the most ordinary question asked of you is, "How do you do?" To this, instead of replying, "Pretty well," "Very well," "Quite well," or the like absurdities—after running through your mind that *perfection* of health is 100, so health at all, I—you say, with a graceful bow, "Thank you, I'm 54 to-day;" or, feeling poorly, "I'm 13, I'm obliged to you;" or "I'm 63," or "73," or "87½," as the case may be! Do you see how very close in this way you may approximate to truth; and how clearly your questioner will understand what he so anxiously wishes to arrive at—your exact state of health?

Let this system be adapted into our elements of grammar, our conversation, our literature, and we become at once an exact, precise, mathematical, truth-telling people. It will apply to everything but politics; there, truth being of no account, the system is useless. But in literature, how admirable! Take an example:

As a 19 young and 56 beautiful lady was 22 joyly tripping down the sidewalk of our 64 frequented street, she accidentally came in contact—100 (this shows that she came in close contact)—with a 73 fat, but 87 good-natured looking gentleman, who was 63 (i.e., tentatively) going into the window of a toy-shop. Gracefully 36 extracting herself, she received the excess of the 90-embarrassed Fatsiff with a 66 bland smile, and continued on her way. But hardly—7—had she reached the corner of the block, ere she was overtaken by a 24 young man, 22 poorly dressed, but of an 88 expression of countenance; 91 hastily touching her 54 beautifully rounded arm, he said, to her 67 surprise—

"Madam, at the window of the toy-shop yonder you dropped this bracelet, which I had the 71 good fortune to observe, and now have the 94 happiness to hand to you." (Of course the expression "94 happiness" is merely the young man's polite hyperbole.)

Blushing with 76 modesty, the lovely (75, as before, of course) lady took the bracelet—which was a 24 magnificent diamond clasp (24 magnificent, playfully sarcastic; it was probably not one of Tucker's)—from the young man's hand, and 84 hesitatingly drew from her beautifully 38 embroidered reticule a 67 postcard. The young man noticed the action, and 73 proudly drawing back, said—

"Do not thank me; the pleasure of going for an instant at those 100 eyes (perhaps



(too exaggerated a compliment) has already more than compensated me for any trouble that I might have had."

She thanked him, however, and with a 47 blush and a 48 pensive air, turned from him, and pursued with a 33 slow step her promenade.—*A New System of English Grammar.*

( $\alpha$ ) **Cardinals** are used of groups, and show the size of the group; as, Three men; 365 days.

**Obs. 19.**—IN WRITING NUMBERS, round sums are usually spelled out, as are numbers smaller than one hundred. But where statistics are given, figures should be used, however small the number may be. Sums of money should usually be expressed in figures where both dollars and cents are to be expressed.

**NOTE III.**—Numbers above one thousand, except in dates, are commonly divided by commas into periods of three figures each. Thus, \$2,467.89; 34,586,700. See also page 145.

**Obs. 20.**—COLLECTIVE WORDS, like *couple*, *dozen*, etc., should be used to express number only when the objects enumerated are grouped in couples, dozens, etc.

**EXERCISE XIII.**—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—Two days after. (If it is desirable to retain the air of indefiniteness that belongs to "a couple of days after," but is lost in the precision of "two days after," we may say, "a day or two after," or "some two or three days after.")

A couple of days after.—THACHERAY. I have another with a couple of hundred Continentals behind him.—THACHERAY. Wanted three or four dozen females to make match-boxes.

( $\beta$ ) **Ordinals** are used of individuals, and show the position of the individual in the group; as, The third man, The 365th day.

**Obs. 21.**—The *th* that denotes the ordinal should be placed at the end of the entire number; thus:

The *Evening Telegram* says: "The Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, of Elmira, preached his seventeenth hundred sermon on Sunday

morning." The *Telegram* should explain what a "hundred sermon" is, and why Mr. Beecher has preached seventeen of them.

**Obs. 22.**—USAGE DIFFERS as to whether a numeral following a noun is to be considered a cardinal or an ordinal.

Thus we may write either Sept. 3, or Sept. 3d; Part Two, or Part Second.

(2) **Possessives** denote possession, or some kindred connection.

For punctuation, see page 145.

The truth is that the English case in *s* has not only the possessive use of the Anglo-Saxon genitive, but the other cases which stand nearest to this. Thus it is constantly employed to denote connection in family, or state, or society: as in *John's brother*, *Henry's neighbor*, *England's queen*, *the king's enemies*.—In old English we find even *the king's brother*. Mr. Manning might perhaps argue that to say *the king's enemies* implies that "the king has enemies," and expresses therefore a possessive relation. But the verb here is a word of very general meaning, which can be used in a multitude of cases where there is no possession, properly so called, and sometimes even where our possessive case would be inadmissible. Thus, every apple has a half, but we cannot say every apple's half. Still further our case in *s* is used to express the subject of an action or attribute: as in *Richard's fear*, *God's love*, *the prisoner's being absent*. But relations which stand at a wider distance from the possessor cannot be expressed in this way. Thus, the objective relation: we do not say *God's fear*, but *the fear of God*; not *the child's guardianship*, but *the guardianship of the child*. We do indeed say *England's ruler*, *the child's guardian*; but here it is political or social connection that is thought of, and not the object of the action. In like manner our case in *s* cannot be used as a genitive-partitive (not *woman's forest*, but *forest of women*); nor as a genitive of material (not *leather's goods*, but *goods of leather*); nor as a genitive of designation (not *Dick's kingdom*, but *kingdom of Italy*).—JAMES HARTLEY.

**Obs. 23.**—The **Objective Genitive**, or the relation of the possessive to its noun as the object of the action implied in the noun, not being permitted in English, such expressions as "In our midst," for "In the midst of us," must be carefully avoided.

An attorney not celebrated for his probity was robbed one night on his way from Wicklow to Dublin. His father, meeting Baron O'Grady next day, said: "My lord, have you heard of my son's robbery?" "No, indeed," replied the Baron; "pray whom did he rob?"—HOBSON.

**Obs. 24.—A Relation of Persons.**—"Another rule is to avoid converting mere abstractions into persons. I believe you will very rarely find in any great writer before the Revolution the possessive case of an inanimate noun used in prose instead of the dependent case, as, 'the watch's hand,' for 'the hand of a watch.' The possessive or Saxon genitive was confined to persons, or at least to animated subjects."—COLERIDGE.

In modern English the inflected possessive of nouns expresses almost exclusively the notion of property or appurtenance. Hence we say *a man's hat*, or *a man's hand*, but the *description of a man*, not *a man's description*. And of course we generally limit the application of this form to words which indicate objects capable of possessing or enjoying the right of property: in a word, to persons, or at least animated and conscious creatures, and we accordingly speak of *a woman's bonnet*, but not of *a house's roof*.—MARSH.

**Obs. 25.—Whose** as the possessive of *which* (neuter) is therefore subject to criticism.

The author asks credit for his having here and elsewhere resisted the temptation of substituting "*whose*" for "*of which*"—the misuse of the said pronoun relative "*whose*," where the antecedent neither is nor is meant to be represented as either personal or even animal, he would brand as one among the worst of the mimicries of poetic diction, by which imbecile writers fancy they elevate their prose—*would* but that to his vexation he meets with it of late in the compositions of men that least of all need such artifices, and who ought to watch over the purity and privileges of their mother tongue with all the jealousy of high priests set apart by nature for the pontificate. Poor as our language is in terminations and inflections significant of the genders, to destroy the few it possesses is most wrongful.—COLERIDGE.

At present the use of *whose*, the possessive of *who*, is pretty generally confined to persons or things personified, and we should scruple to say, "I passed a house whose windows were open."—MARSH.

Yet in "Man and Nature" Mr. Marsh writes, "a quadrangular pyramid, the perpendicular of whose sides" (p. 145).

Campbell says:

The possessive of *who* is properly *whose*; the pronoun *which*, originally indeclinable, had no possessive. This want was supplied in the common periphrastic manner, by the help of the preposition and the article. But as this could not fail to enfeeble the expression, when so much time was given to mere conjunctives, all our best authors, both in prose and in verse, have come now regularly to adopt in such cases the possessive of *who*; and thus have substituted one syllable in the place of three, as in the example following: "Philosophy, *whose* end is to instruct us in the knowledge of nature," for, "Philosophy, *the* end of *which* is to instruct us."—*Rhetoric*, ii. 375.

**Its** has a curious history, showing the prejudice that had to be overcome in establishing a neuter possessive.

In Anglo-Saxon the personal pronoun represented in English by *he*, *she*, *it*, made the genitive or possessive *his* for the masculine and *hæres* gender, *her* (*hære*) for the feminine, and so long as grammatical gender had not an invariable relation to sex, the employment of a common form for the masculine and neuter evinced no feeling of incongruity. The change in the grammatical significance of gender suggested the same embarrassment with relation to the universal application of *his* as of *whose*, and when this was brought into distinct consciousness a remedy was provided. At first, *it* was used as a possessive, without inflection or a preposition, and several instances of this occur in Shakespeare, as also in Leviticus xvi. 5, of the Bible of 1611: "That *which* groweth of *it* own accord." *It*, although to be found in printed books of a somewhat earlier date, is not seen used in that relation, *his* being in all cases but that just cited employed instead. The precise date and occasion of the first introduction of *its* is not ascertained, but it could not have been far from the year 1600.

For a considerable period about the beginning of the seventeenth century, there was evidently a sense of incongruity in the application of *his* to objects incapable of the distinction of sex, and at the same time a reluctance to sanction the introduction of the new form *its* as a substitute. Accordingly, for the first half of that century many of the best writers rejected them both, and I think English folios can be found which do not contain an example of either. *Of it*, *thereof*, and longer circumlocutions were preferred, or the very idea of the possessive relation was avoided altogether.

Puffe has *its* in some of his works, in others he rejects it, and in the *Plurah Sight of Palestine*, printed in 1650, both forms are sometimes applied to a neuter noun in the course of a single sentence: as, "Whither from the violence of winds, then blowing on the stream, and surging it beyond his banks."—MARSH.

**Obs. 26.**—Wherever ambiguity, or awkwardness, would result from the use of the apostrophe (see p. 145), it is best to avoid the use of the possessive altogether. Thus, instead of "The bracelet was Carlotta's, the empress," we may say: "The bracelet was that of Carlotta, the empress."

This principle of avoidance is of wide application and very great usefulness. The trained writer will often find that he cannot well handle the form of expression which first occurred to him; and, being fertile in rhetorical expedients, will substitute for it an entirely different form, while the novice will waste time in vain attempts to make the original form graceful and appropriate.

Much of the value of sound rhetorical instruction consists in the suggestion and exemplification of alternative forms of expression of which we may avail ourselves in an emergency.—GIBSON.

**Obs. 27.**—Care must be taken not to put before a possessive an adjective belonging to the thing possessed.

Thus, not, Red children's stockings, but, Children's red stockings; not, The familiar postman's knock, but, The postman's familiar knock.

*Compare:* Even the philosophers sometimes have the laugh turned on them. Not long since, in the presence of Herbert Spencer, a little boy said: "What an awful lot of crows!" The philosopher corrected the youth by saying, "I have yet to learn, little master, that there is anything to inspire awe in such a bird as the crow." For once the author of "First Principles" had met his match. The boy replied, "But I didn't say there was; I didn't say what a lot of awful crows, but what an awful lot of crows!" Sound, for the boy.—*Harper's Weekly.*

**EXERCISE XIV.**—In the following sentences change the possessives to prepositional phrases, and the prepositional phrases to possessives.

*Example.*—If we cannot perceive the manner of the poison of sin, no wonder if we cannot perceive the method of the antidote of grace.

If we cannot perceive the manner of sin's poison, no wonder if we cannot perceive the method of grace's antidote.—T. FULLER.

A Connecticut newspaper announces that "the barn and contents of Mr. Giles Potter of Essex was burned Thursday night."

The young man did not want natural talents; but the father of *him* was a coxcomb, who affected being a fine gentleman so unmercifully that he could not endure in his sight, or the frequent mention of one who was his son growing into manhood and thrusting him out of the gay world.—CAMPBELL.

(3) **Appositives** result by condensation from descriptive clauses. Thus:

*John Adams, the President, is a shorter form for, John Adams, who was the President.*

**Obs. 28.**—Apposition may be so used as to convert two sentences into one. Thus:

We called at the house of a person to whom we had letters of introduction, *a musician*, and, what is more, *a good friend* to all young students of music.—ANNOTT.

This is as clear as, He was a musician, etc., and is briefer.

It would, however, be better to put a dash before "a musician." See page 157.

**Obs. 29.**—Appositives should be placed near the nouns that they define.

**EXERCISE XV.**—Correct the arrangement of the following sentences.

*Example.*—Charles I., the king of England, was beheaded by Cromwell.

Charles I. was beheaded by Cromwell, the king of England.

Tom Thumb was exhibited by Barnum, the smallest man living.

Dr. Kane deserves to rank with Livingston, the arctic explorer.

The horse was scared by a snail, a nervous creature.

The shawl was worn by the governor's wife, made of camel's hair.

(4) **Participles** take the place of the subject and the predicate of a modifying clause, and often of the connective, thus promoting brevity, but endangering precision.

**Obs. 30.**—The participle should be so placed that the word it modifies be unmistakable.

EXERCISE XVI.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—Entering so suddenly, I did not hear what you said. Or, if the other be the meaning, What you said on entering so suddenly, I did not hear.

I did not hear what you said entering so suddenly.

I saw an old school-fellow yesterday, when I was in New York, walking down Broadway.

The deceased came to his death by excessive drinking producing apoplexy in the minds of the jury.

The jury rendered a verdict of death from suicide while laboring under insanity.

The Gleaner is one of the finest and fastest boats on the Tyne. Her accommodations are in every respect good and comfortable, and her crew skilful, steady, and obliging, being newly painted and decorated for pleasure trips.

Sir Charles Wetherell addressed the House for three hours . . . when, being fatigued by his exertions, their lordships adjourned to the following day.—*British Almanac*, 1836.

In an old description of Albany, it is said, "The place contains some two or three hundred houses and twenty-five hundred inhabitants, all standing with their gable ends to the street."

With this small force the general determined to attack the foe, flushed with recent victory, and rendered negligent by success.

Adam, first of men,  
To first of women, Eve, thus moving speech  
Turned him.—MILTON.

Especial care should be taken not to omit the subject of the participle.

The admiral was called upon to say whether he recognized in the body present the corpse of the Emperor Maximilian. . . .

Replying in the affirmative, the coffin was again closed.—*Pall Mall Gazette*.

Being early killed, I sent a party in search of his mangled body.—*Rough Notes of an Old Soldier*.

(Compare, if dead, his wife or children may apply.)

In the *Morning Chronicle's* account of Lord Macaulay's funeral occurred the following sentence:

When placed upon the ropes near the grave, and while being gradually lowered into the earth, the organ again pealed forth.—ALFORD.

Find other illustrations on pages 180, 181.

**Obs. 31.**—The participial phrase should be resolved into a clause when the context leaves it doubtful whether the relation be *when*, *while*, *though*, *that*, or *because*.

Abbott remarks of "Men walking on ice sometimes fall:" it is better to use "men walking" to mean "men *when* they walk." If the relative is meant, use "men *that* walk" instead of the participle.

|                    |   |             |              |   |          |
|--------------------|---|-------------|--------------|---|----------|
| (1) While he was   | } | walking out | (1) the road | } | he fell. |
| (2) Because he was |   |             | (2) the ice  |   |          |

When the participle precedes the subject, it generally implies a cause: "Seeing this, he retired." Otherwise it generally has its proper participial meaning, *e.g.*, "He retired, *keeping* his face toward us." If there is any ambiguity, write "*on seeing*," "*at the same time*," or *while keeping*."

|                   |   |                    |                                       |
|-------------------|---|--------------------|---------------------------------------|
| (1) Though he was | } | struck with terror | (1) he nevertheless stood his ground. |
| (2) Since he was  |   |                    | (2) he rapidly retreated.             |
| (3) If he be      |   |                    | (3) he will soon retreat.             |

"Deserted by his friends, he was forced to have recourse to those who had been his enemies." Here, if we write, "He, deserted by his friends, was forced," etc., *he* is unduly emphasized; and if we write, "He was forced to have recourse to his enemies, having been deserted by his friends," the effect is very flat.

Of course we might sometimes write, "He was deserted and forced," etc. But this cannot be done where the "desertion" is to be not-stated but implied.

**Obs. 32.**—The participle *being* is often omitted; as,

France at our doors, he sees no danger nigh, for, France *being* at our doors, etc.

(5) **Infinitives** used as adjective modifiers are in the form of appositives; as, The best course—to treat him kindly—occurred to me.

He replied by a persistent refusal to enter his service.

He gave me advice how to behave.

An invitation to pass the summer.

It is to be noted in passing, that the English infinitive corresponds not only to the A.-S. infinitive, but also to the A.-S. gerund. The A.-S. infinitive was characterized by no separate sign, but by the termination *-an*. For example, *lof-i-an*, to love. The A.-S. gerund was a verbal noun ending in *-enne* or *-ene*, and invariably preceded by the preposition *to*. For example, *to lofenne*, for loving. These two forms were practically confounded through the influence of the Norman conquest—the terminations being dropped, and the sign *to* indifferently prefixed both to the infinitive and the gerund. Hence, in many cases, what we now regard as an infinitive might, properly, be regarded as a relic of the A.-S. gerund. For example, "He is to blame," means, "He is for blaming," and need not be corrected into, "He is to be blamed." So also, "A house to let."—GILMAN.

(6) **Preposition Phrases** may be used to express almost every sort of relation.

**Obs. 33.**—Care must be taken to employ the preposition fixed upon by usage as appropriate to express a certain relation.

Usage, and that alone, determines our choice of prepositions; and in language usage is perpetually changing. *Influence into*, *contemporary to*, and *independent upon*, once were good English; and such *synonymous to* has been within the last hundred years. To sympathize *in* the misfortunes of another does not appear to us a whit stranger than it appeared in the days of Shenstone; any sympathy *in* her general principles was the expression preferred by Coleridge in 1800; and sympathies *toward* may claim the sanction

of Landor. Sympathy *for* has the consentient authority of Sterne, Gray, Burke, etc.—FITZGERARD HALL.

An educational journal thus describes the trouble a Frenchman had with the verb "break."

"I begin to understand your language better," said my French friend, Mr. Debois, to me, "but your verbs trouble me still; you mix them up so with prepositions."

"I am sorry you find them troublesome," was all I could say.

"I saw your friend Mrs. Muskerson, just now," he continued. "She says she intends to break down house-keeping; am I right there?"

"Break up house-keeping, she must have said."

"Oh, yes, I remember: break up house-keeping."

"Why does she do that?" I asked.

"Because her health is broken into."

"Broken down."

"Broken down? Oh, yes. And, indeed, since the small-pox has broken up in our city—"

"Broken out."

"She thinks she will leave it for a few weeks."

"Will she leave the house alone?"

"No, she is afraid it will be broken—broken—how do I say that?"

"Broken into."

"Certainly, it is what I meant to say."

"Is her son to be married soon?"

"So, that engagement is taken—broken—"

"Broken off."

"Yes, broken off."

"Ah, I had not heard of that."

"She is very sorry about it. Her son only broke the news down to her last week.

Am I right? I am anxious to speak English well."

"He merely broke the news; no preposition this time."

"It is hard to understand. That young man, her son, is a fine young fellow; a breaker, I think."

"A breaker, and a very fine young fellow. Good-day."

So much for the verb "to break."

A country editor, referring to visiting a family who gave him a meal, said: "We are indebted to Mr. and Mrs. —, with whom we should be pleased for further acquaintance." This is about on a par with the young orator in a country debating club, who said: "Mr. Chairman, every community is divided into two classes—the educated and the uneducated—one of whom I am which."

**Appropriate Prepositions.**—The following list includes most of the phrases in which prepositions are commonly misused. It is made up from the tables in

Worcester's Dictionary (pages xl., xli.), Angus's "Hand-book of the English Tongue" (pages 325, 326), and Campbell's "Hand-book of Synonyms and Prepositions" (pages 141-153). The last is especially recommended to those who would be exact in their use of prepositions, as it gives a multitude of quotations, illustrating the nicer distinctions.

adherence of.  
 adherent to.  
 abound in, with.  
 absolve from.  
 accede to.  
 accept (of).  
 accommodate to (of things).  
 with (of persons).  
 accompanied by, with.  
 accord with (nearer).  
 to (transitive).  
 accorde with.  
 according to.  
 because of.  
 acquaint with.  
 acquiesce in.  
 acquit of.  
 adapted to, for.  
 adequate to.  
 adhere to.  
 admission to, into.  
 admit to, into.  
 (of).  
 advantage of, over.  
 advocate of, for.  
 affinity to, with, between.  
 agree with (a person).  
 to (a proposal).  
 upon (conditions).  
 in (thinking).  
 among (themselves).  
 agreeable to.  
 alien from, to.  
 allied to, with.  
 alter from, to, into.  
 attention in.  
 ambitious of.  
 amuse with, at.  
 analogous to.  
 analogy between, to, with.  
 angry with (a person).  
 at (a thing).  
 antagonistic to.  
 antagonism to, between.  
 antipathy to, against.  
 anxious for, about.  
 applicable to.  
 applying to, over.  
 apprehensive of.  
 appropriate to.  
 approve (of).

argue with, against.  
 array with, in.  
 arrive at, in, from.  
 ascertain from.  
 ask of (a person).  
 for (a thing).  
 after (to inquire).  
 aspire to, after.  
 assent to.  
 assimilate to.  
 assimilated at.  
 attend to (listen).  
 upon (walk).  
 attended by, with, to, on.  
 avail one's self of.  
 avenge one's self on.  
 averse to.  
 banish from.  
 base on, upon.  
 believe in, on.  
 bestow upon.  
 bound for.  
 hung of.  
 bump against.  
 burn up, down, out, with.  
 capable of.  
 call on (a person).  
 at (a house).  
 in (opinion).  
 after, by (name).  
 care for, about, of.  
 careful of, to.  
 caution against (calamity).  
 in (action).  
 celebrated for.  
 certain of.  
 change for, with, to, into, from.  
 charge (a crime) on, against (one).  
 (one) with (a crime).  
 (a trust) to (one).  
 cheat of, out of, with, by.  
 clear of (harm).  
 from (guilt).  
 coincide with.  
 collide with.  
 continue with, into.  
 commit to, with.

communicate to (transitive).  
 with (intransitive).  
 compare with (for judgment).  
 to (for illustration).  
 comparison with, between.  
 compatible with.  
 complain of.  
 complain against, of.  
 compliance with.  
 comply with.  
 composed of.  
 concerned at, for (a thing).  
 with (a person).  
 in (a proceeding).  
 concur with (a person).  
 in (an opinion).  
 confide with (a person).  
 for (a loss).  
 confide in (intransitive).  
 in (a thing) to.  
 conform to.  
 conformable to.  
 conformity with, in.  
 congenial to.  
 congratulate upon.  
 connect with, to.  
 converse with (a person).  
 at (a thing).  
 consist of, in (substance).  
 with (harmony).  
 consistent with, in.  
 consider (of).  
 consistent to, with.  
 contend with (a person).  
 for (a principle, object).  
 against (an obstacle).  
 contiguous to.  
 contradictory to.  
 contrary to.  
 contrast with, to, between.  
 controversy with (a person).  
 about (a matter).  
 convenient to, for.  
 conversant with, in, about.  
 convert into.  
 convict of.  
 copy after (see example).

copy from (nature).  
 out of (a book).  
 correspond with, to.  
 correspondence with.  
 couple by, with, together, to, in.  
 covered by, with.  
 cure of.  
 danger of, from.  
 dated at, from.  
 deal with, by.  
 defend from, against.  
 deference to, for, toward.  
 detested in.  
 delighted by, at, with, in.  
 deliver from, out of (trouble).  
 over (a package).  
 demand of, from.  
 denounce upon, against.  
 depend upon.  
 dependent on.  
 deprive of.  
 derogate from.  
 derogation to, from, of.  
 derogatory to.  
 deservy of, from (a person).  
 desire for, of, after.  
 deservy of.  
 desist from.  
 desolve on.  
 die of, with, from, by.  
 differ among (divisives).  
 from (one another).  
 from, with (in opinion).  
 about, concerning (a question).  
 difference with (a person).  
 between (objects).  
 differed from.  
 difficulty in.  
 dilate upon.  
 dilution of.  
 direct to, toward.  
 disagree with (a person).  
 to (a proposition).  
 disagreeable to.  
 disappointed of (something not got).  
 in (something got).  
 disapprove (of).  
 discontinued with.  
 discourage from.  
 discouragement in.  
 discriminations between (two things).  
 (one) from (another).  
 disdain for.  
 disengaged from.  
 disgusted with (a person).  
 with, at, by (a thing).

dislike, of.  
 disqualify for, from.  
 dissent from.  
 disown from.  
 distinguished by, for, from.  
 distinction from.  
 direct of.  
 divide between (two).  
 among (several).  
 into (parts).  
 due from, to.  
 eager in, for, after.  
 embark in, for.  
 embellish in, with.  
 employ in, on, about.  
 ensnared of, with.  
 encounter (with).  
 encouragement to.  
 encourage on.  
 endeavor after.  
 engage in.  
 engrave on, in.  
 engage upon, to.  
 engage with, at, against.  
 enrich by, with.  
 enter in, into, upon.  
 entertain by, with.  
 entrance into.  
 envious of, against, at.  
 environ with.  
 envy at, of.  
 equal to, with.  
 equally with.  
 equivalent to.  
 escape from, out of.  
 espouse to.  
 example to, for.  
 exasperate at (an act).  
 against (a person).  
 except from.  
 exception to.  
 exclude from.  
 exclusive of.  
 exhausted by, with.  
 execrate from.  
 expect from, of.  
 expect from, out of.  
 expert in, at.  
 expose to.  
 for (sale).  
 experiment with.  
 scull over.  
 fall under (observation).  
 into (difficulties).  
 upon (conscience).  
 to, on (the ground).  
 familiar to, with.  
 favorable for, to.  
 favorite of, with.  
 filled with.  
 followed by.  
 forbear from.

forgive to, from.  
 formed of, from.  
 found upon.  
 in (truth).  
 free from, with.  
 friendly to, with.  
 frightened at.  
 from at, on.  
 frugal of.  
 fruitful in, of.  
 full of.  
 glad of, at.  
 glance at, upon.  
 glad at, for, to, toward.  
 graduate at, in.  
 graduated from.  
 graft upon, in, into.  
 grapple with.  
 grateful to (a person).  
 for (a thing).  
 greedy of, after.  
 grieve at, for.  
 guilty of.  
 happen after, for.  
 happen to, upon.  
 harness by, with.  
 headed by, of.  
 hinder from.  
 hold of, on.  
 imagine for, after.  
 ill of.  
 illustrated by, with.  
 immersed in.  
 impatient with (a person).  
 at (his conduct).  
 of (restraint).  
 for (something wanted).  
 under (misconduct).  
 impose upon.  
 impress upon, with, by.  
 imprint upon.  
 incompatible by, from.  
 inconstant with, against.  
 incentive to.  
 include in.  
 incompatible with.  
 incorporate into, with.  
 incumbent upon.  
 independent of.  
 indifferent to.  
 indispensable to.  
 indige with, in.  
 indigent to, of.  
 infer from.  
 inferior to.  
 influence with, over.  
 inform of, about, concern-  
 ing.

initiate into.  
inquire of, for, after, about,  
concerning, into.  
inquiry into.  
insensible to, of.  
inseparable from.  
insert in, into.  
insight into.  
insinuate into, through, to.  
inspection into, over.  
intent on.  
interfere with, in, between.  
interperse among, through,  
with.  
intervene between.  
introduce to (a person).  
into (a place).  
intrude upon (a person).  
into (a place).  
intrust to, with.  
inure to.  
invest with.  
involve in.  
irritated by, against (a per-  
son).  
by, at (a thing).  
issue from, out of.

join to, with.

killed by (an enemy)  
with (fatigue).  
know about, of.

lean against, upon, on.  
liberal of, in.  
listen for, to.  
live at (a village).  
in (a city, country),  
on (the earth).  
upon (fast).  
long for, after.  
look for, after, upon.  
into, in.  
love of, for, to.

make of, from, out of, with,  
for.  
marry to.  
masterly over, of.  
matter with.  
meddle with, in.  
mindful of.  
mix with, in.  
model after, on, in.  
mortified with, at.  
mourn for, over.

name after, from.  
necessary to, for.  
some-*ity* for, of.  
need of.

object to.  
objection to, against.  
obduracy of.  
obnoxious to.  
observance of.  
obtain from, of.  
occasion for, of.  
occupy by, with, in.  
offended with, by, at.  
opinion on, about.  
opportunity of, for.  
offended with, by, at.  
opinion on, about.  
opportunity of, for.  
opposite (to).  
opposition to.  
originate in, from.  
overwhelm with, by, in.

parallel to, with.  
part from, with.  
partake (of).  
partial to, toward.  
partiality to, for.  
participate in.  
patient of, with, toward,  
under.

peculiar to.  
pencil from.  
penetrate into, within, to.  
perish of, by.  
persevere in.  
pity on.  
pleased with, at.  
possessed of, with, by.  
predisposed to, toward.  
prefer to, before, above.  
preferable to.  
preference to, before, over,  
above, for.

prefix to.  
prejudice against.  
prejudicial to.  
present to, with.  
preside over.  
prevail upon, with, over,  
against.  
prevent from.  
productive of.  
profitable to, for.  
prohibit from.  
pride of.  
proper to.  
presentation to.  
present from, against.  
provide with, for, against.  
punish with, by, for.  
purge from, of.  
pursuance of.  
put into, in.

rail at, against.  
raid in, out of, from, over.  
receive of, from.  
recede out of, from.

reckon upon.  
recline upon.  
reconcile to, with.  
recover from.  
relevant to.  
reduce to, under.  
regard for, to.  
request for.  
rejoice at, in.  
relieve from, of.  
relish for, of.  
rely upon.  
remark upon.  
remedy for, against.  
remonstrate with, against.  
request (a passage) of, from,  
-um of.  
repeat of.  
repeal at, for.  
replete with.  
replete for, to.  
research with, for.  
resemblance to.  
reside at, in.  
resolve upon.  
respect for, to.  
reward with, by, for.  
rich in.

sell for, to.  
sated with.  
satisfy with.  
search for, after, into, out.  
secure of, from, against.  
seek for, after.  
seized by, with.  
sell for, by (auction) in Eng-  
land.

at, in United States.  
share in, of.  
sick of, with.  
similar to.  
similarity to, between, of.  
situated on (this side).  
in (Main Street).  
skilful in, of, at.  
smile at, upon.  
solicitous about, for.  
speak to, with, about, upon.  
strive with, against, for.  
sufficient for.  
suitable to, for.  
suture to, with.  
surprised at, by, with.  
surround by, with.  
sweep from.  
sympathize with, in.  
sympathy with, for, between.

taste of, for.  
thick with.  
think of, about, on.  
thirst for, after.  
threaten by, with.

use with, of, by.  
transude from, out of, into.  
treat of.  
trust in, to.

unite with.  
unite to, with, in, by.  
unworthy of.

variance with.  
versed in.  
vest in, with.  
vexed with, at.  
vies of, in.

wait upon, for.  
want of, with.

wary of, with, in.  
worthy of.  
write from, down, out.

years for, after, toward.  
yield with.

zealous for, in.

The mistakes of most frequent occurrence in this connection consist in making one preposition the complement of two different or contrasted words. Thus: He was a man with whom he agreed on a few subjects but [from whom he] differed on many.

EXERCISE XVII.—Replace the prepositions in the following sentences by those appropriate:

*Example.*—It is abhorrent to my instincts.

It is abhorrent from my instincts. He accused me with falsehood. He is acquitted from suspicion. What advantage is it, above being recognized? The wagon collided against the car. It was in compliance to my request. In compliance of your message I have come to see you. This is different to that. He argued differently than I. He disagreed from the report. They dissented to the plan. He took exception from the remark. Why take exception at a hasty word? It is incompatible from my principles. He is independent from the society. These apples are inferior than the last. The thought is inseparable to the proposal. What is the matter of the cat? He was named George for me. There is need for more money. Do you object against him? I have no prejudice to him. I rely in you. It has great similarity with his former book. The house is on the principal street. He is zealous of good works.

If any fault can be found to his admirable eloquence, it is that he sometimes borders on the hard and dry.—Blam.

**Obs. 34.**—Beware of omitting necessary prepositions, and of inserting them needlessly.

EXERCISE XVIII.—Remove or insert prepositions as required in the following sentences.

*Example.*—We entreat thee to hear us. She is at home.

We entreat of thee to hear us. She is home [an exasperating vulgarity]. His servants ye are to whom ye obey. It is worthy your notice. Notwithstanding of the numerous panegyrics on ancient English liberty.—HUME.

Continuing your remarks on my criticisms, you say :

It must require, to speak in the grated language which some of my correspondents uphold, a most abnormal elongation of the auricular appendages, for a reader to have suggested to his mind a fall from the sublime height of ignorance down into the depth of a mistake.

I spoke of editors falling *into* mistakes : it remained for the Dean of Canterbury to add that they fell *down* into the *depth* of a mistake. You say you do not write for idiots ; who else would imagine it were possible to fall *up* into a depth ?—MOOS.

**Obs. 35.**—The preposition must be repeated when the second of two connected nouns refers to an object not closely associated with the first, especially a contrasted object. (See Obs. 9, page 35.)

But obverse couples are to be regarded as forming one compound idea, unless there be specific separation. "The rule of right and wrong" is the correct way of stating the rule that settles what is right and what is wrong. So "a question of pleasure and pain," "the theory of heat and cold," etc. "By observation and experiment," means the appeal to facts generally, as opposed to deductive inferences apart from facts. "By observation and by experiment" dissociates the two methods as different ways of arriving at truth.

*Referring to associated objects.*  
Two essays on Gold and Currency.

*Referring to dissociated objects.*  
Two essays on Gold and on Currency.

(It is questionable whether so much ambiguity should be trusted to the preposition. Punctuation will easily remove it, as follows : *Two essays on "Gold and Currency,"* for the one meaning, and *Two essays, on Gold and on Currency, or on "Gold" and on "Currency,"* for the other. See pages 151, 156.)

Sincerity combines reality of conviction and earnestness of purpose with purity or freedom from unfairness or dishonesty.—U. J. BRANA.

So far as form is concerned, this may mean

(1) with { purity  
or { freedom from unfairness  
or { dishonesty,

the three expressions being assumed to mean the same thing ; or

(2) with { purity  
or { freedom from { unfairness  
or { dishonesty.

the members of each pair of expressions being assumed to mean the same thing.

The sentence should read :

Sincerity combines reality of conviction and earnestness of purpose with purity, or freedom from unfairness and from dishonesty.

**Obs. 36.**—The preposition should be repeated after an intervening conjunction, especially if a verb and object also intervene.

Thus, He forgets the gratitude that he owes to those that helped all his companions, and John Smith in particular. Is John Smith one of those to whom he owes gratitude, or one of his companions who was helped? If the former is the meaning, *to* should be repeated before John Smith.

**EXERCISE XIX.**—Insert prepositions where needed in the following sentences :

*Example.*—The Sabbath was regarded as a day for rest from worldly occupation and for holy joy.

The Sabbath was regarded as a day for rest from worldly occupation and holy joy.

He sympathized not with their cause, but their fate.—BULWER.

The bursting of the Mississippi Scheme and South-Sea bubble.

Wise women choose not husbands for the eye, merit, or birth, but wealth and sovereignty.—BUS JONSON.

Persons are prohibited from riding or driving cattle on the foot-path.



If we consider the works of nature and art.—ADDISON.

In the turn either of style or sentiment.—BLAIR.

I must observe at the same time that the constant indulgence of a declamatory manner is not favorable either to good composition or good delivery.—BLAIR.

The moulting season is a very interesting one, both for birds and [other] bipeds.—R. H. BARRIAM.

**Obs. 37.**—Preposition phrases should stand in close connection with the words they limit.

The preposition phrase almost uniformly follows the noun, on the principle that "Easy adjuncts are placed first; long or complicated adjuncts come after the noun, which is not willing to be too much suspended." Our usage compares favorably with the German usage, which would strike us as intolerably clumsy. "*Ein durch Zufall von einem Unbekannten aus einer grossen Lebensgefahr geretteter Mann*" is, literally, "A by accident by a stranger from imminent peril saved man:" "A man saved accidentally by a stranger from imminent peril." So, "*Dieser über alle Erwartung gelungene Erfolg*"—"This beyond all expectation successful result"—"This result successful beyond all expectation;" we might go as far as "This surprisingly successful result."—BAIRD.

Compare, The, I believe of Eastern derivation, monosyllable Bosh.—THACKERAY.

*Illustration.*—This idea was as sweet as the vision of a cool bath, in a marble tank, in a darkened chamber, in a hot land.—HERVEY JAMES, JR.

*Exception.*—Dionysius of Halicarnassus has given us upon the orations of Socrates, as also upon those of some other Greek orators, a full and regular treatise, which is, in my opinion, one of the most judicious pieces of ancient criticism extant, and very worthy of being consulted.—BLAIR.

**EXERCISE XX.**—Correct the arrangement of phrases in the following sentences. (Also of those on pages 180, 181.)

*Example.*—A man with a Roman nose I saw digging a ditch.

I saw a man digging a ditch with a Roman nose.

She died in twenty-four hours of a hornet's sting.

I saw a wildcat shot by a little boy five feet eight inches long.

For sale. A splendid gray horse, calculated for a charger, or would accommodate a lady with three white feet.

To be sold cheap. A mail phaeton, the property of a gentleman with a movable head as good as new.

To be sold, an Erard grand piano, the property of a lady about to travel in a walnut case with carved legs.

One pound reward. Lost, a cameo brooch, representing Venus and Adonis on the Drunconra road, about ten o'clock on Tuesday evening.

The advertiser having made an advantageous purchase offers for sale on very low terms about six dozen of prime port, lately the property of a gentleman about forty years of age, full in the body, and with a high bouquet.

A lady called from Australia to pay her compliments.

Some garments were made for the family of thick material.

A charitable lady will adopt a little boy with a small family.

A fellow was arrested with short hair.

A pearl was found by a sailor in a shell.

The house was built by a mason of brown stone.

Wanted, a room by two gentlemen thirty feet long and twenty wide.

Get for the motto, Unto us a child is born, ten feet long by three feet broad.

Upon which the Moor, seizing a bolster full of rage and jealousy, smothered the unhappy Desdemona.

**Obs. 38.**—The use of two or more prepositions with the same object should be avoided; as,

It is a mystery we firmly believe the truth of, and humbly adore the depth of.—BLAIR.

Reconstruct the sentence which violates this principle on page iv.

Another prevailing fashion, still somewhat new, but which has passed the stage of novelty, is the holding of one preposition in suspense for the introduction of another, so that both may apply to one object. One example—the following, from the London

*Spectator*—will be enough, for the construction is so common that it is not only found in almost all writing, but has invaded every-day speech.

He knows, further, that the keeper of the asylum has either been deceived by, or is an accomplice of, these doctors.

Now, the simple English construction in all such cases is, "Has either been deceived by these doctors, or is their accomplice," or "has either been deceived by these doctors, or is an accomplice of theirs." The attempt at elegance produces awkwardness. The leaving of words like *by, of, through, for, at, etc.*, which present no complete thought apart from an object, in the air like an unsupported wing of an army, is disastrous. But it has become the fashion, and is thought fine. This construction has one consequence which has a very bad effect—so bad that on that account only it should be condemned and abandoned. It throws emphasis upon the least important words in a sentence. It is almost impossible to read or to speak a sentence like that cited above without emphasizing it thus: "He knows further that the keeper of the asylum has either been deceived *by*, or is an accomplice *of*, these doctors," which is abominable and ridiculous.—R. G. WHITE.

**Obs. 39.**—"Splitting of particles" should be avoided, but not too rigorously.

Prepositions usually precede their objects, but when the object is a pronoun the preposition is frequently thrown forward to the end of the sentence; as, "A preposition is a poor word to end a sentence *with*." "A peg to hang a hat *on*."—THACKERAY.

"What a condition we have found you *in*." "He was the man they preferred to surrender themselves *to*."

It is sometimes a question whether the last word in a sentence should be a particle or a longer and more important word.

We may write (1), "These were the authorities [which] he referred *to* or commented *upon*," or (2) "These were the authorities *to which* he referred or *upon which* he commented;" (1) "Mr. James Mill was, I believe, the first who distinctly characterized the ambiguity, and pointed out how many errors in the received systems of philosophy it has had *to answer for*," or (2) "*for* how many errors . . . it has had *to answer*;" (1) "It is a funda-

mental principle in logic, that the power of forming classes is unlimited, as long as there is any (even the smallest) distinction to found a difference upon," or (2) "*upon which* to found a difference;"

(1) "The progress of knowledge pointed out limits to them, or showed their truth to be contingent on some circumstance not originally attended *to*," or (2) "*to which* attention was not originally paid."

There are cases in which almost any good writer will unhesitatingly prefer, for its ease and often also for its brevity, the more informal structure, and others in which he will prefer the more stately one. The former is more idiomatic than the latter, and is, therefore, more frequent in conversation and in familiar letters than in books, and more frequent in Addison, Goldsmith, or Irving, than in Gibbon or Johnson. Neither form can be recommended as being the best absolutely and in all circumstances; for a practised writer will instinctively choose the form which belongs in the sentence in hand.—HUN.

There is another case for inversion, namely, in the Interrogative construction. The emphasis of interrogation requires us to begin a question with *Who, Whom, Which, What*, instead of allowing a preposition to precede. "*What* are we coming to?"—not "*To what* are we coming?" "*Who* or *whom* did you give it to?"—not "*To whom* did you give it?" To preface a question by a preposition, partly does away with the difference between the relative construction and the interrogative.

Speaking of progress Mr. Diarseli put this interrogation—"Progress, from what to what?" we might say also, "Progress, what from and what to?" or "Progress, what from and to?" In the original form, "and" would possibly be an improvement; "Progress from what *and* to what?"

With *where* as an interrogative word, the preposition always follows: *whereto? wherefore?* This accustoms us to the more emphatic and less ambiguous form. *From whence* is not so good for interrogation as *where from*, or *whence?*—BAIRD.

This "splitting of particles," as it has been called, is not ungrammatical, and is even conducive sometimes to exactness of expression; but it suspends the sense and directs attention to what are generally insignificant words. When the words are em-

phatic, and the intervening words are few, the construction may be allowed; e.g., "Whether he is *for* or *against* us, I cannot tell."

Elegance prohibits an arrangement that throws the emphasis on, and thus causes a suspension of the sense *at*, a particle or other unimportant word (as in this very sentence).—HUT.

A preposition as such is by no means a feeble word. What can be finer than this from Rufus Choate? "What! Banish the Bible from our schools? Never, so long as there is left of Plymouth Rock a piece large enough to make a guffint of!"—PHILIP.

EXERCISE XXI.—Change the position of the preposition in the following sentences:

*Example.*—It was a practice of which no one knew the origin.

It was a practice which no one knew the origin of.

That is the gentleman whom I am under obligations to.

When we met you, whom were you in company with?

Scott is an author whom every one is delighted with.

From what has been stated, the reader will understand something of the subject which I am to enter upon.

Logic is a study which few derive real benefit from.

They glide away over the meadows in winter in sledges.

(7) **Adverbial Phrases** are also condensed clauses; as, The cathedral there is still unfinished.

Compare the use of adverbs before the noun, page 31.

(8) **Clauses** are treated under the head of Complex Sentences. See page 95.

#### THE PREDICATE.

**The Predicate** of a simple sentence is or may be separated into two parts, one of which is the Copula (the asserting word), while the other is either (1) a Noun, (2) an Adjective, (3) an Adverb, (4) a Preposition Phrase, or (5) a Participle.

Thus, (1) And the earth was all rest and the air was all love.—SULLIVAN.

(2) Thou art alive still while thy book doth live,  
And we have wits to read, and praise to give.

—BEN JONSON, of Shakspeare.

(3) 'Tis neither here nor there.—*Othello*.

(4) He that complies against his will

Is of the same opinion still.—*Hudibras*.

(5) He is walking.

When the verb contains in one word both the copula and the thing asserted, it may easily be resolved. Thus, He sleeps—He is sleeping; He threw—He was throwing.

FUNDAMENTAL LAW.—*Every sentence must contain at least one independent Predicate.*

A form of words may contain several subjects and predicates, and yet not be a sentence; as, "That he had frequently visited the city in which he was born,"—which, though containing two distinct predicates, is not a sentence. The connective "that" implies the dependence of the clause it introduces upon some other clause, as "He said," "I have heard," "It is true." Hence the essential predicate must be *independent*.

EXERCISE XXII.—Complete such of the following expressions as are not sentences:

*Example.*—Here is a design which has never been completed.

A design which has never been completed.

The honor of having been the first to welcome His Royal Highness,

The author having suddenly died, and left his work unfinished.

No sooner was William seated on the throne, than seeming to have lost all his former popularity.

He is taller, stronger, wiser.

That the king was ignorant of the real circumstances; that he had not examined the warrant which he had signed, and was therefore not responsible for the proceeding.

The Prince, when he saw the hopelessness of his cause, turned and fled.

The artist being of opinion that a national recognition, through

intelligible symbols, of the great principles by which the patriot was actuated from first to last, is the only fitting way to do honor to his memory.

For which reasons I shall endeavor to enliven morality with wit, and to temper wit with morality.

The most illustrious benefactors of the race being men who, having risen to great truths, have held them as a sacred trust for their kind, and have borne witness to them amidst general darkness.

Seeing that the varnish of power brings forth at once the defects and the beauties of the human portrait.

How much less in them that dwell in houses of clay, whose foundation is in the dust.

**EXERCISE XXIII.**—Complete the following sentences by finding four appropriate predicates to each.

*Example.*—The snow flies; The snow falls; The snow is white; The snow blankets the earth.

**NOTE IV.**—*Proper names and words derived from them begin with capitals.*

Point out the proper names on page 144.

The snow— The sea— The tide— The sky— The fortress— The enemy— The prisoners— The lamp— The offenders— The bells— All men— The earth itself— Diligent scholars— Men of wisdom— Sounds of music— Repeated want of success— No opportunity of doing good— The peace of the community— The leader of the rebellion— The long-expected friends— The source of the Nile— A large portion of Central Africa— A great number of vessels, unable to withstand the fury of the storm— Many of the descriptions of travellers— The veteran warrior, rushing into the midst of the battle— The errors of previous generations—

#### AUXILIARIES

**Obs. 40.**—As expletives, *do* and *did* should be used sparingly. (See Obs. 92, page 126.)

And does not Southey use too often the expletives *did* and *does*? They have a good effect at times, but are too inconsiderable, or rather become blemishes when they mark a style.—C. LAMB.

Thus, As it *does* not only, like other pictures, *give* the color and figure, but the motions of things it represents.—AMMONS.

**PROPER USE.**—*Do* and *did*, as the signs of the tenses, are frequently necessary, and sometimes emphatical. The idiom of the language renders them for the most part necessary in negation and interrogation; and even in affirmation they are found in certain circumstances to give emphasis to the expression. For instance, "Did I object to this measure formerly? I do object to it still." Or, "What I did publicly affirm then, I do affirm now, and I will affirm always." The contrast of the different tenses in these examples is more precisely marked by such monosyllables as are intended singly to point out that circumstance, than they can be by the bare inflections of the verb.—CAMPBELL.

Thus, No man is so positive in his prejudices against that of which he knows little, as the man who is master of a certain domain of knowledge, and therefore assumes to measure and judge that which he *does not* by that which he *does* fully know.—POWELL.

**Obs. 41.**—The uses of **Shall** and **Will** must be discriminated.

(a) IN AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCES there are two distinct future tenses, as follows:

| <i>Future of Expectation.</i> |               | <i>Future of Determination.</i> |                |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|----------------|
| I shall go,                   | We shall go.  | I will go,                      | We will go.    |
| Thou wilt go,                 | You will go.  | Thou shalt go,                  | You shall go.  |
| He will go,                   | They will go. | He shall go,                    | They shall go. |

Thus, "I shall be drowned; nobody will help me," is the despairing cry of a man who expects to drown; "I will be drowned; nobody shall help me," is the cry of a man determined to drown.

The radical signification of *will* (Anglo-Saxon *willean*) is purpose, intention, determination; that of *shall* (Anglo-Saxon *scelan*, ought) is obligation. *I will do* means, I purpose doing—I am determined to do. *I shall do* means, radically, I ought to do; and as a man is supposed to do what he sees he ought to do, *I shall do* came to mean, I am about doing—to be, in fact, a mere announcement of future action, more or less remote. But so *you shall do* means, radically, you ought to do; and therefore unless we mean to impose an obligation or to announce an action on the part of an-

other person, over whom we claim some control, *shall*, in speaking of the mere voluntary future action of another person, is inappropriate; and we therefore say *you will*, assuming that it is the volition of the other person to do thus or so. Hence, in merely announcing future action, we say, *I or we shall, you, he, or they will*; and, in declaring purpose on our own part, or on the part of another, obligation, or inevitable action, which we mean to control, we say, *I or we will, you, he, or they shall*. Official orders, which are in the form *you will*, are but a seeming exception to this rule of speech, which they, in fact, illustrate. For in them the courtesy of superior to subordinate, carried to the extreme even in giving command, avoids the semblance of compulsion, while it assumes obedience in its very language.—R. G. WHITE.

*Shall remain!*

Hear you this Triton of the minnows? mark you  
His absolute shall!—*CORINTHUS.*

This child I to myself will take;  
She shall be mine, and I will make  
A lady of my own.

The stars of midnight shall be dear  
To her; and she shall lean her ear  
In many a secret place.

Where rivulets dance their wayward round,  
And beauty born of murmuring sound,  
Shall pass into her face.—*WOMANHOOD.*

Then wilt thou not be loth  
To leave this Paradise, but shalt possess  
A paradise within thee.—*MILTON.*

Shall I, wasting in despair,  
Die because a woman's fair? . . . .  
If she love me, then believe  
I will die ere she shall grieve.—*WYAND.*

If she hate me, then believe  
She shall die ere I will grieve.—*Parody of the above by THE JOKER.*

*Mid.* Where shall we dine to-day?  
*Dom.* Where you will.—*BRUNNEN.*

**EXERCISE XXIV.**—Correct the use of auxiliaries in the following sentences:

*Example.*—It is intended that the army shall march to-morrow.  
It is intended that the army will march to-morrow. He says he

shall be glad to see you. He replies that he shall be happy to go. He promises me it will soon be ready to sail. We will never look on his like again. I fear that I will lose it. I hope that I will be well. I believe that I will catch cold. I hope I will not be missed. I fear we will have rain. I will enjoy the visit. (Compare "We will be satisfied," the cry of the Citizens to Brutus, meaning that they were determined to have satisfaction.) It is requested that no one will leave the room. I think I will be contented, but I don't know.

As, besides the general fault of prolixity and indistinctness, this sentence contains several inaccuracies, I will be obliged to enter into a minute discussion of its structure and parts.—*BLAIR.*

A young man's Institute for Discussion on Self-Improvement is reported in a Scottish provincial paper to have met and discussed the question, "*Shall* the material universe be destroyed?"—*ALFORD.*

I am not able to devote as much time and attention to other subjects as I will be under the necessity of doing next year.—*CHAUMIER.*

I do not expect that any word of praise which this work may elicit shall ever be responded to by me.—*Vestiges of Creation.*

We know to what causes our past reverses have been owing, and we will have ourselves to blame if they are again incurred.—*ALBION.*

You must make haste and gather me all you can, and do it quickly, or I will and shall do without it.—*JOHANSON.*

But I will depend on your coming over with Mr. Whistler in the spring.—*SHUNSTONE.*

**(b) In Interrogative Sentences,** the forms are:

| <i>Future of Expectation.</i> |               | <i>Future of Intention.</i> |                |
|-------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------|----------------|
| (Will I go?)                  | (Will we go?) | Shall I go?                 | Shall we go?   |
| Shalt thou go?                | Shall you go? | Wilt thou go?               | Will you go?   |
| Will he go?                   | Will they go? | Shall he go?                | Shall they go? |

In INTERROGATION, the auxiliaries are ruled by the same principle. "Shall" expresses that the subject is under external influence; "will" implies that the action is entirely within the control of the subject.

*Determination.*—The only complete Interrogative forms are those expressing will or determination on the part of the second person.

"*Will you* be this honest gentleman's eupbearer, or *shall I?*" ("Pirate," ch. 30). The action is left in the power of the person addressed: "Are you willing to —?" "Is it your will or inclination to —?" There is no pressure from without. On the other hand, "*Shall I?*" indicates that the speaker is under outward control,—in this instance, the control of the person addressed. "If you should think fit not to do the action, then it will fall to me;" the action of the speaker is entirely dependent upon the will of the second person. So, "*Shall he?*" would imply that the speaker expresses the action of the person "he" as resting on the will or control of the second person.

Will you give thanks, sweet Kate? or else shall I?

"What shall we drink?" I submit my taste to yours; the choice lies with you; yours is the determining voice.

"If we refuse, what shall we suffer?" Our fate depends on your will or determination; we are in your power.

"Shall I pour your honor out a glass of sack to your pipe?" "Do, Trim," said my uncle Toby.—*STERNE*.

*Hamlet.* One word more, good lady.  
*Queen.* What shall I do?

The *Queen* asks *Hamlet*,

What will thou do? thou wilt not murder me!

There is more than mere futurity here; the *Queen* inquires of *Hamlet* what his own will or resolution is. The action is altogether dependent on *Hamlet*, who is addressed.

*Antony* says to the citizens,

Shall I descend? and will you give me leave?

The orator professes to be the humble servant of those he addresses.

Shall our coffers, then,  
Be emptied to reform a traitor home?

The speaker puts it to his hearers to say whether they can reasonably sanction the action.

Shall he expire,  
And unavenged?

I put it to you; whether he shall or shall not rests with you to decide.

Heater is gone:  
Who shall tell Priam so, or Hector?  
What! Shall an African, shall Juba's heir  
Reproach great Cato's son?

*Futurity.*—Next as to the Interrogative form available for mere futurity. "*Shall I?*" is already set apart for the case where the first person acts under the control of the second person or person addressed. Still there is no other form for simple futurity with the first person as subject. "*Will I?*" is obviously impossible as a direct question; yet it is the regular Scotch form.

For inquiring as to a future action on the part of the second person, we have to consider two forms. "*Shall you?*" would naturally inquire as to the influence of external circumstances upon "you;" and, being not an affirmation but merely a question, it is not considered as at all uncourteous. "*Will you?*" would be the form of courtesy, were the expression of this considered necessary or desirable; it is a form, moreover, that is already engaged to make inquiry as to the second person's will or determination. However, "*Will you?*" is used for mere futurity side by side with "*Shall you?*"

"What *shall* you do?" "What *will* you do?" "*Shall* you come back to-morrow?"—may inquire as to the future merely. The meaning is—"What *are* you to do?" *Are* you to come back?

For the third person, "*Shall he?*" puts the action as dependent on the second person, and accordingly must be set aside. Apart from this pre-occupation, it might have stood for simple futurity: the motive of courtesy, which caused the substitution of "*will*" in the affirmative form, has no influence here. "*Will he?*" while naturally inquiring as to "his" will, inclination, or determination, is also the form used for the case of mere futurity. "*Will* they be present?" "Who *will* be next president?" express simple futurity: much the same as "*Are* they to be present?" "Who *is* to be next President?"

Will it be dark before you reach the tower?

What, *will* the aspiring blood of Lancaster  
Sink in the ground?—BARN.

EXERCISE XXV.—Correct the use of auxiliaries in the following sentences.

*Example.*—Shall I put the tea on?

Will I put the tea on? What will I do. Come, will we go? When will we get through this book? Will we see you again soon? Where will I get it? Will you prefer to accept it? What will you do about it? Where will you be next week? When will you go?

**Obs. 42.**—**Would** and **Should** follow in general the same rules as *shall* and *will*.

Thus, "He said he should be drowned; nobody would help him." "He said he would be drowned; nobody should help him."

As to *would* and *should*, it will be found that, with one exception, to be remarked upon hereafter, whatever the connection in which they appear, they are used, the former with some implication of will, the latter with some implication of obligation. For example, *would*, when it expresses a habit or a custom, as, "She would weep all day," "He would bluster like Herod," implies a habitual exercise of will. In such phrases as "Would that it were night!" "Would that it were morning!" mere will or strong wish is expressed, and *would* can hardly be called an "auxiliary" by any grammarians. Consequently, when will or wish is expressed in any other part of the phrase, *would* becomes superfluous and out of place. Expressing willingness, we say, "I would grant your request;" but if we introduce *willingly* or *with pleasure*, we use *should*, and say, "I should willingly, or with pleasure, grant your request," not "I would willingly," etc. In like manner we say, "I will see you to-morrow;" but if we add an expression of pleasure, "I shall be glad, or happy, to see you to-morrow," not "I will be glad," etc. . . .

There is a use of *should* which can hardly be determined by the rules, or disposed under any one of the heads above given. It generally appears in an impersonal construction; as, "It should seem thus," "Should it prove so." As *would* conforms to *will*, and

as we have "He (or it) *will* seem," we should expect "He *would* seem," and so, "It *would* seem." But the best use for centuries has been, "It *should* seem," "One *should* think," etc. . . . The impersonal use of *should* where, according to analogy, we should look for *would*, I shall not undertake to explain. . . . To my readers I shall venture to say that if they express hoping and wishing and the like with *will* and *would*, and command, demand, and mandatory desire with *shall* and *should*—for example, "I hope that Mrs. Unwin will invite them to tea" and "I wish that Mrs. Unwin would invite them to tea;" but "He commands that Mrs. Unwin shall invite them to tea," and "He desired that Mrs. Unwin should invite them to tea;" and, impersonally, "It is wished that no person shall leave his seat," and "It was requested that no persons should leave their seats"—they will not be far from right.—B. G. WHITE.

EXERCISE XXVI.—Correct the use of auxiliaries in the following sentences.

*Example.*—It was intended that the army should march the next day.

It was intended that the army would march the next day.

(In like manner, throw the rest of the short sentences in Exercise XXIV. into the past tense, and give the correct auxiliary.)

He recommended that the place would be given to a man that should be acceptable.

I would be glad to go. We would be happy to see you. He hastened to return, lest his absence would cause anxiety. He was afraid that he would be burnt. The father was afraid his child should jump in.

Had I been thy son, I think I would not only have been grieved on account of that which I had done, but also would have regretted that I had caused sorrow in the breast of him who loved me so tenderly.—HART'S *Grammar*.

No more than I would be glad or content to be in a storm.

Such a Protector we have had as we would have been glad to have changed for an enemy.—COWLEY.

After a short silence he told me he did not know how I would take what he was going to say.—SWIFT.

Had it been otherwise you may be sure I would not have pretended to have given for news.—STEELE.

But if we look into the English comedies above mentioned, we would think they were formed upon quite a contrary maxim.—ADDISON.

I would be glad if Mr. — were, upon your request, to give his opinion of particulars.—SIMPSON.

If this passion were simply painful, we would shun with the greatest care all persons and places that could excite such a passion.—BURKE.

I would wish to commence a new epoch in the composition of introductory chapters.—BURKE.

**Obs. 43.**—**Delicate Shades** of meaning expressed by peculiar uses of *shall*, *will*, *should*, *would*, are worthy careful attention.

**SMALL FOR WILL.**—There is a fine use of *shall*, the force of which escapes some intelligent and cultivated readers. An example is found in the following passage from a number of *The Spectator*, written by Addison: "There is not a girl in town, but, let her have her own will in going to a mask, and she shall dress like a shepherdess." . . . But mere futurity was not what Addison meant to express, nor did he express a command. He meant to assert strongly; and therefore, instead of the word *will*, which with the third person predicates simple futurity, he used *shall*, which implies more or less of obligation—here a propensity so strong as to control action. . . . An example of this distinction, unsurpassed in delicacy and exactness, and consequent effect, is found in the following passage—my memorandum of the source of which is unfortunately lost—and which refers to the assassination of President Lincoln:

It justly fastened itself upon the rebellion, and demanded now and severer punishment for the rebels, instead of the magnanimous reconciliation which the beloved President, of whom it had been betrayed, had recommended. Who will say that this sentiment was unnatural? Who shall say that it is even unjust?—H. G. WARRS.

High and mighty, you shall know I am set naked on your kingdom.—*Hamlet*. "You shall know." "You must know." "Let me

tell you." The influence of the speaker over the person spoken to is signified by *shall*.—BAIN.

**OTHER USES.**—"Accidents will happen" is the same as "Accidents happen." The "will" gives emphasis by a sort of personification; accidents take it into their heads and resolve to happen.

"Any thermometer will answer the purpose." This is really the expression of a universal fact, and ought to be present, *answers*. The use of "will" is dramatic; it tells the person addressed to take and try any thermometer, and predicts what the result will be.—BAIN.

*As who should say, Lo! thus my strength is tied.*—SHAKESPEARE.

He desired I would stand like a Colossus, with my legs as far asunder as I conveniently could.—SWIFT.

It should be manifest that we ignore, not deny.

**Obs. 44.**—**May and Can.**—*May*, the auxiliary of permission, must be distinguished from *can*, the auxiliary of possibility. Thus, Who can advise, may speak.—MILTON.

**EXERCISE XXVII.**—Tell the exact meaning conveyed by the auxiliaries in the following sentences, making corrections where needed, and showing how a change of auxiliaries would alter the meaning.

*Example.*—"The knight said he would have the lady," would be in direct statement, "The knight said, 'I will have her.'" So, "And the dwarf said he would have her," corresponds with "The dwarf said, 'I will have her.'" Hence as written, the sentence means that each, the knight and the dwarf, was determined to have the lady for himself. But if the dwarf said, "You shall have her," meaning to aid the knight, then the last half of the sentence should read, "and the dwarf said he should have her." In reading, the first meaning would require the emphasis on *he*; the second would require the emphasis on *should*.

The knight said he would have the lady, and the dwarf said he would have her.

If I could tell you, I would. If I could tell you, I should.

I hoped thou shouldst have been my Hamlet's wife.



You would not listen to our advice.

How often would I have gathered thy children together, . . . and ye would not!

I believe soon I shall bear to see nobody. I do hate all hereabouts already, except one or two. I will have my dinner brought upon my table in my absence, and the plates fetched away in my absence, and nobody shall see me.—*SHERIDAN*.

I have an old aunt that visits me sometimes, whose conversation is the perfect counterpart of them. She shall fetch a long-winded sigh with Dr. Young, for a wager.—*SUMNER*.

The minister who should propose it would be liable to be told, etc.—*HARRIS*.

#### THE INDIRECT OBJECT.

**An Indirect Object** is required to complete the meaning of some verbs. This may be (1) a Noun, (2) a Pronoun, (3) a Preposition Phrase, (4) a Conjunction Phrase, (5) an Adjective, (6) an Infinitive, (7) a Participle.

Thus, (1) They made Cromwell Protector; (2) I gave him bread; (3) The people counted him for a prophet; (4) He named his son as his heir; (5) The jury found him guilty; (6) Tell him to wait; (7) They heard him walking.

(1) **The Noun** is the Indirect Object proper, and some verbs take this object only.

(6) **The Infinitive** in this use is thus explained by James Harris:

It naturally coalesces with all those verbs that denote any *Tendency, Desire, or Volition of the Soul*, but not readily with others.

Thus it is sense as well as syntax, to say, *I desire to live*; but not to say, *I eat to live*. The reason is, that though *different Actions* may unite in the *same Subject*, and therefore be coupled together (as when we say, *He walked and discoursed*) yet the *Actions* notwithstanding remain separate and distinct. But it is not so with respect to *Volitions* and *Actions*. Here the coalescence is often so intimate, that the *Volition* is unintelligible, till the *Action* be

expressed. *I desire, I am willing, I want*—What? The sentences, we see, are defective and imperfect. We must help them, then, by *Infinitives*, which express the proper *Actions* to which they tend, *I desire to read, I am willing to learn, I want to see*. Thus is the whole rendered complete, as well in sentiment as in syntax.—*Hermes*. See also note from Gilmore, on page 50.

**Obs. 45.**—A series of infinitives may cause ambiguity even in a short sentence.

Thus, "Do you intend to come to help me work or to play?" may have any of the following meanings:

(1) Do you intend (to come to help me to work or to play), or do you not intend to?

(2) Do you intend to come (to help me to work or to play), or must I go to you?

(3) Do you intend to come to help me (to work or to play), or must I work or play alone?

(4) Is it to help me that you intend to come, or is it in order to work, or to play?

(5) Is it in order to help me to work that you intend to come, or is it in order to play?

(6) Is it in order to help me to work that you intend to come, or is it in order to help me to play?

Besides the above distinct meanings, there are numerous shades of difference, like the following:

(7) Do you intend to come to help me to work or to play, whichever I happen to be doing?

**Obs. 46.**—To distinguish the infinitive of purpose, *in order to* may be substituted for *to*, or the infinitive may be changed to a finite form introduced by *that*.

Thus, to express the third meaning in the sentence just given, we might say, "Do you intend to come in order to help me?" or "Do you intend to come that you may help me?"

**EXERCISE XXVIII.**—Point out the ambiguity in the infinitives following, and reconstruct the sentences so as to convey each meaning unmistakably.

*Example.*—"He said he wished to take his friend with him to visit the capital and to study medicine." Here it is doubtful whether the meaning is

He said that he wished to take his friend with him,

(1) and also to visit the capital and study medicine, or

(2) "that his friend might visit the capital and might also study medicine," or

(3) "on a visit to the capital, and that he also wished to study medicine."—ABBOTT.

He started to go to try to help him. To travel to Europe to seek to find how to learn to live to be comfortable is preposterous.

#### MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE.

The Predicate may be modified by (1) **Adverbs**, (2) **Preposition Phrases**, or (3) **Participle Phrases**.

**Obs. 47.**—**Adverbs** must be inserted with care to distinguish by their position which word they qualify.

Thus, Only the boy hit the bird; the boy only hit the bird; the boy hit the bird only.

**EXERCISE XXIX.**—Supply appropriate adverbs to the following sentences.

*Example.*—The lark sings merrily in the clear heavens.

The lark sings—in the clear heavens. Assistance was—given, and—received. The appearances of nature are—changing. The archer handled his bow—. The terrified animal rushed—through the arena. The orator declaimed—on his favorite topic. The lady was—attired. The boy was—warned of his danger. Men—pursue fortune. —soared the eagle. Bad habits are too—acquired. The moon shone—. The ship was driven—. The boy wrote his exercise—. Eliza dances—. Judge not—of your neighbor. He acted—to his promise. The soldiers were—attached to their general. Fortune does not—attend merit.

**Obs. 48.**—When modifying the predicate as a whole the adverb usually precedes the verb; or if the verb is

composite usually comes between the parts; but it must not separate the parts of the infinitive.

Thus, He carefully discriminated; He has carefully discriminated; He tried carefully to discriminate (*not, to carefully discriminate*).

The law of PRIORITY rests upon certain distinct and important considerations. The first is that, on the most general principle of construction, the qualification should precede the thing qualified. In our language, this is the usage with the adjective, and to a considerable extent with the adverb. Hence, if a qualification lies between two words, and is not specially excluded from the one that precedes, the mere principle of order would make us refer it to the one that follows: we always by preference look forward.

Another important circumstance connected with Priority is that a qualifying adjunct bears upon all that follows, until there is a break. It is not simply the word or phrase immediately following, but the entire group of circumstances up to the end of the sentence, or at least to a comma pause.—BAIN.

**Obs. 49.**—When emphatic, the adverb follows the verb; as, He left the room very slowly.

When the verb is a single word, if the adverb precedes the verb it will seem to modify the entire predicate, but if it follows the verb it will often seem to modify more especially the action. Thus, in the sentence, "Government naturally forms itself," the meaning is that it is a natural thing for government to form itself; while in the sentence, "Government forms itself naturally," the meaning is that government forms itself in a natural way.—DAY.

So in "He very slowly left the room" the emphasis is upon the *fact* of his leaving; in "He left the room very slowly," the emphasis is upon the manner of his leaving. The following sentence from Huxley is therefore faulty: "We falsely pretend to be the inheritors of their culture, . . . unless we are penetrated with an unhesitating faith," etc.

**Obs. 50.**—Though not wrongly placed as regards the words with which they are immediately connected, ad-

verbs may cause confusion at the end of a clause when followed by another clause beginning with a participle.

Thus, He left the room *very slowly* repeating his determination not to obey. Here ambiguity should be avoided by throwing the adverb back to its unemphatic position before the verb. Though it may be remedied by punctuation (see page 180), it is much better to make the arrangement clear in itself.

Compare, They seized on him suddenly making his way through the door.

In practice an adverb is often used to qualify a remote word where the latter adverb is more emphatic than any nearer word. This is very common where the adverbial modifier is placed in an emphatic position at the beginning of the sentence: "On this very spot our guide declared that Claverhouse had fallen."

**Obs. 51.**—When modifying a special word, the adverb should be placed next to it. (See examples on page 85.)

**Obs. 52.**—Nor must be connected with precisely the part of the sentence that is denied. This may be (i) the Subject, (ii) the Predicate, (iii) a Modifier of either subject or predicate.

Thus, (i) No mention was made of him; (ii) Mention was not made of him; (iii) Mention was made not of him but of his brother.

(1) *Denial of the Subject.*—(a) *Universal.*

There is a kind of negation or denial that the negative adverb does not meet, namely, *universal denial*; as may be shown thus. For a singular subject—"John," "the moon"—denial is easy and sure: "John is *not* here," "the moon is *not* visible." But when the subject is universal, the denial by this form is ineffective: "All the men are not here" is not a universal denial; it allows that some men may be here, it merely declares that some at least are wanting. In short it is only a partial denial. If we mean to neg-

ative the presence of all the men, to deny that any man is present, we need some other construction. We may attain the end by finding a word that is the negative of the predicate—"all the men are *absent*;" "all the heavenly bodies are *invisible*." The more usual way is to prefix "no" to the subject, thus: "No men are present;" "No heavenly bodies are visible." The negative by thus preceding the noun, comes into the position of the adjective, but we may still regard it as playing the part of an adverb.

This is the type of *universal denial*, and it is the most emphatic form of negation to be found in the language. Like all our strong effects, it is apt to be abused by being overdone. "He has no home" is a superfluous variety of "he has not a home," which puts the negative word to its proper function.

Our plural noun, without "all," has assumed the meaning of universality; hence we obtain a universal denial by the adverb in its proper place and character. "The men are *not* present," "the stars are *not* visible," "metals do not occur in the newer rocks." This is the mild form of universal denial; and, for ordinary purposes, it is quite sufficient. The other form should be reserved for occasions where there is need to deny with energy. "Men have *never* seen God," is substantially a universal denial. The strong form is "No man hath seen God at any time." Equally emphatic, without any license, would have been, "Never has any man seen God." The energy consists in placing the negative word first in the clause.

"No mere man, since the fall, is able in this life perfectly to keep the commandments of God;" "Since the fall, mere men are unable in this life——"

"No golf balls coming over these walls will be returned." "Golf balls——will not be returned."

"No dogs admitted," would be more tolerable in a form common enough—"no admittance to dogs." It would be sufficient, and therefore preferable, to say—"Dogs (are) not admitted."

"We shall get no farther relaxation of the rules;" "The rules will not be further relaxed for us."

"No degree of knowledge attainable by man is able to set him above the want of hourly assistance; and, therefore, no man should think it unnecessary to learn those arts by which friendship may be gained." "Any degree of knowledge attainable by man is unable to set him above the need of hourly assistance; hence every one should think it not unnecessary——"

"No knight in England could match King Henry VIII. in the tournament." "In the tournament Henry was not matched ([was] unmatched) by any knight in England."

"I have none in my possession," "I do not possess one."—BAIRD.

(β) *Partial*.—An error so common as almost to be an idiom substitutes a universal subject with a negative predicate for a partial subject and a positive predicate.

Thus, "All is not gold that glitters," implying literally that some is gold that does not glitter, has been corrected in rhetorics to "All that glitters is not gold." This means literally that nothing that glitters is gold, or, in other words, that gold never glitters. To express what the proverb intends, we must say "Not all that glitters is gold."

Campbell says :

"In negations it holds very generally that the negative particle should be joined to the verb. Yet in some cases the expression is greatly softened and consequently the denial appears more determinate by beginning the sentence with the adverb, 'Not every one,' says our Saviour, 'that saith unto me, Lord, Lord, shall enter into the kingdom of heaven, but he that doeth the will of my father who is in heaven.' Vary the position of the negative in the first member, and say, 'Every one that saith unto me Lord, Lord, shall not enter into the kingdom of heaven,' and you will flatten the expression exceedingly. On so slight a circumstance in the arrangement does the energy of a sentence sometimes depend."—*Rhetoric*, ii. 311.

Here it is assumed that "Not every one——shall enter" is the same statement as "Every one——shall not enter," while the meaning is widely different.

Find errors of this kind on page 82.

(II) *Denial of the Predicate*.—This is the most common form of negative sentences, and should be used whenever the emphasis is not upon a particular part of the sentence.

Thus, "No wonder, then, that one likes not to be ridiculed or laughed at."—CAMPBELL. This would imply that "not to be ridiculed" was a certain positive state or condition, like "not to be penniless," which is another form for "having some money about him." But the thought in mind is not of "not being ridiculed," but of "being ridiculed," and the assertion intended is, not that one *does* like "not being ridiculed," but that one does *not* like "being ridiculed." Hence the sentence should read, "No wonder, then, that one does not like to be ridiculed."

Again, "In this book, as in its predecessors, the author has aimed at being neither brilliant nor profound."—J. G. HOLLAND.

Mr. Holland would have expressed what he does say, only with more strength, had he said, "The author has aimed at being stupid and silly." What he meant to say was, not that he *had* aimed *not* to be brilliant, but that he had *not* aimed to *be* brilliant. The sentence should have read, "In this book, as in its predecessors, the author has not aimed at being either brilliant or profound."

Sometimes care in arrangement is needed to prevent ambiguity. Thus, "The cure for drunkenness is not to be ascetic." Here the *not* is intended to modify the verb, but may easily be taken to modify the last three words. The first meaning would be expressed by saying, "To be ascetic is not the cure for drunkenness;" the second by saying, "Not to be ascetic is the cure for drunkenness."

(III) *Denial of a Modifier*.—Here also errors are frequent.

Thus, "No allusion is meant or made to their face, but to their race."—R. G. WATTS. Here the connecting of the negative with the subject makes a universal negative,—there was no allusion at all. But the last clause shows that there was an allusion, only it was not to their face, but to their race. The sentence should therefore read, "Allusion was meant and made not to their face, but to their race."

Again, even Abbott, in his "How to Write Clearly," puts in heavy type the following useful rule: "In all styles, especially in letter-writing, a final emphasis must not be so frequent as to become obtrusive and monotonous." What he means is, "Not in any style, especially in letter-writing, must a final emphasis——," etc.

NEGATIVE PREFIXES.—It should be remarked that the prefixes un-, in-, etc., do not, as "not" does, extend over a conjunction to the next adjective, making it negative.

Thus, It was not safe or secure, means that it was not safe and not secure, but It was unsafe or secure, means that though not safe it was secure—an absurdity; though we might say It was unmoved or steadfast. Hence the error in the following sentence:

Regan and Goneri are the only pictures of the unnatural in

Shakspeare; the pure unnatural—and you will observe that Shakspeare has left their hideousness unsoftened or *disensitized* by a single line of goodness or common human frailty.—*COLUMBON.*

**EXERCISE XXX.**—Transfer the negation so as to bring out the meaning intended in the following sentences, explaining just what is meant by the words as they stand, and how the meaning is changed.

*Example.*—As written the statement is that all of them are inapplicable, while the meaning of the author is that some are applicable and some are not. Hence the predicate should be made positive, and the subject partial. “Not all the rules of Latin syntax can be applied to our language.”

All the rules of Latin syntax, it is true, cannot be applied to our language.—*BLAIR.*

Everything favored by good use is not on that account to be retained.—*CAMPBELL.*

But it ought carefully to be noted that every address, even every pertinent address to contempt, is not humorous.—*CAMPBELL.*

The result is not pleasant to us only because it fulfils our predictions, but because any other would have been productive of infinite mischief.—*The Spectator.*

Mr. Ris was not happy because Nature had ordained it so beforehand; . . . he was happy because, etc.

No essay should terminate very abruptly, nor too gradually.—*PARKER'S Exercises in English Composition.*

**Obs. 53.**—Double negatives in English no longer convey a negative sense.

In Anglo-Saxon, two negatives strengthened the negation, as in Greek. Even in Shakspeare we find many illustrations of this use.

I never was, nor never will be false,  
The man that hath no music in himself,  
Nor is not moved with concord of sweet sounds,  
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.  
This England never did, nor never shall  
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror.

Thackeray thus reproduces in a novel of the age of Queen Anne a usage then common:

And then she said that we must leave directly, and about my mamma,—she was captain of the business; but she wasn't never thinking of anything but father.—*ELMONT.*

“Wasn't never” and similar expressions are now expected only from the quite illiterate, but more subtle blunders are still not uncommon.

**EXERCISE XXXI.**—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—“— any more than velocity,” etc.

Popularity alone, therefore, is no test at all of the eloquence of the speaker, no more than velocity alone could be of the force of the external impulse originally given to the body moving.—*CAMPBELL.*

I won't never see you no more at no time.

He couldn't throw it over, no more than as if it had weighed a ton.

**Obs. 54.**—Negative sentences can be made affirmative in form by substituting a negative or obverse of the predicate.

Thus, “They are not here”—“They are gone elsewhere;” “No man is perfect”—“All men are imperfect;” “Matter is not self-moved”—“Matter is moved from without.”

This is an operation of great significance in logic, and not without importance in grammar; it is the mode of giving the reality apart from the form of negation, and should be familiar to those that are tracking out the varieties of English expression. General Havelock addressed the Indian army in these terms:

Soldiers, your labors, your privations, your sufferings, your valor, will not be forgotten (will be remembered) by a grateful country.

The negative form is here chosen for emphasis; it is the case that people are in a more energetic mood when denying than when affirming; denial implies an opponent to fight; affirmation not necessarily so.—*BADY.*

**EXERCISE XXXII.**—Transform the following negative into affirmative, and the following affirmative into negative sentences.

*Example.*—I fail to understand you.  
I do not understand you.  
She acted unbecomingly.  
He did not see through it accurately.  
The cars never swerved from the track.

**Obs. 55.**—**ONLY** should generally be placed before the word it is meant to qualify. But it should not separate two emphatic words, or be used where *alone* can be substituted.

Thus, not "Only Caesar came," where the meaning is, "Caesar came alone." If the meaning is, "Nobody but Caesar came," or "Nobody of any more consequence than Caesar came," with a somewhat contemptuous fling at Caesar's lack of importance, then "Only Caesar came," would be correct.

*On Postal Cards.*—The difficulty of properly placing the word only is shown in the history of the inscription on postal cards, which has been thus given :

The direction at first was, "Write the address only on this side." If only is read in connection with address, as intended, the meaning is clear; but if read in connection with *on this side*, it becomes ridiculous, for nobody would write the address on both sides.

Then: "Write the address on this side—the message on the other." But this seemed unnecessary, for any one accustomed to writing letters would put the address upon the same side with the stamp.

Finally: "Nothing but the address can be placed on this side." Of this it has been well remarked that the average school-boy knows better. He "can" place a good deal more than the address on that side, and he concludes that the authors of that statement had a more varied ability than the boy who couldn't tell a lie, for they have demonstrated that they can. (See page 73.)

Butter: "Place on this side nothing but the address."

At the beginning of a sentence, *only* is equivalent to *but*, as, "I don't like to importune you, *only* I know you'll forgive me." This may lead to ambiguity, as, "Help yourself to these oranges, *only* a dozen were eaten yesterday." According as one has a basket of oranges or a box, this may mean, I want to be generous, but you must remember that a dozen are gone already! or, I am afraid

they will not all be eaten; no more than a dozen are gone so far. In conversation the doubt would be removed by the emphasis, but in a letter it might lead to unfortunate mistakes.

The location of an adverb is one of the most perplexing details of composition. One must have a very well-trained and quick taste to decide upon it intuitively with uniform accuracy. Take, for example, the word "only," which is sometimes adverbial, and sometimes adjective, in its qualifying force. I select from Gibbon's History a sentence of moderate length, which contains the word. Observe how many distinct meanings may be obtained by simply sliding it gradually from the beginning to the end of the sentence.

First,

*Only* they forgot to observe, that, in the first ages of society, a successful war against savage animals is one of the most beneficial labors of heroes;

that is, they did some things well, but one thing not well—they forgot to observe, etc.

Secondly,

*They only* forgot to observe, etc.;

that is, either they were the only persons who did so; or, thirdly, they did not intentionally neglect the fact, they *only* forgot it.

Fourthly,

*They* forgot to observe that only in the first ages of society;

that is, there is but one period in the history of society in which the fact observed is true.

Fifthly,

*They* forgot to observe that, in the first ages only of society, etc.;

that is, it is not true in the ages preceding organized social life.

Sixthly,

*They* forgot to observe, that, in the first ages of society, only a successful war against savage animals, etc.;

that is, not war which is a failure.

Seventhly,

*They* forgot to observe, that, in the first ages of society, a successful war only against savage animals, etc.;

that is, not a war for their preservation.

## Eighthly,

They forgot to observe, that, in the first ages of society, a successful war against only savage animals, &c.;

that is, not a war against animals of domestic use.

## Ninthly,

They forgot to observe, etc., war against savage animals is only one of the most beneficial labors;

that is, there are other such labors of heroism.

## Tenthly,

They forgot to observe, etc., a successful war against savage animals is one of only the most beneficial labors of heroism;

that is, it is not to be deemed a labor of inferior worth; or,

## Eleventhly,

They forgot to observe, etc., that such a war is one of only the most beneficial labors of heroism;

that is, it is not to be regarded as a pastime.

## Twelfthly,

They forgot to observe, that, etc., is one of the most beneficial labors of heroism only;

that is, no virtue inferior to heroism is competent to the task.

Here are no less than twelve distinct shades of thought, not all of them elegantly, not all precisely, but all perspicuously expressed, with the aid of emphasis in the reading, by simply sliding one word from point to point from the beginning to the end of a sentence of twenty-four words.—PHELPS.

*Carelessness.*—The fact is, with respect to such adverbs as *only*, *wholly*, *at least*, and the rest of that tribe, that in common discourse the tone and emphasis we use in pronouncing them generally serves to show their reference, and to make the meaning clear; and hence we acquire the habit of throwing them in loosely in the course of a period. But in writing, where a man speaks to the eye and not to the ear, he ought to be more accurate, and so to connect those adverbs with the words which they qualify as to put his meaning out of doubt upon the first inspection.—BLAIR.

People who have practised composition as much and with as vigilant an eye as myself know also, by thousands of cases, how

infinite is the disturbance caused in the logic of a thought by the mere position of a word so despicable as the word "even."

The station of a syllable may cloud the judgment of a council.—DE QUINCY.

**EXERCISE XXXIII.**—Change the following sentences so as to convey the meaning intended.

*Example.*—I shall give only one sentence more on this head.

I shall only give one sentence more on this head.—BLAIR.

But though we were ten days in Naples I only saw one quarrel.—HOWELL.

A style of writing "which," as JUNIUS said of the character of Sir William Draper, "will only pass without censure when it passes without observation."—MOSE.

Existing laws on the subject of insanity are mainly judicial, legislatures not having been able to formulate a statute on the question, only in the most vague and indefinite manner.—*N. A. Review.* (Here either *not* should be omitted, or *only* should become *except*.)

He could only live in agitation; he could only breathe in a volcanic atmosphere.—ALMON.

When Napoleon's system of government became unfortunate alone, it was felt to be insupportable.—ALMON.

**Obs. 56.**—As and So are frequently misused.

*After Negatives.*—In the best usage, *so* is used after a negative in preference to *as*; thus, "I like him as well, but I do not like her so well." The negative may be only implied; as, "There are few that could do so much," which is equivalent to "There are not many that —."

Art may, in the execution, be as polished and delicate as nature; but in the design can never show herself so august and magnificent.—BLAIR.

*Mistaken for Conjunctions.*—Care must be taken to avoid the ambiguity of placing *as* where it might be either an adverb or a conjunction.

Thus, "For though they may appear as beautiful or strange," —ADMON. Here the meaning may be that they appear as beautiful or as strange as something else appears; or that they appear as beautiful or strange, and not as commonplace or familiar.

EXERCISE XXXIV.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—I did not think it so bad as that.

I did not think it as bad as that.

I have been as idle since, but never as happy.—*Edmond.*

He was not as prosperous or as contented.

She seemed as intelligent.

**Obs. 57.**—**At Least** is a phrase often used ambiguously.

Thus, "I think you will find my Latin exercises *at least* as good as my cousin's." Does this mean (1) "my Latin exercises, though not perhaps my other exercises," or (2) "though not very good, at least as good as my cousin's?" Write for (1) "At least my Latin exercises you will find;" for (2) "I think you will find my Latin exercises as good as my cousin's, at least."—*ANNOTT.*

(2) **Preposition Phrases.** (See page 50.)

(3) **The Participle Phrase,** when modifying the predicate, as when modifying the subject, is often a source of ambiguity unless carefully placed. Thus:

A Senior distinguished himself yesterday by killing a huge rat while sunning himself in the gutter on Lake Street.

Rev. Dr. Harris, sir, having been elected president by the unanimous vote of the boards of trustees and overseers of Bowdoin College, I come on their behalf to induct you, etc.—*Quoted by PHILLIS.*

Don't repeat anecdotes, good or bad. A very good thing becomes foolishness after hearing it several times.—*Don't: a Manual of Mistakes.*

Few need to be informed that one Herod caused to be slaughtered the babes of Bethlehem, commonly called "The Slaughter of the Innocents."—*Popular Rhetoric.*

*Found*—Evidently by mistake a package was put in my carriage while standing in Fayette Street, supposing it was left by my wife, but found it was not mine. The owner can have the same by calling at No. 6 State Place and proving property and paying for this advertisement. —*John Baynor.*

#### ARRANGEMENT OF PHRASES.

**An Absolute Phrase** should stand at the beginning of the sentence; as, The king being dead, a dispute arose as to the succession.

**NOTE V.**—*The absolute phrase is set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma.*

**Obs. 58.**—**Priority** among adverbial modifiers follows the general order of first those of Time, then those of Place, last those of Manner.

Thus, "Married, Sept. 8, 1883, in Syracuse, N. Y., by the Rev. S. S. Smith, Henry K. Wilkes and Emma F. Lane."

The law of **PRIORITY** rests upon certain distinct and important considerations. The first is that, on the most general principle of construction, the qualification should precede the thing qualified. In our language, this is the usage with the adjective, and to a considerable extent with the adverb. Hence, if a qualification lies between two words, and is not specially excluded from the one that precedes, the mere principle of Order would make us refer it to the one that follows; we always by preference look forward.

Another important circumstance connected with Priority is that a qualifying adjunct bears upon all that follows, until there is a break. It is not simply the word or phrase immediately following, but the entire group of circumstances up to the end of the sentence, or at least to a comma pause.—*BAIN.*

In poetry, and occasionally in impassioned prose, a series of adverbial modifiers may be accumulated before the verb; as,

High on a throne of royal state which far  
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,  
Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand  
Showers on her kings barbaric gold and pearl,  
Babai exalted sat.—*Paradise Lost.*



Deep in the shady softness of a vale,  
Far sunken from the healthy breath of morn,  
Far from the fiery sun and eye's own star,  
Sat grey-haired Saturn, quiet as a stone,—*Hippocra.*

Sometimes the sentences are beyond cure by mere re-arrangement, and demand rebuilding with new materials.

A new stone building has been erected at an expense of \$1,200 so as to divide the inmates into compartments.

After partaking of a hearty breakfast, the balloon was brought into town amidst the cheers of the inhabitants.—*Quoted by ALBROOK.*

**Obs. 59.**—Usually adverbial elements should be scattered, to make the sentence flow without pauses.

Thus, Helps describes a river as "flowing with equable current busily by great towns." He might have said, "with equable current flowing busily by great towns."

When the number of circumstances and qualifications to be included in the sentence is great, the most judicious course is neither to enumerate them all before introducing the idea to which they belong, nor to put this idea first and let it be remodelled to agree with the particulars afterward mentioned; but to do a little of each. Take a case. It is desirable to avoid so extremely direct an arrangement as the following:

We came to our journey's end, at last, with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads, and bad weather.

Yet, to transform this into an entirely indirect sentence would not produce a satisfactory effect; as witness:

At last, with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads, and bad weather, we came to our journey's end.

Dr. Whately, from whom we quote the first of these two arrangements, proposes this construction:

At last, after much fatigue, through deep roads and bad weather, we came, with no small difficulty, to our journey's end.

Here it will be observed that by introducing the words "we came" a little earlier in the sentence, the labor of carrying forward so many particulars is diminished, and the subsequent qualification

"with no small difficulty" entails an addition to the thought that is very easily made. But a further improvement may be produced by introducing the words "we came" still earlier; especially if at the same time the qualifications be rearranged in conformity with the principle already explained, that the more abstract elements of the thought should come before the more concrete. Observe the better effect obtained by making these two changes:

At last, with no small difficulty, and after much fatigue, we came, through deep roads and bad weather, to our journey's end.

This reads with comparative smoothness; that is, with less hindrance from suspensions and reconstructions of thought—with less mental effort.—*HARRIS STURGEON.* (See also pages 163, 164.)

**Obs. 60.**—In placing or scattering adverbial phrases, care must be taken not to separate the modifier so far from the word modified as to produce ambiguity.

**EXERCISE XXXV.**—Correct the use of modifiers in the following sentences (see also those on page 59).

*Example.*—*Rome once more ruled over the prostrate nations by the power of superstition.*

This may mean either of two things—(1) that Rome had at a former time ruled over the nations "by the power of superstition," and now resumed that power; (2) that Rome had formerly ruled over the nations by some other power—that of conquest, or of imperial influence—and now did so by a different power, that of superstition. The sentence, as it stands, most naturally bears the former construction. To convey the latter meaning it should stand thus: "Rome, by the power of superstition, once more ruled over the prostrate nations."

Martha Grant attempted to force the collection of twenty-five cents from Sally Jones for making a dress by the use of an axe and a saw.

Erected to the memory of John Phillips, accidentally shot as a mark of affection by his brother.

We should be employed in doing good to our fellow-men daily.

The highwayman not only robbed the gentleman, but even the lady.

Man not only desires to be loved, but to be lovely.

The Bostonians understood liberty at least as well as we.

We admit our total inability to remedy the evil sorrowfully.

To man has been given the power of speech only.

The menaces of his father sufficiently appear to repel these accusations.

They are men who wofully know how to die.

He almost found fault with every one, at all events of the poet's miser pieces.

Philosophers have been at a loss, to explain always the secret of the strange power, which patriotic taxes exercise over the artists of nations.

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## SECTION SECOND.

## COMPLEX SENTENCES.

**A Complex Sentence** is one in which a subordinate sentence is used either as the Subject, as the Object, as the Predicate, or as a Modifier. (For convenience, sentences in which one member begins with "if" are in this volume treated as Compound Sentences, though often considered Complex.)

Hence, the Subordinate Sentence must be one of three kinds: (1) a Noun Sentence, (2) an Adjective Sentence, or (3) an Adverb Sentence.

**NOTE.**—The Predicate may be made up of a Copula and a Noun Sentence; as, All things are not what they seem.

(1) **Noun Sentences** occupy the place and follow the construction of nouns, and may therefore be either (a) the Subject, (b) the Object, (c) the Indirect Object, or (d) the Predicate of the principal sentence. Though usually introduced by *that*, they sometimes begin without it.

Thus, (a) That a historian should not record trifles, is perfectly true.—MACAULAY. Whatever is, is right. That you have wronged me, doth appear in this.

(b) She knew that his heart was darkened with her shadow.—BYRON. I thought ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards, to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult.—BURKE. I perceive you feel the dint of pity.

(c) I was taught in my youth that to know how to wait is the secret of success.

(d) I am not what I used to be.

EXERCISE XXXVI.—Point out the Noun, the Adjective, and the Adverb sentences in the following exercise, and tell how each is used.

*Example.*—*She is eight years old*, is a noun sentence, used as the object of *said*.

She was eight years old, she said.

What you say is true.

The dog is where it ought to be.

What touches us ourselves shall be last served.

Yes! thy proud lands, unspilt land! shall see  
That man hath yet a soul.

That malice, no repentance, brought thee hither,  
Doth in this appear.

That is what I told you.

I fear our purpose is discovered.

That they are free, they know.

Man cannot cover what God would reveal.

That some one had blundered soon became apparent.

By my word, the foxes said,  
The riddle is already read.

You said the enemy would not come down.

That they escaped unhurt seems a miracle.

I trow they did not part in scorn.

EXERCISE XXXVII.—Fill the following blanks by inserting Noun Sentences:

Young people too often imagine —. I promise to do —.  
No one can deny —. It is easy to prove —. His excuse for not being present was —. A glance at the map of Europe will show us —. Time will discover —. Leaves are to plants —. His courage and success illustrate the proverb —. — has been called the golden rule. — requires no demonstration.

The king could not understand —. I am more willing to give —, than to ask —. — doth appear in this. When the trial is concluded, we shall know —. We believe —, and —. It has often been observed —. — is right. After the accident, the children gathered round their father, and asked —. He complains of our being late, but he did not tell us —. I have tried every means, but I cannot discover —. — is a traitor. Though we have sought him everywhere, we cannot tell —.

**Obs. 61.**—When the noun sentence is (a) a Direct Quotation, or (b) is preceded by an interrogative pronoun, no connecting particle is required.

Thus, (a) Buffon used to say, "Genius is patience." "Genius is common sense intensified," is another definition. (b) I know not who you are, or what you want.

**Obs. 62.**—Even when a speech is reported in the third person, it often adds life, and sometimes adds clearness, to omit the *that*.

Thus, "He said he took it ill," or, "He took it ill, he said," is better than "He said that he took it ill."

**Obs. 63.**—Dependent clauses introduced by *that* must be kept clear from those that are independent.

Thus, "He replied that he wished to go, and intended to get ready," may mean, "He replied . . . and he intended," or, "and that he intended."

EXERCISE XXXVIII.—Change the following passages from the Direct to the Indirect mode of speech.

*Example.*—I said within myself that I had behaved very ill, but that I had only just set out on my travels, and should learn better manners as I got along.

"I have behaved very ill," said I within myself; "but I have only just set out on my travels, and shall learn better manners as I get along."

"The virtue of prosperity," says Lord Bacon, "is temperance; the virtue of adversity is fortitude."

"I trust," said Lord Brougham, "that at length the time is come when Parliament will no longer bear to be told that slave-owners are the best law-givers on slavery."

"English ladies," says Erasmus, "are divinely pretty and too good-natured."

Cato the Censor concluded all his speeches in the Roman Senate with the words, "Carthage must be destroyed."

Agis, King of the Spartans, on being asked how many men he had, confidently replied, "Enough to put the enemy to flight."

When Alexander commanded the people to give him divine honors, the Spartans replied, "Since Alexander wishes to be called a god, let him be a god."

When Xerxes summoned the little army of Leonidas to lay down their arms, they retorted in scorn, "Let him come and take them."

On discovering the principle of specific gravity, Archimedes rushed out of his bath, exclaiming, "I have found it!"

Dr. Guillotin, in describing his beheading machine, afterward called the guillotine, said, "With my machine I whisk off your head in a twinkling, and you feel no pain."

When the Chesapeake was boarded by the crew of the Shannon, the gallant Captain Lawrence fell exclaiming, "Don't give up the ship!"

On reading Macaulay's "History of England," Sydney Smith remarked: "I wish I knew anything as well as Macaulay thinks he knows everything."

At Worms, as at Augsburg, Luther replied briefly: "I will retract when my doctrines are not merely declared to be false, but are proved to be so."

On seeing the formidable Chateau Gaillard rise, King Philip exclaimed in wrath, "I would take it, were its walls of iron." "I would hold it, were its walls of butter," was the defiant answer of King Richard.

"I cannot, my Lords," said the Earl of Chatham, "I will not join in congratulation on misfortune and disgrace. This, my Lords, is a perilous and tremendous moment. It is not a time for adulation; the smoothness of flattery cannot save us in this rugged and

awful crisis. It is now necessary to instruct the throne in the language of truth."

He said with great emphasis, "I assure you there is scarce a poet or historian among the Roman emperors."

"If it feed nothing else," said Shylock, "it will feed my revenge."

I would not have a slave to till my ground,  
To carry me, to fan me while I sleep.—*COWPER.*

I have had playmates, I have had occupations,  
In my days of childhood, in my joyful school days.—*LAKES.*

King Charles wrote to Prince Rupert in the following terms: "First, I must congratulate with you for your good successes, assuring you that the things themselves are no more welcome to me than that you are the means. I know the importance of supplying you with powder, for which I have taken all possible ways, and have sent both to Ireland and Bristol."

The Marquis rose and said: "Nor is it of the insufficiency of any future evidence only, that I complain. Even of the past I must express my fear that much must be obliterated, and the whole rendered obscure from the various lapses of time since it was delivered."

Mr. Burke said: "Let me for a moment quit my delegated character, and speak entirely from my personal feelings and conviction. I am known to have had much experience of men and manners—in active life, and amidst occupations the most various! From that experience I now protest, I never knew a man who was bad, fit for service that was good! There is always some disqualifying ingredient mixing and spoiling the compound."

Mr. Fox, assuming the language of the unfortunate prince, exclaimed: "I was the sovereign of a fertile country, happy and beloved; I endeavored to conciliate the friendship of all around me, and, as I thought, with a success which impressed me with every sensation of felicity. This was the situation of which I boasted; but what is now the reverse? I am a wretched exile, dependent on the bounty of those who were my enemies, but whose enmities are now buried in their sympathy for my distresses. What have I done to deserve this punishment?"

EXERCISE XXXIX.—Change the following sentences from the Indirect to the Direct form.

*Example.*—The sage magistrate said: “Beef is the king of meat; beef comprehends in it the essence of partridge, and quail, and venison, and pheasant, and plum-pudding, and custard.”

The sage magistrate said that beef is the king of meat; that beef comprehends in it the essence of partridge, and quail, and venison, and pheasant, and plum-pudding, and custard.

Before the great battle which closed his brilliant career, Nelson displayed his famous signal, that England expected every man that day to do his duty.

Douglas told Hotspur that he would carry his pennon into Scotland, and fix it on the tower of his Castle of Dalkeith, that it might be seen from far.

The Bruce kept looking at his weapon, which was injured by the force of the blow, and said that he had broken his good battle-axe.

Pompey told Lælius Sylla that it was vain to oppose him, for men worshipped the rising rather than the setting sun.

A short time before his death, Cardinal Wolsey said that if he had been as diligent to serve his God as he had been to please his king, He would not have forsaken him in his gray hairs.

Archimedes said that if a fulcrum and a point to stand on were given him, he would move the world with his lever.

Alexander the Great, on being asked why he did not contend in the Olympic Games, said that he would do so when he had kings for his competitors.

When Pyrrhus had shown the utmost fondness for his expedition against the Romans, Cynæus, his chief minister, asked him what he proposed to himself by the war. Pyrrhus said that he meant to conquer the Romans and reduce all Italy to his obedience. Cynæus asked, what then. Pyrrhus said that he would pass over into Sicily, and that then all the Sicilians must be their subjects. Cynæus asked what his Majesty intended next. The King replied that he meant to conquer Carthage and make himself master of all Africa. Then the minister asked what was to be the end of all his expeditions; and the King said that for the rest of

their lives they would sit down to good wine. Cynæus then asked if they could have better than they had then before them, or if they had not already as much as they could drink.

(2) **Adjective Sentences** occupy the place and follow the construction of adjectives (see page 25). They are all connected with the principal sentence by relatives, or such equivalent words as *when, why, how*, etc.; though when the relative is in the objective case it may be omitted without confusion; as, “The message you gave me I have told him.”

*And made us lose the good we oft might win.—Masters for Measure.*

Blair, criticising Addison, says: “In conclusion, instead of [it gives] *the things it represents*, the regularity of correct style requires *the things which it represents*.” But the sentence is better without the correction.

EXERCISE XL.—Fill the following blanks by inserting Adjective Sentences.

*Example.*—Alfred the Great was one of the wisest monarchs that have ever reigned.

Alfred the Great was one of the wisest monarchs— Botany is the science—. A metal — is said to be ductile. The earth — is a globe or sphere. The age — has been called the era of inventions. Elasticity is that property—. The man — shows prudence. The Nile is one of those rivers—. He received the reward—. The flowers — have all faded. Offices of trust should be conferred only on those—. Autumn is the season—. Trafalgar was the engagement—. France is the country, where—. The structure of the camel is wonderfully adapted to the countries—. The prisoner confessed the crimes—. The storm — passed away without harm. I should not like to be the man—. The house — has been burnt. I have often wished to revisit the place—. The clergyman — died yesterday at the very hour—. He could not have anticipated the fate—. The motives — are difficult to understand. John Wycliffe — died in 1384. We had not proceeded far when a shower over-

took us— The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle — was concluded in 1748. He—need not hope for that success—. The statement— does not agree with that—. They— cannot look for the protection of the government—.

**Obs. 64.**—In poetry and in colloquial prose the relative is sometimes omitted when a nominative.

Thus,

*"The distance lends enchantment to the view,  
And robes the mountain in its azure hue.—CAMPELL.*

**Obs. 65.**—A blunder as common as it is absurd is the insertion of *and* before adjective sentences. Thus:

The principal and distinguishing excellence of Virgil, and which, in my opinion, he possesses above all others, etc.—BLAIR.

**Obs. 66.**—A general rule for adjective sentences is to place the relative as near as possible to its antecedent. This is an application of the rule of proximity that,

**Obs. 67.**—Pronouns should follow the nouns to which they refer without the intervention of another noun.

Ambiguity from the neglect of this rule is shown in the following sentences (see others on pages 177-180):

King John of France was led in triumph through the streets of London by the Black Prince, the son of Edward III., who had defeated him, and taken him prisoner, at the battle of Poitiers.

Any one unacquainted with the historical facts would be doubtful, from the construction of this sentence, whether it was the Black Prince or his father that had taken John prisoner. The following arrangement would remove the ambiguity: "King John of France, who had been defeated and taken prisoner at Poitiers by the Black Prince, the son of Edward III., was led in triumph through the streets of London by his conqueror."

Many clergymen act so directly contrary to this method, that, from a habit of saving time and paper, which they acquired at the

university, they write in so diminutive a manner that they are hardly able to go on.—SWIFT. To the group of Dinosaurs belongs the Inquenadon of the Wealden beds, first made known by Dr. Mantelley, whose body was 28 to 30 feet long.—DANA.

When, however, one of two preceding nouns is decidedly superior to the other in emphasis, the more emphatic may be presumed to be the noun referred to by the pronoun, even though the noun of inferior emphasis intervenes. Thus: "At this moment the colonel came up and took the place of the wounded general. He gave orders to halt." Here *he* would naturally refer to *colonel*, though *general* intervenes. A conjunction will often show that a pronoun refers to the subject of the preceding sentence, and not to another intervening noun. "The sentinel at once took aim at the approaching soldier, and fired. He *then* retreated to give the alarm."—ANNOTT.

EXERCISE XII.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—This is a glorious scene, which cannot be surpassed. This is a glorious scene, and which cannot be surpassed.

In fact, scarcely anything of Milton's poetic diction has become obsolete, except some un-English words and phrases of his own coinage, and which failed to get admittance at all.—MARSH.

To head a sect, to infuse party-spirit, to make men arrogant, uncharitable, and malevolent, is the easiest task imaginable, and to which almost any blockhead is fully equal.—CAMPELL.

Find error in quotation from R. G. White, page 72.

I with my family reside in the parish of Stockton, which consists of my wife and daughters.—Quoted by ALDRICH.

The most interesting news from Italy is that of the trial of the thieves who robbed the bank of Messrs. Parodi, at Genoa, on May 1, 1862, in open daylight, which commenced at Genoa on the 5th.—Id.

A child was run over by a wagon three years old and cross-eyed with pantalets on which never spoke afterward.

A child eighteen months old tumbled into a well used to catch rain-water that fell headlong into the front area of the house and came near drowning, there being about two feet in the well.

—We have received a bunch of grapes from our friend Williams,

for which he will please receive our compliments, some of which are nearly two inches in diameter.

The hotel will be kept by the widow of the former landlord, Mr. Brown, who died last summer on a new and improved plan.

A Howard may look upon scenes with a stoical composure, nay with a seeming hard-heartedness, *which* at first dissolved him in tears.—*Good Words*.

Frank S. Fay, of Meriden, Conn., is busy picking out shot from his face: that was intended for a rabbit. His friend, E. C. Birney, who was hunting with him on Thursday, got Fay in range with the game.—*N. Y. Sun*.

Questions suggest themselves as to how the reporter knew that Frank Fay's face was intended for a rabbit, and how it became misplaced.

The committee would further recommend that the south room should have new furniture, as the rear seats have all the year been occupied by children that have no backs.

They lay down to rest behind their steeds, picketed to the wall which had accompanied them from the Volga to the Don.—*Auson*.

**Obs. 68.**—The antecedent must be either a noun, a pronoun, or an infinitive—never an adjective.

Thus sentences like the following are incorrect (see also page 94):

Some men are too ignorant to be humble, without which there can be no docility and no progress.—*Berkley*.

**Obs. 69.**—Awkwardness results when the antecedent is implied in a possessive case not close to the relative, especially if the possessive be a pronoun. Thus:

This way will direct you to a gentleman's house, that hath the skill to take off these burdens; better, to the house of a gentleman that hath skill, etc.

I am his first-born son that was the last  
That wore the imperial diadem of Rome.—*Titus Andronicus*.

**Obs. 70.**—Avoid constructions in which the relative may refer either to a noun in a preceding clause, or to the entire clause.

I have before remarked, and the remark deserves to be repeated, that nothing is a more certain sign of careless composition than to make such relatives as *which* not refer to any precise expression, but carry a lower and vague relation to the general strain of what had gone before.—*BLAIR*.

Thus:

There was a public house next door which was a great nuisance.

Here it is doubtful whether the obnoxious fact is the existence of the public house, or its position. This ambiguity is common after a negative. Thus:

He said that he would not hear me, which I confess I had expected.

Here the meaning may be either that I had expected or that I had not expected he would.

To avoid such ambiguity the antecedent should be repeated in some new form. Thus:

There was a public house next door, the proximity of which was a great nuisance; or,

There was a public house next door, the existence of which was a great nuisance.

He said that he would not even hear me, a favor I confess I had expected; or,

He said that he would not even hear me, a refusal I confess I had expected.

EXERCISE XLII.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*— — an accident which broke the gates down and alarmed the neighborhood.

At four o'clock yesterday morning a lot of wood piled in a shed at No. 144 Eastern Avenue, belonging to the B. Hub Co., fell down with a loud noise which broke the gates down and alarmed the neighborhood.

The ten high windows have been filled with colored glass, which lends a subdued religious radiance to the entire interior.



Precision imports pruning the expression so as to exhibit neither more nor less than an exact copy of his idea who uses it.—**BLAIR.**

**Obs. 71.**—When the relative is either implied (in a participle), or repeated, the antecedent must often be repeated also. Thus:

But if there were in any part of the world a national church regarded as heretical by four-fifths of the nation committed to its care; a church established and maintained by the sword; a church producing twice as many riots as conversions; a church which, though possessing great wealth and power, and though long backed by persecuting laws, had, in the course of many generations been found unable to propagate its doctrines, and barely able to maintain its ground; a church so odious that fraud and violence, when used against its clear rights of property, were generally regarded as fair play; a church whose ministers were preaching to desolate walls, and with difficulty obtaining their lawful sustenance by the means of bayonets—such a church, on our principles, could not, we must own, be defended.—(Quoted by **ABBOTT.**)

**Obs. 72.**—Avoid “the sin of *which*-craft”—the employment of *which* to introduce heterogeneous clauses. Every repetition of the relative introduces a new possibility of ambiguity. (See example, page 178.)

The following example, though perfectly grammatical, is felt to be very awkward: “The King marched from Exeter into Cornwall, *which* having pacified, he returned to Winchester.” Better “*which* he pacified; he *then* returned to Winchester;” or, “*and* having pacified *this* county, he returned.”

They leave us  
The dangers, the replies, judgments, wants;  
What how long will you bear?—**REX JONSON.**

A daring inversion. The relative is close upon the antecedent; but objection may be taken to the position of the interrogative word after it. Yet the infrequency of the construction gives it great emphasis; and we may regard it as a sudden and direct

rhetorical stroke for “*which* you will surely not bear much longer.”

So glister'd the dire snake, and into front  
Laid Ege, our crested mother, etc.  
*Which* when she saw, thus to her guide she spake.

The Latin construction *Quæ quoniam*, etc., is apt to get translated in this form, which is not common, and should not be encouraged.—**BAIN.**

**EXERCISE XLIII.**—Correct the following sentences:

The sharks who prey upon the inadvertency of young heirs are more pardonable than those who trespass upon the good opinion of those who treat them upon the foot of choice and respect.—*Guardian.*

One may have an air which proceeds from a just sufficiency and knowledge of the matter before him, which may naturally produce some motion of his head and body, which might become the bench better than the bar.—*Guardian.*

The Earl of Falmouth and Mr. Coventry were rivals *who* should have most interest with the duke, *who* loved the earl best, but thought the other the wiser man, *who* supported Pen (*who* obliged all the courtiers), even against the earl, *who* contemned Pen.—**LORD CLARENDON'S Life.**

**Obs. 73.**—The relative should be *who* or *which* where the meaning is *and he*, *and it*, etc., *for he*, *for it*, etc.; otherwise it should be *that*, if euphony allows.

There is a marked distinction between adjective sentences where the relative *who*, etc., is divisible into the demonstrative with some conjunction, *and he*, *for he*, etc., and where the relative is indivisible.

The divisible relative merely introduces an additional fact, and the sentence it introduces may be omitted without changing the essential statement. Thus:

There were very few passengers who escaped without serious injury.

Here the meaning depends upon whether *who* may be resolved into *and they*. If it may be, the sentence may read:

There were very few passengers, and they escaped without serious injury.

In the best usage, this meaning would be expressed by the sentence as originally written.

But if the *who* may not be so resolved, the *who* should be *that*, and the sentence means that nearly all of the passengers were injured:

*There were few passengers that escaped without serious injury.*

This distinction in the use of *that* and of *who*, or *which*, is so closely associated with the question of inserting or omitting a comma before the relative clause, that we have treated it at length under the head of Punctuation (see pages 175-179).

**Obs. 74.**—Adjective sentences may often be improved (a) by Resolution of the Relative, (b) by Composition of the Relative, or (c) by Inversion.

Thus, (a) He was a hero, who never flinched. For *who*, substitute *and he*. (Omit the comma, and this resolution cannot occur. See page 175.)

(b) The time drew near at which the Houses must reassemble.—MACAULAY. For *at which*, substitute *when*.

(c) The man who wants food is desperate. Read, In want of food, a man is desperate.

**Obs. 75.**—Relative clauses may often be condensed into adjectives or participles.

Thus, for "The wind which never ceases," we may have "The never-ceasing wind."

(3) **Adverb Sentences** take the place of and follow the construction of an adverb (see page 76). They may describe Place, Time, Manner, or Cause. They usually modify the Predicate. Thus:

*Their votes flew,  
No man's tolls or whither.*—COWLEY.

When I said I should die a bachelor, I did not think I should live till I were married.—*Much Ado about Nothing.*

**EXERCISE XLIV.**—Fill the following blanks by inserting adverb sentences.

*Example.*—He had just completed his work when his life ended.

He had just completed his work— It was not known— until—  
We are often beset by temptation— The righteous shall flourish—  
Government has offered a reward for the rebel— He will succeed—  
The evils of war are great— The king fitted out an expedition—.

**Obs. 76.**—Adverb sentences are sometimes abbreviated, either by omitting the verb, or by changing the verb into a participle. Thus:

When young he learned Hebrew, and though he afterward forgot it all, he died repeating the 23d Psalm.

The participial adverb phrase must be carefully distinguished from the participial adjective phrase (see page 48). It is necessary only to remember that the adjective always modifies a noun or pronoun, while the adverb never modifies a noun. In the sentence thus given the last four words do not describe the person, but they tell how he died, and therefore perform the function of an adverb.

**Obs. 77.**—It is in the construction of complex sentences that one has occasion most frequently to recall the principle that a sentence should not end with an unemphatic word.

Thus, "The evidence proves how kind to his inferiors he is," should read, "The evidence proves how kind he is to his inferiors."

**EXERCISE XLV.**—Improve the following sentence.

*Example.*—In my neighborhood, yesterday, while I was preaching, a young woman died in a beastly state of intoxication.

A young woman died in my neighborhood, yesterday, while I was preaching in a beastly state of intoxication.

**Obs. 78.**—Like all other sentences, a complex sen-

tence must have one, and only one principal subject of thought.

The leading editorial article of the *New York Herald* of September 28, 1881, certainly intended to represent the best literary work of which that journal was capable, began thus:

With the burial by the lake side among the maples adjoining with their autumnal changes, which abound in the most beautiful city of that vast Western valley of which he was the chief, the ceremonies of the memorial week since President Garfield's death have come to a close, and the people return to the ordinary tenor of their occupations.

Not to speak of the doubt resulting from the position of *which* as to whether it is the maples or the *changes* that abound (see page 102), the whole adjective clause introduced by *which* is unfortunate, because it distracts attention from the main idea. It has no special bearing upon General Garfield's funeral that maples are abundant in Cleveland, or that Cleveland is the most beautiful city of that valley, or that the valley itself is vast. To a majority of the readers of that journal these three statements are unfamiliar, and bring the momentary surprise of new facts. One of the three, that Cleveland is the most beautiful city, is a question of judgment, and in many minds absorbs all the interest of the sentence. Hence the unity of the sentence is destroyed. There is not one principal subject of thought, but there are two, three, four, according as these three statements are familiar and accepted.

Again:

Three or four centuries before the Christian era, on that vast territory comprised between the Ocean, the Pyrenees, the Mediterranean, the Alps, and the Rhine, lived six or seven millions of men a bestial life, enclosed in dwellings dark and low, the best of them built of wood and clay, covered with branches of straw, made in a single round piece, open to daylight by the door alone, and confusedly heaped together behind a rampart, not architecturally composed, of timber, earth, and stone, which supported and protected what they were pleased to call a town.—Masson's *Outline of the History of France*.

The inversion of *lived* is unfortunate, to begin with, and the relations of the subsequent clauses are as difficult to trace as those of the children in a family when a widower marries his step-mother. What was enclosed in dwellings dark and low—the men or their life? "The best of them built," etc., undoubtedly refers to dwellings, and it was the dwellings that were covered with branches of straw, but it must have been the branches of straw that were made in a single round piece. No; whatever was made in a single round piece had a door in them, and that must have been the dwellings, which were also heaped. But it was the rampart that was composed; it must have been the timber, earth, and stone that supported, and it was they who called the collection a town. If we have the following subjects, all in one sentence:

|                              |            |
|------------------------------|------------|
| Six or seven millions of men | —lived.    |
| " " " " (probably)           | —enclosed. |
| Dwellings                    | —dark.     |
| "                            | —low.      |
| " (the best of them)         | —built.    |
| " " " " "                    | —covered.  |
| " " " " "                    | —made.     |
| " " " " "                    | —open.     |
| " " " " "                    | —heaped.   |

Support. —composed, —supported. They (six or seven millions of men) —were pleased to call.

Here one subject and one predicate have 4 modifiers of the second class, 13 of the third class, 22 of the fourth class, 11 of the fifth class, 21 of the sixth class, 7 of the seventh class, and 3 of the eighth class. Think of a sentence having 21 modifiers of modifiers of modifiers!

Once more:

Knowing on the one side so well the distinguished and masterly speakers who, in your pleasant profit and in their own substantial fame, had perched me upon the stage of perfect speech and purest song, and had made this station at once a high honor and a tall-fraught duty; and knowing upon the other side even better at once my native inability to stand a pair of such famous forerunners, and also the stern, distracting pressure of clamor and incessant work in this fresh field and amid a thousand thought-troubling circumstances which made adequate preparation for me an insuperable impossibility, I had twice felt it my plain duty to put away from me the delightful labor and the tempting request.—REV. JOHN I. MACLEOD, D.D., *Oration on "The White Swoosh of Pulsatilla Words."*

Here, out of one hundred and twenty-one words, twenty-one are qualifying adjectives. The speakers are distinguished and masterly; the profit is pleasant; this stage is of speech and song; and the speech is perfect, the song purest. This station is (predicatively) not only an honor and a duty, but a high honor, and a tall-fraught duty. The speaker's inability is native, his fore-runners, though already called distinguished and masterly, must be referred to as famous, his pressure is stern and distracting, his work is clamorous and incessant, his field is fresh, and his thousand circumstances are thought-troubling. Preparation is for him so meaningless that he lacks adequate upon it, and impossibility is so slight an obstacle that to give it force he puts before it insuperable. His duty is plain, his labor is delightful, the request is tempting. His first definition in etymology would be:

Stanza: A dummy to hang adjectives upon.

Now, to find fitting adjectives to cover the supposed richness of all these nouns (as some conceited reformers would envelop the Apollo Belvedere in a fluid idea), requires both a broad vocabulary and a discriminating judgment. The author lacks both, or he would never talk of *pleasant profit* and *insuperable impossibility*. *Nice* is work harder in a field because it is fresh. What he means is that the field is *unconventional*.

No heavier burden can fall upon a would-be orator than to establish a sort of ideal rhythm and conform his ideas to it, instead of letting his ideas determine the form of their expression. The same false taste that leads the author to insert superfluous adjectives, leads him to double his phrases. In this one sentence he sees even to *pure profit* and to *their fame*; *perfect speech* and *purest song*; *high honor* and *tall-fraught duty*; *stern pressure* and *thought-troubling circumstances*; *delightful labor* and *tempting request*. This results, as it always must, in nonsense. Take the last pair, for instance, which comes first, the request or the labor? To gratify an unhealthy rhythmical taste, the speaker falls into an absurd anti-climax.

Again, look at the arrangement. "Knowing on the one side so well the distinguished speakers"—which side does he know them on, the right side or the left side, the outside or the inside? Manifestly the phrases on the one side should have begun the sentence, instead of being thrown between knowing and its object. So again, upon the other side even better or ever—what an array of adverbs, which might easily be distributed.

But we cannot go into further details. The sentence is a comprehensive embodiment of the worst errors in composition, and may be studied with abundant profit.

## TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

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## SECTION THIRD.

### COMPOUND SENTENCES.

**A Compound Sentence** contains two or more principal and co-ordinate assertions; as, I came, saw, conquered.

NOTE.—For convenience, "if" sentences, often called complex, are here treated as compound.

**Obs. 79.**—The members of a compound sentence must have a natural and perceptible connection in thought.

Thus, The procession was very fine, and nearly two miles long, as was also the report of Dr. Perry, the chaplain.

Here the reporter mentally connected the procession and the report by thinking of them both as *fine*, and endeavoring to say so. But, except as an expression of approval, the adjective *fine* has no common application to a procession and to a report, and though no ambiguous clause intervened, the members of the sentence would be incongruous. The last clause should therefore be a separate sentence, something like this: The report of Dr. Perry, the chaplain, was able and comprehensive.

He expired, . . . having enjoyed, by the benefit of his regimen, a long and healthy life, and a gentle and easy death.—*Jourdain's Life of Marion*.

This extraordinary person not only enjoyed his death, but first died and then expired.—*HALL*.

At the upper Methodist conference, at Marion, the other day, the Rev. B. W. Crates, in making a report of his stewardship, said he had passed three very successful and pleasant years at Le Clair, having had an unusual number of funeral services during that time.—*Worcester City Journal*.

Of course judgment will differ as to whether the connection of thought in two sentences is sufficient to warrant their combination into one. For instance :

I am an early riser, but my wife is a Presbyterian.—A. WARR.

"Have you ever been much at sea?"

"Why, no, not exactly: but my brother married a royal-captain's daughter."

"Were you ever abroad?"

"Why, no, not exactly; but my mother's maiden name was French."

Marshal Soult was accustomed to say of a Spanish painting which he had compelled two persons to surrender on pain of death: "That picture I value highly; it saved the lives of two persons." This is almost equal to the school-boy's statement in a composition, that pins have saved the lives of a good many people; being asked how, he replied, "By their not swallowing them."

Prisoner at the bar, nature has endowed you with a good education and respectable family connections, instead of which you go around about the country stealing docks.

A Western paper announced as follows: "Mr. Maguire will, wash himself before he assumes the office of sheriff." This made Maguire angry, and he demanded a retraction, which the paper made thus: "Mr. Maguire requests us to deny our statement that he will wash himself before he assumes the office of sheriff." Oddly enough, this only enraged Maguire the more. Some people are so hard to please.

It is not the form of the compound sentence that makes the inconsecutiveness of two thoughts manifest. This may be just as marked in successive single sentences. Thus:

One of the passengers on the ill-fated *Metta*, at the time of the disaster, was an exceedingly nervous man, who, while floating in the water, imagined how his friends would regret his loss. Bored at last, he rushed to the telegraph office and sent this message: "Dear P—, I am saved. Break it gently to my wife!"—*Springfield Republican*.

The Hon. Newton Bateman, LL. D., has accepted the presidency of Knox College, Galesburg, Ill., but will not enter upon its duties till near the close of the academic year. This gives great satisfaction to the friends of the college.—*College Courier*.

The church was created during the ministry of the Rev. Ellis Whitcomb; and the dedication sermon was preached February 12, 1866. It was sixty feet in length and fifty-four in breadth.—*Newspaper in Salem, Me.*

A young lady went to a drug store for a prescription.

"How much?" she asked.

"Fifty cents," said the clerk.

"But I have only forty-five cents with me," replied the customer; "can't you let me have it for that?"

"No, ma'am," said the clerk, "but you can pay me five cents when you come in again."

"But suppose I were to die?" said the lady, jealously.

"Well, it wouldn't be a very great loss," was the smiling response.

The smiling clerk gathered from the indignant frown on the lady's face that he had been misunderstood, but before he could assure her that it was the little balance that would be no great loss, she was beyond the sound of his voice.

EXERCISE XLVI.—Resolve the following sentences into simpler ones, so far as necessary to preserve unity of thought.

*Example.*—The dog, which had previously bitten his wife, died on the Monday following.

The dog had previously bitten his wife, and on the Monday following it died.

The town farm-house and alms-house have been carried on the past year to our reasonable satisfaction, especially the alms-house, at which there have been an unusual amount of sickness and three deaths.

Any person driving over this bridge in a faster pace than a walk shall, if a white person be fined five dollars, and if a negro, receive twenty-five lashes, half the penalty to be bestowed on the informer.

Wanted, by an apothecary, an assistant to take an interest in a small first-class trade and in a quiet family.

Even Mrs. H. B. Stowe, in her great work, "Uncle Tom," and in other writings, uses this phrase incessantly, and although, perhaps, not exactly a model of composition, her authority is of some weight, as she puts it into the mouth of educated as well as of illiterate people.—SCHEELE IN VERE.

Chaucer seems to affect monosyllabic rhymes in verse, and indeed seldom employs double ones, unless we count as such words in a final, which perhaps we should do, for there is no doubt but this letter was sounded in Chaucer's time, as it is now in the cognate languages and in French verse.—MANSIE.

There are a great many different kinds of trees, some furnishing us with wood for common purposes, such as flooring for our houses and frames for the windows, while others afford us more beautiful wood, which, when polished, is made into tables and chairs and various articles of furniture.

Boast not thyself of to-morrow, for thou knowest not what a

day may bring forth; and for the same reason, despair not of tomorrow, for it may bring forth good as well as evil; which is a ground for not vexing thyself with imaginary fears; for the black cloud, which is regarded with so much dread, may pass harmlessly by, or may find thee, before it breaks, the tenant of that lowly mansion which no storms can touch.

The Britons, daily harassed by the Picts, were forced to call in the Saxons for their defence, who, after having repelled the invaders, turned their arms against the Britons themselves, drove them into the most remote and mountainous parts of the kingdom, and reduced the greater part of the island under their dominion, so that in the course of a century and a half the country became almost wholly Saxon in customs, religion, and language.

Last year a paper was brought here from England, called "A Dialogue between the Archbishop of Canterbury and Mr. Higgle," which we ordered to be burned by the common hangman, as it well deserved, though we have no more to do with His Grace of Canterbury than you have with the Archbishop of Dublin, when you rarely suffer to be abused openly and by name by that paltry rascal of an observer; and I lately upon an affair wherein he had no concern; I mean the business of the missionary of Drogheda, wherein an eminent prelate was engaged, and did nothing but according to law and discretion. — SWIFT.

The usual acceptation takes Profit and Pleasure for two different things, and not only calls the followers or votaries of them by the several names of *Busy* or *Life men*, but distinguishes the faculties of the mind that are conversant about them, calling the operations of the first *Wisdom*, and of the other *Wit*; which is a *Latin* word, used to express what the Spaniards and Italians call *Capacità*, and the French *Esprit*, both from the Latin; though I think *Wit* more particularly signifies that of *Poetry*, as may occur in remarks in *Bunio* language. — BEN WILLIAM TENNENT.

To this succeeded the *Revolutions* which entered with the *R* restoration, and from infecting our religion and morals fell to corrupt our language (which last was not likely to be much improved by those who at that time made up the court of King Charles the Second; either such who had followed him in his banishment, or who had been altogether conversant in the dialect of those fanatic times, or young men who had been educated in the same company); so that the court (which had used to be the standard of propriety and correctness of speech) was then (and, I think, hath ever since continued) the worst school in England for that accomplishment; and so will remain till better care be taken in the education of our young nobility, that they may set out into the world with some foundation of literature in order to qualify them for patterns of politeness. — SWIFT.

**Obs. 80.**—In the members of a compound sentence the construction must not be changed without good reason.

EXERCISE XLVII.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—I should have sent the brooches before, but have been unwell.

The brooches would have been sent before, but have been unwell.—*Note from Jeweller to Dean Axford.*

Mrs. A.'s compliments to Mrs. B., and begs to say that C. lived with her a year and found her respectable, steady, and honest.

B. C. begs to apologize for not acknowledging P. O. order at the time (but was from home), and thus got delayed, misplaced, and forgotten.

Gentlemen's materials made up and waited on at their own homes.—*Tailor's Advertisement.*

It requireth few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire.—SWIFT.

A Methodist church in Baltimore advertised that it would pay ten dollars reward "for the apprehension and conviction of the person or persons who defaced the parsonage steps, or for any mutilation of church property."

Tickets once nipped and defaced at the barriers, and the passengers admitted to the platform, will be delivered up to the company in the event of the holder subsequently retiring, and cannot be recognized for readmission. (Here if "having admitted passengers" be substituted for "the passengers admitted," the subject will be the same throughout, and though the sentence will be awkward it will be perspicuous.)

The following story went the round of the German papers: On the morning of the recent eclipse Capt. von S —, of the — Fusiliers, issued the following verbal order to his company, through his Sergeant-Major, to be communicated to the men after forenoon parade:

This afternoon a solar eclipse will take place. At 3 o'clock the whole company will parade in the barrack yard. Fatigue jackets and caps. I shall explain the eclipse to the men. Should it rain, they will assemble in the drill shed.

The Sergeant-Major, having set down his commanding officer's instructions in writing, as he had understood them, formed the company into hollow square at the conclusion of the morning drill, and read his version of the order to them, thus:

This afternoon a solar eclipse will take place in the barracks yard by order of the Captain, and will be attended by the whole company, in fatigue jackets and caps. The Captain will conduct the solar eclipse in person. Should it rain, the eclipse will take place in the drill shed.—*N. Y. Sun.*

**Obs. 81.**—Correlative conjunctions, as where *not only* precedes *but*, *but also*, or *but even*, should each be followed by the same part of speech.

Thus, "The sportsman was not only hunting all the morning, but all the afternoon," should read, "The sportsman was hunting not only all the morning, but all the afternoon."

EXERCISE XLVIII.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—I estimated myself neither high nor lowly.

I neither estimated myself high nor lowly.—*DE QUINCY.*

He not only gave me advice but also help.

Lothair was unaffectedly gratified at not only receiving his friends at his own castle, but under these circumstances of intimacy.—*DUNNELL.*

He not only spoke forcibly but tastefully, and not only this, too, before a small audience, but in a large public meeting also, and not only were his speeches successful, but also worthy of success.

You are not obliged to take any money which is not gold or silver; not only the halfpence or farthings of England, but of any other country.—*SWIFT.*

Aristotle would be, indeed, the sorriest plagiarist on record, were the thefts believed of him by his Oxford votaries not false only, but ridiculous.

Psychical states that often recur in a given order not only become increasingly coherent, but the transitions from each to the next become more rapid.

Because here the similitude is not only pleasant, but the pattern more perfect.—*BLAIR.*

This class is believed to be not only very limited in number, but of this number very few ever commit capital crime.—*N. A. Review.*

Would neither have been so neat nor so clear as it is by the present construction.—*BLAIR.*

Because we neither know the nature of our own ideas nor of the soul.—*BLAIR.*

A petty constable will neither act cheerfully or wisely. (A double mistake: neither must always be followed by *nor*.)

By greatness I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of the whole view.—*ADDISON.*

They will, too, not merely interest children, but grown-up persons.—*Westminster Review.*

Their language frequently amounts not only to bad sense, but nonsense.—*Kirkham's Grammar.*

For position of the adverb *not*, when alone, see page 78.

**Obs. 82.**—In general, only the same parts of speech should be united by conjunctions in the same construction.

Thus, Campbell says: "Personal relations are of various kinds. They are consanguinity, affinity, friendship, acquaintance, being fellow-citizens, countrymen, of the same name, religion, occupation, and innumerable others." Here we have first four abstract nouns; then a participle followed by (1) two class nouns, (2) three preposition phrases, and finally a pronoun. The sentence is not an easy one to reconstruct, but the following form escapes the violation of unity:

*They are of consanguinity, affinity, friendship, acquaintance, citizenship, nationality, surname, religion, occupation, and innumerable others.*

EXERCISE XLIX.—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—Their success or failure indicated, etc.

Their success or otherwise indicated, etc.—*Westminster Review.*

His style is awkward and slovenly, that of his antagonist remarkably terse and clear, and bearing witness to a sensitiveness of ear and taste which are glaringly deficient in his opponent.—*Westminster Review.*

We saw it thrown through the window and flat on the ground.

She was a woman of taste, and wearing a green velvet dress.

The fact is well known and obvious.

**Obs. 83.**—The use of "*And*" indicates that the new statement is superadded to, and distinct from, the pre-

vions; its omission, usually that the new statement is in substance the same as the previous, or a mere varying of the expression.

Thus, "Ideas quickly fade, and often vanish quite out of the understanding," would be better, "Ideas quickly fade; they often vanish quite out of the understanding."

He was deeply conversant with the sciences, both Greek and Latin, and he borrowed boldly from them; there is scarce a poet or historian among the Roman authors whom he has not translated in Senanus and Cællius.

The *and* in the first member is strictly correct; borrowing boldly is a fact additional to being conversant with. Equally proper is the omission of the conjunction at the commencement of the second member, which repeats in greater detail the same act of borrowing.—BAIN.

The mechanism of sentences may admit energy farther by the conscious use or omission of the conjunctive beginning. I have just observed that the word "and" probably begins more sentences in the productions of inexperienced writers than any other in the language. This act gives impetus to intelligent criticism of all forms of conjunctive beginning. Let it be observed, then, that the conjunctive beginning is forcible if the succession of thought requires it. Often it does so. Something is needed to express or to hint the fact of continuity. The idea of inference, or of other sequence, or of qualification, or of contrast, is to the point. Instinctively, then, you link sentence to sentence by beginning the second of the two with "but" or "and," or an adverbial term which has a conjunctive effect, like "yet" or "nevertheless." What is the exact force of the conjunctive beginning? It is to bridge over the period preceding. Sometimes energy requires that.

But without such demand of thought, the conjunctive beginning is meaningless, and therefore vague. Had you never heard an inferior conversationalist begin sentences after sentences with the corrupt formula "and or"? That indicates momentary vanity of mind. The speaker is on the hunt for something to say. The "and-or" has no conjunctive force. Not even in a score of times does the conversation demand a reminder of what went before. This mongrel expression is only an interjectional expletive, by which the speaker holds on to the right of utterance while his mind is exploring. To compare it with a thing on a level with it in dignity, it is like a travelling bag which you leave to represent you when for a moment you leave your seat in a rail-car. Precisely such is the needless use of the conjunctive beginning in written discourse. In the succession of thought it has no conjunctive force. Therefore style it is not. It is language not freighted by sense.

Oral delivery may be sadly weighted by the conjunctive beginning. Punctuation may remedy it to the eye in print; but, orally delivered, such sentences have their only sign of separation. The period is bridged over when you do not mean it, and your style runs together. Two, even three, possibly four, short sentences, which for force of utterance ought to be short, and ought to be uttered with crisp delivery, are stretched into one long one; made long by that most flattering expedient of composition, a mechanical coupling of ideas. The conjunctive beginning, therefore, should be intelligently used. Use it

when you mean it. Drop it when it is only the sign of variance. Common idioms require you to connect a *ya*va.—FIRELLE.

**Obs. 84.**—Avoid the use of "*Or*" where there is neither disjunction nor alternation.

Thus, "This angelic coronet shed light alike upon the chambers of a cottage or a palace." Here the use of *alike* shows that the cottage and the palace are united in the idea,—not contrasted. The sentence should read, "The angelic coronet shed light alike upon the chambers of a cottage and a palace."

Again, "Notwithstanding all the attempts which have been made to explain this away or even to turn it to the poet's credit, it is surely a great defect in him."

Here, if the author intends to produce emphasis by the use of *or even*, he might say, "to explain this away, nay more, to turn it to the poet's credit."

Had the first clause been negative, *nor even* would have produced emphasis. In the following quotations from Shakspeare (the obsolete double negative having been removed), it will be seen that *nor even* is a much stronger expression than *and never*.

I never was, nor ever will be false.  
This England never did, nor ever shall,  
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror.

But this emphasis does not extend to *or even*.

"Passengers are cautioned *not* to open a carriage door *or* to put their heads out of the windows, when the train is in motion." The placing of *not* here commands both infinitives, as is meant. But *or* is an awkward and unmanageable word; it supposes a preceding *either*, and does not tally well with a previous *not*. Better to repeat the *not*, or else make it *neither* and *nor*: *not* to open a carriage door, *and not* to put their heads; " *neither* to open, *nor* to put." Otherwise: "While the train is in motion, passengers should *neither* open the carriage doors, *nor* put their heads out of the windows."—BAIN.

EXERCISE L.—Correct the following sentences.

Example.—"— arising from our hopes and our fears."

All that part of our happiness arising from our hopes or our fears depends on imagination.



**Obs. 85.**—Make it always clear whether “*Or*” is used alternatively or disjunctively.

In its alternative use *or* introduces a synonymous or explanatory expression; as, “He is a lieutenant, or subordinate officer.” In its disjunctive use, it introduces a contradictory expression; as, “He is a lieutenant or a captain.”

It will be noticed that in its disjunctive use, *or* is followed by the article repeated. Campbell’s rule is as follows: ‘If the first noun follows an article, or a preposition, or both, the article or the preposition, or both, should be repeated before the second, when the two nouns are intended to denote different things; and should not be repeated when they denote the same thing. If there be neither article nor preposition before the first, and if it be the intention of the writer to use the particle *or* disjunctively, let the first noun be preceded by *either*, which will infallibly ascertain the meaning. On the contrary, if, in such a dubious case, it be his design to use the particle as a copulative to synonymous words, the piece will rarely sustain a material injury by his omitting both the conjunction and the synonyma.’

Bain gives several illustrations, as follows:

In a sentence already quoted (page 120) there occurs the phrase—“there is scarce a poet or historian among the Roman authors.” The weakening effect of the use of *or* for synonymous phrases is felt here. But for our knowledge of the meanings, we might easily suppose that *poet* and *historian* were two names for the same person or class. To bring out the alternation of meaning or subject, we must say, “scarcely either a poet or a historian;” “scarcely a Roman author, either poet or historian.” Or put in positive form—“nearly all the Roman authors, poets and historians alike.”

“They who have no real feeling always pitch their expressions too high or too low.” The *or* is inadequate to the occasion. There is an alternative contrast amounting to opposition. Say, “either too high, or else too low.” More decided thus: “They that want real feeling never pitch their expressions at the right point; they are either too high, or else too low.”

“The thing was done by force or fraud.” If *force* and *fraud* are

to be marked out as two distinct facts, one of them (and not the other) being the instrument assigned, we should at least repeat the preposition—“by force or by fraud;” the alternation being further improvable, as in the other instances, by *etc.*

[It will be observed that Bain uses the term *alternative* where the distinction above made would require *disjunctive*. He speaks of alternative in the sense above given as “a synonymous, or explanatory alternative.”]

It may be added that the distinction may be further made in punctuation. The expression introduced by *or* alternative, being explanatory, would be set off by commas (see page 157). Where this does not sufficiently mark the character of the phrase, it may be put in parenthesis. Thus:

They were both much more ancient among the Persians than Zoroaster (or Zerdusht).

As for such animals as are mortal (or noxious), we have a right to destroy them.

**Obs. 86.**—“*If*” clauses should be avoided except emphatically to express that the action of the predicate hangs upon an uncertain event.

Thus, “If stones are dropped into water, they will sink,” is more simply expressed, “Stones sink in water.” “If you will come, I shall be delighted,” is better thus: “Your coming will delight me.” “If it would rain, we should get much good;” read, “Rain would do much good.”

On the other hand, to say, “If he is guilty, his punishment will be severe,” expresses a doubt of the issue which disappears in, “His guilt will be followed by severe punishment.”

Frequently the imperative may with advantage be substituted for an *if* clause. Thus: “If you search through history, you will find—” may become, “Search through history and you will find—” etc.

**EXERCISE LI.**—Vary the conditional expression in the following sentence.

*Example.*—To be large and liberal, the scholar’s mind must come in contact with other minds.

The mind of the scholar, if you would have it large and liberal, must come in contact with other minds.—LONGFELLOW.

**Obs. 87.**—In conditional sentences, the “*if*” clause must be kept distinct. It should usually come first. Thus in

“The lesson intended to be taught by these manoeuvres will be lost, if the plan of operations is laid down too definitely beforehand, and the affair degenerates into a mere review.”

The meaning may be, either,

(1) If the plan of operations is laid down too definitely beforehand, the lesson intended to be taught by these manoeuvres will be lost, and the affair degenerates into a mere review ;

or,

(2) If the plan of operations is laid down too definitely beforehand, and the affair degenerates into a mere review, the lesson intended to be taught by these manoeuvres will be lost.

On the general principle of Climax (see page 131) the “*if*” clause should come first.

Every one will see the flatness of “Revenge thy father’s most unnatural murder, if thou didst ever love him,” as compared with the suspense that forces an expression of agony from Hamlet in—

*Ghost.* If thou didst ever thy dear father love—

*Hamlet.* O, God!

*Ghost.* Revenge his foul and most unnatural murder.

The effect is sometimes almost ludicrous when the consequent is long and complicated, and when it precedes the antecedent or “*if*-clause.”

I should be delighted to introduce you to my friends, and to show you the objects of interest in our city, and the beautiful scenery in the neighborhood, if you were here.

— Where the “*if*-clause” comes last, it ought to be very emphatic: “if you were only here.”

The introduction of a clause with “*if*” or “*though*” in the

middle of a sentence may often cause ambiguity, especially when a great part of the sentence depends on “*that*.”

His cousin answered that, for the sake of preserving the public peace, they would keep quiet for the present, though he declared that cowardice was the motive of the delay, and that for this reason they would put off the trial to a more convenient season.

So, The Secretary is a traitor, if he really wrote the letter in question.—ABBOTT.

**Obs. 88.**—Where two different forms of the verb are connected by a conjunction, such parts of the tense-forms as are not common to both must be repeated in full.

Thus, we may say, I am surprised that he has acted as he has [acted] ; but not, I am surprised that he should act as he has [acted].

EXERCISE LII.—Fill out the improper ellipses in the following sentences :

*Example.*—This dedication may serve for almost any book that has been, is, or shall be published.

This dedication may serve for almost any book that has, is, or shall be published.

I shall do all I can to persuade others to take the same measures for their care which I have.—*Guardian*.

The forms of English are so few, its syntax so simple, that they are learned by use before the age of commencing classical study.—MARRI.

We are too apt to imagine that what is, always has, and always will be.—*Too Much Alone*.

But you will bear it as you have so many things.—J. T. COLLINGE.

I am anxious for the time when he will talk as much nonsense to me as I have to him.—LANDOR.

But the problem is one which no research has hitherto solved, and probably never will.—H. HOLLAND.

Failing, as others have, to reconcile poetry and metaphysics, he succeeds better in speculations inspired by the revelations of lens and laboratory.—E. C. STEDMAN.

No introduction has, nor in any probability ever will, authorize that which common thinkers would call a liberty.—SHELLEY.

Some part of this exemption and liability may, and no doubt is, due to mental or physical causes in the unhappy or fortunate individual.—SPECTATOR.

He ridicules the notion that truth will prevail; it never has, and it never will prevail.—LORD STURGES.

I never have, and never will, attack a man for speculative opinions.—BOURLE.

**Obs. 89.**—The copula must be repeated when the second of two connected attributes is not closely associated with the first in meaning, especially if it is contrasted in meaning. (See Obs. 12, page 34; Obs. 36, page 57.)

Thus, They will admit that he was a great poet, but deny that he was a great man. Here *will* should be repeated before *deny*.

**Obs. 90.**—The verb *to be* must not be made to do duty at once as a principal verb and as an auxiliary.

Thus, The doctor was a very great favorite, and received with much respect and honor.—THACKERAY. Say *was received*.

Wade are these pleasant farms, and the farmers forever departed.—LORD FELLOW.

**Obs. 91.**—The verb should usually be repeated after *as*, *than*, etc.; and in general wherever it is necessary to distinguish the subject from the object.

Thus: "I esteem him more highly than Charles," may mean: (1) I esteem him more highly than I do Charles; (2) I esteem him more highly than Charles esteems him.

Sometimes the brevity of Antithesis (see page 137) must be sacrificed to clearness; as, Flattery gains friends; truth, foes.

**Obs. 92.**—It is better to repeat the verb itself than to represent it by *do* or *did*. (See page 64.)

Thus, I have furnished the house exactly according to your

fancy, or, if you please, my own; for I have long since learned to like nothing but what you *do*.—SPECTATOR.

**NOTE** is frequently a very great offender against grammar. *To do* is the act of doing. We see people write, "I did not speak yesterday so well as I wished to have done." Now what is meant by the writer? He means to say that he did not speak so well as he then wished, or was wishing, to speak. Therefore the sentence should be "I did not speak yesterday so well as I wished to do it," that is to say, to do or to perform the act of speaking.

Take great care not to be too free in your use of the verb *to do* in any of its tenses or modes. It is a nice little handy word, and, like our expressed it, it is made use of very often when the writer is at a loss for what to put down. *To do* is to act, and, therefore, it never can, in any of its parts, supply the place of a transitive verb. "How do you do?" Here *do* refers to the state, and is essentially passive or neuter. Yet, to employ it for this purpose is very common. Dr. Blair, in his twenty-third Lecture, says: "It is somewhat unfortunate that this number of the Spectator did not end, as it might have done, with the former beautiful period." That is to say, done it. And then we ask, Done what? Not the act of ending, because in this case there is no action at all. The verb means to come to an end, to cease, not to go any farther. The same verb *to end* is sometimes an active verb: "I end my sentence;" then the verb *to do* may supply its place: as, "I have not ended my sentence so well as I might have done;" that is, done it; that is, done, or performed, the act of ending. But the number of the Spectator was an actor: it was expected to perform nothing; it was, by the Doctor, wished to have ceased to proceed. "Did not end as it very well might have ceased." . . . This would have been correct; but the Doctor wished to avoid the repetition, and thus he fell into bad grammar. "Mr. Speaker, I do not feel so well satisfied as I should have done if the Right Honorable Gentleman had explained the matter more fully." To feel satisfied is—when the satisfaction is to arise from emotion produced by fact or reasoning—a senseless expression; and to supply its place when it is, as in this case, a transitive verb by *to do*, is as senseless. Done what? Done the act of feeling. "I do not feel so well satisfied as I should have done, or executed, or performed the act of feeling?" What inappreciable words!—COMERT.

**EXERCISE LIII.**—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—"— or if they take it," etc.

For these latter will either not scruple to take a false oath, or if they do, will satisfy their conscience by various evasions or equivocations.—WHATELY.

That any firm, tradesmen, manufacturers, agents, quacks, perfumers, or whatever else they may be, pay a settled sum, no more and no less, for advertising, I do not believe now, whatever I may have done before commencing my labors.—SAMPSON, *History of Advertising*.

**Obs. 93.**—In many compound sentences the subject must be repeated, to prevent ambiguity, especially after a

relative standing as subject, or where the relative is the subject of several verbs.

Thus, "He professes to be helping the nation, which in reality is suffering from his flattery, and (he? or it?) will not permit any one else to give it advice."—ABBOTT.

When denied in one member and asserted in the other, the subject should of course be stated in both members. Thus:

No line of it, however seemingly discursive, should be aimless, but [every line] should have some relation to the matter in hand.—JAMES PAYN.

A similar principle may require the repetition of the predicate, or of the entire statement, in a changed form. Thus:

Retaining the color of their uniform, they have replaced an ugly shako by one altogether as smart and soldier-like [as the former shako was ugly?].—*London Telegraph*.

There are those who never reason on what they should do, but what they have done, as if reason had her eyes behind, and could only see backward.—FIELDING.

**Obs. 94.**—When there are several verbs at some distance from a conjunction on which they depend, the conjunction should be repeated. Thus:

When we look back upon the havoc that two hundred years have made in the ranks of our national authors, and, above all, when we refer their rapid disappearance to the quick succession of new competitors, we cannot help being dismayed at the prospect that lies before the authors of the present day. [Here, if *when* be omitted, the clause becomes parenthetical.]—ABBOTT.

**Obs. 95.**—Corresponding conjunctions, like *not only*, *but also*, add clearness, as the construction assures the

reader that the sense will be incomplete until the full stop is reached. But when unnecessary, they encumber and stiffen the sentence.

Thus, Abbott gives the following sentence:

You must take this extremely perilous course, in which success is uncertain, and failure disgraceful, as well as ruinous, or else the liberty of your country is endangered.

Here the meaning is liable to be misunderstood till the reader has gone half through the sentence. Write, "Either you must," etc., and the reader is, from the first, prepared for an alternative.

**Obs. 96.**—The omission of conjunctions sometimes gives forcible abruptness; as, You say this; I deny it.

For it is a remarkable peculiarity of language that the omission of a connecting particle should sometimes serve to make objects appear more closely connected; and that the repetition of it should distinguish and separate them in some measure from each other.—BLAIR.

**Obs. 97.**—Short and unemphatic clauses should not be introduced unexpectedly at the end of long sentences, except to produce a special effect.

After a long and tedious journey, the last part of which was a little dangerous, owing to the state of the roads, we arrived safely at York, which is a fine old town.

When the short final clause is intended to be unexpectedly emphatic, it comes in appropriately, with something the sting of an epigram (see page 136). Thus:

The old miser said that he should have been delighted to give the poor fellow a shilling, but most unfortunately he had left his purse at home—a habit of his.

Suspense naturally throws increased emphasis on the words for which we are waiting, *i.e.*, on the end of the sentence. It has been pointed out above that a monotony of final emphasis is objectionable, especially in letter-writing and conversation.—ABBOTT.

With these writings young divines are more conversant than

with those of Demosthenes, who by many degrees excelled the other, at least as an orator.—SWIFT.

EXERCISE LIV.—Correct the following sentence.

*Example.*—As this is not the case, the faulty order of words cannot properly be considered as rendering the sentence ambiguous, but can be considered as rendering it obscure.

As this is not the case, the faulty order of the words cannot properly be considered as rendering the sentence ambiguous, but obscure.—CAMPBELL.

**Obs. 98.**—Clauses that are grammatically connected should be kept as close together as possible.

Thus, in the following :

The result of these observations appears to be in opposition to the view now generally received in this country, that in muscular effort the substance of the muscle itself undergoes disintegration.

Here it is difficult to tell whether the theory of "disintegration" is (1) "the result," or, as the absence of a comma after "be" would indicate, (2) "in opposition to the result of these observations." If (1) is intended, add "and to prove" after "country;" if (2), insert "which is" after "country."

There is an excessive complication in the following :

"It cannot, at all events, if the consideration demanded by a subject of such importance from any one professing to be a philosopher, be given, be denied that," etc.

When a speaker feels that his hearers have forgotten the connection of the beginning of the sentence, he should repeat what he has said—*e.g.*, after the long parenthesis in the last sentence he should recommence, "it cannot, I say, be denied." In writing, however, this license must be sparingly used. (See page 106.)

A short parenthesis, or modifying clause, will not interfere with clearness, especially if antithesis be used, so as to show the connection between the different parts of the sentence, *e.g.* :

"A modern newspaper statement, though probably true, would be laughed at if quoted in a book as testimony; but a letter of a court gossip is thought good historical evidence if written some centuries ago."

Here, to place "though probably true" at the beginning of the sentence would not add clearness, and would impair the emphasis

of the contrast between "a modern newspaper statement" and "the letter of a court gossip."—ANSORR. (But see below.)

**Obs. 99.**—The first clause should prepare for the second, the second for the third, etc., in an increasing scale of interest and importance.

Whately remarks, in a sentence that itself illustrates the principle he states :

If a sentence be so constructed that the meaning of each part can be taken as we proceed (though it be evident that the sense is not brought to a close), its length will be little or no impediment to perspicuity; but if the former part of the sentence convey no distinct meaning till we arrive nearly at the end (however plain it may then appear), it will be on the whole deficient in perspicuity; for it will need to be read over or thought over a second time, in order to be fully comprehended; which is what few readers or hearers are willing to be burdened with.

It is with discourses as with bodies, which ordinarily owe their principal excellence to the assemblage and just proportion of their members, in such a way that although one member, separated from the others, may have nothing remarkable about it, still all of them together do not fail to make a perfect body.—LOXONISTS.

The following is an instance of defective combination :

A modern newspaper statement, though probably true, would be laughed at, if quoted in a book as testimony; but the letter of a court gossip is thought good historical evidence, if written some centuries ago.

A rearrangement of this, in accordance with the principles advocated above, will be found to increase the effect. Thus :

Though probably true, a modern newspaper statement quoted in a book as testimony, would be laughed at; but the letter of a court gossip, if written some centuries ago, is thought good historical evidence.

By making this change, some of the suspensions are avoided and others shortened; while there is less liability to produce premature suggestions. The passage quoted below from "Paradise Lost" affords a fine instance of a sentence well arranged; alike in the priority of the subordinate members, in the avoidance of long and numerous suspensions, and in the correspondence between the order of the clauses and the sequence of the phenomena described, which, by the way, is a further prerequisite to easy comprehension, and therefore to effect.

As when a prowling wolf,  
Whom hunger drives to seek new-hunt for prey,  
Watching where shepherds pen their flocks at eve  
In huddled cotes amid the field serene,  
Leaps o'er the fence with ease into the fold;  
Or as a thief bent to unboard the coak  
Of some rich burglar, whose substantial doors,  
Criss-hair'd and bolted fast, fear no assault,  
In at the window climbs, or 'er the tiles;  
So climb the first great thief into God's fold;  
So since into his church lewd hirelings climb.

The habitual use of sentences in which all or most of the descriptive and limiting elements precede those described and limited, gives rise to what is called the inverted style [see page 21]; a title which is, however, by no means confined to this structure, but is often used where the order of the words is simply unusual. A more appropriate title would be the *direct style*, as contrasted with the other, or *indirect style*: the peculiarity of the one being, that it conveys each thought into the mind step by step with little liability to error; and of the other, that it gets the right thought conceived by a series of approximations.

The superiority of the direct over the indirect form of sentence, implied by the several conclusions that have been drawn, must not, however, be affirmed without reservation. Though, up to a certain point, it is well for the qualifying clauses of a period to precede those qualified; yet, as carrying forward each qualifying clause costs some mental effort, it follows that when the number of them and the time they are carried become great, we reach a limit beyond which more is lost than is gained.\*

\* A sentence, for example, begins with a series of *ifs*: perhaps a dozen lines are occupied with expanding the conditions under which something is affirmed or denied; here you cannot disamble and have done with the ideas as you go along; all is hypothetical; all is suspended in air. The conditions are not fully to be understood until you are acquainted with the dependency; you must give a separate attention to each clause of this complex hypothesis, and yet, having done that by a painful effort, you have done nothing at all; for you must exercise a warring attention through the corresponding latter *and*. In order to follow out its relations to all parts of the hypothesis which sustained it. In fact, under the rude, yet also artificial character of newspaper style, each separate member period is a vast arch, which, not receiving its key stone, not being locked into self-supporting cohesion until you nearly reach its close, imposes of necessity upon the unhappy reader all the mass of its ponderous weight through the process of its construction. — IN QUINCEY.

Other things equal, the arrangement should be such that no concrete image shall be suggested until the materials out of which it is to be made have been presented. And yet, as lately pointed out, other things equal, the fewer the materials to be held at once, and the shorter the distance they have to be borne, the better. Hence in some cases it becomes a question whether most mental effort will be entailed by the many and long suspensions, or by the correction of successive misconceptions.

This question may sometimes be decided by considering the capacity of the persons addressed. A greater grasp of mind is required for the ready comprehension of thoughts expressed in the direct manner, where the sentences are anywise intricate. To recollect a number of preliminaries stated in elucidation of a coming idea, and to apply them all to the formation of it when suggested, demands a good memory and considerable power of concentration. To one possessing these, the direct method will mostly seem the best; while to one deficient in them it will seem the worst. Just as it may cost a strong man less effort to carry a hundred-weight from place to place at once, than by a stone at a time, so to an active mind it may be easier to bear along all the qualifications of an idea, and at once rightly form it when named, than to first imperfectly conceive such idea, and then carry back to it, one by one, the details and limitations afterward mentioned. While conversely as, for a boy, the only possible mode of transferring a hundred-weight is that of taking it in portions, so, for a weak mind, the only possible mode of forming a compound conception may be that of building it up by carrying separately its several parts.

That the indirect method—the method of conveying the meaning by a series of approximations—is best fitted for the uncultivated, may indeed be inferred from their habitual use of it. The form of expression adopted by the savage, as in “Water give me,” is the simplest type of the approximate arrangement. In pleonasm, which are comparatively prevalent among the uneducated, the same essential structure is seen, as, for instance, in “The men, they were there.” Again, the old possessive case—“The king, his crown,” conforms to the like order of thought. Moreover, the fact that the indirect mode is called the natural one,

implies that it is the one spontaneously employed by the common people—that is, the one easiest for undisciplined minds.

There are many cases, however, in which neither the direct nor the indirect structure is the best, but where an intermediate structure is preferable to both.

Before dismissing this branch of our subject, it should be further remarked that, even when addressing the most vigorous intellects, the direct style is unfit for communicating ideas of a complex or abstract character. So long as the mind has not much to do, it may be well able to grasp all the preparatory clauses of a sentence, and to use them effectively; but if some subtlety in the argument absorb the attention, if every faculty be strained in endeavoring to catch the speaker's or writer's drift, it may happen that the mind, unable to carry on both processes at once, will break down, and allow the elements of the thought to lapse into confusion.—HARRISER SPENCER.

*Examples (see also page 124):*

With thee conversing, I forget all time.—MILTON.

Formed by thy converse, happily to steer

From grave to gay, from lively to severe.—POPE.

Were we as eloquent as angels, we should please some men, some women, and some children much more by listening than by talking.—COLTHER.

**EXERCISE LV.**—Give strength to the following sentences by arranging the members according to the natural order of circumstances.

*Example.*—Improvvidence is the parent of poverty and dependence.

Improvvidence is the parent of dependence and poverty.

Gentleness ought to diffuse itself over our whole behavior, to form our address, and to regulate our speech.

Ambition creates seditions, wars, discords, hatred, and shyness.

Charity breathes long-suffering to enemies, courtesy to strangers, habitual kindness toward friends.

A virtuous and pious life will prove the best preparation for immortality and death.

In this state of mind, every employment of life becomes an oppressive burden, and every object appears gloomy.

Virtue supports in sickness, comforts in the hour of death, strengthens in adversity, and moderates in prosperity.

The study of astronomy elevates and expands the mind.

Since man is on his very entrance into the world the most helpless of all creatures; since he must at last be laid down in the dust from which he was taken; and since he is for a series of years entirely dependent on the support and protection of others; how vain and absurd does it appear that such a being should indulge in worldly pride!

That morning he had laid his books, as usual, on the table in his study.

I shall never consent to such proposals while I live.

Many changes are now taking place in the vegetable world, under our immediate notice, though we are not observant of them.

By those accustomed to the civilization and the warm sun of Italy, it must have been felt as a calamity to be compelled to live, not only in a cold, uncultivated country, but also among a barbarous people.

Let us not conclude, while dangers are at a distance, and do not immediately approach us, that we are secure, unless we use the necessary precautions to prevent them.

You may set my fields on fire, and give my children to the sword; you may drive myself forth a houseless, childless beggar, or load me with the fetters of slavery; but you never can conquer the hatred I feel to your oppression.

Meanwhile Gloucester, taking advantage of the king's indolent disposition, resumed his plots and cabals.

In all speculations upon men and human affairs, it is of no small moment to distinguish things of accident from permanent causes.

At Bath, the remains of two temples, and of a number of statues, have been dug up, in laying the foundations of new streets and squares.

**Obs. 100.**—A sudden descent in interest is called Bathos.

Thus, "To gossip is a fault; to libel, a crime; to slander, a sin." She was a woman of many accomplishments and virtues, grace-

ful in her movements, winning in her address, a kind friend, a faithful and loving wife, a most affectionate mother, and she played beautifully on the piano-forte.

A clergyman, preaching to a country congregation, used the following persuasive arguments against swearing: "Oh, my brethren, avoid this practice, for it is a great sin, and, what is more, it is ungentle."

It follows that if Beauty hath her habitation in our universe, living in the setting sun, or in "eve's one star," or sitting on the rainbow that spans the heavens, or walking over the green fields and tree-clad hills, or wading through the running brook,

Making sweet music with the enamelled stones—

if she dwelleth in the lily's cup or is mantled in the iris-hued mist that presides over the cataract's roar, or floateth in the fragrant air—she doth so because man is.—B. A.

Then o'er the dying lamp th' unsteady flame  
Hears quivering on a point, leaps off by sea,  
And falls again, as both to quit its hold.  
Thou must not go; my soul still hovers o'er thee,  
And can't get loose.—AMMISON, *Cato*.

When the sudden descent (anti-climax) is intentional, the effect is humorous, or ironical.

Go, wondrous creature, mount where science guides;  
Go, measure earth, weigh air, and state the tides;  
Instruct the planets in what orbs to run;  
Correct old Time, and regulate the Sun;  
Go, soar with Plato in th' empyreal sphere,  
To the first good, first perfect, and first fair;  
Go, teach Eternal Wisdom how to rule,  
Then drop into thyself, and be a fool.—POPE.

**Obs. 101.**—A sudden anti-climax may have the effect of wit, by the collocation of ideas that at first seem incongruous. Thus:

The Russian grandees came to court dropping pearls

{ and dia-  
monds. —  
Climax.  
and ver-  
min. —Anti-  
climax.

These two nations were divided by mutual fear { and the bitter  
remembrance of  
recent losses.—  
Climax.  
and mountains.  
—Anti-climax.

**Obs. 102.**—Antithesis adds force and clearness, but must not be excessive. Thus:

All the pleasing illusions which made power gentle, and obedience voluntary, are now to be destroyed.

There is here a kind of formula:

Gentleness: power::spontaneousness: obedience.—AUSON.

That kind of period which hath most vivacity is commonly that wherein you find an antithesis in the members, the several parts of one having a similarity to those of the other, adapted to some resemblance in the sense. The effect produced by the corresponding members is like that produced in a picture when the figures of the group are not all on a side, with their faces turned the same way, but are made to contrast each other by their several positions. Besides, this kind of periods is generally the most perspicuous. There is in them not only that original light which results from the expression when suitable, but there is also that which is reflected reciprocally from the opposed members. The relation between these two is so strongly marked, that it is next to impossible to lose sight of it. The same quality makes them easier also for the memory.—CAMERON.

Mind is invisible, but you may find  
A method here to let me see your mind.—MONTGOMERY, in an *antiquary album*.

On parent knees, a naked, new-born child,  
Weeping thou art while all around thee smiled;  
So live, that sinking on thy last long sleep,  
Thou then may'st smile, while all around thee weep.  
—From the *Arabia*, by Sir W. JOHNS.

A lady complained to me that of her two handmaidens one was absent-minded, and the other absent-bodied.—EMERSON.

The reasoning maid, above her sex's dress,  
Hath dared and read, and dared to say she read.



Speech was given to the ordinary sort of men, whereby to communicate their mind; but to wise men, whereby to conceal it.—**SOUTH.**

Speech is silver, but silence is golden.

He twice forsook his party; his principles, never.

Prosperity gains friends, but adversity tries them.

Quintilian's criticism of a certain author was, that his greatest excellence consisted in having no faults, his greatest fault in having no excellencies.

Persecution is not wrong because it is cruel, but is cruel because it is wrong.

Precocious children make stupid persons; no early-risers are conceited in the morning and vapid all the afternoon.

The best speculation the market holds forth  
To any enlightened lover of gold,  
Is to buy ——— up at the price he is worth,  
And sell him at that he puts on himself.—**MOORE.**

**EXERCISE LVI.**—Complete the antithesis in each of the following sentences.

*Example.*—Pride hardens the heart, but humility softens it.

Pride hardens the heart, but humility—. Pride is the offspring of ignorance—. To err is human; to forgive—. He is young in years, but—. If we have no regard for our own character, we should, at least—. The manner of speaking is as important as the—. Almost every object has a bright, as well as—. Silence your opponent with reason, not with—. Man is intended for two distinct states of being. His first life is transient; his second—; the first corporeal; the second—; the former confined to time; the latter bounded—. Philosophy makes us wiser;—makes us better men. The former makes us the objects of human admiration; the latter of—regard. That insures us temporal happiness; but this—.

**EXERCISE LVII.**—Correct the following sentences.

*Example.*—The question arises whether in these extremely violent cases it is wiser to resort to seclusion in padded rooms, with neither clothing nor bedding, or to use the muff and camisole. In

adopting the first-named method it becomes necessary to employ additional attendants, and they must at best use force to restrain, and, besides, they will be continually in peril of life or limb. Physicians would, we believe, decide in favor of the latter method as being most humane and conducive to the comfort, safety, and health of the patient, and therefore to be preferred from considerations of kindness and humanity to the insane.

In these cases of extreme violence, the question presents itself whether it is wiser to resort to seclusion without clothing and bedding in padded rooms and employ additional attendants, who at best would have to use physical force to restrain, with constant danger of broken ribs or limbs, or resort to the muff and the camisole. When left to the physician to determine their use, we believe the latter modes of restraint would be most humane, most conducive to the comfort, safety, and health of the patient, hence to be preferred as a question of humanity and kind treatment of the insane.

I beg of you, never let the glory of our nation, who made France tremble, and yet has the gentleness to be unable to bear opposition from the meanest of his own countrymen, be calumniated in so impudent a manner as in the insinuation that he affected a perpetual dictatorship.—**STEELE.**

The best way to bring a clever young man, who has become skeptical or unsettled, to reason, is to make him *feel* something in any way. Love, if sincere and unworldly, will in nine instances out of ten, bring him to a sense and assurance of something real and actual; and that sense alone will make him *think* to a sound purpose, instead of dreaming that he is thinking.—**COLERIDGE.**

## TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

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## PART II. PUNCTUATION.

## SECTION FOURTH.

## PUNCTUATION.

The use of commas, semicolons and brackets supplies the place of inflections, and enables us to introduce, without danger of equivocation, qualifications, illustrations, and parenthetical limitations, which, with an English syntax, would render a long period almost unintelligible unless its members were divided by marks of punctuation.—MASON.

## I. ABSOLUTE RULES.

**Some Rules Arbitrary.**—There is among authors of repute so much diversity of usage that it is sometimes asserted there are no absolute rules for punctuation. This is a mistake. While many of the minor uses of the points, particularly of the comma, are left to the judgment and the taste of the writer, there are certain rules of punctuation that are fixed. To violate these shows, not peculiarity of taste, but ignorance. One might as well write,

Phloer sightly phlow, bl lorn and lee,

as to omit the interrogation point at the end of a question. It is a matter, not of judgment, but of education.

The most important of these rules are the following:

**I. Every Sentence must have at the End one of these three marks:**

**a.** If the sentence asks a question, an **interrogation point (?)**.

**b.** If the sentence is exclamatory, an **exclamation point (!)**.

**c. Otherwise, a period (.)**.

*a. Rosalind.*—What did he when thou saw'st him? What said he? How looked he? Wherein went he? What makes he here? Did he ask for me? Where remains he? How parted he with thee? and when shalt thou see him again?—*As You Like It.*

Art thou a pen, whose task shall be  
To drown in ink  
What writers think?  
Oh, wisely write,  
That pages white

Be not the worse for ink and thee.—*E. I. BURNS.*

Cast the following sentences into the interrogative form:—

This is not the character of British justice. These are not her features. This is not her countenance. This is not her gait or mien. No!—We wait till to-morrow to be happy; there is no reason for not being so to-day. We shall not be younger. We are not sure we shall be healthier. Our passions will not become feebler, and our love of the world less.—It was not chance that produced the diurnal and annual revolution of the globe.

1. When a sentence contains several interrogative clauses that have a common relation or dependence, the interrogation point is put only at the end; as—

By *sensational preaching* do you mean an incoherent raving about things in general and nothing in particular; a perversion of every text; an insult of common sense; a recital of anecdotes which are untrue, and a use of illustrations which are unmeaning?

I am a Jew! hath not a Jew eyes? hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions? fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons, subject to the same diseases, healed by the same means, warmed and cooled by the same winter and summer, as a Christian is?—*Merchant of Venice.*

2. An assertion stating a question, does not take an interrogation point; as, "I asked the question, What weapons were in possession of the prisoner."

Sometimes, however (compare the last paragraph on page 114), an interrogation mark indicates a deferent, suppliant air on the part of the speaker.

*b.* Convocation without intrigue! Parliament without debate! What a lesson dost thou read to council and consistory!—*LAMB.*

O many a shaft, at random sent,  
Finds mark the archer never meant!  
And many a word, at random spoke,  
May soothe or wound a heart that's broke.—*SCOTT.*

Cast the following sentences into the exclamatory form:—

I look round with joyful emotion and see the beauties of creation. The tints are lovely. Their combination is pleasing. The diversity of shades is admirable. In one spot there is delicacy of color; in another brilliancy.

3. The exclamation point is used also after interjections, exclamatory words, and phrases. Also in invocations; as—

Father of all! in every age adored.

O Grace! where is thy victory?

O Death! where is thy sting?

Perhaps the greatest lesson which the lives of literary men teach us is told in a single word: Wait!—LORDSKELAW.

See illustrations on pages 28, 40, 46, 62, 66, 70.

4. Two or more exclamation points are sometimes used to express ridicule, or to intensify surprise; as—

Malthus observed, that a good poet was of no more service to the Church or the State than a good player at *whist*!

It is, however, usually considered in better taste to leave the reader to discover for himself that the author considers the idea preposterous.

## II. A Period must also be used:

a. After every abbreviation; as, A. Lincoln; Aug. 6; 4:30 P.M.

5. If two letters are used, or two separate words, a period is put after each; as, A.M., i.e., e.g., etc.

6. The period thus used indicates only the abbreviation, and does not dispense with other punctuation marks required except at the end of a sentence, where a period is not repeated. Thus, Groton, Mass., Aug. 28, 1847. Did he travel *incog.*? Before his name he wrote with a flourish, "Prof."

b. After every Roman numeral, except in paging; as, The reign of George III. was ended.

Find illustrations on pages 45, 49.

c. To denote omission in a quotation; as, He writes: "Unless I hear from you . . . I shall start on Monday."

Find examples on pages 36, 39, 45, 48, 60, 71.

7. When part of a sentence is omitted, it is customary to use three periods; if a whole sentence or more is omitted, to use four or more.

d. Before decimals; as, 3.14159; \$36.83; .0087.

8. Where the number is less than a unit, the accompanying word should be in the singular. Thus, 2.467 miles; but .806 mile.

## III. An Apostrophe (') must be used:

a. To indicate the possessive case; as, John's, men's, horses' feet.

Find illustrations on pages 43, 44, 46.

NOTE.—When the possessive is modified, the apostrophe is given to only one word; which is,

(a) When the possessive phrase precedes the object, the *last* word.

(b) When the possessive phrase follows the object, the *principal* word. Thus:

(a) William the emperor's palace; the empress Carlotta's bracelet.

(b) The palace was William's, the emperor; He said the bracelet was Carlotta's, the empress; I got the book at Tonsou's; an old established bookseller, and the publisher of many valuable works.

In the first two examples, some would regard the possessive phrase as a compound name, and write, "The palace was William the emperor's," "the bracelet was Carlotta the empress's."

On the other hand, some would give the apostrophe to the principal word, even when the possessive phrase precedes:

—"W. H. M.," Nantucket, begs leave to dissent from our opinion, expressed in the March number of this paper, that the phrase, "Her uncle's, Sergeant Colton, behavior," is grammatically correct, though not elegant. He does "not understand why it is quite unnecessary to put Colton in the possessive form," and proceeds to say:

"As the words 'Sergeant Colton' are explanatory, they are in apposition with 'her uncle's,' and must be parsed as in the same case. Indeed, does not the leading word, in all such sentences, determine the case of the other? Such expressions as this do not often occur in print, as we all agree that it is better to turn the phrase and insert the preposition; but here is a form which is common enough: 'Smith asked Brown to hand him his (Brown's) hat.' Here the word 'Brown's,' is parenthetical, or explanatory. It takes the possessive form because in apposition with the possessive pronoun 'his.' Surely you would not use it thus,—'His (Brown) hat.'"

Our correspondent's illustration of Smith and Brown is not quite apposite. The word "Brown's" is not descriptive merely, but distinctive; it is absolutely necessary to use it to indicate the owner of the hat. Colton, on the contrary, is merely descriptive, showing who "her uncle" is; and the sentence is equivalent to "her uncle's—Sergeant Colton, I mean—behavior." We must adhere to our original opinion that the phrase is correct; but we would not advise any one to imitate it. Take this sentence, for example: "The officer's—Captain Deane—bearing was gallant and easy; the magistrate's—Zetium Coko—timid and embarrassed." Now, we ask our correspondent if this sentence is not strictly grammatical? The dashes are in effect parentheses; and the addition of a with an apostrophe in each of the two proper nouns would make it sound very unpleasantly.—*The Observer.*

For suggestions as to avoiding these cumbrous forms, see Part I.

9. Plural nouns ending in *s* take only the apostrophe; all other nouns take the apostrophe and *s*. Thus, calves' heads; Agnes's hat; oxen's hoofs.

NOTE.—In proper names ending with *s*, this rule is so often violated that the custom has developed into a certain authority, until it may be considered a matter of taste whether we shall write "Barne's Arithmetics" or "Barnes's Arithmetics." But the former practice will always be questionable. Higginson says:—"The possessive case, like the plural number, always makes an additional syllable where the nominative ends with the sound of *s*, and the plural syllable might as well be elided as that of the possessive. We should not think of saying 'In the time of the Charles,' and there is no more reason for saying 'The Charles' times.' The proper way to avoid a harsh or hissing sound is to reform the sentence."

It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a possessive should be singular or plural.

The superintendent of a home for boys in San Francisco, having named it the *Youths' Directory*, was overwhelmed by local grammarians with protestations against the locution of the apostrophe in the word "youths." He thereupon wrote to twenty learned authorities, in various parts of the United States, to settle the question beyond dispute; but they differed not less than the Pacific coast seags. President Barnard of Columbia College, President Eliot of Harvard, George P. Quackenbush, the author of books on rhetoric, etc., Prof. Schiele de Voss of the University of Virginia, Chancellor Crosby of the New York University, Benj. W. Dwight and Prof. W. D. Whitney, pronounced "Youths' Directory" correct and "Youth's Directory" wrong; Noah Porter, President of Yale, declared "Youth's Directory" correct and the other wrong, and Richard Grant White and Dr. McCosh of Princeton, pronounced both correct, while President Gilman of the Johns Hopkins University sent a reply from which it was impossible to determine on which side he was.—*N. Y. Sun.*

10. Certain Scriptural phrases, like "for conscience' sake," have become established idioms, and are thus allowed to violate the rule.

11. The apostrophe is not used before *s* in ours, yours, hers, theirs, its.

**b.** To denote the plural of figures and letters; as p's and q's; casting out the 9's.

The following is less usual:

In verse 23 of chapter xlii. of *Judges*, *pe* and *we* are both printed with a single *e*, but in verse 25 of the same chapter, each with two *es*.—*MANN.*

12. This usage is sometimes extended to words, where there is danger of ambiguity; as, The children on the shore are always talking about their *pa's* and their *ma's*. See example, page 178.

**c.** To denote elision:

(I.) Of letters in a word when the abbreviation is to save space or time or rhythm (compare VI. c., page 152); as, *cont'd* for *continued*.

That opportunity  
Which then they had to take from 's, to resume  
We have again.—*Coriolanus.*

13. Such elisions should be carefully distinguished from abbreviations proper, and should not be followed by a period.

Find illustration on page 43.

(II.) Of syllables, or even of words; as, 'midst for amidst; I've for I have; 'twas for it was; 'faith for in faith; etc.

'Faith, there have been many great men that have flattered the people, who ne'er loved them; and there be many that they have loved, they knew not wherefore: so that if they love they know not why; they hate upon no better ground.—*Coriolanus.*

Find illustrations on pages 40, 41.

14. It is a usual rule, though not universal, that where two words are thus made into one, a space should be left between the

words, as though they were not abbreviated. But don't, can't, won't, and shan't are commonly printed as single words.

NOTE.—Be careful not to use *shan't* in the third person singular, for *shant* is.

(iii.) Of the century in dates; as, The spirit of '76; for the years 1853, '84.

First of November, 'Fifty-five!

This morning the poison takes a drive.—HOLMES

#### IV. A Hyphen (-) must be used:

a. Between the parts of a compound word that has not by usage become a single word.

A witness was on the stand in an illegal liquor sale case. The counsel was trying to find out in what kind of a glass the liquor was handed to the witness, and at last exclaimed: "What kind of a looking glass was it?" "Why, sor, it war not a looking-glass at all, it war a tumbler."

Correct, "For sale, one large sick chair." "James Boyle, Gas-holder and Boiler-maker."

15. This rule is absolute and acknowledged, but in practice it is imperfectly carried out because of uncertainty as to which are still compound words, and which have become single. In general the dictionaries should be consulted as final authority, but even they do not agree.

Worcester has "brickwork," "brasswork," without hyphens; "wood-work," "iron-work," with them. "Greenhouse" is closed up, while "school-house" is not; "wood-house" has a hyphen, "almshouse" has none. (Wilson writes "schoolhouse.") Webster has "brick work" with, "woodwork" without the hyphen,—just reversing Worcester. Again, Worcester writes, "humiliate" and "humiliate"; Webster, under H, has "humiliate, . . . sometimes called humble bee;" and, under H, writes "humiliate, . . . often called humiliate," apparently forgetful of his previous hyphens.

To search for authority, then, in the matter of compounding words, will avail next to nothing. In a volume containing "School Committees' Reports,"—and certainly school committees ought to know many things,—we find "blackboard" and "black board," and, on a single page, "school books," "school keeping," "schoolmaster," "school houses," "school checks." "Semi-annual" is frequently printed with the hyphen, according to Webster; but Worcester has "semiannual."

Thus it appears, that, in regard to compounding (by which we mean inserting the hyphen between the parts of a compound word) the proof-reader is left to his own discretion, and can do very much as he pleases. He should, however, adopt some method

by which he can approximate to uniformity in his own work; for as to agreeing with anybody else, that is out of the question.

Perhaps as good a rule as can be laid down on this subject is to close up the word when compounding changes the accentuation; otherwise, insert the hyphen. Thus, "Quartermaster" has a different accentuation from the two words "quarter master;" therefore make one word of it, without the hyphen: "head-assistant" is accented like the two words "head assistant,"—therefore insert the hyphen. By this rule "school-house" and "blackboard" should be severally closed up; "salt mine" takes the hyphen,—"salina" (adjective) does not.

The word "tree," with a prefix indicating the kind, should be compounded; as, "ash-tree," "forest-tree," "pine-tree," etc. (Webster has "whiffle-tree," Worcester "whiffletree.")

"Cast-iron" and "wrought-iron" are usually compounded, and should always be so when used as adjectives; as, "cast-iron pillars," "wrought-iron rollers."

"Temple-street place" (or "Place," according to style), "Hathik-street District," "Pemberton-square School," are quite correct. The hyphen is too frequently omitted in such cases.—DREW.

Explain the uses of the hyphen on pages 27, 34, 56, and 81.

b. At the end of a line, when one or more syllables of the last word are written upon the following line.

16. Care must be taken to divide a word only by syllables. Thus, chil-dren, not child-ren or chi-ldren.

c. To unite a prefix ending with a vowel to a word beginning with a vowel; as, co-operate, re-admit.

17. Instead of the hyphen, a **diæresis** (·) is sometimes placed over the second vowel; as, coöperate, reädmitt. Here the hyphen is preferable; but the diæresis must be used where, in words not compound, the o is repeated and forms a separate syllable; as, Laocoön, zoölogy.

#### V. Quotation Marks (" ") must be used:

a. To enclose a quotation from another, when given in his exact words; as, John said, "I will come soon." Portia began thus:

"The quality of mercy is not strained."

Some said, "John, print it," others said, "Not so,"

Some said, "It might do good," others said, "No."—BUTLER.

18. When the quotation is not exact, but only in substance, no marks are needed; as, John said that he would come soon; Portia began by saying that the quality of mercy is not strained.

19. When the quotation ends the sentence, the marks are often omitted, the beginning capital showing where the quotation begins. Thus:

I knew *now* a very covetous, sordid fellow, who used to say, Take care of the pence; for the pounds will take care of themselves.—*CHERRYFIELD.*

20. If the quotation consists of two or more paragraphs, double marks are placed at the beginning of each paragraph, but at the end only of the last. Thus:

In his address to the young ladies, Dr. Preshody said:

"The frame of mind in which a young lady says in reply to a question, 'Mercy! no,' is very different from that which prompts the simple, modest 'no.' Were there any room for doubt, I should have some doubt of the truth of the former answer; for the unnatural, excited, fluttering state of mind implied in the use of the oath might indicate either an eagerness to weigh the truth, or an unwillingness to acknowledge it.

"In fine, transparency is an essential attribute of all graceful and becoming speech. Language ought to express the speaker's ideas, and neither more nor less. Exclamations, needless epithets, unmeasured extravagances, are as unwise as the streamers of tattered fancy which you sometimes see fluttering about the person of a dilapidated belle. Let your thoughts be as strong, as witty, as brilliant as you can make them; but never seek to atone for feeble thought by large words, or to rig out foolish conceits in the spangled robe of genuine wit."

See illustrations on page 184.

21. At the close of a quotation, the quotation marks should enclose the final punctuation mark unless it is either an interrogation or an exclamation point, in which case it should come inside the quotation marks if it belongs to the quotation, but outside if it belongs to the whole sentence and not to the quotation. Thus:

Asked to make an extempore pun, Parrell inquired, "On what subject?" "The king" was suggested. "O but the king is no subject!" was the quick reply.

The boy who told his teacher that Washington was the first man replied, when the teacher corrected him by saying that the first man was Adam, "O well, if you are talking of foreigners, I suppose he was!"

22. A quotation within a quotation has single instead of double quotation marks. Should a quotation occur within this quotation, it has double marks. Thus:

"Just then the minister interrupted. 'You remind me,' he said, of the famous

SAVONARD:

"You have done good, my lord, by death;  
The rest is upon record."—*JANVARY.*

Find illustrations on pages 44, 73, 80.

23. Where quotations are frequent, and in complete paragraphs, the quotation marks are often omitted, and the name of the author is put at the end, as frequently in this volume. In such cases the fact of quotation is usually indicated by printing the part quoted in smaller type.

24. Quotations from foreign languages are usually printed in italics, without quotation marks. To indicate this in writing we *underscore* the words of the quotation.

Not a little mischief has been wrought by the famous sentiment, *Blind and you need y' glasses.*

Find illustrations on pages 50, 65. Notice that the italics have a different significance on page 58.

**b.** Usually to enclose titles of books; but names of magazines or papers are more commonly printed in italics.

In examining *The Atlantic, Notion, Scribner's Monthly, Harper's, Appleton's Magazine, Lippincott's, Popular Science Monthly, Galaxy, Eclectic, N. A. Review, New Englander, London Quarterly, British Quarterly, Westminster Review, Edinburgh Review, Contemporary Review, The Fortnightly Review*, we find that thirteen of these use quotation marks, and four use italics, in referring to the titles of books; eleven use italics, and six use quotation marks, in referring to magazines and papers.—*COCKER.*

Explain the uses of quotation marks on pages 28, 32, 35, 51, 55, 80, 87, 114.

## VI. The Dash (—) must be used:

**a.** When a sentence is broken off abruptly, by interruption or otherwise. Thus:

A colonel was once complaining that from the ignorance and inattention of his officers he was obliged to do the whole duty of his regiment. Said he, "I am my own captain, my own lieutenant—" "And your own trumpeter," broke in a lady who was listening.

Find illustrations on pages 51, 68, 79, 129, 146, 148.

**b.** Where the sentence is concluded in an emphatic or unexpected manner, especially by an epigrammatic turn. Thus :

Never try to tell what you don't know ;—life is too short.

No one minds what Jeffrey says,—it is not more than a week ago that I heard him speak disrespectfully of the Equator.—*SIRNEY SMITH.*

Animals are such agreeable friends—they ask no questions, they pass no criticisms.—*GRONOX ELIOT.*

A moral, sensible, and well-bred man  
Will not affront me,—and no other can.—*COWPER.*

Every one is as God has made him—and oftentimes a great deal worse.—*DON QUIXOTE.*

The pith of my system is to make the senses out of the mind,—not the mind out of the senses, as Locke did.—*COLMUNDON.*

Find illustrations on pages 72, 75, 85, 108, 238.

**c.** To show the omission of part of a word or name which one hesitates to write in full. Thus :

A newly elected Assemblyman signed the hotel register with a flourish. "I am Hon. ———, of ———," he pompously announced to the clerk.—"That doesn't make any difference," was the reply ; "we'll treat you just as well as if you were anybody else." Entering a lawyer's office next day, the legislator was invited to take a chair till the man of law was at leisure. "But, I am Hon. ———, of ———," he remonstrated.—"Oh, indeed! Then take two chairs."

Find illustrations on pages 18, 51, 72.

**d.** To show faltering, or hesitation, or stammering. Thus :

Wordsworth had boasted to Coleridge that he could write just like Shakspeare if he had the mind to. "B-b-but you see that's just the tr-trouble," suggested Charles Lamb ; "he hasn't the m-m-mind."

Find illustrations on pages 51, 159, 160.

**e.** To separate the speeches in a dialogue, when written in the same paragraph. Thus :

A cobbler at Leyden who used to attend the public disputations was asked if he understood Latin. "No," replied the fellow, "but I know which is wrong in the argument."—"How?"—"Why, by seeing which gets angry first."

**f.** To separate the title from the subject-matter, and the subject-matter from the authority for it, when both are in the same paragraph. Thus :

Notice in a Hoboken ferry-boat :—"The seats in this cabin are reserved for ladies. Gentlemen are requested not to occupy them until the ladies are seated."

Few are qualified to shine in company ; but it is in most men's power to be agreeable. The reason, therefore, why conversation runs so low at present, is not the defect of understanding, but pride, vanity, ill-nature, affectation, singularity, positiveness or some other vice, the effect of a wrong education.—*SWIFT.*

**g.** Between two numbers, to show that they are the extremes of a series including the numbers given and all the intervening ones ; as, pages 245-249 (not pages 245-49, or 245-9), 1776-1876, 1883-84 (not 1883-4).

For other uses of the dash, see Note 30, p. 157 ; Note 40, p. 163.

Explain the uses of the dash on pages 20, 22, 32, 33, 39, 41, 44, 61, 63, 70, 83.

NOTE.—An unfortunate habit prevails among some writers, especially public speakers, of using only the dash for punctuation, and of dividing their sentences in manuscript somewhat according to the pauses they make in reading it. To the compositor or to other readers this is usually more perplexing than no punctuation whatever. The dash should be used only where it is preferable to other points.

## VII. The Comma (,) must be used :

**a.** To separate from the rest of the sentence vocative expressions—the names of persons or things addressed : Thus :

I remain, sir, your obedient servant.



Flow gently, sweet Afton, among thy green braes.

Devise, wit; write, pen: for I am for whole volumes in folio.—*Love's Labor Lost*.

A gentleman, nurse, that loves to hear himself talk; and will speak more in a minute than he will stand to in a month.—*Romeo and Juliet*.

Fletcher, bishop of Nimes, was the son of a tallow-chandler. A great duke endeavored to mortify the prelate by saying to him at the king's levee that he smelt of tallow. To which the bishop, replied, "My lord, it is true I am the son of a chandler; and if your lordship had been the same you would have remained a chandler all the days of your life."

25. When strong emotion is expressed, an exclamation point is sometimes required. Thus:

O Hamlet! thou hast cleft my heart in twain.—*SHAKESPEARE*.

Go, wondrous creature! mount where science guides;  
Go, measure earth, weigh air, and state the tides.—*POPE*.

Dear authors! suit your topics to your strength,  
And ponder well your subject, and its length;  
Nor lift your load, before you're quite aware  
What weight your shoulders will, or will not, bear.—*BYRON*.

Find illustrations on pages 27, 96.

**b.** To separate from each other words of the same part of speech and in the same construction:

(i.) When *not* connected by conjunctions, *always*; as,  
A still, small voice.

26. When two adjectives come together, the second qualifying the noun, and the first qualifying the noun as thus qualified by the second, the two adjectives are not in the same construction, and take no comma between them; as, A spirited gray horse; He was a brave, honest, and good old man.

NOTE.—When the first adjective modifies the second, a hyphen should connect them: as, a red-hot stove.

27. The second and succeeding words take commas after as well as before them:

a. When the same word is repeated for emphasis; as, Verily, verily, I say unto you.

Water, water, everywhere,  
Nor any drop to drink.—*COLERIDGE*.

Alone, alone, all, all alone,  
Alone on a wide, wide sea.—*COLERIDGE*.

I'll give my jewels for a set of beads;  
My gorgeous palace for a hermitage;  
My gay apparel, for an almsman's gown;  
My figured gublets, for a dish of wood;  
My scepters, for a palmer's walking-staff;  
My subjects, for a pair of carved saints;  
And my large kingdom, for a little grave,  
A little, little grave,—an obscure grave.—*Richard II.*

The living man who does not learn, is dark, dark, like one walking in the night.—*Mrs. SAM PAOR KEEL*.

Why he is blind, blind as a bat.

NOTE.—A word repeated, even with a conjunction, sometimes requires separation, that it may be more dwelt upon. Thus:

One may smile, and smile, and be a villain.—*Hamlet*.

β. When the words are nouns used as the subjects of a verb; as, Expostulation, indignation, were powerless.

Mistake, wear, is the discipline through which we advance.—*CHANNING*.

(H.) When connected by conjunctions ONLY:

a. When the words are more than two in number; as,  
The deed was done nobly, bravely, and modestly.

To quote copiously and well, requires taste, judgment, and erudition, a feeling for the beautiful, an appreciation of the noble, and a sense of the profound.—*BOYLE*.

28. The comma is often, but erroneously, omitted before the conjunction connecting the last two words of the series. This leads to ambiguity. For example:

The following boats have arrived: *Egypt, Mary and Agnes, Swan, Star and Crescent.*

Now, have four boats come in, or five? If the rule is followed, the name of the last boat is "Star and Crescent;" but if the writer's punctuation is not to be depended upon, we cannot tell from the sentence as written whether this is the case, or whether he is speaking of two boats, the "Star" and the "Crescent."

Again:

*Mary, Helen and Julia have come.*

Does the writer mean that three girls have come, or is he telling Mary that two girls have come?

29. When the conjunction is repeated before each word of the series, the commas may be omitted when the words rather expand a common idea than introduce new ones. The more emphasis there is upon the individual words of the series, the more need there is for commas.

Hill gives an excellent illustration of this point:

And feeling all along the garden wall,  
Lest he should creak and tumble and be found,  
Crept to the gate, and opened it, and closed.

$\beta$ . When one of the words has qualifiers that do not apply also to the others; as, He is entitled to take the annual crops, and wood for fuel.

Correct, Furs and [the] gold-dust which the natives collect from the sands of the river.—HUC.

There is a tendency to confound concepts and no unanimity as to what rhetoric and its province may be.—P. A. HALPIN.

$\gamma$ . When the words are contrasted, or emphatically distinguished. Thus,

Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;  
Strong, without rage; without utterance, full.

Wit is the salt of conversation, not the food.—HAZLITT.

**c.** To separate pairs of words joined by conjunctions; as, Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote.

Servile and impertinent, shallow and pedantic, a bigot and a sot.—MACAULAY.

**d.** To separate from the rest of the sentence words and phrases used in apposition, except general titles and appellations; as, He left one son, Thomas.

Time, the great destroyer of other men's happiness, only enlarges the patrimony of literature to its possessor.—I. DISNEY.

My civic and poetical compliments to Southey if at Bristol;—

why, he is the very Leviathan of bards—the small minnow, L.—CHARLES LAMB.

30. Sometimes a dash shows more unmistakably that the construction is appositive; as, This point represents a second thought—an emendation. See another illustration in VII. a., above, page 154. Find others on pages 19, 50, 51, 59, 81.

Honor to the men who bring honor to us, glory to the country, dignity to character, release from vacuity, wings to thought, knowledge of things, precision to principles, sweetness to feeling, happiness to the friends—others.—BOYER.

31. Where the appositive expression is restrictive, no comma is used; as, "Enoch Arden" was written by the poet Tennyson; Irving lived on the river Hudson.

32. Although a general title, if the appositive is modified it is preceded by a comma. Thus, Cicero the orator; but, Cicero, the greatest of Roman orators.

**e.** To separate from the rest of the sentence parenthetical remarks.

The word "parenthesis" (*επιπέδησις*) means *side-insertion*, and is used of a word or phrase inserted by way of comment or explanation in a sentence complete without it. This disconnection is more definitely shown by the use of **parentheses** [ ( ) ] or **brackets** [ { } ]. But the modern tendency is to make punctuation as little obtrusive as possible, and in many cases the relation is shown with sufficient definiteness by commas, or by dashes. Indeed, it is not always easy to decide whether a phrase is parenthetical, or simply explanatory. The following illustrations will indicate which of the four points should be used in given cases.

(I.) *The comma used.*

It was, as Henry said, a shame to impose upon him,  
The tuncful Nine, so sacred legends tell,  
First waked their heavenly lyre those comets to tell.—CAMPERELL.

33. Some other point should be preferred when the parenthetical phrase is itself divided by commas. Thus:

For all of us,—that is, John, and Maria, and I,—are agreed that it is best to remain.

34. Nor can commas be used when the parenthetical phrase requires a mark of exclamation or interrogation. Thus :

Spill not the morning (the quintessence of the day !) in recreations.—*FULLER.*

(ii.) *The dash used.*

Words are wise men's counters—they do not reckon by them—but they are the money of fools.—*HUMPHREYS.*

Our country—whether bounded by the St. John's and the Sabine, or however otherwise bounded and described, and by the measurements more or less—still our country, to be cherished in all our hearts, to be defended by all our hands.—*HANCOCK C. WINTERBORN.*

It contained a warrant for conducting me and my retinue to Trillogdrib or Trillogdrib, for it is pronounced both ways, as near as I can remember, by a party of ten here.—*SWIFT.*

Here dashes after "Trillogdrib" and "remember" would remove the ambiguity of the last clause.

When soft!—the dusky trees between,  
And down the path through the open green,  
Where is no living thing to be seen ;  
And through yon gateway where is forest,  
Beneath the arch with ivy bound,  
Free entrance to the churchyard ground,  
And right across the verdant sod,  
Towards the very house of God !  
—Comes gliding in with lovely gleam,  
Comes gliding in, serene and slow,  
Soft and silent as a dream,  
A solitary doe !—*WOUNSWORTH.*

But words are things, and a small drop of ink,  
Falling like dew upon a thought, produces  
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think ;  
'T is strange, the shortest letter which man uses  
Instead of speech, may form a lasting link  
Of ages ; to what straits old Time reduces  
Faint man, when paper—even a rag like this,  
Survives himself, his tomb, and all that 's his.—*BROWN.*

Here it would be more common to repeat the dash after "this." Find illustrations on pages 41, 59, 127, 133.

(iii.) *Parentheses used.*

A man's body and himself (with the utmost reverence to both I speak it) are exactly like a jacket and a jacket's lining ; rump the one, you rump the other.—*GREENE.*

All knowledge, and wonder (which is the seed of knowledge) is an impression of pleasure in itself.—*RACINE.*

Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)  
Virtue alone is happiness below.—*PARK.*

The motto is, *X pluribus unum* (from many, one).

35. a. If a parenthesis is inserted at a place in the sentence where no point is required, no point should be put before or after the marks of parenthesis.

See first two illustrations above.

β. If the parenthesis is inserted at a place where a point is required,

i. If the parenthesis relates to the entire sentence, the required mark precedes the parenthesis, and the parenthetical expression is punctuated as though it stood alone. Thus :

He had two Latin words almost constantly in his mouth, (how odd sounds Latin from an *olimus's* lip!) which my better knowledge has since enabled me to correct.—*C. LAMB.*  
"Ay! here now! (exclaimed the Critic,) here must Coleridge's metaphysics!"—*Biographia Literaria.*

See also the third illustration above.

ii. If it relates to a single word or a short clause, no mark precedes it, and the required mark follows it. Thus :

By the intercession of his friends (who had interest at court), he obtained his release.

See examples on pages 18, 29, 31, 37, 41, 75.

(iv.) *Brackets used.*

36. Brackets are preferred to parentheses for the following purposes :

a. To indicate that a verbal mistake is copied from an original document ; as, "He complained that he was superceded" [so in the original]. So of any remark or explanation interpolated by one in quoting from another ; thus, on page 25, the words "Horace's," "episode," "if," etc., are put in brackets to show that the one quoting intends to make these grammatical corrections in the original sentences. Had they been put in parentheses they might be assumed to be inserted by the original author. See illustrations on pages 30, 31, 36, 38, 55, 56, 58, 79. Find an error on page 83.

β. To enclose statements of things done which would not appear in a report of the verbal proceedings alone ; as, "Is this [handing a pistol to the witness] the weapon he had in his hand?"

"The gentleman says I'm dr-drunk. [Laughter.] Well, I am drunk; I know I'm drunk; but I shall get over that. But the gentleman himself is a born idiot [rising on tiptoe, and pointing at him unsteadily, and swinging his arms], and he'll n-never get over that!" [Loud applause and laughter.]

Careful attention should be paid to the following:

**r.** When a parenthesis occurs within a parenthesis, brackets should be substituted for the outside pair. Thus:

As for the person aggrieved [I mean (do not mistake me) the original owner], he was basely defrauded.

**f.** Usually, to indicate ellipsis. Thus:

Homer, Cortland Co., N. Y., Aug. 16, 1883.

Alpheus Harkins, Esq., 27 Liberty St., Boston, Mass.

He started, July 10, for Washington.

The ellipsis most frequently indicated by the comma is that of a verb that has been once expressed. Thus:

Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematica, subtle; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.—BACON.

But the comma need be inserted only when the meaning would otherwise be obscure. Thus:

Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.—BACON.

Heading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.—BACON.

Since brevity is the soul of wit,  
And tediousness the limbs and outward flourishes,  
I will be brief.—*Hamlet*.

**g.** To introduce quotations too short or informal to need the colon.

(i.) The comma used.

To Lamb, habitually unpunctual, the head of the office observed, "Really, Mr. Lamb, you come very late." "Y-yes," stammered Lamb, "b-but consider how early I go."

(ii.) The colon used.

Remember the epigram of Disraeli: "Like all great travellers, I have seen more than I remembered, and remembered more than I have seen."

## TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

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## SECTION FIFTH.

## PUNCTUATION—Continued.

The principles of punctuation are subtle, and an exact logical training is requisite for the just application of them. Naturally, then, mistakes in the use of points, as of all the elements of language, written and spoken, are frequent; so much so, in fact, that in the construction of private contracts, and even of statutes, judicial tribunals do not much regard punctuation; and some eminent jurists have thought that legislative enactments and public documents should be without it.—MANN.

## II. RULES DEPENDENT UPON JUDGMENT.

*A Marked Distinction.*—While some of the rules already given allow latitude to differences of interpretation, and even of taste, most of them are rigid. One violates them at the peril of being misunderstood, and with the certainty of being looked upon as defective in education. Though his sentences be constructed with the utmost simplicity, a writer can hardly fail to need every direction that has been given.

We come now to more uncertain ground. *The difficulty of punctuation as an art, and the diversity in usage, are mostly confined to the division of sentences by commas.* It is a general rule that these divisions are to aid the eye in comprehending the construction of the sentence. As to what is the construction of a sentence, what are the relations of the parts to each other, and how these relations may best be indicated by punctuation, judgment and taste differ so widely that no absolute rules can be laid down.

Adverbial phrases, for instance, are to be separated only when they break the connection. But when do they break the connection? To one man, grasping easily the sentence as a whole, no ordinary phrase is an interruption. To another, who works out the meaning little by little, each group of words requires individual study. The latter may be obliged to insert with a lead-pencil a dozen points which the author has thought unnecessary. On the other hand, a rapid reader may feel clogged by a succession of commas that are to him unnecessary and annoying.

Take, for instance, this sentence from "Green's History of the English People" (Harper's edition, iii. 227):

In spite of this Charles had throughout the year been intriguing with the Confederates through Lord Glastonbury; and though his efforts to secure their direct aid were for some time fruitless he succeeded in September in bringing about an armistice between their forces and the army under the Earl of Ormond which had as yet held them in check.

Here is a sentence without a comma that many writers would have divided by commas after *this, had, year, Confederates, were, time, fruitless, succeeded, September, Ormond, had, yet*—no less than twelve commas for which rules can be found in most treatises on punctuation, and no one of which, if all were inserted, could be called an error.

On the other hand, the sentence as it stands must be pronounced faultless. It is perspicuous, easily read, easily understood. The only possible misconception would be as to the last relative clause. It is an accepted rule that a relative clause not separated by a comma is restrictive. Applying that rule here, it might be inferred that there was some other army under the Earl of Ormond that had not held them in check. But as it happens, Mr. Green follows the rule to use *that* to introduce restrictive clauses, and *which* to introduce those that modify without restricting; hence he makes the distinction clear without punctuation. There is therefore in this sentence the liberty under rules to use any number of commas from none to twelve. Surely there is nothing absolute in rules so variously construed.

It should be remarked, however, that only care in the arrange-

ment of clauses makes it possible to dispense with punctuation. Construct the sentence as follows, and no one of the twelve commas can be spared :

Charles had been intriguing, in spite of this, through Lord Glamorgan, throughout the year, with the Confederates; and he succeeded, though his efforts were fruitless to secure their direct aid, for some time, in bringing about an armistice, in September, between their forces and the army which, as yet, under the Earl of Ormond, had held them in check.

**HE PUNCTUATES BEST WHO NEEDS TO PUNCTUATE LEAST.**—A comparison of the two sentences just given will impress upon the reader a principle of composition than which no other is more important:—*The less punctuation a sentence needs, the more clear and effective it is.*

This does not mean that all sentences are to be short, with one subject and one predicate. Delicate shades of meaning often require complicated sentences. Our statement is, not that an unpunctuated sentence is better than another sentence which requires considerable punctuation, but that a given sentence is improved when, by a re-arrangement of its clauses, fewer punctuation marks are required. These marks are often, and rightly, called "stops." To a certain extent they are interruptions of the flow of the sentence. The notion that they indicate where one reading aloud is to pause, either for breath or for emphasis, was long ago given up. They are simply aids to unravel a tangled sentence. What can be clearer than that a sentence should be as little tangled as possible?

For the peace of mind of thousands of women who are wretched cooks, the writer of the following paragraph should so have arranged his clauses as to escape being at the mercy of a careless printer who drops a comma :

An unfortunate wife was killed at Troy, N. Y., while cooking her husband's breakfast in a fearful manner.

Punctuation may remove an ambiguity, but will never produce

that peculiar beauty which is perceived when the sense comes out clearly and distinctly by means of a happy arrangement.—KAMEN.

The introduction of marks of punctuation into Latin manuscript was specially favored by the inflexible character of the Latin language, which incessantly demands a periodic structure, and, like a true pedagogue, pedantically insists that the reader shall parse every word in order to master the sentence. Once employed they become indispensable. Beginning with air-bladders we never learn to swim without them. Every parenthesis must have its landmark, every turn of phrase its finger-post. We think by commas, semicolons and periods, and the free movements of a Demosthenes or a Thucydides are as unlike the measured, balanced tread of a modern orator or historical narrator, as the flight of an eagle to the lock step of a prison convict, or to the march of a well-drilled soldier, who can plant his foot only at the tap of the drum. We are not content with a punctuation which marks the beginning and end of a period, separates its members, and distinguishes parenthetical qualifications. We require that it shall indicate the rhetorical character of the sentence. If it is vocative, ejaculatory, optative, interjectional, it must hold an exclamation point as a signal. If it is hypothetical or interrogative, it must announce itself by a mark of interrogation; and the Spaniards carry the point so far, that, in their typography, these signs precede as well as follow the sentence.—MARRI.

### VIII. The Comma may be used :

**a.** To separate from the rest of the sentence, adverbs, adverbial conjunctions, and short adverbial clauses ONLY when they break the connection. (See Note V., page 89.)

#### (I.) Commas required :

There is, therefore, a limit at which forbearance ceases to be a virtue.—BRUCE.

In strict justice, perhaps, he should be punished.

Wit, like money, bears an extra value when rung down immediately it is wanted. Men pay severely who require credit.—JIM-BOLD.

You shall see them on a beautiful quarto page, where a neat rivulet of text shall meander through a meadow of margin.—SHERIDAN.

#### (II.) Commas not required :

Therefore there is a limit at which forbearance ceases to be a virtue.

Perhaps in strict justice he should be punished.

Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.—POPE.

A little nonsense now and then  
Is relished by the best of men.

Silence when nothing need be said is the eloquence of discretion.—BOVEN.

The systematic study of the mother tongue, like that of all branches of knowledge which we acquire, to a sufficient extent for ordinary purposes, without study, is naturally very generally neglected.—MANN.

Here the comma after "acquire" and "purposes" merely clog the flow of thought, making the idea less distinct.

Special changes of vocabulary are frequently explained, after they have once happened, but very seldom foretold.—MANN.

Here the "after they have [once] happened" is closely connected with the "explained," the whole expression "explained after they have happened" corresponding with the single word "foretold." Hence the comma after "explained" obscures the sense.

Find other illustrations on page 98.

### (iii.) Commas used or not, according to preference :

Words indeed are but the signs and counters of knowledge, and their currency should be strictly regulated by the capital which they represent.—COXON.

Beneath the robe of men entirely great  
The pen is mightier than the sword.—BROWNE.

The thoughts that come unsought, and, as it were, drop into the mind, are commonly the most valuable of any we have, and therefore they should be secured, because they seldom return again.—LOCKE.

When I read rules of criticism, I inquire immediately after the works of the author who has written them, and by that means discover what it is he likes in a composition.—ADISON.

### (iv.) Commas used or not, according to meaning :

Just at the age 'twixt boy and youth,  
When thought is speech, and speech is truth.—MARMION.

Here to insert a comma after age, would mean that the age when thought is speech covers the entire period from boy to youth,

while to omit it would mean that this age is restricted to a period somewhere between boy and youth, but not covering the entire time.

He endeavored in every possible way to undermine his rival.

As unpunctuated, or with commas after "endeavored" and "way," the "every possible way" would signify that his endeavors were of every kind. A comma after "endeavored" would indicate that the undermining was to be of every possible kind. In other words, the first punctuation would throw the emphasis upon the methods employed; the latter, upon the results obtained.

The Toast as Given.—"Woman; without her, man is a savage."  
The Toast as Read.—"Woman, without her man, is a savage."

A barber's sign read as follows :

What do you think  
I'll shave you for nothing, and give you a drink.

Strangers would mentally punctuate it as follows :

What do you think !  
I'll shave you for nothing, and give you a drink.

But after being attended to, they were assured that the meaning was as follows :

What I do you think  
I'll shave you for nothing, and give you a drink !

37. *Adverbs distinguished from Conjunctions.*—Many words ranked as adverbs are sometimes employed conjunctively, and require a different treatment in their punctuation. When used as conjunctions, *however, now, then, too, indeed,* are divided by commas from the context; but when as adverbs, qualifying the words with which they are associated, the separation should not be made. This distinction will be seen from the following examples :

1. *HOWEVER.*—We must, *however,* pay some deference to the opinions of the wise, *however* much they are contrary to our own.
2. *NOW.*—I have now shown the consistency of my principles; and, *now,* what is the fair and obvious conclusion ?
3. *THEN.*—On these facts, *then,* I then rested my argument, and afterwards made a few general observations on the subject.

4. *Too*.—I found *too*, a theatre at Alexandria, and another at Cairo; but he who would enjoy the representations must not be too particular.

5. *Interim*.—The young man was indeed culpable in that art, though, indeed, he conducted himself very well in other respects.

When placed at the end of a sentence or a clause, the conjunction *too* must not be separated from the context by a comma; as, "I would that they had changed voices *too*."—WILSON.

**b.** *To separate the subject from the predicate, ONLY when:*

(i.) The subject ends with a verb; as, Whatever is, is right.

(ii.) The subject is so long and involved that it is difficult to see where it ends and the predicate begins. Thus:

The voice of praise, too, coming from those to whom we had thought ourselves unknown, has a magic about it that must be felt to be understood.—LEVIN.

He who comes up to his own idea of greatness, must always have had a very low standard of it in his mind.—HAGLETT.

He that will lose his friend for a jest, deserves to die a beggar by the bargain.—POLLER.

To write much, and to write rapidly, are empty boasts. The world desires to know what you have done, and not how you did it.—LEVIN.

He that cometh in print because he would be known, is like the fool that cometh into the Market because he would be seen.—LILLY.

There are few delights in any life so high and rare as the subtle and strong delight of sovereign art and poetry; there are none more pure and sublime. To have read the greatest work of any great poet, to have beheld or heard the greatest works of any great painter or musician, is a possession added to the best things of life.—SWINBURNE.

Discretion of speech is more than eloquence; and to speak agreeably to him with whom we deal, is more than to speak in good words, or in good order.—BACON.

*My tongue within my lips I rein,  
For who talks much, must talk in vain.*—GAY.

38. Whether it is difficult to see where the predicate begins is usually a matter of judgment.

Find examples on pages 26, 50.

Usually the comma should be omitted unless its need is manifest. Thus:

A wise man in the company of the ignorant has been compared by the sage to a beautiful girl in the company of blind men.—SAUND.

Sometimes, however, ambiguity is manifest, and unless the sentence is reconstructed the comma must be used.

39. Sometimes, especially in contrasted expressions, a comma may be inserted to compel attention to each member of the sentence; as, Mind unemployed, is mind unenjoyed.—BOVEN.

40. When the subject consists of several clauses, especially when each ends with a semicolon, the last commonly ends either with a comma followed by a dash, or with a colon, and all the clauses are summed up in some one word or expression.

There is scarce a village in Europe, and not one university, that is not furnished with its little great men. The head of a petty corporation, who opposes the designs of a prince who would tyrannically force his subjects to save their best clothes for Sundays; the puny pedant, who teaches undiscovered quality in the polygon, or describes an extended process in the skeleton of a mole, and whose eye, like his microscope, perceives nature only in detail; the rhymist, who makes smooth verses and paints to our imagination, when he should only speak in our hearts,—all equally fancy themselves walking forward to immortality, and desire the crowd behind them to look on.

A pickpocket in every car; a cheat at every station; every third switch on the road misplaced; the danger of being hurled from the track, and then burned alive; these considerations prevent my travelling on the railroad of which you speak.

When you know a thing, to hold that you know it; and when you do not know a thing, to allow that you do not know it; this is knowledge.—COMPTON.

Style! style! why, all writers will tell you that it is the very thing which can least of all be changed. A man's style is nearly as much a part of him as his physiognomy, his figure, the throbbing of his pulse,—in short, as every part of his being which is least subjected to the action of the will.—FRANKLIN.

It is no proof of a man's understanding to be able to confess whatever he pleases; but to be able to discern that what is true is true, and that what is false is false; this is the mark and character of intelligence.—EASTMAN.

There are three friendships that are advantageous, and three that are injurious. Friendship with the upright; friendship with the sincere; and friendship with the man of observation; these are advantageous. Friendship with the man of specious airs; friendship with the insincerely soft; and friendship with the glib-tongued; these are injurious.—COMPTON.

Find examples on pages 41, 106.



**c.** To separate the object from the predicate ONLY when without it there would be manifest ambiguity. Thus:

Friends to whom you are in debt, you hate.—WYCHMURLEY. Without the comma, it might be the friends who were hated, or the debt.

**d.** Before the first "that" in clauses introduced by "It is said that," "I answer that," etc., when there are several propositions in the same construction. Thus:

It was a cutting remark of Sheridan's, that a certain speaker was indebted to his imagination for his facts, and that he relied upon his memory for his wit.

Philosophers assert, that Nature is unlimited in her operations, that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve, that knowledge will be always progressive, and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries of which we have not the slightest idea.

41. After nouns like *maxim, rule, fact, law, principle, etc.*, a single proposition may take a comma before the *that*; as, It is an old maxim, that fast bound is fast found.

42. Where such a proposition is introduced by the verb *to be*, a comma is usually inserted before the *that*. Thus:

Let our object be, our country, our whole country, and nothing but our country.—WASSER.

There is, first, the literature of knowledge; and, secondly, the literature of power. The function of the first is, to teach; the function of the second is, to move: the first is a rudder, the second an oar or a sail. The first speaks to the mere discursive understanding; the second speaks ultimately, it may happen, to the higher understanding or reason, but always through affections of pleasure and sympathy.—DR. QUICKER.

43. When the introductory clause is long, it makes the proposition more definite and emphatic to insert the comma; as, It is the ruin of all the young talent of the day, that reading and writing are simultaneous.—MRS. FLETCHER.

**e.** To separate co-ordinate clauses, where each thought demands distinct, but not emphatically distinct, consideration; as, Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.—BACON.

It is only in the separation of co-ordinate clauses that there is any reason in the old rule of counting one for a comma, two for a semicolon, three for a colon, and four for a period. In this use of the marks, the author indicates the time he wishes each individual thought of a series to receive by the importance of the points by which he separates them. Thus, to quote a familiar line from Tennyson,

Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers,

the use of the comma distinguishes the two ideas, but does not emphatically contrast them. If the line were written,

Knowledge comes; but wisdom lingers,

the mind would be compelled to dwell a moment longer on the contrast. If it were written,

Knowledge comes: but wisdom lingers,

the contrast would be still more marked. If it were written,

Knowledge comes. But wisdom lingers,

or,

Knowledge comes.—But wisdom lingers,

the reader would feel that the author meant to give this thought all possible emphasis. Or if, again, it were written,

Knowledge comes but wisdom lingers,

the effect would be somewhat that of repeating a familiar proverb, remembered as a whole, without care to distinguish its connection of thought.

Where so much depends upon a shade of meaning, more can be learned from example than from precept; so in place of arbitrary rules we give a number of typical sentences.

(i.) *No point used.*

A student of punctuation should ask himself why in a given case he put in a stop rather than why to leave one out; for the insertion of unnecessary stops is, in the whole, more likely to mislead a reader than is the omission of necessary ones.—A. S. HILL.

Here the contrast requires a comma between *stop* and *rather*.

It is in general more profitable to reckon up our defects than to boast of our attainments.—CASTLE.

The true use of speech is not so much to express our wants as to conceal them.—**GOLDSMITH.**

(ii.) *The comma used.*

Where nature's end of language is declined,  
And men talk only to conceal their mind.—**YOUNG.**  
'Tis copious Dryden wanted, or forgot,  
The last and greatest art, the art to blot.—**POPE.**  
For rhetoric he could not give  
His mouth, but out there flew a trope.—**MADDOCK.**

Conceit may puff a man up, but never prop him up.—**ROBIN.**

The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool.—**As You Like It.**

Occasions do not make a man frail, but they show that he is.—**THOMAS À KEMP.**

His face was without form and dark, the stars did twinkled through his form.—**OSCAR.**

Master books, but do not let them master you. Read to live, not live to read.—**BUTLER.**

His heart was as great as the world, but there was no room in it to hold the memory of a wrong.—**EMERSON.**

It is not always the depth or the novelty of a thought which constitutes its value to ourselves, but the fitness of its application to our circumstances.—**SEWELL.**

No great genius was ever without some mixture of madness, nor can anything grand or superior to the voice of common mortals be spoken except by the agitated soul.—**ARISTOTLE.**

The mind never unbends itself so agreeably as in the conversation of a well-chosen friend. There is indeed no blessing in life that is any way comparable to the enjoyment of a discreet and virtuous friend. It calms and unties the mind, cleans and improves the understanding, engenders thoughts and knowledge, animates virtue and good resolutions, soothes and allays the passions, and finds employment for most of the vacant hours of life.—**ADDISON.**

God be thanked for books. They are the voices of the distant and the dead, and make us heirs of the spiritual life of past ages. Books are the true levelers. They give to all who will faithfully use them the society, the spiritual presence of the best and greatest of our race. No matter how poor I am, no matter though the prosperity of my own house will not enter my humble dwelling. If the sacred writers will enter and take up their abode under my roof, if Milton will cross my threshold to sing to me of Paradise, and Shakespeare, to open to me the worlds of imagination and the workings of the human heart, and Franklin to enrich me with his practical wisdom, I shall not pine for want of intellectual companionship, and I may become a cultivated man though excluded from what is called the best society, in the place where I live.—**CHANNING.**

Find other illustrations on pages 119, 125.

(iii.) *The semicolon used.*

Some must watch, while some must sleep;  
So runs the world away.—**BARBARA.**

Men's evil manners live in brass; their virtues we write in water.—**SHAKESPEARE.**

Learning without thought is labor lost; thought without learning is perilsous.—**COURTUS.**

What the great man seeks is in himself; what the small man seeks is in others.—**COURTES.**

Gossip is a sort of smoke that comes from the dirty tobacco-pipes of those who diffuse it; it proves nothing but the bad taste of the smoker.—**GAMMON EATER.**

The sublime and the ridiculous are often so nearly related, that it is difficult to class them separately. One step below the sublime makes the ridiculous; and one step above the ridiculous makes the sublime again.—**FAIRB.**

44. *Clauses that are themselves divided by commas should be divided from each other by semicolons.* Thus:

Words learned by rote a parrot may rehearse,  
But talking is not always to converse;  
Not more distinct from harmony divine  
The constant croaking of a country sign.—**COWPER.**  
We think our fathers fools, so wise we grow;  
Our wiser sons, no doubt, will think us so.—**POPE.**

English is an expressive language, but not difficult to master. Its range is limited; it consists, as far as I can observe, of four words, "nice," "jolly," "charming," and seven grammarians add "fond."—**DUNNALL.**

The orator persuades and carries all with him, he knows not how; the rhetorician can prove that he might be have persuaded and carried all with him.—**CARLYLE.**

Equality is the life of conversation; and he is as much out who assumes to himself any part above another, as he who considers himself below the rest of the society.—**SHRELL.**

Whatever be the number of a man's friends, there will be times in his life when he had one too few; but if he has only one enemy, he is lucky indeed if he has not one too many.—**BUTLER.**

There is no harm in being stupid, so long as a man does not think himself clever; no good in being clever, if a man thinks himself so, for that is a short way to the worst stupidity.—**MACDONALD.**

A slender acquaintance with the world must convince every man that actions, not words, are the true criterion of the attachment of friends; and that the most liberal professions of good-will are very far from being the surest marks of it.—**WATERBURY.**

In literature quotation is good only when the writer whom I follow goes my way, and, being better mounted than I, gives me a seat as we say; but if I like the gay equisage as well as to go out of my road, I had better have gone about.—**BARBARA.**

When self-esteem expresses itself in contempt of another, be it the meanest, it must be repellent. A suppliant, frivolous man may ridicule others, may controvert them, sneer them; but he who has any respect for himself seems to have renounced the right of thinking meanly of others.—**GURNER.**

Poetry, above all, we should have known long ago, is one of those mysterious things whose origin and developments never can be what we call explained; often it seems to us like the wind, blowing where it lists, coming and departing with little or no regard to any the most cunning theory that has yet been devised of it.—**CARLYLE.**

Find illustrations on pages 20, 23, 27, 31, 33, 35, 73, 76, 83, 85, 106, 114, 120, 131.

(iv.) *The colon used.*

Great things astonish us, and small dishearten; custom makes both familiar.—**DE LA BARRIÈRE.**

45. *Clauses that are themselves divided by semicolons may be divided from each other by colons.* Thus :

Think all you speak ; but speak not all you think ;  
Thoughts are your own ; your words are so no more ;  
Where Wisdom steers, wind cannot make you sink ;  
Lips never err, when she does keep the dock.—DE LA RUE.

In friendships some are worthy, and some are necessary ; some dwell hard by, and are fitted for converse ; nature joins some to us, and religion combines us with others ; society and solitude, parity of fortune, and equal disposition, do actuate all our friendships ; which of themselves and in their prime dispositions are prepared for all mankind according as any one can receive them.—JEREMY TAYLOR.

Find illustrations on pages 37, 39, 43, 132, 182. Notice neglect of this rule on pages 35, 116, 135.

46. Hence the colon is especially adapted to separate from other clauses a clause that summarizes them.

There are but two ways of paying debt : increase of industry in raising income, increase of thrift in laying out.—CARLTON.

It is with books as with men : a very small number play a great part ; the rest are confounded with the multitude.—VOLTAIRE.

Find illustrations on pages 77, 169.

47. But when clauses that expand a thought are introduced by *namely, to wit, as, thus, etc.*, a semicolon precedes and a comma follows these introductory words. Thus :

As for jest, there be certain things which ought to be privileged from it ; namely, religion, matters of state, great persons, any man's present business of importance, any case that deserveth pity.—BACON.

Even when *namely* or the like word is omitted, the semicolon is retained if the structure remains the same. Thus :

Inefficiency is not a vice of the soul, but the effect of several vices ; of vanity, ignorance of duty, laziness, stupidity, distraction, contempt of others, and jealousy.—DR. LA DUNN.

Find illustrations on pages 36, 49, 50, 59, 87, 122.

(v.) *The sentence divided into two or more sentences.*

There is no such thing as a dumb poet or a handless painter. The essence of an art is that he should be articulate.—SWISSBURNE.

Just as it may cost a strong man less effort to carry a hundred-weight from place to place at once, than by a stone at a time ; so to an active mind it may be easier to bear along all the qualifications of an idea and at once rightly form it when named, than to first imperfectly conceive such idea and then carry back to it, one by one, the details

and limitations afterward mentioned. While conversely, as for a boy, the only possible mode of transferring a hundred-weight, is that of taking it in portions ; so, for a weak mind, the only possible mode of forming a compound conception, may be that of including it up by carrying separately its several parts.—HERRING BRIDGES.

1. *To set off Dependent Clauses, when the connection is not close.*

(i.) *Relative Clauses, when not restrictive.* Introduced by the *Divisible Relative*. (See Part I., Adjective Sentences.)

Usage on this point is so uniform that the comma should be omitted only by those who so construct their sentences as to use very few commas. (See page 153.) It is commonly understood that he who writes,

The scholar, who loves his books, is to be envied,

uses the word *scholar* in a general sense, implying that all scholars love their books and are to be envied ; while to say

The scholar who loves his books is to be envied,

is to *restrict* the predicate to that kind of scholar who does love his books, implying that there are scholars (in this case using the word in the sense of *pupil*) who do not love their books. In the first case, the relative clause is *descriptive*, mentioning one of the characteristics of a scholar, in a clause that might be omitted without changing the essential statement. In the second case, the relative clause is *restrictive*, not to be omitted without changing the meaning. Hence the observance of this distinction is of great importance. There are laws on many statute books, the effect of which has been either lost or perverted, because they were drawn by legislators unfamiliar with this principle. (See page 183.)

*Restrictive clauses.* Introduced by the *Indivisible Relative*.

There is no true orator who is not a hero.—EATHEON.

We consist in knowing the resemblance of things that differ, and the difference of things that are alike.—DE BRADA.

Education alone can conduct us to that enjoyment which is at once best in quality and infinite in quantity.—MANN.

Every school-boy and school-girl who has arrived at the age of reflection ought to know something about the history of the art of printing.—**MANN.**

Only the refined and delicate pleasures that spring from research and education can build up barriers between different ranks.—**DR FRANK.**

They are never alone that are accompanied with noble thoughts.—**SHARPE.**

Those who live on vanity must not unreasonably expect to die of justification.—**MARSHALL.**

But far more numerous was the herd of such  
Who think too little, and who talk too much.—**DRYDEN.**

But every page having an ample margin,  
And every margin enclosing in the midst  
A square of text that looks a little lost.—**TRISTRAM.**

The art of quotation requires more dexterity in the practice than those critics who can see nothing more in a quotation than an extract.—**L. DISRAELI.**

There is a great deal of untrapped country within us which would have to be taken into account in explanation of our gusts and storms.—**GEORGE ELIOT.**

Find illustrations on pages 19, 21, 22.

48. Even before restrictive clauses a comma is necessary, when the relative is separated from its antecedent and likely to be connected with some other word. Thus:

He is a fool,  
Who only sees the mischief that are past.—**BRYANT'S IDYL.**

### *Clauses not restrictive.*

There were very few passengers, who escaped without serious injury.

This means that all the passengers were saved. Omit the comma, and the meaning is that nearly all the passengers were injured.

Men of great conversational power almost universally practice a sort of lively sophistry and exaggeration, which deceives, for the moment, both themselves and their auditors.—**MACAULAY.**

The things which are seen are temporal.  
The man who laughed loudly was the thief.

The above restrictive clauses may be thus converted into non-restrictive:

Things, which are seen, appeal more directly to the sight than words, which are only heard.

He handed it to the man, who laughed loudly and tossed it in the air.

*Clauses restrictive and non-restrictive in the same sentence.*

It was the necessity which made me a quaker, that taught me to be a geologist.—**HENRY MILLER.**

When it is the head of the family, who is usually the bread-winner, that is laid prostrate.

It is this exclusively national spirit, and the unkindness contained for other people, that the English are so accustomed to express in their manner and conduct, which have made us so generally unpopular on the Continent.—**H. MATTHEWS.**

Flesh is but the glass which holds the dust that measures all our time, which also shall be crumbled to dust.—**GEORGE HERBERT.**

49. The same distinction in relative clauses should be observed in the choice of the relative pronoun. In restrictive clauses, *that* should be used instead of *which*, or *who*.

In Worcester's Dictionary, some specifications are made under this rule, as follows:

"There are cases in which *that* is properly used when applied to persons, instead of *who*: 1st. When it follows the interrogative *who*, or an adjective in the superlative degree; as, 'Who *that* has any sense of right would reason thus?' 'He was the wisest person *that* I saw.' 2d. When it follows the pronominal adjective *some*; as, 'He was the same man *that* I saw before.' 3d. When persons make but a part of the antecedent; as, 'The man and things *that* he mentioned.' 4th. After an antecedent introduced by the relative *it*; as, 'It was I, not he, *that* did it.'"

Abbott gives these exceptions:

(a) When the antecedent is defined, e.g. by a possessive case, modern English uses *who* instead of *that*. It is rare, though it would be useful, to say "His English friends *that* had not seen him" for "the English friends, or those of his English friends, that had not seen him."

(b) *That* sounds ill when separated from its verb and from its antecedent, and emphasized by isolation: "There are many persons *that*, though unscrupulous, are commonly good-tempered, and *that*, if not strongly incited by self-interest, are ready for the most part to think of the interest of their neighbors." Shakespeare frequently uses *who* after *that* when the relative is repeated. See "Shakespearean Grammar," par. 101.

(c) If the antecedent is qualified by *that*, the relative must not be *that*. Besides other considerations, the repetition is disagreeable. Addison ridicules such language as "That remark *that* I made yesterday is not *that that* I said *that* I regretted *that* I had made."

(d) *That* cannot be preceded by a preposition, and hence throws the preposition to the end. "This is the rule *that* I adhere to." This is perfectly good English, though sometimes unnecessarily avoided. But, with some prepositions, the construction is harsh and objectionable, e.g. "This is the mark *that* I jumped beyond." "Such were the prejudices *that* he rose above." The reason is that some of these disjunctive prepositions are used as adverbs, and, when separated from their nouns, give one the impression that they are used as adverbs.

(e) After pronominal adjectives used for personal pronouns, modern English prefers *who*. "There are many, others, several, those, *who* can testify, etc." [Here there is good authority the other way.]

(f) After *that* used as a conjunction there is sometimes a dislike to use *that* as a relative. See (c).

The distinction in the use of *that* as a restrictive is comparatively modern. Blair (Lecture xx.) censures Addison for writing, "A man of a polite imagination is let into a great many pleasures *that* the vulgar are not capable of receiving," saying, "In some cases we are indeed obliged to use *that* for a relative in order to avoid the ungraceful repetition of *which* in the same sentence. But when we are laid under no necessity of the kind, *which* is always the preferable word."

The following examples are quoted from Hodgson's "Errors in the Use of English:"

It is quite clear that it is not the last weight raised which regulates the weight of the letter; but the weight of the letter which regulates which is the last weight which will be raised. - H. D. MacLEON. (Of these four "whiches," all but the third should be "that.")

There is probably no one of this generation who bestows any thought upon the problems of history and politics, who will not acknowledge his indebtedness to Mr. Carlyle. - *London Times*. (Here Mr. Hodgson corrects the second "who" to "that;" but strictly both "whos" should be "thats," and emphasis would preserve the second "who" rather than the first.)

So often in conjunctive sentences "that" might well be changed to "which" on account of the "that" in the line following.

The crisis is one of the most singular which [that] have ever occurred. - *Communist*.  
It was this which [that] such his sect so feared and hated among certain classes in Rome. - W. W. Brown.

But next to the novelty and originality of these tales, it was their matchless force and vigor which [that] magnetically attracted the reading world. - *ELAN*.

Going back to the illustrations of the use of the comma in relative clauses, page 175, under *Restrictive Clauses*, in the quotation from Emerson "that" should be substituted for "who." In the first quotation from Mann, "which" is preferred to "that," because another "that" has just preceded "enjoyment." In the second quotation from Mann, "who" should be "that." The second word in the quotation from Mrs. Ellis should be "that," and in the second line from Dryden "as" should in both places be substituted for "who." In the last line from Tennyson, to omit the comma and use "that" throws the emphasis upon *blot*, while to insert a comma after "text" and substitute "which" for "that," would leave the emphasis upon *text*, making the last clause a descriptive after-thought. Disraeli should have written "that" instead of "who," and if George Eliot retained "which," she should have put the comma before it. In that case the emphasis of

thought would lie upon the statement that there is an unmapped country within us, while to omit the comma and substitute "that" for "which" would throw the emphasis upon the idea of explanation. As it stands, the sentence is therefore ambiguous. Under *Clauses restrictive and non-restrictive*, page 177, in the quotation from Matthews "that" and "which" should be transposed.

Make corrections on pages 21, 22, 70.

With these hints, the student should be able to discriminate as to the use of the relatives; and he is urged to observe with reference to this rule all relative clauses he encounters, until the distinction becomes habitual.

Find errors under this head on pages 27, 44.

The caution so often given should here be repeated, that this discrimination is for the student's own use—not for criticism of the usage of others. The careful writer and speaker will be sure that his restrictive pronoun is "that," except when the previous use of "that" as an adjective pronoun would make "who" or "which" more euphonious. But he will not pronounce a sentence ungrammatical that violates this rule; for if he did he might be confronted with examples from almost every noted writer of English: with the uniform usage of Lord Macaulay in his essays, for instance.

(H.) Other Dependent Clauses except when so short or so immediately connected with what precedes and follows that the meaning is unmistakable.

As has been remarked, the ideal sentence is so arranged that it requires the minimum of punctuation. In some sentences the arrangement is so faulty that punctuation cannot remove the ambiguity. Thus:

"Biddy," said a lady to her servant, "I wish you would step over and see how old Mrs. Jones is this morning." In a few minutes Biddy returned with the information that Mrs. Jones was seventy-two years, seven months, and twenty-eight days old.

☞ Every School and College in the United States should have a copy of "Comstock's Colored Chart" hanging on its walls, for the instruction of its pupils, which will be supplied at 20 per cent. off of retail price, or \$4.00 each.

The rising tomb a lofty column bears. - *Pope*.

And thus the son the fervent sire addressed. - *Pope*.

He takes young children in his arms,

And in his bosom bears,

In other sentences unusual punctuation may be required to make perspicuous a sentence ambiguously worded. Thus :

Not only Jesuits can equivocate.—DEYDER.

Here a comma after "only" will make the meaning that there are other facts besides the fact that Jesuits can equivocate. But a comma after Jesuits will make the meaning that others besides Jesuits can equivocate.

Again :

Young Ilyus, his parents' darling joy,  
When chance misled the mother to destroy.—POPE.

Here a comma after "misled" will indicate that Ilyus destroyed his mother; a comma after "mother," that the mother destroyed Ilyus.

Again :

Solomon, the son of David who  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{built the temple at Jerusalem,} \\ \text{was persecuted by Saul,} \end{array} \right\}$  was the richest monarch that ever reigned.

Here to make the upper clause of the brace applicable, a comma must be inserted before "who;" to make the lower clause applicable the comma must be omitted, though in this case the "who" should properly be "that."

The following sentences, awkward and inelegant as they are, may be made by punctuation to express their intended meaning unmistakably :

He said I could not make mince pies like his mother.  
I perceived it had been secured with half an eye.—*The Guardian*.  
It has not a word but what the author religiously thinks on it.—*POPE*.  
Mr. Dryden makes a very handsome observation on Ovid's writing a letter from Dido to Aeneas in the following words.—*The Spectator*.  
Wanted : a man to fit boots of a great moral character.  
The barber was shot while shaving a customer with a brass-barrelled pistol.  
The following lines were written more than fifty years ago by one who has for many years slept in his grave merely for his own amusement.  
Instead of purity resulting from that arrangement to India, England itself would soon be tainted.—*MACAULAY*.  
The purpose is to bring the act stated into prominence.—*ALROAN*, quoted by *MOORE*.  
I have noticed the word "party" used for an individual occurring in Shakespeare.—*Id.*  
I remember when the French band of the "Gaides" were in this country reading in the *Illustrated News*.—*Id.*

These shrieks, as they are called, are scattered up and down the page by composition without any mercy.—*Id.*

A man does not loan his mother now in the papers.—*Id.*

The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about and halted with the river on their backs.—*GOLDSMITH*.

In an examination in the House of Commons in 1809 a member said that "the witness had been ordered to withdraw from the bar in consequence of being intoxicated by the motion of an honorable member."—*GRAMER*.

Her lady being picked up was carried to the residence of her brother where she died in an express wagon.

In one evening I counted twenty-seven masters sitting on my back-pieces.

The remains were committed to that house from which no traveller returns accompanied by his friends.

There are some defects which must be acknowledged in the dictionary.

Wanted, a young man to take care of a horse of temperate and industrious habits.

Wanted: a saddle horse for a lady weighing about 300 pounds.

"Is there a gentleman with one eye named Walker in the club?"—"I don't know; what was the name of his other eye?"

Mr. Robinson's daughter was run over by a market wagon three years old with one eye and copper-toed shoes that never spike afterward.

We have two school-rooms large enough to accommodate three hundred pupils one above the other.

"I don't want your paper any longer," wrote an angry subscriber.—"I wouldn't make it any longer if you did," replied the editor, "for it would involve a new press."

There is a gift beyond the reach of art of being obsequiously silent.—*DAVEN*.

Just when the comma may be omitted, and just when it is necessary to make clear the relations of dependent clauses, only individual judgment as to the sentence involved can determine. Here are a few illustrations.

### i. *The comma used.*

A compliment is usually accompanied with a bow, as if to beg pardon for saying it.—*J. C. and A. W. HARR*.

Method is not less necessary in ordinary conversation than in writing, providing a man would talk to make himself understood.—*ANDERSON*.

Clap an extinguisher upon your lamp, if you see unhappily blent with a vein of it.—*CHARLES LAMB*.

His tongue

Dropt massua, and would make the worse appear

The better reason, to perplex and dash

Maturest counsels.—*MILTON*.

I've never any pity for emaciated people, because I think they carry their comfort about with them.—*GEORGE ELIOT*.

It is style alone by which posterity will judge of a great work, for an author can have nothing truly his own but his style.—*J. DICKENS*.

Immodest words admit of no defence,

For want of decency is want of sense.—*ROSCOMMON*.

50. Clauses denoting cause or result are frequently introduced by the colon, instead of the comma. Thus :

Let him be kept from paper, pen, and ink;  
So may he cease to write and learn to think.—PATER.

With my friend I desire not to share or participate, but to express his sorrows; that by making them my own, I may more easily discuss them: for in mine own reason, and within myself, I can command that which I cannot resist without myself, and within the circle of another.—SIR THOMAS BROWNE.

## ii. *The comma omitted.*

A man may write at any time if he set himself doggedly to it.—JOHNSON.  
A man may be as much a fool from the want of sensibility as the want of sense.—MR. JAMESON.  
It is much easier to be critical than to be correct.—DICKENS.

Explain the use of all the commas on page 184.

Insert punctuation marks where required in the following paragraphs, keeping in mind that proper names and sentences begin with capital letters, and that the first personal pronoun is always a capital letter.

### I.

A little way below the great fall the river is comparatively speaking so tranquil that a ferry-boat plies between the canada and american shores for the convenience of travellers when i first crossed the heaving flood tossed about the skiff with a violence that seemed very alarming but as soon as we gained the middle of the river my attention was altogether engaged by the surpassing grandeur of the scene before me i was now within the area of a semicircle of cataracts more than three thousand feet in extent and floated on the surface of a gulf raging fathomless and interminable majestic cliffs splendid rainbows lofty trees and columns of spray were the gorgeous decorations of this theatre of wonders while a dazzling sun shed refulgent glories upon every part of the scene surrounded with clouds of vapor and stunned into a state of confusion and terror by the hideous noise i looked upwards to the height of one hundred and fifty feet and saw vast floods dense awful and stupendous vehemently bursting over the precipice and rolling down as if the windows of heaven were opened to pour another deluge upon the

earth loud sounds resembling discharges of artillery or volcanic explosions were now distinguishable amidst the watery tumult and added terrors to the abyss from which they issued the sun looking majestically through the ascending spray was encircled by a radiant halo whilst fragments of rainbows floated on every side and momentarily vanished only to give place to a succession of others more brilliant looking backwards i saw the niagara river again become calm and tranquil rolling magnificently between the towering cliffs that rose on either side and receiving showers of orient dew-drops from the trees that gracefully overarched its transparent bosom.

### II.

There was not the smallest accident that befell king charles the second in his exile but cromwell knew it perfectly well a gentleman who had served the unfortunate charles the first desired leave of cromwell to travel and obtained it on condition that he would not see charles stuart on arriving at cologne however the gentleman broke his promise and sent a message to the exiled king requesting that he might wait on him in the night which was granted having discoursed fully on the affairs of his mission he received a letter from the king which he concealed within the crown of his hat and then took his leave on his return to england he waited on cromwell with confidence and being asked if he had punctually performed his promise he said he had but said cromwell who was it that put out the candles when you spoke to charles stuart this unexpected question startled him and cromwell proceeding asked him what he said to him to which the gentleman answered he said nothing at all but did he not send a letter by you replied the protector the gentleman denying this also cromwell took his hat from him drew out the letter and had the unfortunate messenger committed to the tower.

## Illustrations of the Importance of Correct Punctuation :

IN DENZIE.—An ingenious expedient was devised to save a prisoner charged with robbery, in the Criminal Court at Dublin. The principal thing that appeared in evidence against him was a confession, alleged to have been made by him at the Police Office, and taken down in writing by a police officer. The document purporting to contain this self-accriminating acknowledgment was produced by the officer, and the following passage was read from it :

"Mangan said he never robbed but twice  
"Said it was Cranford."

This, it will be observed, has no mark of the writer's having any notion of punctuation, but the meaning he attached to it was that

"Mangan said he never robbed but twice ;  
"Said it was Cranford."

Mr. O'Griffin, the counsel for the prisoner, begged to look at the paper. He perused it, and rather astonished the judge's officer by asserting that so far from its proving the man's guilt, it clearly established his innocence.

This, said the learned gentleman, is the fair and obvious reading of the sentence :

"Mangan said he never robbed.  
"But twice said it was Cranford."

This interpretation had its effect on the jury, and the man was acquitted.

IN BALTIMORE.—A monthly magazine, in the midst of a very valuable and elaborate article, makes the following serious but very stupid criticism :

"It is possible that the following, taken from the edicts of the Association of Superintendents on the organization of asylums, may throw some light on the mania taken to secure appointments. At a meeting held in Baltimore, May, 1853, the following resolution was adopted: 'The Board of Trustees should be composed of individuals distinguished for liberality, intelligence, and active benevolence; above all, *political* influence.' It is not singular that the American system should become a reproach to us, when such a proposition is to be found among the articles of," etc., etc.

The four words in *italics* having a comma in their midst, are made to say just what the board did not say, and did not intend to say; and the critic, unless intensely prejudiced, must have seen it. The meaning was that the board should be composed of men "above all political influence," in order that appointments may be made impartially and on merit only. The little comma makes the mischief.—*New York Observer*.

IN VERMONT.—The Constitution of the State of Vermont, as printed in the general statutes and other official publications for over eighty years, declares that "the Governor, and in his absence, the Lieutenant-Governor" (in the original Constitution it was the Governor and Council), "shall have power to grant pardons and remit fines, in all cases whatsoever, except in treason and murder, in which they shall have power to grant reprieves, but not to pardon until after the end of the next session of the Assembly." This seems to say, distinctly, that the Governor shall not have power to pardon traitors and murderers until after the end of the next session of Assembly; and by implication it would seem to follow that he may pardon murderers after a session has intervened. The question as to what the Constitution really means in this matter came up in conversation between several gentlemen in the State Library at Montpelier the other day. Mr. Abell, of West Haven, was of the opinion that the Constitution did not intend to give the power of pardon to the Governor at any time in cases of treason and murder, and he found in a volume of Vermont reports an opinion of Judge Williams to that effect. The point was speedily settled by the production by the State Librarian of the first printed copy of the Constitution (printed at Hartford, Conn., in 1779) in which a comma plainly appears after the word "pardon" in the sentence quoted. This makes all clear. The words "but not to pardon" are plainly parenthetical, and the meaning is as plain as if it read: he shall have power to grant reprieves (but not to pardon) until after the end of the next session; or he shall have power to grant reprieves until after the end of the next session, but not to pardon. When the Constitution was next printed, a year or two later, the comma was omitted, doubtless by a careless proof-reader, and from then till now our Constitution has never been correctly printed.

This is not the first case in which a careless omission or substitution of a comma has made an important difference with the meaning and construction of a law. The act of 1870, providing for the abolishing of school districts, as drawn, required each town in the State to take action in the next March meeting on the question whether it would substitute the town system for the district system. The Legislature intended that each town should have the subject up in town meeting and take definite action upon it; but a blundering engraving clerk put in a comma where none belonged, and the act as passed left it optional with the selectmen to put an article in the warnings in reference to the school systems or not. And in point of fact not a dozen towns in the State acted on the question.—*Burlington Free Press*.

IN NEW YORK.—In answer to the question, What was the effect of the decision upon the future of the case? Mr. Wakeman produced the affidavit on which Dr. Lambert was convicted, and read it thus: "T. S. Lambert, President, and James Crankshaw, Secretary of the American Popular Life Insurance Company, being duly sworn, depose and say, and each for himself says, that they are the above-described officers of the said company, and that on the thirty-first day of December last all the above assets were the absolute property of the said company, free and clear from any liens or claims thereon, except as above stated; and that the foregoing statement, with the schedules and explanations hereunto annexed and by them subscribed, are a full and correct exhibit of all the liabilities and of the income and disbursements and of the general condition and affairs of the said company on the said thirty-first day of December last, and for the year ending on that day, according to the best of their information, knowledge, and belief respectively."

Mr. Wakeman then said: "You would not think that a man was convicted of perjury and sentenced to State prison on that little document, and all because the jury made a *misdeed* act as a fall point." Pointing to the omission between the words "as above stated" and "and that the foregoing statement," the counsel said: "The juror who had tried Dr. Lambert agreed that that constituted a *severance*, and that the last sentence of the affidavit, 'according to the best of their knowledge,' etc., did not qualify the preceding sentence; but I have had the satisfaction of proving my point, which was that the last sentence covered the whole of the affidavit, and that as Dr. Lambert did not make the accounts up himself, but left it to the proper clerks, these accounts were, to the best of his knowledge and belief, correct."

"Will this decision interfere with the theories of the prosecution in a new trial?"

"To be sure it will, if there is a new trial; but I think the decision of the Court of Appeals, which amounts to a full acquittal, will in upset those who worked this case up that another judicial investigation will not be wanted, and my client will be discharged from prison; besides, as soon as the District Attorney gets through with the opinions and I can digest them, I intend to make a motion for his discharge or enlargement on bail."—*New York World*.

ON CHAOS.—Into the action, the original question of the guilt or innocence of Mr. Sewell does not enter. It is the regularity or irregularity of the action of the Governing Committee and the officers of the Exchange thereupon which is at issue, and practically may be called a question of a comma. It all hinges on the reading of Article XX. of the Constitution of the New York Stock Exchange, which is:

Should any member be guilty of obvious fraud, of which the Governing Committee shall be the judge, he shall, upon conviction thereof, by a vote of two-thirds of the members of the said committee present, be expelled, and his membership shall cease to the Exchange; subject, however, to the provisions of Article XIV. of the Constitution as regards the claims of members of the Exchange, who are creditors of such persons.



John L. Logan, Mr. Sewell's lawyer, discussing the case, said:

"It is a plain question of law only. We claim that the plain meaning of Article XX is that it requires a vote of two-thirds of the Governing Committee present to convict a member of obvious fraud, and that no such vote was had in Mr. Sewell's case. There was simply a majority vote on his expulsion. The two-thirds vote obtained was on his expulsion. In their answer the defendants admit every material point claimed by us except the legal one which we make as to the construction of that article. From our point of view no person conversant with the English language can doubt that our reading is the correct one." . . . Robert Sewell, who represents the Stock Exchange, said: "We contend that in a proper understanding of Article XX, the words upon conviction thereof are entirely superfluous, and upon well grounded rules of grammatical construction, the verb shall govern *he* expelled, so that it might read, *shall by a vote of two-thirds of the said committee present, be expelled.*"—*New York Sun.*

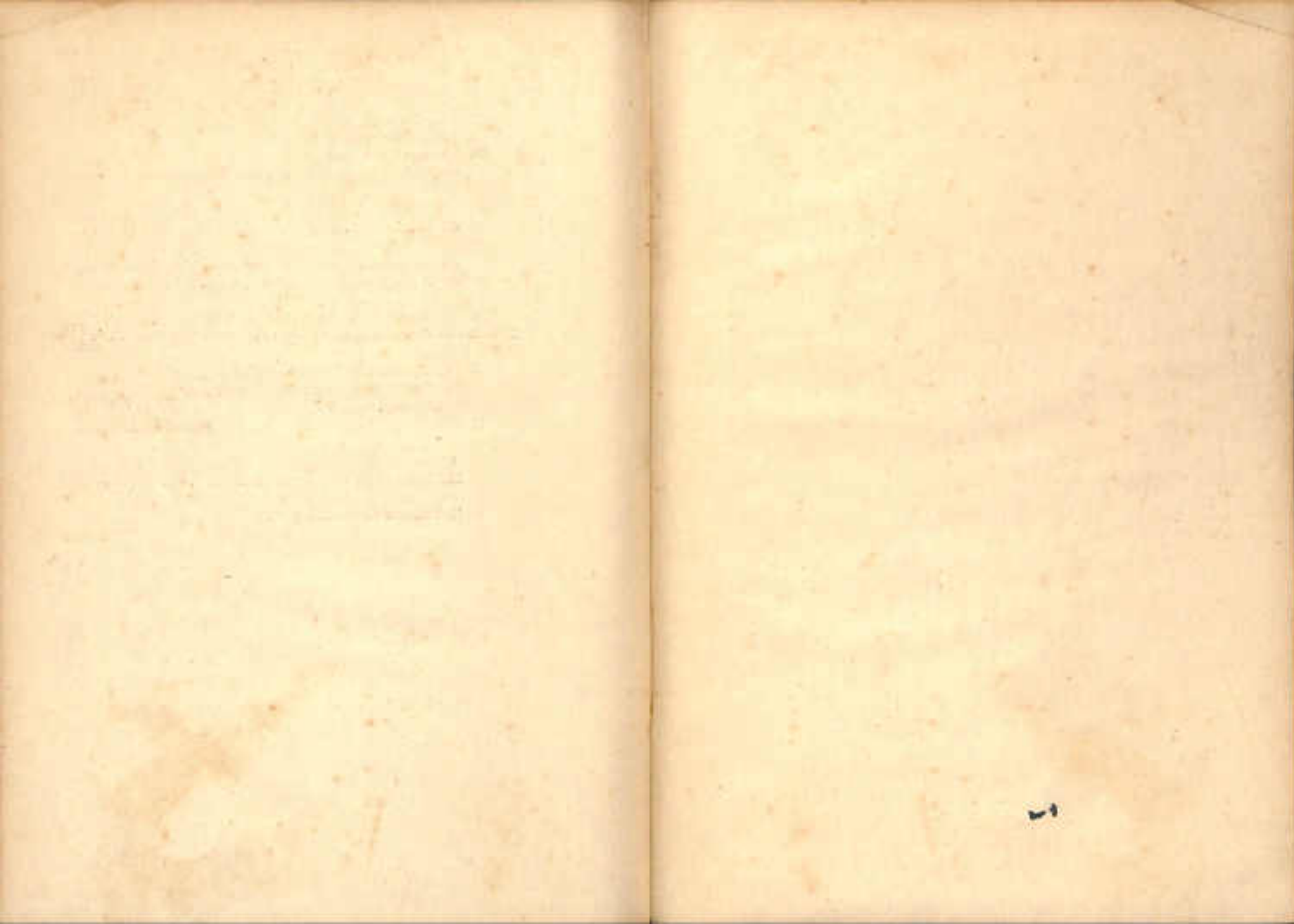
## TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

### RULES DEPENDENT ON JUDGMENT.

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