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# PUNCTUATION

AND THE

USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

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# PUNCTUATION

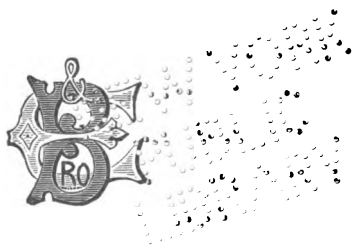
AND THE USE OF

# CAPITAL LETTERS.

BY

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**T**HIS little treatise on punctuation is a reprint of the chapter on that subject in "Hart's Composition and Rhetoric." Its publication in a separate and convenient form is in compliance with numerous requests from teachers in different parts of the country.

While it is conceded that punctuation as an art rests largely on an arbitrary basis, yet it is well known that there are some general principles, and consequent rules of practice, that meet with nearly universal acceptance. To teach these principles and to formulate these rules is the object of this work. That there is need of such instruction, the errors of expression arising from omitted or misplaced punctuation-marks furnish sufficient testimony. It is confidently believed that the illustrated rules here presented are adequate to the requirements of the most varied English expression.



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# PUNCTUATION

AND THE

## USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.



1. **Punctuation** is the art of dividing written discourse into sections by means of points, for the purpose of showing the grammatical connection and dependence, and of making the sense more obvious.

2. **Capitals** are used for a like purpose, and, therefore, they may with propriety be treated of at the same time with the Points.

**Note 1.** That the sense is made more obvious to the eye by the use of points and capitals will be evident to any one who will make the experiment. Take almost any familiar sentence, and write it as the ancients used to write, that is, unpointed and unspaced, and with the letters either all small or all capital, and it will require no little skill and patience to decipher the meaning. A reader not apprised of what had been done would be apt to mistake the sentence for something in a foreign language. Here is an



example, first in capitals, next in small letters, and then in the form now in use :

READINGMAKETHAFULLMANCONFERENCEAREADY  
MANWRITINGANEXACTMAN.

readingmakethafullmanconferenceareadymanwritinganexact  
man.

Reading maketh a full man ; conference, a ready man ; writing,  
an exact man.

**Note 2.** The word Punctuation is from the Latin *punctum*, a point. The points now used in writing were unknown to the ancients. Aristophanes, a grammarian of Alexandria, about two and a half centuries before the Christian era, introduced some of the marks now used in punctuation. But the points did not come into common use until the time of Aldus Manutius, a learned printer of Venice, who reduced the matter to a system about the year 1500, and, by the extreme beauty and accuracy of his editions, gave it general currency.

**Note 3.** The word Capital is from the Latin *caput*, a head. The letters of the word or words forming the *caput*, heading, or title of a discourse, are called *head-letters*, or capitals.

**Note 4.** The capital letters were those first invented, and were in use many centuries before the invention of the small letters. The oldest manuscripts now in existence, some of which date as far back as the third century, are written entirely in capitals, and are likewise almost without points, and without spacing between the words. The small letters were first introduced about the seventh century ; but, for some time after the introduction of the small letters, the capitals continued to be used much more than they now are.

**Note 5.** It is sometimes stated, in works on Rhetoric and Grammar, that the points are for the purposes of elocution, and directions are given to pupils to pause a certain time at each of the stops. It is true that a pause required for elocutionary purposes does sometimes coincide with a grammatical point, and so the one aids the other. Yet it should not be forgotten that the first and main end of the points is to mark grammatical divisions. Good elocution often requires a pause where there is no break whatever in the grammatical continuity, and where the insertion of a point would

make nonsense. For instance, the most common of all the elocutionary pauses is that made for the purpose of emphasis. If we wish to make a word emphatic, the way to do so, except in rare cases, is not to pronounce it very loudly, but to make a pause after it. This pause calls attention to the word, and with only a slight change in the tone of the voice makes the word emphatic. The insertion of a point to mark this pause would often detach adjectives from their nouns, nominatives from their verbs, and would, in many other equally absurd ways, break up the connection of the sentence. The following line from Shakespeare requires after "words" and "thoughts" a pause equal to that ordinarily assigned to a semicolon, perhaps equal to that assigned to a period.

*"My words fly up, my thoughts remain below."*

If a point were inserted to mark this pause, the whole meaning of the sentence would be obscured. Thus: "My words; fly up, my thoughts; remain below." If it were desirable to mark these elocutionary pauses by typographical arrangement, perhaps the best way would be to do it by spacing. Thus:

"My words    fly up, my thoughts    remain below."

3. The principal grammatical points are five, namely,

- |                       |   |
|-----------------------|---|
| 1. The COMMA,         | , |
| 2. The SEMICOLON,     | ; |
| 3. The COLON,         | : |
| 4. The PERIOD,        | . |
| 5. The INTERROGATION, | ? |

**Note.** These points have various degrees of disjunctive force, in separating the parts of a sentence from each other. This force may be expressed briefly, as follows: The Period, except when used for an abbreviation, marks the greatest separation of all, the parts between which it is placed being thereby rendered grammatically entirely independent of each other; the Colon marks a separation somewhat less than that of the Period; the Semicolon, less than that of the Colon; and the Comma, less than that of the Semicolon. The Interrogation, though usually counted as equivalent to a period, may be equivalent to a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period, according to circumstances.

4. Besides the five points already named, several other characters are used for similar purposes. The most common of these are the following :

The EXCLAMATION,	!
The DASH,	—
The PARENTHESIS,	( )
The BRACKET,	[ ]
The QUOTATION,	“ ”
The APOSTROPHE,	'

**Note.** There seems no more necessity for saying Interrogation Point, Exclamation Point, etc., than for saying Comma Point, Semicolon Point. Custom, however, still obliges us to use the expression in some connections.



## SECTION I.

### THE COMMA.

**The Comma** marks the smallest of the grammatical divisions of discourse that require a point.

**Note 1.** The word Comma, Greek κόμμα, comma, (from κόπτω, copto, to cut,) denotes something cut off, a section. It was used originally to denote, not the mark, but the portion of the sentence thus set off. The same is true of the words semicolon and colon. They meant originally portions of discourse, not, as now, the marks by which those portions are set off. Period, Interrogation, Parenthesis, and some other like words, are used in both senses; they mean portions of discourse, and also the marks by which those portions are set off.

**Note 2.** The uses of the comma, which are very numerous, may nearly all be reduced to two heads. 1. The comma is used to set off by itself any part of a sentence which is, in some measure, detached in meaning from the rest, and which has a sort of gram-

matical coherence and completeness of its own. 2. The comma is used to mark an ellipsis of some kind. Example: "Reading maketh a full man; conference, a ready man; writing, an exact man." Here the ellipsis of the verb *maketh*, after "conference," and after "writing," is indicated by the insertion of the comma.

**Note 3.** Although nearly every conceivable instance of the use of the comma may be reduced under one or the other of these heads, yet for practical convenience in teaching its use, the various instances may very properly be classified, forming a series of independent, though connected rules.\*

**RULE 1. Parenthetical Expressions.**—Phrases and single words, used parenthetically, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**Note 1.** Phrases and words are parenthetical when they are not essential to the meaning and structure of the sentence in which they stand. Such words and phrases belong rather to some unexpressed thought that is in the mind, than to the thought actually expressed. Thus, "It is mind, *after all*, which does the work of the world." Here the phrase "after all" does not belong to the verb "does." The author does not mean to say that mind does the work of the world, after doing everything else. In like manner, it does not modify any other part of the expressed sentence. On the contrary, it belongs to some unexpressed thought, as though we were to say, "After all that can be claimed for other agents, we may still claim for the mind, that it does the work of the world." Sometimes the parenthetical word or phrase refers to what is expressed

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\* In framing these rules, it is customary to say, of certain clauses or sections of a sentence, that they are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, meaning that they have a comma before and a comma after. In some instances, the section thus designated occurs at the beginning of the sentence, in which case it will of course have no comma before it; or, it may occur at the end of a sentence, in which case it will have after it, not a comma, but a period, or some other mark greater than a comma. In the great majority of cases, however, the sections designated by the use of the comma occur in the body of the sentence, requiring a comma before and a comma after; and the rules will be expressed in this general manner, leaving it to the common sense of the student to make the necessary correction in the case of sections thus cut off at the beginning or at the end of a sentence, and without stopping to make a special exception under each rule.

in the preceding sentence. Thus, "The danger was fully explained to him. His passions, *however*, prevented his seeing it." Parenthetical expressions, then, are such as are not necessary to the structure and meaning of the sentence in which they stand, if taken alone, but they are a part of the machinery, so to speak, by which the sentence is connected with some preceding sentence, or with some unexpressed sentence or thought existing in the mind of the writer. They are, in fact, of a conjunctive, rather than of an adverbial character.

**Note 2.** Many phrases and clauses, now treated as parenthetical expressions, and separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, were formerly inclosed by marks of parenthesis. The difference between a parenthesis and a parenthetical expression is mainly one of degree. If the clause or expression, thus thrust into the body of a sentence, is altogether independent in character, and may be omitted without disturbing the construction, or impairing the meaning, it is still usually inclosed in a parenthesis. But commas are gradually displacing the parenthesis, except in extreme and very manifest cases.

**Note 3.** Some of the phrases in common use, which require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, are the following:

in short,	in truth,	to be sure,
in fact,	as it were,	to be brief,
in fine,	as it happens,	after all,
in reality,	no doubt,	you know,
in brief,	in a word,	of course.

When these parenthetical expressions come at the beginning, or at the end of a sentence, they are, of course, set off by only a single comma; as, "To be sure, the man was rather conceited." "The affair passed off to your satisfaction, no doubt." See foot-note p. 13.

**Note 4.** Some of the single words used parenthetically, and ordinarily requiring to be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, are the following:

therefore,	namely,	moreover,
then,	consequently,	surely,
however,	indeed,	accordingly,
perhaps,	too,	finally,

**Note 5.** Most of the words last named are capable of two constructions. They may belong either to the proposition as a whole, or to a single word in it. It is only when used in the former sense that they require to be set off by commas. Two or three examples will show the difference :

On this statement, *then*, you may entirely rely. *Then* I believed you, now I do not.

I thought, *too*, that you were discontented. I think you are *too* selfish.

He promised, *however*, to set about reform at once. *However* much he promised, it was but little that he performed.

In all these cases, it will be noticed that when the word has an adverbial character, no commas are required ; but when the word becomes connective or conjunctive, it must be set off from the rest by commas.

**Note 6.** Some words not of a parenthetical character, yet when standing at the beginning of a sentence, and referring to the sentence as a whole, rather than to a particular word, are set off by a comma ; as, "Well, do as you like." "Why, this is all wrong." Some of the words thus used are *well, why, now, yes, no, nay, again, further, first, secondly, thirdly, etc.* In like manner, *here* and *there, now* and *then*, when used to introduce contrasted expressions, are set off by a comma ; as, "Here, all is peace and quietness ; there, all is turmoil and strife."

### Examples for Practice.\*

1. Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to real enjoyment.

2. The locomotive bellows as it were from the fury of passion.

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**\* To the Teacher.** 1. In these and the other examples for practice which will be given throughout the book, constant vigilance must be used to prevent the pupils from *marking the corrections in the book*. A book so marked is valueless for the purpose of study or instruction. It should at once be destroyed, and replaced by a new copy at the expense of the offending party. A stated inspection of the books, for the purpose of preventing this fraud, is as necessary a part of the teacher's duty, as it is to examine the exercises presented.

3. He knows very well come what may that the note will be paid.

4. He had no doubt great aptitude for learning languages.

5. He went home accordingly and arranged his business in the manner described.

6. There are in truth only two things to be considered namely his honesty and his ability.

7. Come then and let us reason together.

8. No nation in short is free from danger.

9. When however the hour for the trial came, the man was not to be found.

10. Why those are the very books you want.

11. I proceed fourthly to prove the fact from your own admissions.

12. On the other hand there is great danger in delay.

13. We must however pay some respect to the opinions of one who has had so large an experience.

14. I have shown how just and equitable the arrangement is; and now what is the fair conclusion?

15. Attend first to the study of arithmetic; and secondly to that of algebra.

16. Feudalism is in fact the embodiment of pride.

17. The meeting after all was something of a failure.

18. Besides it may be of the greatest importance to you in your business.

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2. The exercises should not be brought in written out beforehand, but should in all cases be written in the class-room. This should be considered an essential part of the recitation. There is no other way of ascertaining that the pupil makes the corrections from his own independent judgment, and unless he does this, the exercise is a mere waste of time.

3. In most cases, the following will be found a convenient mode of procedure: 1. Let the students seriatim present their books at the teacher's desk for inspection, each book, as presented, being open at the page containing the lesson, and let the books remain there piled, until the lesson is over. 2. Let the teacher dictate the examples, and the students write and correct them, using for this purpose either the blackboards, slates, or paper, according to circumstances.

**RULE 2. Intermediate Expressions.**—Clauses and expressions, not parenthetical in character, yet so placed as to come between some of the essential parts of the sentence, as, for instance, between the subject and the predicate, may be called *intermediate expressions*, and they should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**Note.**—Care should be taken to distinguish these intermediate expressions from such as are properly restrictive in their character. An expression is restrictive, when it limits the meaning of some particular word to some particular sense. Thus, "The man who plants the field ought to reap the harvest." Here it is not "the man" merely, but "the man who plants the field," that is the subject of "ought." A separation of the relative and its adjuncts from "man," by means of commas, would destroy the sense. The clause, therefore, is restrictive. It limits the meaning to that particular man. But suppose I say, "Joseph, who happened to be in the field at the time, saw the carriage approach, and, in an ecstasy of delight, hastened to meet it." Here, the expression, "who happened to be in the field at the time," is properly a relative clause, and comes under Rule 4 (p. 19); and the expression, "in an ecstasy of delight," is properly intermediate, and comes under Rule 2. The former breaks the continuity between the subject and the predicate; the latter, between the two predicates.

### Examples for Practice.

1. Classical studies regarded merely as a means of culture are deserving of general attention.
2. The sun with all its train of attendant planets is but a small and inconsiderable portion of the universe.
3. We have endeavored in the preceding paragraph to show the incorrectness of his position.
4. Nature through all her works delights in variety.
5. The speaker proceeded with the greatest animation to depict the horrors of the scene.
6. Christianity is in a most important sense the religion of sorrow.



7. A man of great wealth may for want of education and refinement of manner be a mere cipher in society.

8. Truth like gold shines brighter by collision.

9. Charity on whatever side we contemplate it is one of the highest Christian graces.

10. One hour a day steadily given to a particular study will bring in time large accumulations.

**RULE 3. Dependent and Conditional Clauses.—** Dependent and conditional clauses should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or by commas.

**Note 1.** Clauses are dependent, when one of them is subject to the other for the completion of the sense.

**Note 2.** One of the dependent clauses usually begins with *if*, *unless*, *until*, *when*, *where*, or other word expressive of condition, purpose, cause, time, place, and the like; as, "If you would succeed in business, be honest and industrious." "The tree will not bear fruit in autumn, unless it blossoms in spring." This conditional word, however, is not always expressed, the condition being sometimes implied; as, "Breathe into a man an earnest purpose, and you awaken in him a new power." Here the meaning is, "If you breathe into a man an earnest purpose, you will awaken," etc.

**Note 3.** This rule does not apply where the grammatical connection is very close, the succeeding clause in that case being of a restrictive character; as, "You will reap *as* you sow," "You may go *when* you please."

**Note 4.** For the same reason, clauses united by the conjunction *that* should not be separated by a comma; as, "He went abroad *that* he might have opportunities for study." When, however, the conjunction is removed some distance from the verb, or the words "in order" precede, so that the grammatical continuity is somewhat broken, the comma is used; as, "He went through the principal provinces of the empire, *that* he might see for himself the condition of the people." "He went abroad, *in order that* he might see foreign countries."

## Examples for Practice.

**Note.** In punctuating these examples and those which are to follow, insert not only the points required by the rule under consideration, but also those required by all the preceding rules.

1. If you would succeed in business be punctual in observing your engagements.
2. The days in December you know are at their shortest and therefore you must rise by the dawn if you would have much daylight.
3. The reader should however as he proceeds from sentence to sentence make a note of whatever strikes his attention.
4. The good which you do may not be lost though it may be forgotten.
5. Good deeds though forgotten are not in every case lost.
6. John went last year to Canton where he is doing they say an excellent business.
7. If wishes were horses beggars might ride.
8. Unless you bridle your tongue you will assuredly be shut out from good society.
9. We should in all probability be ashamed of much that we boast of could the world see our real motive.
10. Attend that you may receive instruction.
11. You may go home as soon as you like.
12. One object of studying Rhetoric is that we may compose better.

**QUESTIONS.** Which of the commas used in Note 1 can be explained by any of the rules given thus far?—which in Note 2?—which in Note 3?—which in Note 4?

**RULE 4. Relative Clauses not Restrictive.**—Clauses introduced by a relative pronoun, if not restrictive, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.\*

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\* The teacher should at this point take particular pains in accustoming the student to distinguish clearly and promptly between clauses which are, and those which are not, restrictive. "It is barbarous to injure

**Note 1.** See Note under Rule 2, for an explanation of what is meant by restrictive clauses.

**Note 2.** A comma should be put before the relative, even when used restrictively, if it is immediately followed by a word or a phrase inclosed in commas; as, "Those friends, who, *in the native vigor of his powers*, perceived the dawn of Robertson's future eminence, were at length amply rewarded."

**Note 3.** A comma should be put before the relative, even when used restrictively, if several words intervene between it and its grammatical antecedent; as, "He preaches most eloquently, who leads the most pious life." In like manner, *of which* and *of whom*, even when used restrictively, are preceded by a comma; as, "No thought can be just, of which good sense is not the ground-work."

**Note 4.** When the relative has for its antecedent several succeeding nouns or clauses, it should be separated from them by a comma, even though the relative clause is restrictive. Thus: "There are fruits which never ripen." "There are apples, pears, and plums, which never ripen." Here, if the comma after "plums" is omitted, the fact of never ripening is restricted to plums, and the meaning is, "There are apples, there are pears, and there are unripening plums." But, by inserting the comma, the restriction is made to refer to all three of these objects.

### Examples for Practice.

1. A fierce spirit of rivalry which is at all times a dangerous passion had now taken full possession of him.

2. The spirit which actuated him was a thirst for vengeance.

3. The man of letters who has constantly before him examples of excellence ought himself to be a pattern of excellence.

4. Books which are the repositories of knowledge are an indispensable part of the furniture of a house.

---

men who have shown us a kindness." Here the first part of the sentence lays down a proposition, and the relative clause restricts the meaning to certain persons. "Give time to the study of nature, whose laws are all deeply interesting." Here the relative clause is not restrictive, but merely presents an additional thought.

5. Every teacher must love a pupil who is docile.
6. The child was much attached to his teacher who loved him dearly.
7. Patriotism consists in loving the country in which we were born.
8. The eye which sees all things is unseen to itself.
9. Death is the season which tests our principles.
10. No man can be thoroughly proficient in navigation who has never been at sea.
11. The father of Epic poetry is Homer who has given us in the Iliad the story of Troy divine.
12. The powers which now move the world are the printing-press and the telegraph.
13. America may well boast of her Washington whose character and fame are the common property of the world.

**QUESTIONS.** Which of the commas used in Note 2 can be explained by any of the rules now given?—which in Note 3?—which in Note 4?—which in the foot-note?

**RULE 5. A Continued Sentence consisting of Co-ordinate Sentences.**—In a continued sentence, consisting of co-ordinate sentences, the several co-ordinate sentences, if simple in construction, are separated from each other by commas.

**Note.** If, however, these co-ordinate members are complex and involved, especially if they have commas within themselves, the members should be separated by a semicolon; as, Crafty men, though they may pretend otherwise, contemn studies; simple men, though they really care nothing about the matter, yet pretend to admire them: wise men only use them."

### Examples for Practice.

1. Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them and wise men use them.
2. Speak as you mean do as you profess perform what you promise.

3. Cæsar was dead the senators were dispersed all Rome was in confusion.

4. France was again reduced to its original geographical boundaries and England after a struggle of twenty years was undisputed mistress of the seas.

5. Modern engineering spans whole continents tunnels alike mountains and rivers and dykes out old ocean himself.

**RULE 6. Expressions forming a Series.**—Grammatical expressions in the same construction, forming a series, should be separated from each other, and from what follows, by commas.

**Note 1.** A grammatical expression is a collection of words, having some grammatical dependence and connection, but not containing in themselves a predicate.

**Note 2.** If the expressions are brief, and there are but two of them, connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, no comma between them is needed; as, "Hard study and neglect of exercise impair the health." If, however, the two connected expressions differ much in form, it is better to set them off by commas; as, "Hard study, and the entire absence of attention to the matter of diet, bring on disease."

**Note 3.** If the series of expressions brings the sentence to a close, the last of them, of course, is not followed by a comma, but by a period or some other point greater than a comma. See footnote, p. 13.

#### Examples for Practice.

1. Love for study a desire to do right and carefulness in the choice of friends are important traits of character.

2. To cleanse our opinions from falsehood our hearts from malignity and our actions from vice is our chief concern.

3. Did God create for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air a paler sky?

4. Infinite space endless numbers and eternal duration fill the mind with great ideas.

5. On the rich and the eloquent on nobles and priests the Puritans looked down with contempt.

QUESTION. What commas in Rule 6, and in Notes 1 and 2, can be explained by any of the rules thus far given?

**RULE 7. Words forming a Series.**—Words in the same construction, forming a series, admit of the following three cases:

1. There may be a conjunction between each two of the words; as, "Industry and honesty and frugality and temperance are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, none of the words in the series are to be separated by commas.

2. The conjunction may be omitted, except between the last two of the words; as, "Industry, honesty, frugality, and temperance are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, all the words are to be separated from each other by commas.

3. The conjunction may be omitted between the last two words, as well as between the others; as, "Industry, honesty, frugality, temperance, are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, not only all the words of the series are to be separated from each other by commas, but a comma is to be inserted also after the last word, to separate it from what follows.

**Note 1.** A comma is not in any case to be inserted after the last word of a series, if what follows is only a single word; as, "The good will form hereafter stronger, purer, holier ties."

**Note 2.** In such expressions as "A beautiful white horse," no comma should be inserted between the two adjectives, because they are not in the same grammatical construction. "White" belongs to "horse" merely. "Beautiful" belongs properly to the whole expression "white horse." It is not simply the "horse," but the "white horse," that is said to be beautiful.

## Examples for Practice.

1. He was brave and pious and patriotic in all his aspirations.
2. He was brave pious and patriotic in all his aspirations.
3. He was brave pious patriotic in all his aspirations.
4. He was a brave pious patriotic man.
5. Aright aleft above below he whirled the rapid sword.
6. The address was beautifully elegantly and forcibly written.
7. Can flattery soothe the dull cold ear of death?
8. Within around and above us we see traces of the Creator's hand.
9. We are fearfully wonderfully made.
10. The sun the moon the planets the stars revolve.
11. The sun the moon the planets the stars are all in motion.
12. The sun the moon the planets and the stars are all in motion.
13. Virtue religion is the one thing needful.
14. It is a useful accomplishment to be able to read write spell and cipher with accuracy.
15. Woe woe to the rider that tramples them down.
16. Aristotle Hamilton Whately and McCosh are high authorities in logic.
17. The air the earth the water teem with life.

QUESTION. Which of the commas used in the Rule and the Notes can be explained by the Rules already given?

RULE 8. **Words or Phrases in Pairs.**—Words or phrases in pairs take a comma after each pair.

## Examples for Practice.

1. Anarchy and confusion poverty and distress desolation and ruin are the consequences of civil war.

2. Truth and integrity kindness and modesty reverence and devotion were all remarked in him.

3. The poor and the rich the weak and the strong the young and the old have one common Father.

4. To have and to hold for better for worse for richer for poorer in sickness and in health to love and to cherish.

5. Eating or drinking laboring or sleeping let us do all in moderation.

**RULE 9. Nouns in Apposition.**—A noun in apposition with some preceding noun or pronoun, and having an adjunct consisting of several words, should, with all its connected words, be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**Note 1.** This construction is sometimes inverted, the noun in apposition, with its adjuncts, being placed first. In that case, this preceding noun with its adjuncts should be separated from the main noun or pronoun by a comma; as, "Himself the greatest of agitators, Napoleon became the most repressive of tyrants."

**Note 2.** Where the noun put in apposition stands alone, or has only an article before it, no comma is required between said noun and the word with which it is in apposition; as, "Paul the apostle was a man of energy." "Mason Brothers."

**Note 3.** A noun following another as a synonym, or as giving additional illustration to the thought, is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma before and after; as, "The word Poet, meaning a maker, a creator, is derived from the Greek."

**Note 4.** When a noun is predicated of the noun or pronoun with which it is in apposition, no comma is required between them; as, "They have just elected him Governor of the State."

**Note 5.** After several words containing a description of a person or thing, if the name of the person or thing is added, it should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "The greatest of poets among the ancients, Homer, like the greatest among the moderns, Milton, was blind."

**Note 6.** A title, whether abbreviated or expressed in full, when



annexed to a noun or a pronoun, must be set off by commas; as, "At the request of the Rt. Rev. W. H. Odenheimer, D. D., the ceremony was postponed."

### Examples for Practice.

1. We the people of the United States do hereby ordain and establish this Constitution.

2. Paul the great apostle of the Gentiles was a man of energy.

3. Virgil the chief poet among the Romans was fond of rural life.

4. The poet Shakespeare is now considered the greatest of writers ancient or modern.

5. Newton the great mathematician was a devout believer in Christianity.

6. Spenser the author of the Faery Queen lived in the time of Queen Elizabeth.

7. Strength energy is what you want.

8. Plutarch calls anger a brief madness.

9. The chief work of Chaucer the Canterbury Tales suggested to Longfellow the plan of the Tales of a Wayside Inn.

10. John Chapman Doctor of Medicine. John Chapman M. D.

11. The wisest of the ancients Socrates wrote nothing.

12. A man of prodigious learning he was a pattern of modesty.

**RULE 10. The Vocative Case.**—A noun in the vocative case, or, as it is called in English, the Case Independent, together with its adjunct words, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or commas.

### Examples for Practice.

1. Accept my dear young friends this expression of my regard.

2. I beg sir to acknowledge the receipt of your favor.
3. I rise Mr. President to a point of order.
4. Show pity Lord! O Lord forgive!
5. Remember sir you cannot have it.

**RULE 11. The Case Absolute.**—A clause containing the construction known as the case absolute should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or commas.

#### Examples for Practice.

1. Then came Jesus the doors being shut and stood in the midst.
2. A state of ease is generally speaking more attainable than a state of pleasure.
3. Shame lost all virtue is lost.
4. His father being dead the prince ascended the throne.
5. I being in the way the Lord led me to the house of my master's brother.

**RULE 12. Inverted Clauses.**—An inverted clause, standing at the beginning of a sentence, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

**Note 1.** The infinitive mood, especially when used to express object or design, is often inverted in this way; as, "To obtain an education, he was willing to make sacrifices." The expressions *To proceed, to conclude*, etc., when placed at the beginning of a paragraph, and referring to the whole of it, should be separated from what follows by a colon.

**Note 2.** In making alphabetical catalogues, compound names, such as John Quincy Adams, are usually inverted, that is, the last word in the name, being the principal one, is put first, and is then separated from the other parts of the name by a comma; as, Adams, John Quincy.

#### Examples for Practice.

1. Awkward in person he was ill adapted to gain respect.
2. Of all our senses sight is the most important.

3. To supply the deficiency he resorted to a shameful trick.

4. Living in filth the poor cease to respect one another.

5. To confess the truth I never greatly admired him.

**RULE 13. Ellipsis of the Verb.**—In continued sentences, having a common verb, which is expressed in one of the members, but omitted in the others, the ellipsis of the verb is marked by a comma.

#### Examples for Practice.

1. Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; writing an exact man.

2. Homer was the greater genius; Virgil the better artist.

3. Semiramis built Babylon; Dido Carthage; and Romulus Rome.

**RULE 14. Short Quotations.**—A short quotation, or a sentence resembling a quotation, should be preceded by a comma.

#### Examples for Practice.

1. Patrick Henry began his celebrated speech by saying "It is natural to man to indulge the illusions of hope."

2. A good rule in education is "Learn to be slow in forming your opinions."

3. I say "There is no such thing as human perfection."

4. Some one justly remarks "It is a great loss to lose an affliction."



## SECTION II.

### THE SEMICOLON.

**The Semicolon** marks a division of a sentence somewhat larger and more complex than that marked by a comma.

**Note.** The word is compounded of *semi*, half, and *colon*, and means a division half as large as the colon.

**RULE 1. Subdivided Members in Compound Sentences.**—When a sentence consists of two members, and these members, or either of them, are themselves subdivided by commas, the larger divisions of the sentence should be separated by a semicolon.

**Note 1.** If the connection between these members is close, the semicolon is not used. The word “when,” introducing the first member, indicates this kind of close connection, and prevents ordinarily the use of the semicolon. “As,” and “so,” introducing the two members, indicate a comparatively loose connection, and authorize the use of the semicolon, if the other conditions exist; as, “As we perceive the shadow to have moved, but did not perceive it moving; so our advances in learning, consisting of such minute steps, are perceivable only by the distance.”

The Rule itself furnishes an example of the semicolon omitted in a sentence beginning with “when.”

**Note 2.** When the members are considerably complex, they are sometimes separated by a semicolon, even though not subdivided by commas; as, “So sad and dark a story is scarcely to be found in any work of fiction; and we are little disposed to envy the moralist who can read it without being softened.”

### Examples for Practice.

1. Sparre was sulky and perverse because he was a citizen of a republic. Sparre the Dutch general was sulky and perverse because according to Lord Mahon he was a citizen of a republic.

2. Bellasys the English general embezzled the stores because we suppose he was the subject of a monarchy. Bellasys embezzled the stores because he was the subject of a monarchy.

3. The most ridiculous weaknesses seemed to meet in the wretched Solomon of Whitehall pedantry buffoonery gar-

rulity low curiosity the most contemptible personal cowardice.

4. Men reasoned better for example in the time of Elizabeth than in the time of Egbert and they also wrote better poetry.

5. Milton was like Dante a statesman and a lover and like Dante he had been unfortunate in ambition and in love.

6. This is an inconsistency which more than anything else raises his character in our estimation because it shows how many private tastes and feelings he sacrificed in order to do what he considered his duty to mankind.

**RULE 2. Clauses and Expressions having a Common Dependence.**—When several clauses or grammatical expressions of similar construction follow each other in a series, all having a common dependence upon some other clause, they are separated from each other by a semicolon, and from the clause on which they all depend, by a comma.

*Example:* "Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries."

*Note.* If the clause on which the series depends comes at the end of the sentence, it is separated from the series, sometimes by a colon, and sometimes by a comma followed by a dash. Thus: That nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries; these are among the assertions of philosophers.

If we think of glory in the field; of wisdom in the cabinet; of the purest patriotism; of the highest integrity, public and private; of morals without a stain; of religious feeling without intolerance and without extravagance,—the august figure of Washington presents itself as the personation of all these.

## Examples for Practice.

1. Mr. Croker is perpetually stopping us in our progress through the most delightful narrative in the language to observe that really Dr. Johnson was very rude that he talked more for victory than for truth that his taste for port-wine with capilliare in it was very odd that Boswell was impertinent and that it was foolish in Mrs. Thrale to marry the music-master.

2. To give an early preference to honor above gain when they stand in competition to despise every advantage which cannot be attained without dishonest acts to brook no meanness and to stoop to no dissimulations are the indications of a great mind.

**RULE 3. Sentences connected in Meaning, but without Grammatical Dependence.**—When several sentences follow each other, without any grammatical dependence, but connected in meaning, they are usually separated from each other by semicolons.

*Example:* “She presses her child to her heart; she drowns it in her tears; her fancy catches more than an angel’s tongue can describe.”

**Note.** In all the cases which come under this Rule, two features are essential. First, each of the several members forming the continued sentence should be complete in itself, so that it might grammatically stand alone, with a period following. Secondly, these several members should have some underlying thread of connection in the thought. Authors differ in regard to the punctuation, in these cases. Some insist on separating the members by a period. By such a course, however, we lose one important means of marking nice changes of thought. Others use the colon, instead of the semicolon, for these purposes. This was the case formerly much more than now. The best usage at present is, to employ a period, a colon, a semicolon, or a comma, according to the degree of complexity or simplicity of the several sentences, and the degree of closeness or looseness of connection in the thought. If the connection is close, and the successive members are short and simple,

the comma is used; if the members are somewhat longer, and especially if any of them are at all complex, the semicolon is used; if, in addition to this, the connection in the thought is but faint, the colon is used; and when the connection almost disappears, the period is used. The connection in the thought does not disappear entirely until the close of the paragraph.

### Examples for Practice.

1. Stones grow vegetables grow and live animals grow live and feel.

2. The summer is over and gone the winter is here with its frosts and snow the wind howls in the chimney at night the beast in the forest forsakes its lair the birds of the air seek the habitation of men.

3. The temples are profaned the soldier's oath resounds in the house of God the marble pavement is trampled by iron hoofs horses neigh beside the altar.

**RULE 4. The Clause Additional.**—When a sentence complete in itself is followed by a clause which is added by way of inference, explanation, or enumeration, the additional clause, if formally introduced by some connecting word, is separated from the main body of the sentence by a semicolon; but, if merely appended without any such connecting word, by a colon.

1. Apply yourself to study; for it will redound to your honor.
2. Apply yourself to study: it will redound to your honor.

**Note 1.** Some of the connecting words most commonly used for this purpose are *namely, for, but, yet, to wit, etc.*

**Note 2.** The word *as*, when used to connect an example with a rule, should be preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma.

### Examples for Practice.

1. Greece has given us three great historians namely Herodotus Xenophon and Thucydides.

2. Some writers divide the history of the world into four

ages viz. the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age.

3. Some writers divide the history of the world into four ages the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age.

4. Cicero in his treatise on morals enumerates four cardinal virtues to wit Fortitude Temperance Justice and Prudence.

**RULE 5. A General Term in Apposition with the Particulars under it.**—When a general term stands in apposition with several others which are particulars under it, the general term is separated from the particulars by a semicolon, and the particulars are separated from each other by commas.

**Note.** If the enumeration of the particulars is given with much formality, so as to make the several expressions complex, containing commas of their own, then these particulars must be separated from the general term by a colon, and from each other by semicolons; as,—

Adjective Pronouns are divided into three classes: Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

Adjective Pronouns are divided into these three classes: first, the Distributive, which are four in number; secondly, the Demonstrative, which are four; and thirdly, the Indefinite, which are nine.



## SECTION III.

### THE COLON.

**The Colon** marks a division of a sentence more nearly complete than that of a semicolon.

**Note 1.** The word is derived from the Greek κῶλον (colon), a limb, or member.



**Note 2.** The principal uses of the colon have already been given in Rules 4 and 5.

**RULE 1. Greater Divisions of Complex Sentences.**—When the minor divisions of a complex sentence contain a semicolon, the greater divisions should be separated by a colon; thus,—

As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not perceive it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such insensible steps, are only perceivable by the distance.

**RULE 2. Before a Quotation.**—A colon is used before a direct quotation; as,—

Speaking of party, Pope makes this remark: “There never was any party, faction, sect, or cabal whatsoever, in which the most ignorant were not the most violent.”

**Note 1.** If the quotation is of considerable length, consisting of several sentences, or begins a new paragraph, it should be preceded by both a colon and a dash; as,—

At the close of the meeting, the president rose and said:—

“Ladies and Gentlemen, it is with extreme reluctance that I address you on this occasion,” etc.

**Note 2.** If the quotation is merely some short saying, a comma is sufficient; as, Dr. Thomas Brown says, “The benevolent spirit is as universal as the miseries which are capable of being relieved.”

**RULE 3. Yes and No.**—The words *yes* and *no*, when in answer to a question, should be followed by a colon, provided the words which follow are a continuation or repetition of the answer; as,—

“Can these words add vigor to your hearts? Yes: they can do it; they have often done it.”

**Note.** *Yes* and *no* are often followed by some noun in the vocative case, or case independent; as, “Yes, sir,” “Yes, my lords,” etc. In such cases, the colon should come after the vocative; as, “Yes,

sir: they can do it." "Yes, my lords: I am amazed at his lordship's speech."

**RULE 4. Title-Pages.**—Sometimes the main title of a book is followed by an alternative or explanatory title, in apposition. If this alternative title is introduced by the conjunction *or*, a semicolon should precede the *or*, and a comma follow it; but if *or* is not used, then the alternative title should be separated from the main one by a colon; as,—

Literature in Letters; or, Manners, Art, Criticism, Biography, etc.

English Grammar: An Exposition of the Principles and Usages of the English Language.

**Note.** At the bottom of a title-page it is customary to put the place of publication, the name of the publishers, and the year, in the order just named; and to insert a colon after the name of the place, a comma after the name of the publishers, and a period at the end. Example. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother, 1887.

### Examples for Practice on the Rules for the Comma, the Semicolon, and the Colon.

[**To the Student.** Give the Rule for each Comma, Semicolon, or Colon that you find in the examples which are punctuated; and insert these points where needed, giving the Rules for the same, in the examples not punctuated. In the unpunctuated sentences, this mark  $\circ$  is inserted at the places where a point of some kind is due.]

1. No one denies that there are greater poets than Horace; and much has been said in disparagement even of some of the merits most popularly assigned to him, by scholars who have, nevertheless, devoted years of laborious study to the correction of his text or the elucidation of his meaning.

2. Satire always tends to dwarf  $\circ$  and it cannot fail to caricature  $\circ$  but poetry does nothing  $\circ$  if it does not tend to

enlarge and exalt ○ and if it does not seek rather to beautify than deform.

3. When he invites Tyndaris to his villa, the spot is brought before the eye: the she-goats browsing amid the arbuté and wild thyme; the pebbly slopes of Ustica; the green nooks sheltered from the dog-star; the noon-day entertainment; the light wines and the lute.

4. The fundamental characteristic of man is spiritual hunger ○ the universe of thought and matter is spiritual food.

5. He feeds on Nature ○ he feeds on ideas ○ he feeds ○ through art ○ science ○ literature ○ and history ○ on the acts and thoughts of other minds.

6. It must be observed ○ that in suggesting these processes ○ I assign them no date ○ nor do I even insist upon their order.

7. This is an iambic line in which the first foot is formed of a word and a part of a word ○ the second and third ○ of parts taken from the body or interior of a word ○ the fourth ○ of a part and a whole ○ the fifth ○ of two complete words.

8. Melissa ○ like the bee ○ gathers honey from every weed ○ while Arachne ○ like the spider ○ sucks poison from the fairest flowers.

9. The present life is not wholly prosaic ○ precise ○ tame ○ and finite ○ to the gifted eye ○ it abounds in the poetic.

10. Are these to be conquered by all Europe united? No ○ sir ○ no united nation can be ○ that has the spirit to resolve not to be conquered.

11. Be our plain answer this ○ The throne we honor is the people's choice ○ the laws we reverence are our brave fathers' legacy ○ the faith we follow teaches us to live in bonds of charity with all mankind ○ and die with hope of bliss beyond the grave.

12. The discourse consisted of two parts ○ in the first was shown the necessity of exercise ○ in the second ○ the advantages that would result from it.

## SECTION IV.

## THE PERIOD.

**The Period** marks the completion of the sentence.

**Note.** The word Period is derived from the Greek *περίοδος* (*períodos*), a *circuit*, and means primarily anything rounded or brought to completion. It was the first point introduced.

**RULE 1. Complete Sentences.**—Sentences which are complete in sense, and not connected in construction with what follows, and not exclamatory or interrogative in their character, should be followed by a period.

**Note 1.** Sentences, though connected by a conjunction, are sometimes separated by a period, if the parts are long and complex, and are severally complete in themselves; as,—

“Other men may have led, on the whole, greater and more impressive lives than he; other men, acting on their fellows through the same medium of speech that he used, may have expended a greater power of thought, and achieved a greater intellectual effort, in one consistent direction; other men, too (though this is very questionable), may have continued to issue the matter which they did address to the world, in more compact and artistic shapes. *But* no man that ever lived said such splendid extempore things on all subjects universally; no man that ever lived had the faculty of pouring out, on all occasions, such a flood of the richest and deepest language.”

It is questionable, however, whether even in this case a colon would not be the proper point.

**Note 2.** The conjunctions *and*, *but*, *for*, etc., at the beginning of a sentence, do not always indicate that degree of connection with what precedes which should prevent the use of the period before them. This is especially the case in the Bible. (Luke 23: 27, 28, 29.) “*And* there followed him a great company of people, and of women, which also bewailed and lamented him. *But* Jesus turning unto them said, Daughters of Jerusalem, weep not for me, but weep for yourselves, and for your children. *For*, behold, the days are coming, in the which they shall say,” etc.

**RULE 2. After Titles, etc.**—A period should be used after the title, or any of the headings, of a book ; after the author's name and titles, on the title-page ; after the address of a person, on a letter or a note ; and after each signature to a letter or other document.

**Note 1.** A title-page consists usually of three parts, each ending in a period. These are, 1. The title of the book ; 2. The name of the author, with any titles of honor or office that may be appended to it ; 3. The name of the publisher, with the date and place of publication. Example. A Treatise on Meteorology, with a Collection of Meteorological Tables. By Elias Loomis, LL.D., Professor of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in Yale College, and Author of a Course of Mathematics. New York : Harper & Brothers, 1868.

**Note 2.** In addressing a letter, the residence given, if given, is a part of the address. There should be a comma between the several parts, and a period at the end of the whole address. Ex. John Simpson, 21 Green Street, Philadelphia.

**RULE 3. After Abbreviations.**—A period is used after all abbreviated words.

**Note 1.** The most common method of abbreviation is to use the first letter of a word for the whole word, as B. Franklin for Benjamin Franklin. Sometimes, in abbreviating the word, the first letter is doubled ; as p. for page, pp. for pages, M. for Monsieur, MM. for Messieurs. In such cases, a period is not inserted between the two letters which represent the plural of one word. This explains why there is no period between the two L's in the title LL.D. (Legum Doctor), the LL. standing for one word in the plural, and the D. for the other word in the singular. Sometimes a word is abbreviated by taking the first two or three letters, as Eng. for England ; sometimes by taking the first letter and the last, as Wm. for William, La. for Louisiana ; sometimes by taking the first letter and some leading letter in the middle of the word, as Mo. for Missouri, MS. for manuscript. In these cases, the period is to be used only at the end of the combined letters. In the case last cited, the last letter of the combination is doubled when the word is plural ; as, MS. manuscript, MSS. manuscripts.

**Note 2.** When an abbreviated word comes at the end of a sentence, it is not necessary to use two periods. One point is sufficient to mark both the abbreviation and the end of the sentence. But if the construction requires some other point, as the comma, semicolon, colon, interrogation, etc., both points must be inserted, one to mark the grammatical construction, the other to mark the abbreviation; as, "He reported the death of John Chapman, M. D." "John Chapman, M. D., at the early age of twenty-four, was carried off by disease."

**Note 3.** When two or more abbreviated titles follow each other, they must be separated from each other by commas, just as they would be, if written out in full. Thus: "Thomas Sumner, Doctor of Divinity, Doctor of Laws, Bishop of London," abbreviated, becomes, "Thomas Sumner, D. D., LL.D., Bp. of London."

**Note 4.** Proper names are sometimes permanently shortened, the short form being meant, not as an ordinary abbreviation, but as the real and true name. This was the case with the celebrated dramatist, Ben Jonson. We have analogous and more familiar instances in Ned Buntline, Bill Smith, Tom Jones, etc. In such cases, no period should be inserted to mark abbreviation.

**Note 5.** In like manner, various other abbreviations which are in very familiar use acquire the character of integral words, not requiring the period after them to denote abbreviations. They become nouns, with a singular and a plural. Thus, in England, Cantab (an abridgment of Cantabrigiensis, and meaning an alumnus of Cambridge University), has become a noun, the body of the alumni being called Cantabs, and any one of them a Cantab. In like manner, we have Jap and Japs for Japanese, consol and consols for consolidated loan or consolidated loans of the British Government, three per cents, five per cents, etc.\*

**Note 6.** The letters of the alphabet, *a, b, c*, etc., *A, B, C*, etc., when used in geometry and other sciences to represent quantities,

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\* This word cent, in the combination per cent, had become thoroughly established as an integral word, and was almost universally written and printed without the mark of abbreviation; but of late years, some of our book-makers, in a spirit of hypercriticism, have insisted, unwisely I think, on restoring the period after cent to show that it is an abbreviation of centum. They ought in consistency to put a period after quart, to show that it is an abbreviation of quarta, or after cab, because it is abbreviated from cabriolet.

are not abbreviations, and should not be so marked by the insertion of a period.

**Note 7.** When the letters of the alphabet are used to represent numerals, it is customary to insert a period at the end of each completed numeral; as, Psalms iv., xxi., lxxxvi., cxix., etc. When dates are thus expressed, the whole number is separated into periods of thousands, hundreds, and the portion less than a hundred; as, M.DCCC.LXXI. for the year one thousand, eight hundred, and seventy-one, or 1871.

**Note 8.** The Arabic figures, 1, 2, 3, etc., and the various marks used by printers, as § for section, ¶ for paragraph, etc., are not abbreviations, but stand for whole words, and therefore do not require the period. The period is used, however, before decimals, and between pounds and shillings; as, £2. 10s. 4d. sterling is worth \$13.719 at the present rate of exchange.

**Note 9.** The words 4to, 8vo, 12mo, etc., are not strictly abbreviations, the figures representing a part of the word. If the letters were written in place of the figures which represent them, it would be seen at once that the words are complete, *quar-to*, *octa-vo*, *duodeci-mo*, etc. Periods therefore are not required for such words. The same rule will apply to 1st, 2dly, 3dly, etc.

### Examples for Practice.

[**To the Student.** Give the Rule for each comma, semicolon, colon, or period that you find in the examples which are punctuated; and insert these points where needed, giving the Rules for the same, in the examples not punctuated. When a period is used to mark the end of a sentence, the word following, if there is one, should begin with a capital.]

1. Excellence in conversation depends ○ in a great measure ○ on the attainments which one has made ○ if ○ therefore ○ education is neglected ○ conversation will become trifling ○ if perverted ○ corrupting.

2. The laws of Phoroneus were established 1807 BC ○ those of Lycurgus ○ 884 BC ○ of Draco ○ 623 BC ○ of Solon ○ 587 BC ○ See chap vii § xiv ¶ 7 p 617

3. The reader is requested to refer to the following passages of Scripture ○ Ex xx 18 Deut xx 21 2 Sam 19 2

4. Bought ◊ on 9 mos credit ◊ the following articles ◊ 4 yds 3 qrs 2 n of broadcloth at \$12 a yd ◊ 6 gals 1 pt 2 gi of vinegar at 65 cts a gal ◊ and 3½ cords of wood at \$7.50 a cord \*

5. Poetry was not the sole praise of either; for both excelled likewise in prose: but Pope did not borrow his prose from his predecessor.

6. Dryden's page is a natural field ◊ rising into inequalities ◊ and diversified by the varied exuberance of abundant vegetation ◊ Pope's is a velvet lawn ◊ shaven by the scythe ◊ and levelled by the roller.

7. Of genius ◊ that power which constitutes a poet ◊ that quality without which judgment is cold ◊ and knowledge is inert ◊ that energy which collects ◊ combines ◊ amplifies ◊ and animates ◊ the superiority must ◊ with some hesitation ◊ be allowed to Dryden ◊

8. It is not to be inferred, that of this poetical vigor Pope had only a little, because Dryden had more; for every other writer since Milton must give place to Pope; and even of Dryden it must be said, that, if he has brighter paragraphs, he has not better poems.



## SECTION V.

### THE INTERROGATION POINT.

**An Interrogation Point** is used for marking questions.

**Note 1.** In regard to the portion of discourse marked off by it, the Interrogation Point is equivalent most commonly to a period;

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\* The teacher may multiply and vary indefinitely examples like the 2d, 3d, 4th, using for this purpose the ordinary school-books on Arithmetic, Geography, etc. Such examples should be given until the student is entirely familiar with the modes of punctuating these common abbreviations.



but it may be equivalent to a colon, a semicolon, or a comma. It is a question of some importance to know, in each case, to which of these four points the interrogation point is equivalent, because upon this depends the propriety of using, or not using, a capital after it. When there is, in that particular construction, but one interrogation point, it is always equivalent to a period, and should be followed by a capital. When, however, there is a succession of questions, following each other in a series, without any affirmative sentences intervening, the interrogation points sometimes represent sections of discourse less than a period. The way to determine to which class the particular questions belong is to change the construction into an affirmative form. It will in one case be resolved into a series of independent sentences, separated by periods; in the other, into a connected or continued sentence, with co-ordinate members separated by commas, semicolons, or colons. Example. "Who will bring me into the strong city? who will lead me into Edom? Wilt not thou, O God, who hast cast us off? and wilt not thou, O God, go forth with our hosts?" (Ps. 108 : 10, 11.) Change to the affirmative form. "Some one will bring me into the strong city; some one will lead me into Edom. Thou, O God, who hast cast us off, wilt do it; thou, O God, wilt go forth with our hosts." Another example. "Who goeth a warfare any time at his own charges? who planteth a vineyard, and eateth not of the fruit thereof? or who feedeth a flock, and eateth not of the milk of the flock? Say I these things as a man? or saith not the law the same also?" (1 Cor. 9 : 7, 8.) Affirmatively: "No one goeth a warfare at any time at his own charges; no one planteth a vineyard, and eateth not of the fruit thereof; no one feedeth a flock, and eateth not of the milk of the flock. I do not say these things as a man; the law saith the same things also." Another example. "Shall a man obtain the favor of Heaven by impiety? by murder? by falsehood? by theft?" Affirmatively: "A man cannot obtain the favor of Heaven by impiety, by murder, by falsehood, by theft."

**RULE 1. Direct Questions.**—The Interrogation Point should be placed at the end of every direct question.

**NOTE 1.** A direct question is one in regular form, requiring, or at least admitting an answer; as, "Why do you neglect your duty?" An indirect question is one that is merely reported or spoken of; as, "He inquired why you neglected your duty."

**Note 2.** When there is a succession of questions, having a common grammatical dependence on some preceding word or clause, each question forming by itself an incomplete sentence, some writers place an interrogation point only at the end of the series, and separate the several members by a dash, or perhaps by a comma. This method of punctuation is not correct. Each question, no matter how short or broken, should have its own point. See the example immediately preceding Rule 1.

**Note 3.** Where the words on which a series of questions have a common dependence come after the questions, instead of preceding them, there should be an interrogation point only at the end; as, "Where be your gibes now; your gambols; your songs; your flashes of merriment, *that were wont to set the table in a roar?*" Here the clause italicized refers back to all four items, the "gibes," "gambols," "songs," and "flashes of merriment." They all have a grammatical dependence upon it. If the sentence should be transposed, so as to place this clause first, then each question will come out complete, and will have its interrogation point. Thus: "Where now be those things of yours that were wont to set the table in a roar?—your gibes? your gambols? your songs? your flashes of merriment?"

**Note 4.** Sometimes a question is intended, although the words are not put in the usual interrogative form. Thus: "You will come this afternoon?" In such cases the interrogation point should be used, as in this example, although the sentence may be declarative in its form.

**Note 5.** When a question formally introduces a remark or a quotation, the question should first be brought to a close with an interrogation point, and then the remark or quotation should follow; as, Who that has read can ever forget the words of Hamlet's soliloquy?—

"To be or not to be; that is the question:  
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer  
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune;  
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,  
And by opposing end them."

## SECTION VI.

## THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

**The Exclamation Point** is used for marking strong emotion.

**Note 1.** In regard to the portion of discourse set off by it, the exclamation point, like the interrogation point, is equivalent commonly to a period; but it may be equivalent to a colon, a semicolon, or a comma. The same considerations govern here that govern in the case of the Interrogation. See Note under "Interrogation Point."

**RULE 1.** The Exclamation Point must be used at the close of every sentence, clause, or grammatical expression, intended to convey strong emotion.

**Note.** Inexperienced and weak writers are apt to deal largely in the use of the exclamation point, as if to make up for the feebleness of the thought by mere tricks of punctuation. Young writers therefore should be on their guard in this matter, and not use the exclamation point unless there is some real and strong emotion to be expressed.

**RULE 2.** The Exclamation Point must be used after an interjection; as,—

Fie on him! Ah me! Oh! it hurts me. Oh that I could find him! O father Abraham! O Lord!\*

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\* In regard to the two words *O* and *oh*, *Webster* says: A distinction between the use of *O* and *oh* is insisted on by some, namely, that *O* should be used only in direct address to a person or personified object, and should never be followed by the exclamation point, while *oh* should be used in mere exclamations where no direct appeal or address to an object is made, and may be followed by the exclamation point or not, according to the nature or construction of the sentence. This distinction, however, is nearly or totally disregarded by most writers, even the best, the two forms being generally used quite indiscriminately. The form *O* is the one most commonly employed for both uses by modern writers. "*O* for a kindling touch from that pure flame!" *Wordsworth*. "*O* what a rapturous cry!" "*O* Eldon, in whatever sphere thou shine." "*Strike, oh* Muse, in a measure bold!" *Macaulay*. "*O*, what a fair and ministering angel!" "*O* sweet angel!" *Longfellow*. "*O* sir, *oh* prince, I have no country: none." *Tennyson*.

**Note 1.** Where the interjection does not stand by itself, but forms part of a sentence, clause, or expression, the exclamation point should be placed at the end of the whole expression, and not immediately after the interjection; as, "O wretched state! O bosom black as death!"

**Note 2.** Sometimes *oh* is grammatically separable from the words following it, though the emotion runs through the whole. In that case there should be a comma after the *oh*, and the exclamation point at the end of the whole expression; as, "Oh, where shall rest be found!"

**Note 3.** When an interjection is repeated several times, the words are separated from each other by a comma, the exclamation being put only after the last; as, "Fie, fie, fie! pah, pah! give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."

**Note 4.** Two of the interjections, *eh* and *hey*, are sometimes uttered in a peculiar tone, so as to ask a question. In that case they should be followed by the interrogation point; as, "You thought you would not be found out, eh?"

**RULE 3.** Where the emotion to be expressed is very strong, more than one exclamation point is sometimes used; as, "That man virtuous!! You might as well preach to me of the virtue of Judas Iscariot!!"

**Note.** This mode of repeating the exclamation point is much used in burlesque and satire.

### Examples for Practice.

[**To the Student.** These examples, though intended mainly for illustrating the Rules for the marks of Interrogation and Exclamation, will yet serve the incidental purpose of reviewing all the preceding rules.]

1. Why  $\circ$  for so many a year  $\circ$  has the poet wandered amid the fragments of Athens and Rome  $\circ$  and paused  $\circ$  with strange and kindling feelings  $\circ$  amid their broken columns  $\circ$  their mouldering temples  $\circ$  their deserted plains  $\circ$

2. Greece  $\circ$  indeed  $\circ$  fell  $\circ$  but how did she fall  $\circ$  Did she

fall like Babylon ○ Did she fall like Lucifer ○ never to rise again ○

3. Rouse ○ ye Romans ○ rouse ○ ye slaves ○

4. Down ○ soothless insulter ○ I trust not the tale ○

5. Have you eyes ○ Could you on this fair mountain leave to feed ○ and batten on this moor ○ Ha ○ have you eyes ○ You cannot call it love ○ for ○ at your age ○ the hey-day in the blood is tame, it's humble, and waits upon the judgment ○ and what judgment would step from this to this ○

6. Charge ○ Chester ○ charge ○ on ○ Stanley ○ on ○

7. Who ○ in a sea fight ○ ever thought of the price of the chain which beats out the brains of a pirate ○ or of the odor of the splinter which shatters his leg ○

8. King Charles ○ forsooth ○ had so many private virtues ○ And had James no private virtues ○ Was even Oliver Cromwell ○ his bitterest enemies themselves being judges ○ destitute of private virtues ○ And what ○ after all ○ are the virtues ascribed to Charles ○

9. Ho ○ trumpets ○ sound a war-note ○

10. Oh ○ was there ever such a knight ○ in friendship or in war ○ as our sovereign lord ○ King Henry ○ the soldier of Navarre ○



## SECTION VII.

### THE DASH.

**The Dash** is used chiefly either to mark a sudden change or interruption in the structure of the sentence, or to mark some elocutionary pause.

**Note.** The Dash, which is of modern origin, has been used so indiscriminately and injudiciously by ill-informed writers, that some critics have insisted on banishing it entirely. This would be only going to another extreme. There are, in many passages, in those particularly which are highly rhetorical, turns of thought,

which can be indicated by a dash, and which cannot be indicated by any of the ordinary grammatical points. The dash, therefore, is a necessity in many kinds of composition. But it should not be used as a substitute for the comma, semicolon, colon, period, or interrogation, as inexpert writers sometimes do mistakenly use it, but should be employed where these regular marks cannot be used, and to express things which they cannot express. The dash, therefore, is incorrect whenever any one of these marks could be substituted for it without changing the meaning. Young writers particularly need to be on their guard in using the dash. Mark every dash as wrong, unless some positive reason for its use can be given, and unless it can be shown that none of the ordinary marks would express the idea.

**RULE 1. Construction Changed.**—A Dash is used where the construction of the sentence is abruptly broken off or changed; as,—

Was there ever a bolder captain of a more valiant band? Was there ever—but I scorn to boast.

**RULE 2. Unexpected Change in the Sentiment.**—The Dash is sometimes used to mark a sudden and unexpected change in the sentiment; as,—

He had no malice in his mind—  
No ruffles on his shirt.

**RULE 3. Emphatic Generalization.**—A Dash is sometimes used to mark the transition from a succession of particulars to some emphatic general expression which includes them all; as,—

He was witty, learned, industrious, plausible,—*everything*, but honest.

**RULE 4. Elocutionary Pause.**—A Dash is sometimes used to mark a significant pause, where there is no break in the grammatical construction; as,—

You have given the command to a person of illustrious birth, of ancient family, of innumerable statues, but—of no experience.

**Note.** The mark here is purely elocutionary. A good reader will pause some perceptible time after the *but*, whether there is a mark there or not. The dash serves to indicate to the eye what the good reader will indicate by his voice. This particular use of the dash is pretty well established, and it is not worth while to make any change in regard to it now. But were the matter of elocutionary notation to be undertaken anew, it would seem better to mark this suspension of the voice by a blank space than by a dash, the dash being used for other and very different purposes.

**RULE 5. Expressions dependent upon a Concluding Clause.**—When there is a long series of clauses or expressions, all dependent upon some concluding clause, it is usual, in passing from the preceding part of the passage to that upon which the whole depends, to mark the transition by inserting a Dash, in addition to the comma; as,—

The great men of Rome, her beautiful legends, her history, the height to which she rose, and the depth to which she fell,—these make up one-half of a student's ideal world.

**Note.** The most common example of this use of the dash is where the grammatical subject or nominative is loaded with numerous adjuncts, so that there is danger of its being lost sight of when the verb is introduced. The insertion of the dash here seems to give the mind an opportunity of going back to the main subject; as, "Every step in the attainment of physical power; every new trait of intelligence, as they one by one arise in the infantine intellect, like the glory of night, starting star by star into the sky,—is hailed with a heart-burst of rapture and surprise."

**RULE 6. Rhetorical Repetition.**—When a word or an expression is repeated for rhetorical purposes, the construction being begun anew, a Dash should be inserted before each such repetition; as,—

Shall I, who was born, I might almost say, but certainly brought up, in the tent of my father, that most excellent general—shall I, the conqueror of Spain and Gaul, and not only of the Alpine

nations, but of the Alps themselves—shall I compare myself with this half-year captain?

**Note.** This kind of repetition is sometimes called by elocutionists the *Echo*.

**RULE 7. Reflex Apposition.**—Words at the end of a sentence, and standing somewhat detached, and referring back by apposition to preceding parts of the sentence, should be separated from the previous portions by a Dash; as,—

The four greatest names in English poetry are among the first we come to,—Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton.

Kings and their subjects, masters and their slaves, find a common level in two places,—at the cross, and in the grave.

**Note.** The dash here is said by some to indicate the omission of *namely*, or *that is*. It is true that one of these expressions might be inserted in most cases that come under this rule, but the passage would thereby lose in rhetorical force. The dash, in this case, as in Rule 4, is in fact purely elocutionary.

**RULE 8. The Dash Parenthetical.**—Parenthetical expressions are sometimes included between two Dashes, instead of the usual signs of parenthesis; as,—

The smile of a child—always so ready when there is no distress, and so soon recurring when that distress has passed away—is like an opening of the sky, showing heaven beyond.

The archetypes, the ideal forms of things without,—if not, as some philosophers have said, in a metaphysical sense, yet in a moral sense,—exist within us.

**Note 1.** If, when the parenthetical part is removed from a sentence like one of these, the portions remaining require no point between them, no points besides the dashes will be required at the beginning and end of the parenthetical expression. Thus, in the first of the foregoing examples, if the parenthetical part be left out, the remaining portion will read, "The smile of a child is like an opening," etc. But if the parenthetical part be left out of the second example, it will read, "The archetypes, the ideal forms of



things without, exist within us," with a comma at the place where the two dashes come in. In such cases, there must be two commas in the parenthetical form of the sentence, namely, one before each of the dashes, as in the example.

**Note 2.** If the parenthetical words express a question or an exclamation, they must be followed by an interrogation point or an exclamation point, before the concluding dash; as, Religion—who can doubt it?—is the noblest theme for the exercise of the intellect.

**Note 3.** The question, whether the marks which separate parenthetical words from the rest of the sentence shall be dashes, commas, or marks of parenthesis, is left a good deal to the fancy of the writer. The subject will be more particularly explained in the section on the Parenthesis.

**Note 4.** When one parenthetical expression is included within another, that which is least connected in construction should be set off by the marks of parenthesis, and the other by dashes; as,—

“Sir Smug,” he cries, (for lowest at the board—  
Just made fifth chaplain of his patron lord,  
His shoulders witnessing, by many a shrug,  
How much his feelings suffered—sat Sir Smug,)

“Your office is to winnow false from true;  
Come, prophet, drink; and tell us what think you.”

**RULE 9. Titles run in.**—When a title, instead of standing in a line by itself, over a paragraph, is run in, so as to make a part of the paragraph, it should be separated from the rest of the line by a dash; as,—

FIDELITY TO GOD.—Whatever station or rank Thou shalt assign me, I will die ten thousand deaths sooner than abandon it.—*Socrates.*

**Note 1.** If, at the end of a paragraph, the name of the author or of the book from which the paragraph has been taken is given, it is separated from the rest of the paragraph by a dash. See the word *Socrates* at the end of the preceding example.

**Note 2.** The word *chapter* or *section*, occurring on the same line with the title, is separated from it by a dash; as,—

**RULE 10. Question and Answer.**—If question and answer, instead of beginning separate lines, are run into a paragraph, they should be separated by a dash; as,—

Who made you?—God. What else did God make?—God made all things. Why did God make you and all things?—God made all things for his own glory.

**RULE 11. Omissions.**—The dash is used to mark the omissions of letters or figures; as,—

General W—n captured the Hessians at Trenton.

Matt. 9: 1-6. [N. B. This is equivalent to Matt. 9: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.]

**RULE 12. Examples on a New Line.**—A dash usually follows *as* and *thus*, when the example following them begins a new line.

For examples, see nearly all the preceding rules and notes.

### Examples for Practice.

1. Almost all kinds of raw material extracted from the interior of the earth ○ metals ○ coals ○ precious stones ○ and the like ○ are obtained from mines differing in fertility.

2. The inferiority of French cultivation ○ which ○ taking the country as a whole ○ must be allowed to be real ○ though much exaggerated ○ is probably more owing to the lower average of industrial skill in that country ○ than to any special cause ○

3. Each of these great and ever memorable struggles ○ Saxon against Norman ○ villein against lord ○ Roundhead against Cavalier ○ Dissenter against Churchman ○ Manchester against Old Sarum ○ was ○ in its own order and season ○ a struggle on the result of which were staked the dearest interests of the human race ○

4. Time was growing to be of high worth ○ and ○ from causes which justified a good deal ○ though not quite all ○ of their delay ○ the English at this time were behindhand ○

5. Though ◦ as I was saying ◦ it is only the shallow part of one's heart ◦ I imagine that the deepest hearts have their shallows ◦ which can be filled by it ◦ still it brings a shallow relief ◦

6. Here lies the great ◦ False marble ◦ where ◦ Nothing but sordid dust lies here ◦

7. Greece ◦ Carthage ◦ Rome ◦ where are they ◦

8. "I plunged right into the debate ◦ and" ◦ "Did not say a word to the point ◦ of course" ◦

9. The essence of all poetry may be said to consist in three things ◦ invention ◦ expression ◦ inspiration ◦

10. "How are you ◦ Trepid ◦ How do you feel to-day ◦ Mr. Trepid?" "A great deal worse than I was ◦ thank you ◦ almost dead ◦ I am obliged to you" ◦ "Why ◦ Trepid ◦ what is the matter with you" ◦ "Nothing ◦ I tell you ◦ nothing in particular ◦ but a great deal is the matter with me in general" ◦



## SECTION VIII.

### THE PARENTHESIS.

**The Marks of Parenthesis** are used to inclose words which have little or no connection with the rest of the sentence.

**Note 1.** The word parenthesis (Greek *παρέθεσις*, *insertion*) signifies something inserted or put in, and applies primarily to a sentence or a part of a sentence inserted, by way of comment or explanation, in the midst of another sentence, of which it is independent in construction, and which is complete without it.

**Note 2.** We must distinguish between parenthesis and marks of parenthesis. The parenthesis is the sentence, or part of a sentence, that is inserted into another sentence. The marks of parenthesis are the two curved lines which inclose the words

thus let in. The term *marks of parenthesis*, to indicate these curved lines, is preferred to *parentheses*. Parentheses means properly parenthetical sentences, not marks of parenthesis.

**Note 3.** Sometimes commas, and sometimes dashes, are used instead of the curved lines, to inclose words that are of a parenthetical character; and it is not always easy to determine when to use one of these modes, and when to use another. It may be observed, in general, that the curved lines mark the greatest degree of separation from the rest of the sentence; the dashes, the next greatest; and the commas, the least separation of all.

**RULE.** Words inserted in the body of a sentence, and nearly or quite independent of it in meaning and construction, should be enclosed with the marks of parenthesis.

**Note 1.** A very common example of the use of marks of parenthesis is in the reports of speeches, where a person is referred to, but not named. In the actual delivery of the speech, the person meant is sufficiently indicated by the speaker's pointing or bowing to him, or looking at him, or by other significant gesture. But as this cannot be transferred to the written or printed page, the reporter usually supplies its place by inserting the name of the person meant, and the name thus inserted by the reporter is inclosed by marks of parenthesis. Thus: "After the very lucid exposition of the matter by the gentleman opposite to me (Mr. Stuart), it will not be necessary for me to say much in defence of this part of the subject."

**Note 2.** In reporting speeches, marks of parenthesis are used to inclose exclamations of approbation or disapprobation on the part of the audience; as, "My lords, I am amazed at his lordship's declaration (hear, hear). Yes, my lords: I am amazed, that one in his position could so far forget the proprieties of debate."

**Note 3.** Marks of parenthesis are used to inclose a query, or comment of any kind, made by the one who is reporting, copying, or quoting the words of another; as, "The Romans were the first (indeed?) who learned the art of navigation." In strict accuracy, the marks in these three cases (Notes 1, 2, 3) should be brackets, because the matter thus inserted is really an interpolation by the

reporter. But custom has sanctioned the use of marks of parenthesis in these cases. See Section IX., Note 2 (Brackets).

**Note 4.** In scientific works, marks of parenthesis are used to inclose figures or letters that are employed in enumerating a list of particulars; as, "The unlawfulness of suicide appears from the following considerations: (1.) Suicide is unlawful on account of its general consequences. (2.) Because it is the duty," etc.

**Note 5.** If no points would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case there were no parenthesis there, then no points should be used at that place, in addition to the marks of parenthesis; as, "The Egyptian style of architecture (see Dr. Pocock's work) was apparently the mother of the Greek."

**Note 6.** If a point would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case no parenthesis were there, then, when the parenthesis is inserted, said point should be inserted also, and should be placed after the second mark of parenthesis; as, "Pride, in some disguise or other, is the most ordinary spring of action." "Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most ordinary spring of action."

**Note 7.** If the parenthetical part of a sentence requires at the end a point of its own, this point should come inside of the last mark of parenthesis, and the point belonging to the main sentence should come before the first mark of parenthesis; as, "While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow-men, (and why should he not desire it?) he disdains to receive their good-will by dishonorable means." "Say not in thine heart, Who shall ascend into heaven? (that is, to bring Christ down from above;) or, Who shall descend into the deep? (that is, to bring up Christ again from the dead.) But what saith it?"

**Note 8.** Sometimes a parenthesis is inserted, not between the parts of a sentence, but between complete and independent sentences, and the parenthesis itself contains one or more complete and independent sentences. In such cases, the words inclosed in the curved lines are parenthetical to the whole paragraph, rather than to any one sentence, and the rule for punctuation is, to insert, in addition to the curved lines, whatever other punctuation marks the several sentences and clauses would otherwise require; as, "Brethren, be followers together of me, and mark them which walk so as ye have us for an ensample. (For many walk, of whom

I have told you often, and now tell you even weeping, *that they are the enemies of the cross of Christ; whose end is destruction, whose god is their belly, and whose glory is in their shame; who mind earthly things.*) For our conversation is in heaven; from whence also we look for the Saviour, the Lord Jesus Christ."



## SECTION IX.

### BRACKETS.

**Brackets** are used to inclose in a sentence a word, or words, which do not form part of the original composition.

**Note 1.** Brackets are somewhat like the marks of parenthesis in form, one, however, being angular, the other curved, and are also in some respects like the latter in signification and use.

**Note 2.** Brackets are used to enclose a sentence, or part of a sentence, within the body of another sentence, and thus far are like the marks of parenthesis. But the matter included within brackets is entirely independent of the sentence, and so differs from what is merely parenthetical. Further, the matter within the brackets is usually inserted by one writer to correct or add to what has been written by another, while the parenthesis is a part of the original composition, and is written by the same person that wrote the rest of the sentence.

**Note 3.** It is worthy of remark that the comma before and after, the dash before and after, the marks of parenthesis, and the brackets, all have something in common. They all are used to include matter which is inserted in the body of a sentence, and which is more or less independent of the sentence, and extraneous to it. They indicate increasing degrees of independence and extraneousness, about in the order in which they have just been named, the comma before and after showing least, and the brackets showing most, of this independence.

**RULE.** In correcting or modifying the expressions of another, by inserting words of your own, the words thus inserted should be inclosed in brackets; as,—

A soft answer turn [turns] away wrath.

The number of our days are [is] with thee.

The letter [which] you wrote me on Saturday came duly to hand.

The captain had several men [who] died on the voyage.

**Note 1.** Brackets are used in critical editions of ancient authors to indicate that in the opinion of the editor the words so inclosed are an interpolation, and do not belong to the original. The words thus bracketed are not interpolated by the editor, but the editor takes this means of indicating that they have been interpolated by somebody else. He fears to leave the words out altogether, because they have stood so long in the text, but he takes this means of showing that he considers them spurious.

**Note 2.** Brackets are also used in dictionaries to separate the pronunciation, or the etymology of a word, or some incidental remark about it, from the other parts of the explanation. Thus: Resemblant [Fr. *ressembler*, to resemble]. Having resemblance. [Rare.]

**Note 3.** In printing Plays, the stage directions are separated from the rest of the sentence by brackets; and, if the stage direction occurs at the end of a line, only the first one of the brackets is used. Thus:—

*Ham.* I am very glad to see you. [To Bernardo.] Good-even, sir.

*Pol.* The wind sits in the shoulder of your sail.

And you are stay'd for. There,—my blessing with you; [*Laying his hand on Laertes's head.*]

*King.* I pray you go with me. [*Exeunt.*]

*Hor.* Let them come in. [*Exit servant.*]

**Note 4.** In regard to the use of points before and after the brackets, and the punctuation of any sentence or clause within the brackets, the same rules will apply that have been given in regard to the marks of parenthesis.

### Examples for Practice.

1. LAST WORDS OF REMARKABLE MEN = The last words of Raleigh were = "Why dost thou not strike = Strike =

man ○ ” To the executioner ○ who was pausing ○ The last of the Duke of Buckingham ○ “Traitor ○ thou hast killed me ○ ” To the assassin Felton ○ The last of Charles II. ○ “Don’t let poor Nelly starve ○ ” Referring to Nell Gwynne ○ The last of William III. ○ “Can this last long ○ ” To his physician ○ The last of Locke ○ “Cease now ○ ” To Lady Markham ○ who had been reading the Psalms to him ○

2. If we exercise right principles ○ and we cannot have them unless we exercise them ○ they must be perpetually on the increase ○

3. Are you still ○ I fear you are ○ far from being comfortably settled ○

4. She had managed this matter so well ○ oh ○ how artful a woman she was ○ that my father’s heart was gone before I suspected it was in danger.

5. Know then this truth ○ enough for man to know ○  
Virtue alone is happiness below ○

6. Our last king ○

Whose image even but now appeared to us ○  
Was ○ as you know ○ by Fortinbras of Norway ○  
○ Thereto prick’d on by a most emulate pride ○  
Dar’d to the combat ○ in which our valiant Hamlet  
○ For so this side of our known world esteemed him ○  
Did slay this Fortinbras ○

7. The Egyptian style of architecture ○ see Dr Pocock ○ not his discourses ○ but his prints ○ was apparently the mother of the Greek ○

8. Yet ○ by your gracious patience ○

I will a round unvarnished tale deliver  
Of my whole course of love ○ what drugs ○ what charms ○

What conjuration ○ and what mighty magic ○  
○ For such proceeding I am charged withal ○  
I won his daughter ○



## SECTION X.

## QUOTATION MARKS.

**A Quotation** is the introduction into one's discourse of a word or of words uttered by some one else.

**Note.** The marks of quotation are two inverted commas (") at the beginning, and two apostrophes (") at the end, of the portion quoted.

**RULE 1.** A word or words introduced from some other author should be inclosed by quotation marks.

**Note 1.** It is proper for a writer to use quotation marks in introducing words from some other writings of his own, if the words thus introduced are intended as a citation.

**Note 2.** A writer, in quoting from himself, may use his option in regard to the use of quotation marks. It depends upon whether he does, or does not, wish to make a reference to his previous writings. We have no such option, however, when using the words of other people. To use the words of others without acknowledging them to be such, is plagiarism, which is only another name for *stealing*. It is, however, a breach of the Decalogue, rather than of Rhetoric.

**Note 3.** Sometimes, in quoting from another, we wish for convenience to give only the substance of his meaning, but not his exact words. In such a case, we may show that the wording has been thus altered, by using only one inverted comma and one apostrophe, instead of two. Thus: The last six commandments are, 'Honor thy father and thy mother, Thou shalt not kill, Thou shalt not commit adultery, Thou shalt not steal, Thou shalt not bear false witness. Thou shalt not covet.' Unless we indicate in this way, or by express remark, that the phraseology has been altered, we should in quoting be careful to give the exact words of the author, especially where the quotation is from Holy Scripture. Any alteration whatever in the words inclosed in quotation marks is regarded as dishonest, unless in some manner we distinctly indicate that such alteration has been made.

**Note 4.** Quotation marks are not proper when we state the opinion of others in language of our own; as, Socrates said that he believed the soul to be immortal. If this expression be changed, so as to give the exact words of Socrates, then the quotation marks will be needed; as, Socrates said, "I believe the soul to be immortal."

**Note 5.** Short phrases from foreign languages are usually printed in italics, instead of being inclosed in quotation marks; as, He believed in the principle of *nil admirari*. Titles and names of various kinds are sometimes marked in this way; as, *The Tempest* is regarded by some as one of Shakespeare's earliest plays. This practice, however, is not so much in vogue as it was, the tendency at present being to use, in all such cases, the quotation marks instead of italics.

**RULE 2.** When a quotation incloses within it another quotation, the external quotation has the double marks, and the one included has only the single marks; as,—

It has been well said, "The command, 'Thou shalt not kill,' forbids many crimes besides that of murder."

Some one has said, "What an argument for prayer is contained in the words, 'Our Father which art in heaven!'"

**Note 1.** If the inclosed or secondary quotation ends the sentence, as in the second of the preceding examples, three apostrophes will there come together, of which the first will belong to the inclosed quotation, and the other two to the original.

**Note 2.** When an inclosed quotation itself contains words or phrases that are quoted, those words or phrases have the double marks; as, "Trench says, 'What a lesson the word "diligence" contains!'"

**Note 3.** The preceding note provides for a quotation within a quotation within a quotation. When the sentence becomes more involved than this, the additional degrees of quotation cannot be expressed without producing confusion, and may therefore be omitted; as, It is written in the Gospel, "Jesus answered the Jews, 'Is it not written in your law, I said, ye are gods?'" If, in this sentence, it were attempted to carry out fully the marking of quotations, the words would stand thus, "It is written in the

Gospel, 'Jesus answered the Jews, "Is it not written in your law, 'I said, "ye are gods"'"?'"'"

**Note 4.** When an interrogation or an exclamation mark comes at the same place with the quotation marks, the interrogation or the exclamation mark should be placed inside of the quotation marks, if it is a part of the passage quoted: but if it refers back to something preceding the introduction of the passage quoted, the interrogation or exclamation mark should be outside of the quotation marks. Thus: People talk about the "passing crowd." Yet, if we consider rightly, is there not something of momentous interest in this same "passing crowd"? Here the question goes back beyond the quotation, and therefore the interrogation point should stand outside of it. When Lord Suffolk said in Parliament, "It is lawful to use all the means that God and nature have put into our hands," Chatham quoted the expression with an exclamation of scorn and surprise, "That God and nature have put into our hands"! Here the exclamation is not Suffolk's, but Chatham's, and therefore should be put outside of the quotation.

**RULE 3.** When several consecutive paragraphs are quoted the inverted commas should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph, but the apostrophes only at the end of the whole quotation.

**Note 1.** If the several paragraphs thus quoted do not come together in the original, but are taken from different parts of the book or essay, each several paragraph should begin and end with quotation marks.

**Note 2.** If the extract forms but one paragraph, but is made up of several detached portions taken from different parts of the book or essay quoted, the fact that the extracts are not continuous may be shown, either by inserting several points (. . .) at each place where there is a break, or by inclosing each detached portion with quotation marks.

**Note 3.** In some publications, the inverted commas are inserted at the beginning of each line of quotation, no matter how long. The London *Times* always punctuates in this way. So do some American newspapers. The practice is more common in England than in America, but as it encumbers and disfigures the page with-

out any real advantage, the tendency in both countries is towards the simpler method prescribed in Rule 3.

Examples for Practice.

1. This definition ○ Dr ○ Latham ○ from whom we borrowed it ○ illustrates ○ in his work on the ○ English Language ○ p ○ 359 ○ by the expression ○ a sharp-edged instrument ○, which means an instrument with sharp edges.

2. The words ○ all-wise ○, ○ incense-breathing ○, ○ book-seller ○, and ○ noble-man ○ are compounds.

3. ○ There is but one object ○ ○ says Augustine ○ ○ greater than the soul ○ and that one is its Creator ○ ○

4. ○ Let me make the ballads of a nation ○ ○ said Fletcher of Saltoun ○ ○ and I care not who makes the laws ○ ○

5. When Fenelon's library was on fire ○ ○ God be praised ○ ○ said he ○ ○ that it is not the dwelling of a poor man ○ ○

6. ○ Stop a moment here ○ ○ said Corinne to Lord Nevil ○ as he stood under the portico of the church ○ ○ pause before drawing aside the curtain which covers the entrance of the temple ○ ○

7. A drunkard once reeled up to Whitefield with the remark ○ ○ Mr ○ Whitefield ○ I am one of your converts ○ ○ I think it very likely ○ ○ was the reply ○ ○ for I am sure you are none of God's ○ ○

8. Sir Walter Scott's novel ○ ○ Guy Mannering ○ ○ is one of his best.



SECTION XI.

APOSTROPHE, HYPHEN, CARET, ETC.

**Note.** The other marks used in composition are either so purely grammatical, or they relate so much more to printing than to authorship, that the consideration of them may be despatched very briefly.

1. **The Apostrophe ( ' )** is a comma placed above the line. It is used chiefly to mark the omission of a letter or of letters; as, O'er for over.

2. **The Hyphen ( - )** is used to separate a compound word into its constituent parts, or to divide a word into its syllables for the purpose of showing the pronunciation; as, Neo-Platonic, de-riv-a-tive.

3. **The Caret ( ^ )**, used chiefly in manuscript, shows where something has been omitted, and afterward interlined; as,  
 He has just finished <sup>his</sup> ^ letter.

4. **The Index, or Hand ( ☞ )** calls special attention to a subject; as, ☞ Terms, invariably cash in advance.

5. **The Paragraph ( ¶ )**, inserted in a manuscript, denotes that a paragraph should begin at that point.

6. **The Brace ( { )** is used to connect several items under one head; as,

The Liquids are  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} l \\ m \\ n \\ r \end{array} \right.$

7. **Marks of Ellipsis** are sometimes a long dash, sometimes a succession of stars, or of points; as, He denounced C——s [Congress] for its venality, and threatened to impeach W \* \* \* [Webster] and A . . . [Adams].

8. **The Accents** are three, the acute ( ´ ), the grave ( ` ), and the circumflex ( ^ ).

9. **The Marks of Quantity** are two, the long ( ¯ ) and the short ( ˇ ). Under this head is sometimes put diaeresis ( ¨ ).

10. **The Cedilla** is a mark like a comma placed under the letter c, in words taken from the French, to denote that the letter has in that case the sound of s; as, façade [pronounced *fa-sad*].

11. **Marks of Reference** are the asterisk or star ( \* ), the dagger ( † ), the double dagger ( ‡ ), the section ( § ), parallel lines ( || ), the paragraph ( ¶ ).

12. **Leaders** are dots used to carry the eye from words at

the beginning of a line to something at the end with which they are connected; thus,

Orthography .....	page 7
Etymology.....	“ 14
Syntax.....	“ 87

13. **Double Commas Inverted** are used to show that a word is to be supplied from the line above.

(See example under No. 12, where “ supplies the place of the word “page.”)

14. **The Title-page** of a book is that which contains the title, and is usually the first page.

15. **Running Titles, or Head-lines**, placed at the top of the page to show the subject, are usually printed in capitals or small capitals.

16. **Captions, or Sub-heads**, are headings placed over chapters or sections, but standing in the body of the page, not at the top.

17. **Side-heads** are titles run into, or made part of, the line.

18. **A Frontispiece** is a picture opposite to the title-page.

19. **A Vignette** is a small picture, not occupying a full page, but mixed up with other matter, either on the title-page, or in any other part of the book.

20. **Italics** are letters *inclined to the right*. They are so called because type of this kind was first used by Italian printers.

**Note 1.** In manuscript, one line drawn under a word shows that it should be printed in *italics*; two lines, that it should be printed in **SMALL CAPITALS**; and three lines, that it should be printed in **CAPITALS**. Ordinary letters are called **Roman**, as opposed to **Italic**.

**Note 2.** Some writers use Italics to mark emphatic words. This is a weak and foolish device, and cannot be too strongly condemned.

**Note 3.** In the English Bible, words are printed in italic to show

that they are not in the original, but are supplied by the translators to complete the meaning.

21. The principal kinds of type are the following :

*English*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m.

*Pica*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p.

*Small Pica*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p.

*Long Primer*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q.

*Bourgeois*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u.

*Brevier*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w.

*Minion*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x.

*Nonpareil*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

*Agate*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

*Pearl*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

*Diamond*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

*Brilliant*, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

22. **Leads** are thin plates of type-metal, by which the lines may be spaced further apart. Matter thus spaced is said to be *leaded*. Matter not leaded is called *solid*.

23. **Composing**, as a part of the printing business, is putting matter in type, or setting up the type.

24. The amount of printed matter is counted by *ems*, that is, by the number of spaces of the length of the letter *m*.

25. A **Folio** is a leaf or sheet of paper with a single fold, that is, making two leaves or four pages.

26. A book is called a **Folio** when the sheets on which it is printed are so folded that each sheet makes but two leaves. It is called a **Quarto**, when each sheet makes four leaves; an **Octavo**, when each makes eight leaves; a **Duodecimo**, when each makes twelve leaves; a 16mo, 18mo, 24mo, 32mo, 48mo, 64mo, 96mo, etc., according as each sheet makes 16, 18, 24, 32, 48, 64, or 96 leaves.

## SECTION XII.

## CAPITALS.

**RULE 1. Title-pages and Headings.**—Title-pages and headings of chapters should be entirely in capitals.

**Note.** The head-line of the page is usually in a kind of type called small capitals. The headings of sections smaller than a chapter are sometimes printed in small capitals, and sometimes by beginning only the principal words with a capital.

**RULE 2. The First Word in a Book, etc.**—The first word of every book, tract, essay, etc., and of every chapter or section, also of every letter, note, or writing of any kind, should begin with a capital.

**RULE 3. The First Word in a Sentence.**—The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital.

**RULE 4. Numbered Clauses.**—Clauses, when separately numbered, should begin with a capital, though not separated from each other by a full-point; as,—

This writer asserts, 1. That Nature is unlimited in her operations; 2. That she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; 3. That knowledge will always be progressive, and, 4. That all future generations will continue to make discoveries.

**RULE 5.** The first word after a period, except when used as an abbreviation, should begin with a capital.

**Note 1.** The reason of this is that the period brings the sentence to a close. The first word following it, therefore, begins a new sentence, and should have the capital, according to Rule 3, already given.

**Note 2.** For the same reason a capital should follow the mark of interrogation, when equivalent to a period, as it usually is.

**RULE 6. First Word of an Example.**—The first word of a sentence or clause which is given as an example should begin with a capital; as, "Temperance promotes health."



**Note.** If the example is not a sentence or a clause, but only a single word, or a series of words, as, temperance, fortitude, honesty, prudence, etc., no capital is needed.

**RULE 7. Quoting Titles.**—In quoting the title of a book, every noun, pronoun, adjective, and adverb should begin with a capital; as, “Sparks’s Life of Washington.”

**RULE 8. First Word of a Direct Question.**—The first word of a direct question should begin with a capital; as,—

(Direct question.) His words are, “Why do you not study the lesson?”

(Indirect question.) He desires to know why you do not study the lesson.

**RULE 9. First Word of a Direct Quotation.**—The first word of a direct quotation should begin with a capital; as,—

Plutarch says, “Lying is the vice of slaves.”

**Note.** If this quotation be changed to the indirect form, no capital will be needed at the point where the quotation begins; as, Plutarch says that lying is the vice of slaves.

**RULE 10. Capitals Used for Figures.**—Numbers are sometimes represented by capital letters; as, I., II., III., IV., etc.

**Note.** In referring to passages in books, it is very common to number the chapter, book, sections, etc., in this way, and to begin with a capital each name of the division mentioned; as, “Mill’s Political Economy, Vol. I, Book III, Chap. IV, Sec. VI, p. 573.” If the references are numerous, this method is found to be cumbersome and unsightly, and small letters are preferred; as, “Mill’s Political Economy, vol. i, book iii, chap. iv, sect. vi, p. 573.”

**RULE 11.** The pronoun I, and the interjection O, should always be capital letters.

**RULE 12. Poetry.**—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

**RULE 13. Names of God.**—All names and titles of God should begin with a capital; as, Jehovah, Father, Creator, Almighty, etc.

**Note 1.** When any name usually applied to the Supreme Being is used for a created being, it does not begin with a capital; as, "The Lord is a great God above all gods." "Lord of lords, King of kings."

**Note 2.** Providence is sometimes used to mean God, that is, the One who provides for us; Heaven likewise is used to mean the One who reigns in heaven. In such cases the word should begin with a capital. But if only God's providential care, or his place of abode is meant, a capital is not needed.

**Note 3.** The adjectives *eternal, universal, heavenly, divine, etc.*, when applied to God, need not begin with a capital, unless something in the particular instance makes them emphatic. Custom, however, has made capitals necessary in the following instances: Almighty God, Infinite One, Supreme Being, First Cause.

**Note 4.** When an attribute of God is expressed, not by an adjective, as in the instances above, but by a noun dependent upon another noun, as "Father of mercies" for "Merciful Father," the dependent noun in such combinations does not require a capital.

**Note 5.** "Son of God," as applied to our Saviour, requires that both nouns should begin with a capital; "Son of man" requires no capital for the latter noun.

**Note 6.** Great diversity prevails in regard to the pronouns, when referring to God. Some authors, in printing a hymn or a prayer, make the page fairly bristle with capitals, every pronoun that refers in any manner to God being decorated in that manner. The first stage of this fancy is that which prints in this manner Thou, Thine, Thee. In the second stage, He, His, Him are thus treated. The last and highest stage shows itself in the relative pronouns, Who, Whose, and Whom. In the standard editions of the English Bible, the pronouns, when referring to God, are never printed in this way, not even in forms of direct address to the Deity; as, "But thou, O Lord, be merciful unto me," etc.

**RULE 14. Proper Names.**—All proper names should begin with capitals; as, Jupiter, Mahomet, Brahma, Pompey, Lake Erie, Monday, Good Friday, Rome, China, France.

**Note 1.** The word *devil*, when used to designate Satan, should begin with a capital; in all other cases, with a small letter; as,

“The Devil and his angels.” “The devils also believe and tremble.”

**Note 2.** The same persons who capitalize the first letter of the pronouns when referring to God, capitalize the first letter of *heaven* and *hell* when referring to the abodes of the blessed and of the lost. But such is not the usage in the Bible, which is the most carefully printed book in the language. “If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there: if I make my bed in hell, behold thou art there.”

**Note 3.** *North, South, East, and West*, when used to denote certain parts of the country or of the world, should begin with a capital; as, “This man evidently is a native of the West.” But when they denote merely geographical direction, they should begin with a small letter; as, “Ohio lies west of the Alleghanies.”

**Note 4.** When a name is compounded of a proper name and of some other word which is not a proper name, connected by a hyphen, the part which is not a proper name begins with a capital, if it precedes the hyphen, but with a small letter, if it follows the hyphen; as, Pre-Adamite, New-England, Sunday-school.

**RULE 15. Words Derived from Proper Names.**—Words derived from proper names should begin with a capital; as, Mahometan, Brahmin, Christian, Roman; French, Spanish, Grecian; to Christianize, to Judaize, to Romanize, etc.

**Note 1.** The names of religious sects, whether derived from proper names or otherwise, begin with a capital; as, Christians, Pagans, Jews, Gentiles, Lutherans, Calvinists, Protestants, Catholics, etc. The names of political parties likewise begin with capitals; as, Democrats, Republicans, Radicals, Conservatives, etc.

**Note 2.** Some words, derived originally from proper names, have by long and familiar usage lost all reference to their origin, and are printed like ordinary words, without capitals; as, *simony, damask, jalap, godlike, philippic, to hector, to galvanize, to japan*, etc.

**RULE 16. Titles of Honor and Office.**—Titles of honor and office should begin with a capital; as, The President of the United States, His Honor the Mayor of Philadelphia, President Madison, Queen Victoria, Sir Robert Murchison, Your Royal Highness, etc.

**Note.** When *father, mother, brother, sister, uncle, aunt*, etc., immediately precede a proper name, some writers begin with a capital; as, Aunt Margaret, Brother John, etc. But the tendency at present among careful writers is to discontinue the use of capitals in such cases. In writing to a person of his father, mother, etc., it is customary with some, as a mark of respect, to use the capital; as, "I met your Father yesterday." In the family circle, Father and Mother often become proper nouns, when, of course, they take the capital. The term *father*, when used to denote one of the early Christian writers, is always printed with a capital; as, "Chrysostom and Augustine are among the most voluminous of the Fathers."

**RULE 17. Subjects First Introduced.**—In works of a scientific character, when the subject of a particular section is defined, or is first introduced, it begins with a capital; as, "A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun."

**RULE 18. The Bible.**—A capital is always used for the terms ordinarily employed to designate the Bible, or any particular part or book of the Bible; as, The Holy Bible, the Sacred Writings, the Old Testament, the Gospel of Matthew, the Acts of the Apostles, the Epistle to the Ephesians, the Revelations, the Psalms, etc. In like manner, a capital is used in giving the names of other sacred writings, as the Koran, the Zend Avesta, the Puranas, etc.

**RULE 19. Words of Special Importance.**—Words describing the great events of history, or extraordinary things of any kind, which have acquired a distinctive name, begin with a capital; as, the Reformation, the Revolution, the war of Independence, the Middle Ages, Magna Charta, the Gulf Stream, etc.

**RULE 20. Personification.**—In cases of strongly marked personification, the noun personified should begin with a capital; as,—

"Hope for a season bade the world farewell,

And Freedom shrieked as Kosciusko fell."

**Note.** This rule, like that in regard to words of special importance, requires discretion on the part of the writer. Young and inexperienced writers are prone to apply it too frequently.

### Miscellaneous Examples for Practice.

[Punctuate the following sentences, and make the necessary corrections in regard to capitals, giving your reasons for each alteration.]

1. Charles notwithstanding the delay had left england to work his way as best he might out of his Difficulties

2. the scots therefore at the break of day entered the Castle

3. Fashion is for the most part the ostentation of Riches

4. besides if you labor in moderation it will conduce to Health as well as to Wealth

5. Sir Peter Carew for some unknown reason had written to ask for his pardon

6. The Man when He saw this departed

7. the crowd as Throgmorton left the court threw up their caps and shouted

8. Elizabeth who had been requested to attend was not present

9. The frost had set in the low damp ground was hard the Dykes were frozen

10. a brown curling beard flowed down upon his chest

11. she thought the isle that gave her birth

the sweetest mildest land on earth

12. The first Seven carried maces swords or pole-axes

13. She plans provides expatiates triumphs there

14. Who to the enraptured heart and ear and eye

Teach beauty virtue truth and love and melody

15. Give me a sanctified and just a charitable and humble a religious and contented spirit

16. Now a man now a seraph and now a beast

17. the dragon stands the hieroglyph of evil and gnaws at the tree of life

18. The ocelot a beautiful and striped fiend hisses like a snake

19. He that calls upon thee is Theodore the hermit of Teneriffe

20. Hate madness ruled the hour

21. We saw a large opening or inlet

22. The Egyptian serpent the ass-headed devil deserves the first mention as among the oldest personifications of the spirit of evil

23. Well Sir Nicholas what news

24. Zaccheus make haste and come down

25. The conspiracy being crushed without bloodshed an inquiry into its origin could be carried out at leisure

26. Thus preciously freighted the spanish fleet sailed from Corunna

27. Cruel and savage as the persecution had become it was still inadequate

28. Faith is opposed to infidelity hope to despair charity to enmity and hostility

29. Allegory kills the symbolical as prose poetry.

30. Elizabeth threw herself in front of Marie Antoinette exclaiming I am the queen

31. Kant said give me matter and I will build the world

32. Whatever happens Mary exclaims Elizabeth I am the wife of the Prince of Spain crown rank life all shall go before I will take any other husband

33. In the regions inhabited by angelic natures unmingled felicity forever blooms joy flows there with a perpetual and abundant stream nor needs any mound to check its course

34. In this way we learned that miss Steele never succeeded in catching the doctor that Kitty Bennett was satisfactorily married by a clergyman near Pemberton that the "considerable sum" given by Mrs. Norris to William Price was one pound and that letters placed by Churchill before Jane Fairfax which she swept away unread contained the word pardon

35. The daring youth explained everything he presented philosophy in a familiar form he brought it home to men's bosoms he made all smooth and easy

36. Then he shivers his sword in pieces he longs to die the veins of his neck start out they burst his noble blood wells forth

37. *Ars* in latin is the contrary of *in-ers* it is the contrary of inaction it is action

38. Make hay while the sun shines for clouds will surely come

39. there are five moods the indicative the potential the subjunctive the imperative and the infinitive

40. Princes have courtiers and merchants have partners the voluptuous have companions and the wicked have accomplices none but the virtuous have friends

41. in his last Moments He uttered these words i fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury

42. Length n A S *lengdh* equivalent to *lengu lengc* from *lang* long the longest measure of any object in distinction from *depth thickness breadth* or *wilth* the extent of anything from end to end the longest line which can be drawn through a body parallel to its sides as the length of a church the length of a rope \*

43. John Tillotson Archbishop of Canterbury obtained great celebrity as a preacher his sermons at his death were purchased for no less sum than two thousand five hundred guineas they continue to the present time to be read and to be held in high estimation as instructive rational and impressive discourses

44. Sir Roger L'Estrange enjoyed in the reigns of Charles II and James VII great notoriety as an occasional political

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\* The teacher may multiply indefinitely examples of this kind by referring to any large Dictionary containing the derivation and definition of words. Such exercises are of the greatest importance and value in teaching punctuation. A like use may be made of the sums in Arithmetic and Algebra.

writer he is known also as a translator having produced versions of Esop's Fables Seneca's Morals Cicero's offices Erasmus's Colloquies Quevedo's Visions and the works of Josephus

45. Another lively describer of human character who flourished in this period was Dr. Walter Charleton physician to Charles II a friend of Hobbes and for several years president of the college of physicians in London

46. Bacchanalian pertaining to the festivals of Bacchus the god of wine which were celebrated by a triumphal procession wherein men and women went about rioting dancing and indulging in all sorts of licentious extravagance

47. Horologe horo hour and loge that which tells or notes is from two greek words signifying together that which tells the hour a sun dial a clock a timepiece

48. Bacon Francis usually known as Lord bacon was born in London England Jan 22 1560 and died 1626 he was famous as a scholar a wit a lawyer a judge a statesman and a politician

49. Early one morning they came to the estate of a wealthy farmer they found him standing before the stable and heard as they drew near that he was scolding one of his men because he had left the ropes with which they tied their horses in the rain all night instead of putting them away in a dry place ah we shall get very little here said one to the other that man is very close we will at least try said another and they approached

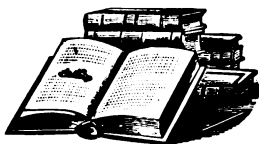
50. The clear conception outrunning the deductions of logic the high purpose the firm resolve the dauntless spirit speaking in the tongue beaming from the eye informing every feature and urging the whole man onward to his object this this is eloquence or rather it is something greater and higher than all eloquence it is action noble sublime godlike action.

51. But it will be urged perhaps sir in behalf of the California gold that though one crop only of gold can be gath-



ered from the same spot yet once gathered it lasts to the end of time while our vegetable gold is produced only to be consumed is gone forever but this Mr president would be a most egregious error both ways





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