Dwight L. Garner

College Reading
and Writing

College
READING
and
WRITING

DWIGHT L. GARNER
Long Beach City College

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 — 74 73 72 71 70

Preface

College Reading and Writing is designed to draw strengths from both descriptive and prescriptive forms of grammar. Terminology that fits both forms has been used to introduce the student to what is probably his first study of English in college.

Following are some observations concerning this book that might be of assistance to the English teacher:

1. A problem motif has been worked out in the chapter headings that provides the book with certain direction and point.

2. The exercises are of a kind that should satisfy the teacher who wants drills that can be answered by a few words, and easily and quickly checked, as well as the teacher who wants his drill work to require more extensive writing on the student's part.

3. Chapter 17, "Problems of Punctuation," is organized so that punctuation is considered from function to punctuation symbol rather than from punctuation symbol to function. This has permitted me to write in terms of three large functions: (a) terminal punctuation, (b) internal punctuation that separates, and (c) internal punctuation that encloses. Quotation marks, dashes, and parentheses are considered in a separate section at the end of the chapter. Abbreviations, hyphens, and apostrophes are discussed in Chapter 18, "Problems of Spelling."

4. The glossary is arranged so that students, in most instances, can refer to the appropriate section in the text for an explanation that is more detailed and complete in its context than any brief definition that a glossary could provide.

5. The reading section, Chapter 22, offers the kind of reading that is geared to students who would normally be taking a basic English class requiring such a book as *College Reading and Writing*. The pictures that are included in Chapter 23 should offer a springboard for both discussion and writing. Two additional reading sections and two pictures are included so that the teacher may make whatever use he wishes of them.

6. Of particular importance to the teacher and student is that adequate explanation and background are given when new concepts are introduced. In later and appropriate sections, these concepts are reinforced by further explanations. In addition, the index is given in sufficient depth so that the teacher, if he wishes, can refer students to the more detailed sections.

In writing this book I have received invaluable suggestions from the highly competent members of the Los Angeles Harbor College English Department. I wish to pay particular tribute to my wife, Marjorie S. Garner, for her careful preliminary editing and helpful suggestions. Without her, *College Reading and Writing* would never have been completed.

D. L. G.

Contents

1

Levels of English Usage

Bergen Evans, Professor of English at Northwestern University, recently spoke at the national convention of the Managing Editors Association of the Associated Press. He commented on rules of grammar, and what he had to say has a distinct bearing on the study of English:

> Rules, good rules, are those which state as best they can what culti- vated, sensitive people who want passionately to express their meaning now say. Bad rules are those which state what such people used to say. Very bad rules are those which state what somebody thinks they ought to do, but don't.

Dr. Evans is not making a blanket condemnation of rules of English and language. He is, however, asserting that such rules should *describe* current, correct usage rather than *prescribe* a set of sacred principles to be treasured and followed by all. In other words, rules of modern English cannot be looked on as inviolate and formal prescriptions handed down to the American people by some august authority. Language becomes meaningful to most of us only when it is viewed as controlled and changed by social and cultural pressures rather than something prescribed by logic or law.

Most of us find speaking far easier than writing. Indeed, very few Americans lack the ability to express themselves clearly in spoken English. Admittedly, the expressions are not always correct grammatically, but the substance of the spoken message is clear. This is not difficult to understand when we consider the advan- tages the speaker has over the writer. If the speaker finds that ten words will not express his meaning, he can draw on ten or twenty more until his listeners react to his message. The writer, on the other hand, is more limited in the number of words he can set down on paper; he must guess at his reader's understanding and attention span. Also, when we speak, we can draw on such communicative crutches as gestures, grunts, and grimaces, all of which help us get our meaning across. The writer does not have these aids to communication. He must depend on words, or- ganization, and punctuation.

Purpose of This Book

The tasks of the writer have just been described as being far more demanding than those of the conversationalist. Since conversation is more natural and less structured than is writing, our difficulties in communicating become more complex when we are faced with the disciplines of written language.

The purpose of this book is to provide a practical presentation of the grammatical, spelling, writing, and reading problems that a student must master if he is to succeed in college. The author is fully aware of the contentions held by both the traditional and linguistic schools of thought. He has played no favorites and has drawn from both disciplines. Immediately following are brief examinations of traditional and linguistic attitudes toward the study of English.

The *traditionalist* can best be described by referring to Dr. Evans' quotation at the beginning of this chapter. The traditionalist speaks of rules that describe either what people used to say or what some authority thinks they should say today. The *linguist,* taking another approach, studies and attempts to delineate the development, structure, and function of languages; he seeks to explain what people are saying.

Both the traditional and linguistic approaches encompass wide variations in attitudes and flexibility. An extreme view, held by some linguists, can best be described by the expression "everything goes." This school maintains that communication should be natural and not constrained by any rules. If an expression is used and understood, it is serving the purpose of language and must therefore be accepted.

On the other hand, the most rigid traditionalists hold many rules to be inviolate and say that all Americans who speak and write must abide by these tenets or be dismissed as illiterates. A corollary may be that if these scholars continue to exclude the speaking and writing public from serious consideration, Americans, in their search for self-expression, will leave the authorities far behind. The case in point is illustrated by a statement of the late Jawaharlal Nehru, Prime Minister of India (1947–1964). He had suddenly interrupted a trip to the United States to return to India. When asked by reporters why he was returning to his country, he said, "The people of India are on the march. I must return to follow them; for I am their leader."

American English is constantly undergoing changes in pronunciation, spelling, and usage as our culture develops. Spoken language receives the major impact of this force, and written language responds far more slowly in type and degree of change. The attitude of this book, as was mentioned earlier in the chapter, is an *eclectic* one: Ideas from both the traditional and linguistic schools which would seem to be of greatest value to a college student are presented.

English Usage

We are a vast country, a virtual melting pot of different cultures, races, languages, and socio-economic strata. Accordingly, we have different standards or levels of American English, and usage that would be acceptable on one level could be inappropriate on another. Generally speaking, American English can

be divided into three broad areas of usage: Formal, Standard, and Nonstandard. These will be discussed briefly in the following sections.

FORMAL.   Formal English is usually written, only occasionally spoken, and is of limited use. It appears in the literature of learned societies, doctoral and masters dissertations, and in college catalogs. Formal English is rather impersonal in nature, and, at its most extreme, may be heavy and even ponderous. Of all levels, it is the least yielding to change.

STANDARD.   Standard English is much broader in scope than Formal English. It is the language of business, education, and science. It represents the broad stream of communication taking place among active, intelligent, educated people.

Standard English is the level you will use in the college compositions you write during your lower division work, though an exception will likely be the research paper you will write during your freshman year. Standard usage is less prescriptive and dogmatic than is formal usage. An example is the use of *me* or *I* after the linking verb *is*. Formal English requires the use of "It is *I*" whereas Standard English permits the "It is *me*" construction frequently and intentionally used by those who have formal educations. We have already mentioned that spoken English is less precise and more informal than written English. The wide use of "It is *me*" is especially characteristic of Standard English that is spoken.

NONSTANDARD.   Nonstandard English is without doubt the most fluid and changeable of all levels. A person with a formal education who is familiar with the Formal English level and who is also comfortable in using Standard English will intentionally dip into the great reservoir of usage provided by the Nonstandard level. The important thing to note, however, is that he uses the Nonstandard level intelligently and with a purpose.

Nonstandard is more often spoken than written, and it may vary from mere careless disregard of grammatical rules to obscene and vulgar words. Nonstandard writing and speaking will run the gamut from the intentional, informal usage of educated people to the unconscious usage of the uneducated.

COLLOQUIAL.   A word should be said concerning the colloquial levels. You will notice that the word "levels" is used. According to its point of origin, *colloquial* means "to converse" or "to speak"; on this basis there could be Formal, Standard, and Nonstandard Colloquial levels. However, as used today, *colloquial* means the words and expressions that are part of informal conversation. Thus, you will find Colloquial Standard and Colloquial Nonstandard listed in the following table:

Formal

Limited use by people with formal education
Usually written
Articles dealing with special subjects for learned societies
Dissertations
Term papers
College Catalogs

Standard

General use by majority of the nation
Both written and spoken
Language used in everyday business, education, and scientific pursuits
Magazine articles and books of general interest
Colloquial (conversational and informal usage of educated people)

Nonstandard

General use by uneducated people
Mostly spoken
Lacking noticeable influence of education
Colloquial (conversational usage, sometimes intentionally by educated
        people lacking formal educations)
Lower extreme slovenly and often of unprintable nature

Student Responsibility

Your prime responsibility is to master the Standard English usage level. This is
the kind of English you will probably communicate with in your business and
social life. In addition, as a college student, you have an obligation to become
acquainted with the Formal English standard because it is still used in certain
professions and social situations in modern society. You also should explore your
own conversational usage levels; they may not be sufficient for the business and
social plans you have made for yourself. In any case, your English training should
help you. Experience has proved that the sincere student, having once learned
the principles involved in writing correctly, can draw on them as the conversa-
tional situation requires.

2

Parts of Speech

Words are classified into parts of speech depending upon how the words are used in sentences. The word *dance* for example, cannot be labeled as a part of speech until it is seen in relation to other words:

> The *dance* did not end until long after midnight.   [Nominal]

> *Dance* when I turn the record player on.   [Verb]

> Her *dance* program was filled.   [Adjectival]

When one says that a word in a particular sentence is a certain part of speech, he is describing the word as it relates to that sentence alone. Only by examining each word's usage separately, as we have done with *dance,* can we determine the classification of the word as a part of speech.

This chapter will discuss the parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, and interjections. Linguistic nomenclature will be used in conjunction with traditional terminology so that each attitude, traditional and linguistic, may make its contribution to a better grasp of the structure of our language.

Nominals

A *nominal* is any word, phrase, or clause which names something and thus performs the grammatical functions of a noun. Nominals are also known as *noun-equivalents* or *substantives*. A nominal may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive, a gerund, a phrase, or a clause.

NOUNS.   A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, quality, concept, or action:

PERSON   *Richard* mentioned her to *Uncle John*.
                My *friend* is a *lawyer*.

PLACE   *Los Angeles* is in *Southern California*.
                Miami is located in *Florida*.

THING   The *moon* came from behind the *clouds*.
                That *city* is famous for *films*.

QUALITY   His *goodness* should not be mistaken for *weakness*.

CONCEPT   *Knowledge* is *power*.

ACTION   *Walking* is excellent *exercise*.

Look back at the sentences you have just read. Notice there is a common position for nouns in sentences. The noun comes first. It is followed by a verb. The verb, in turn, may be followed by another noun. These two patterns appear as follows:

Noun   Verb

Noun   Verb   Noun

_____ mentioned her to _____.

My _____ is a _____.

_____ is in _____.

_____ is located in _____.

The _____ came from behind the _____.

That _____ produces _____.

His _____ should not be mistaken for _____.

_____ is _____.

_____ is excellent _____.

Thus, a word can be identified as a noun not only because it is the name of a person, place, thing, quality, concept, or action, but also because it occupies the position in a sentence normally occupied by a noun.

Frequently, nouns also have certain words called *noun determiners* that appear before them. *A, an* and *the* are the most common determiners:

An apple per day keeps *the* doctor away.

I had *a* hamburger for lunch.

Other words, among which are numerals and possessive personal pronouns, may also be used as determiners. Following are some examples of some of these determiners:

any	his	my	some	three
both	many	one	their	two
her	more	our	those	your

Your mother took *both* kittens.

Two lies do not make *one* truth.

Some men have *many* facets to *their* personalities.

PRONOUNS.   Pronouns are nominals since they take the place of nouns. In the sentence *Richard mentioned his mother to Uncle John,* any or all of the nouns may be replaced by pronouns:

He mentioned his mother to Uncle John.

Richard mentioned *her* to Uncle John.

Richard mentioned his mother to *him.*

He mentioned *her* to *him.*

1. *Personal pronouns* serve as nominals by designating the person doing the speaking, the person being spoken to, or the person or thing being spoken about; unlike nouns, however, pronouns change according to whether they are used as subjects or objects. The following table will help you understand personal pronouns. The possessive personal pronouns that are in italics function as nominals. The other possessive pronouns serve as adjectivals, a function that will be described later in this chapter. They are included here in order that you may see the various forms of the personal pronouns.

Number	*Person*	*Subject*	*Object*	*Possession*
Singular	1st person, speaker	I	me	my, *mine*
	2nd person, the person spoken to	you	you	your, *yours*
	3rd person, the person spoken of	he	him	his, *his*
		she	her	her, hers
		it	it	its

Number	Person	Subject	Object	Possession
Plural	1st person, the speaker	we	us	our, *ours*
	2nd person, the person spoken to	you	you	your, *yours*
	3rd person, the person spoken of	they	them	their, *theirs*

2. *Interrogative pronouns* act as nominals in asking questions. The interrogative pronouns are *who, which, what, whose,* and *whom.*

> *Who* is your friend?

> *Which* do you want?

> You did *what*?

3. *Demonstrative pronouns* (*this, that, these, those*) act as nominals in pointing out something.

> *That* is the car with the best gas mileage.

> I bought *these* Saturday afternoon.

> *Those* are the shoes you should have worn.

4. *Indefinite pronouns,* when acting as nominals, refer to no specific person or thing. Typical of the indefinite pronouns are *one, someone, everybody, nobody, several, all, neither,* and *either.*

> *One* has to study to get good grades.

> *Someone* will know the address.

> I will give a prize to *everybody*.

> *All* are welcome.

Identifying Nominals

Directions for Part A: Each italicized word in the following sentences is a noun (N), a noun determiner (N D), or a pronoun (PRO). In the blanks place the correct abbreviation for each italicized word. The abbreviations must be in the same order as the words to which they refer.

————— ————— —————   1 *This* is a *sport everyone* enjoys.

————— ————— —————   2 *Someone* thought *John* knew *him*.

————— ————— —————   3 *We* knew he had brought *apples* and *pears*.

————— ————— —————   4 It was *three* in the *morning* before we were able to get *home*.

————— ————— —————   5 *He* knew my running was such that I was no *star* of our track *team*.

————— ————— —————   6 There was *a* good *reason* for my *anger*.

————— ————— —————   7 *The* President appeared in a serious and somber mood when *he* spoke on *television*.

————— ————— —————   8 Your father and *mother* brought *me three* kittens, then quickly left.

————— ————— —————   9 Henry was not the most military *figure* in *our* campus *unit* of the ROTC.

————— ————— —————   10 Captain *Miller* reminded Henry that golf *shoes* were not proper *habiliments* for the parade ground.

————— ————— —————   11 *She* takes a keen *interest* in things of an academic *nature*.

————— ————— —————   12 *Several* commented on *that* and wondered why nobody had protested *the* decision.

———— ———— ———— 13 *Several* neighbors had the good *sense* to turn *their* radios off at midnight.

14 *This* is an *occasion* which makes *one* happy

———— ———— ———— 15 *Which* of *these* do *you* want?

———— ———— ———— 16 *They* believed *he* was responsible for the unprecedented political *victory*.

———— ———— ———— 17 *Neither* of the *friends* was able to vote in the last *election*.

———— ———— ———— 18 *Who* should help *you* next Saturday *afternoon*?

———— ———— ———— 19 *Who* do you feel is responsible for *our* club's financial *condition*?

———— ———— ———— 20 *Both boys* agreed they were uncertain about the *outcome*.

———— ———— ———— 21 *It* was hard to see the results of the work that had taken place on *the* irregular *path* that the natives called a road.

———— ———— ———— 22 *We* had looked forward to this *junket* for more than three *months*.

———— ———— ———— 23 *Three surfboards* had been tied securely on the *top* of Harry's old station wagon.

———— ———— ———— 24 *Harry* had loaned us *his* car on the premise that we would put new *tires* on it and have the motor tuned.

———— ———— ———— 25 *What* Harry didn't tell *us* was that his car needed more than a *tune-up*.

———— ———— ———— 26 *It* actually had to have piston *rings* and new *valves*.