

# COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC

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LOCKWOOD AND EMERSON

# COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC

FOR

*HIGHER SCHOOLS*

BY

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AND

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TO  
OUR PUPILS  
WHOSE APPRECIATIVE SYMPATHY  
HAS MADE OF OUR SCHOOLROOM DAYS  
A DELIGHTFUL EXPERIENCE

## PREFACE

CERTAIN demands may fairly be made of any text-book that purposes to serve the cause of good teaching and aims to win an honorable place in the classroom. Two of these demands take the form of the categorical imperative: the book must be practical, and it must be adequate in scope and content. To these two should be added a third — the book must be interesting; for to sentence students to the use of a dull and lifeless text-book is, often, to condemn them to a lifelong distaste for the subject of that particular book. Then, in these days of many books, the newcomer may fairly be asked to show some traits of its own such as stamp personality on a man or a woman, — traits which will mark it out at once from other books in its class.

Two of the important characteristics which give this book its distinct individuality are: (1) *The cumulative method of treatment shown in the text, in the illustrative examples, and especially in the exercises*; and (2) *The constant emphasis laid on the pupil's own thinking and writing*. These features are particularly well illustrated in the treatment of the paragraph. In the early part of the book the single paragraph is made the unit of writing; then, naturally and gradually, related paragraphs are introduced; and, finally, these develop into the longer theme. The student at first gains a clear understanding of the meaning of the paragraph by observing its use in

the selections given for retelling another person's thought; next by the study of its relation to his own notes and outlines; and then by using it in his own writing. Still later in the course the pupil takes up the analytical and detailed study of the paragraph and its essential qualities — unity, coherence, and emphasis. Throughout the work on the paragraph, as in all other subjects treated, the student is led to develop for himself a simple and natural theory and practice of writing.

The book is divided into four parts to mark the natural stages in the development of the subject, and to aid teachers in the arrangement of their work. Part I begins with reviews of Grammar and Punctuation. The exercises in these reviews are so arranged as to furnish valuable written work; but if it is desired, the chapters may be used primarily for reference. This Part also includes the necessary instruction for retelling another person's thought, and for the expression of the pupil's own thought in simple description from observation and in simple narration from experience.

Part II treats description and narration in a more advanced way, emphasizing the use of the imagination in producing certain desired impressions. There is also a thorough discussion of the theme and its preparation.

Part III deals with the parts of the completed theme — the paragraph, the sentence, and the word. The pupil's critical and analytical view of his own work is appropriate at this stage of his writing, and correlates well with his work in the college requirements.

Part IV treats the prose forms of composition, especially the oration and the debate, with considerable

detail. It also furnishes interesting composition work in connection with the analysis of a typical novel and drama, and with the study of poetic forms. Chapter XIX on Figures of Speech is a reference chapter, to be used whenever needed.

Other less prominent but particularly helpful features of the book are: the sections on translating into English, on note-taking, on making outlines, on the writing of examination papers, on the use of the library, and on the use of the dictionary. Topical headings, summaries at the close of chapters, cross-references, pictures, and the index are also important.

In giving the work to the public we desire to express grateful appreciation of the encouragement and help rendered by various teachers. For valuable suggestions and critical supervision while these pages were going through the press, we are especially indebted to Mr. Frederick D. Nichols, recently in charge of the Department of English in the Academy of the University of Chicago, Morgan Park, Illinois; Dr. Laura E. Lockwood, Instructor in Literature and English in Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.; Mrs. Emily Meader Easton, recently Head of the English Department of the Classical High School, Providence, Rhode Island; and Mr. Frank M. Bronson, Academy Assistant Professor in the University of Chicago.

THE AUTHORS.

## SPECIAL MARKS OF CORRECTION

The marks of correction used by proof readers, presented under the topic "Use of English Dictionaries" (see § 228, 11), are recommended for use in the criticism of themes. The following list of abbreviations provides other marks of correction commonly used:

Amb. . . . .	ambiguity.
Awk. . . . .	awkwardness.
Brb. . . . .	barbarism.
Cd. . . . .	need of condensation.
C. . . . .	lack of coherence.
Em. . . . .	lack of emphasis.
Euph. . . . .	lack of euphony.
Exp. . . . .	need of expansion.
Fig. . . . .	faulty figure.
Gram. . . . .	poor grammar.
Imp. . . . .	impropriety.
Obs. . . . .	obscurity.
P. . . . .	poor punctuation.
Red. . . . .	redundancy.
Sp. . . . .	poor spelling.
Taut. . . . .	tautology.
Tr. . . . .	need of transposition.
U. . . . .	lack of unity.
Var. . . . .	lack of variety.
Verb. . . . .	verbosity.
? . . . . .	false or doubtful statement.
!! . . . . .	pretentious language.

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# COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC

## PART I

### CHAPTER I

#### A REVIEW OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

"Grammar is the humble, oft-despised, but truly loyal handmaid of thought's best expression."

#### I. INTRODUCTION

1. **Language.** The word "language" is derived from the Latin *lingua*, meaning *tongue*. Its first meaning is, therefore, the expression of thought by the use of the tongue. But there are other ways by which thought may be communicated. For example, some of the North American Indians have a method of conversing by gestures, without speaking at all; sea captains often "wig-wag," *i.e.* talk with one another at a distance by signals; the Egyptians exchanged ideas by means of "hieroglyphics"; and all civilized people use written signs. In its broadest sense, therefore, language means all the ways in which men make known their thoughts. In the common use of the term, language is the expression of thought by means of spoken or written words.

2. **Words.** When we speak or write the word "horse," we as truly make a sign, as a deaf-mute does when he expresses the idea "horse" by his fingers. Our sign for horse cannot be understood by any one who does not know the English language; for different languages have different words — *i.e.* signs — for the same idea. **Words are signs of ideas.** Many words suggest distinct ideas. ·

Ex. *Farmer, cat, dog, house, rose,* call up to our minds pictures of persons, animals, or things.

*Walk, write, sing,* suggest kinds of action.

*Yellow, blue, tall, beautiful,* suggest qualities belonging to persons or things.

If, however, we wish to say "A boy is in the tree," we cannot express our idea perfectly by saying "boy . . . tree," still less by saying "boy . . . is . . . tree." That is, it is not enough to use simply words which express distinct ideas. We need also certain other words, — *a, in, the,* — to call up a clear picture to the mind. So we see that words which connect or limit other words and show their relations are needed in the expression of complete thoughts.

3. **Sentences.** Words may be joined to form statements or sentences. A sentence is a combination of words that expresses a thought and that contains a subject and a predicate. The *subject* is that part of the sentence which represents the person or the thing of which something is said. The *predicate* is that part of the sentence which represents what is said of a person or a thing. The *subject* is usually a name, or it contains a name with other modifying words. The *predicate* must contain a word that has the power of asserting or stating something. In the sentence, "The boy ran away," *ran* is the asserting

word. In the sentence, "The apple is red," *is* is the word that has the asserting power, but *red* represents the idea that is to be asserted. This is sometimes called the "predicate idea," or attribute, and *red* is called the "predicate term," or attribute of the sentence.

4. **Construction.** The relations of words to each other in sentences are shown in three ways: (1) by their *form*; (2) by their *arrangement*; (3) by the use of *connecting words* like *and*, *when*, *in*, *for*, etc. In the expression "John's book," the *form* of the word "John's" shows the relation of "John" to the book; that is, it shows that he is the possessor of the book. In the sentence "James struck Thomas," the *order* of the words helps to show that "James" performed the action and that "Thomas" received it. In the expression "The ambition of a soldier," the relation of "ambition" to "soldier" is shown by the word "of." The relation in which a word stands to other words in connected speech is called its construction.

5. **Grammar.** Some words change their form to express different ideas, and the same word may have different constructions in different expressions.

The study that treats of the forms and the constructions of words and sentences is called grammar. Grammar does not *make* the laws of a language; it only states them in an orderly way.

6. **Value of the study of grammar.** Grammar does not accomplish its full purpose unless it becomes a *practical aid to writing*. While it is possible to use the English language correctly without studying grammar, still such

study ought to hasten the process of acquiring skill in composition. The following review is intended to emphasize the most important usages of the English language now approved by the best writers and speakers.

## II. CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

7. **Number and names of the parts of speech.** There are eight parts of speech, or classes into which words are divided according to their use. These parts of speech are called nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

8. A noun is the name of a person, a place, or a thing.

1. A *proper* noun is the name by which we distinguish a particular person, place, or thing from others of the same kind.

Ex. Henry, Shakespeare, Boston, Declaration of Independence, Central Park, the Mayflower.

2. A *common* noun is usually the name which may be applied to any one of a whole class of persons, places, or things.

Ex. Boy, city, bird, pencil.

*Some kinds of common nouns are given special names.*

1. Names of qualities and general ideas are called *abstract* nouns.

Ex. Beauty, goodness, truth, anger, success.

2. Names of groups of persons, animals, or things are called *collective* nouns.

Ex. Crowd, class, school, army, congregation; flock, herd; fleet, cluster.

3. Nouns formed from verbs are called *verbal nouns*.

Ex. *Skating* is good exercise. *To run* is fine sport.

9. A pronoun is a word that is used instead of a noun. It stands for, but does not name, the person or thing that the noun names.

1. A *personal* pronoun distinguishes the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

Ex. I, you, he, she, it.

2. A *relative* pronoun refers to some noun or pronoun called an *antecedent*, and connects the clause introduced by the relative with that antecedent. The most common relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *what*, *whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever*. *Who* and *whoever* relate to persons; *which* and *whichever*, to things; *that*, to either persons or things.

Ex. Sir Walter Scott, *who* was a famous novelist, was also the author of several notable poems.

Water, *which* is composed of oxygen and hydrogen, is necessary to life.

The book *that* you want is on the table.

3. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used to ask questions, are called *interrogative* pronouns.

Ex. *Who* is there? *Which* will you have? *What* do you want?

4. An *adjective* pronoun is a pronoun which can be used as an adjective. The most important adjective pronouns, *this* and *that*, are called *demonstrative* pronouns because they point out. Certain other adjective pronouns are called *numeral* pronouns. *Each* is a *distributive* pronoun.

Ex. *This* is my book. *Those* are my apples. "*Many* are called, but *few* are chosen." *Each* of the debaters is honest in his views.

10. An adjective is a word that describes or limits a noun or pronoun.

1. A *descriptive* adjective assigns a quality.

Ex. A *large* apple was given me by a *kind* farmer.

2. The definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a* (or *an*)<sup>1</sup> are adjectives, because they are used to limit nouns.

Ex. *The* captain praised his men.

*A* captain was killed in battle.

3. A *pronominal* adjective is an adjective that can be used as a pronoun. The most important pronominal adjectives are the *demonstrative*, *distributive*, and *numeral* adjectives.

Ex. *That* teacher has given *several* oranges to *each* boy in his class.

*Every* man in *both* armies may be a true patriot.

4. A *proper* adjective is an adjective formed from a proper noun.

Ex. Scottish, Roman.

11. A verb is a word that asserts something concerning a person, place, or thing. Alone or together with other words it may form the predicate of a sentence.

Ex. Go, runs.

A group of words which performs this office is called a *verb phrase*.

Ex. May do, might have been seen.

<sup>1</sup> *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel or a silent *h*; *a* before other words, including those beginning with the consonant sound of *y* or *w*.

1. A *weak* (or regular) verb is a verb which forms its *past* and *past participle* by adding *ed*, *d*, or *t* to the present.

EX. PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
fill	filled	filled
compare	compared	compared
dwell	dwelt	dwelt

2. A *strong* (or irregular) verb is a verb which forms its *past* and *past participle* by changing the stem vowel of the present tense without adding any ending.

Ex. Present, *sing*; past, *sang*; past participle, *sung*.

3. A *transitive* verb expresses action and usually needs to be followed by some noun or pronoun in order to complete its meaning. This noun or pronoun is the *direct object* of the verb.

Ex. The boy *learned* his lesson.

4. An *intransitive* verb cannot have a direct object.

Ex. The boy *came* to school on his bicycle.

5. An *auxiliary* verb is a verb that helps another verb to assert action. The most common auxiliary verbs are *be*, *have*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *might*, *should*, etc.

Ex. The lesson  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{was} \end{array} \right\}$  well learned.

The pupils *have* gone home.

I *shall* go to the concert to-night.

6. A *copulative*<sup>1</sup> verb is a verb which connects an attribute or predicate term with the subject; as, "God *is* good," "The apple *seems* mellow." *Be* is the usual copulative verb; but *seem*, *become*, and a few other verbs are similarly used.

7. A *defective* verb is a verb which lacks many of the usual verb forms.

Ex. *Ought*, *must*, and most auxiliaries.

8. An *impersonal* verb is a verb which has no definite subject. *It* usually stands as the subject.

Ex. *It rains*. *It seems*.

12. An *adverb* is a word which modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. The most common kinds of adverbs are those of time, place, manner, and degree. Adverbs of time, place, and manner usually modify verbs; adverbs of degree usually modify adjectives or other adverbs.

Ex. The books are *now* on the shelves. (Time.)

*There* is the man you want. (Place.)

The ship sailed *slowly* away. (Manner.)

This apple is *very* large. (Degree.)

13. A *preposition* is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun, used as its object, and some other word or words in the sentence.

Ex. The boy ran away *from* school, and caught five trout *in* a brook *on* his father's farm.

<sup>1</sup> In distinction from copulative verbs, all other verbs are called by some grammarians *attributive* verbs.



14. A conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or clauses.

1. A *coördinate* conjunction connects words or groups of words of the same rank.

Ex. Mr. Brown *and* Mr. Smith are neighbors.

It seems easy for some people to say one thing *and* to mean another.

William went to the seashore, *but* his sister went to the mountains.

2. A *subordinate* conjunction connects groups of words of unequal rank; usually a subordinate clause with a principal clause (see § 39, 2).

Ex. We missed the train *because* he was late.

*Though* he slay me, yet will I trust in him.

*If* you see Margaret to-day, please give her this book.

3. *Correlative* conjunctions are conjunctions that are used in pairs. The correlatives most often used are *either . . . or; neither . . . nor*.

In a similar way a few conjunctions are paired with other words.

Ex. *Both . . . and; not only . . . but also*.

NOTE. — For the position of correlatives in the sentence, see § 209.

Ex. *Both* the President *and* the Vice-President of the United States are hard-working men.

*Neither* Harry *nor* Richard has translated his Latin lesson.

*Either* you must take back what you have just said, *or* we can no longer be friends.

*Not only* his duty, *but also* his inclination, prompts him to be kind to his mother.