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# **Faulty diction**

Funk & Wagnalls

### THE

# Standard Dictionary Key to Pronunciation

Charles P. G. Scott, Ph. D.,

the eminent lexicographer and philologist, says in a personal letter written December 14, 1909

Some of the teachers who have answered your questions make a statement which I think is erroneous. The statement is that "the children are all familiar with the system in use in school-books and would object, or be unable to use any other system."

If anything is certain, it is that the children in the public schools are not familiar with the Webster system. The teachers themselves are not really familiar with it. I doubt if there are one hundred persons in the United blackboard a took, the ontained in Page

# THE STANDARD DICTIONARY KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

(Continued from Second-Cover Page)

Webster's Dictionary, or any other dictionary, except the Standard.

I have no doubt that more persons are familiar with the Key to Pronunciation in the Standard Dictionary than with the Key to Pronunciation in any other Dictionary. The reason is, of course, that the Standard key is systematic, and can easily be memorized; whereas the other systems have to be memorized item by item, no one item helping one to remember, or guess, the rest.

# OLD SYSTEM OF DIACRITICS WILL DECLINE

Even if the children were familiar with the Webster system, those children will soon be out of school, or beyond the "key" stage; and the other children can as readily be taught a scientific system as the Webster system.

The scientific teaching of pronunciation and notation which is now given in colleges, normal schools, and high schools rests, of course, on a scientific basis, and not upon the Webster notation.



# **FAULTY DICTION**

AS CORRECTED BY THE

## FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

A Brief Statement of the General Principles Determining Correctness in English Speech and Writing, With Their Application to Some of the More Common Instances of Violation and to Some of the Mooted Questions Regarding Usage

It has been truly observed that 'genius begins where rules end.' But to infer from this, as some seem disposed to do, that, in any department wherein genius can be displayed, rules must be useless, or useless to those who possess genius, is a very rash conclusion.

ARCHBISHOP WHATELY Rhetoric preface



FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY NEW YORK AND LONDON 1915 ANNEXY PE1460 . F864 19155

(RECAP)

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[Printed in the United States of America]

Published, September, 1915

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### FAULTY DICTION

THE DESIGN of this booklet is to aid those who consult it in the correction of many of the faults of speech and writing common among English-speaking people of some, or even considerable, education. The attempt to carry out such a design presupposes that the question whether a word or form of expression is faulty or not depends, not upon the ipse dixit of the critic, but upon rational principles that furnish a basis for correct rules susceptible of critical application. A brief statement of the principles that have been applied in criticizing what is here deemed to be faulty diction is therefore made at the outset, in the belief that a careful consideration of these principles will enable persons using the book to avoid many faults not mentioned in the examples herewith given.

The faulty expressions treated are comparatively few since rigid principles of exclusion have been enforced by the limitations of space. Slang, vulgarisms, pro-vincialisms, and many other classes of words without literary value or authority, have been mentioned here in rare instances only, and usually with a view merely to give warning of a marked tendency to their intro-duction into the speech or writing of the educated. The examples given are sufficient to illustrate the vari-ous classes of faulty usage that need to be guarded

against. The decision whether diction or pronunciation is daulty or not rests on principles derived in the main directly from lexicology, grammar, and rhetoric; but the authority that makes such principles of obligatory application is the consensus of good usage. case of neoterisms certain special principles apply.

To consider first the applicable scientific princi-

ples of the three fundamental sciences involved: 1. Lexicology, the science that treats

Scientific "of the etymology, definition, and application of words," opposes the Principles. use of lexical barbarisms, including (1) unauthorized modes of deriving and compounding words, (2) unauthorized words, and (3) words in unauthorized senses. These restrictions require, in general, the avoidance (a) of hybrid compounds and derivatives, combining elements from two languages, like cablegram. free-volitional, happify (unless they have undoubted literary authority); (b) of words and meanings, like preventative, reluctate, clever (in the American sense), that have no claim to good lexical standing - embracing, in general, alienisms, archaisms, idiotisms, obsoletes, provincialisms, technicalities, etc.

2. Grammar, as the science that treats "of the

principles that govern the correct use of language in either oral or written form," opposes (1) the improper inflection of words, as het for heated, hadn't ought for ought not, beautifulest for most beautiful, animalculæ for animalcules; (2) improper syntactical constructions (see CONSTRUCTION), etc.

3. Rhetoric, as the art of discourse, or "the art of perfecting man's power of communicating to others his mental acts or states by means of language," requires the avoidance of such forms of expression, arrange-ment, and construction as interfere with clearness, energy, and beauty of style. See CONSTRUCTION;

RHETORICAL CONSTRUCTION.

To consider second the character of that consensus of usage that makes such scientific principles of bind-ing application: In general, diction Consensus of to be correct must accord with good usage. It is commonly held that: Usage. 1. Usage to be good should be national - that is, general among the English-speaking peoples, or at least among some division of these peoples that has a litera-

ture of sufficient weight to give authority to usage as opposed to local, provincial, dialectic, foreign, technical, cant, etc.

The wide extension of the peoples that use English speech, together with the broad lines of division that special, together with the broad lines of division had separate them, makes necessary certain obvious modifications of this requirement in its application to English diction. While, however, best usage must be circumstances or conditions that tend to justify a Briticism, an Americanism, or an Anglo-Indian expression, and to make it suitend with its own received. pression, and to make it national with its own people.

Moreover, national usage often embodies itself in idiomatic forms that violate (really or apparently) the common principles of lexicology or grammar. (See idiom; idiomatic phrase.) The efforts of the critics to "reform "such usage on the ground that it is illogi-cal or ungrammatical may be praiseworthy, and even measurably successful; but denunciatory criticism or condemnation of such expressions as "had rather," "there is no water here," is altogether barred, especially

in cases where the usage reaches far back in literature. Idioms will always abound in good, natural English, and

frequently they will not submit to be parsed.

2. Usage to be good should be reputable, that is, it should have the sanction of good authors or (to be the best usage) of the best authors. That a form of diction is common to all the great writers of the language gives is common to all the great writers of the language gives it an authority that places it above criticism; that it has been used by a few masters, as Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, Macaulay, De Quincey, Cardinal Newman, Ruskin, is regarded as justifying its use by other writers; that it has not been used by any leading authors, or that it has been used by them only in representing colloquial or illiterate language, is looked upon as excluding it from use in the higher forms of literature.

It is further to be noted that while the colloquial, technical, or poetical use of words and forms does not justify their general employment in prose literature, and especially in literature in the stricter sense, it is still true that such expressions may be good and indispensable in their own proper spheres, and that many of them are gradually elevated in the process of use until they become essential parts of the language of the higher literature.

3. Usage to be good should be present, as opposed to that which has been accredited in the past but is now obsolete. That a word or form of expression was in national and reputable use in Shakespeare's day or in Milton's does not sanction its use in the English literature of to-day, unless it is used distinctly as an obsolete form, or unless its restoration is justified by the canons applicable to neoterisms.

I'o consider third the principles applicable to neoterisms, or words and meanings newly introduced into the language: On what grounds are Canons for they to be accepted or rejected? Neoterisms. wherever life and progress mark a people, their advancing thought calls for new words for its adequate expression. In connection with the rapid development and progress and the world-wide relations of the English-speaking peoples, and the varied mental activity of the age, new words in extraordinary numbers are always seeking admission into the English language. Many of these come as if by national inspiration or out of new necessities, and take their places as authorized English almost before they attract the notice of even the most observing. Others are presented for quiet and perhaps extended consideration and careful scientific criticism, preparatory to a final judgment, favorable or unfavorable. Some — and these among the most at-tractive to writers of undisciplined taste — are put forward as mere idiotisms, the fantastic coinages of men of extraordinary but eccentric genius, such as Thomas Carlyle or Robert Browning. It is therefore necessary to bear in mind the general principles by which the reception or rejection of new words is to be governed, so far as the decision of the cases is to be a matter for the exercise of intelligence.

Fitzedward Hall (Modern English, on Neoteristic Canons) has proposed the following general neoteristic

canons:

1. "First of all, a new word ought to supply an antecedent blank; or else, on the score of exactness, perspicuity, brevity, or euphony, it ought to be an improvement on a word already existing." That it is necessary furnishes in such a case the right of a word to be. Cult, locomotive, electromotor, and almost innumerable other terms have come as matter of neces-

sity to fill blanks.

2. "Secondly, a new word should obey some analogy; and, the less recondite the analogy, the better. The English language expresses a certain relation by the suffix -able, or -ible; when Shakespeare and Milton used unsuppressive for unsuppressible and unexpressive for unexpressible, the new forms were naturally rejected by the English people. Yet when words formed con-trary to simple analogy come into general use, analogy gives way to consensus of usage. If cablegram has come to supply a blank, there is no helping it; it will live de-

spite criticism.

3. "In the third place, a new word should be euphonious. And the inbred feeling of us who use English is, that a word should **not** be **very long**, any more than very harsh." Instances in which the cacophony is the result of imitation of harsh and disagreeable sounds are, of course, exceptions, increase of sig-nificance being in such cases more important than euphony.

The first of these canons is the most important and potent in deciding the right of a new word, or the use of a word in a new sense, to a place in the language. It is on this principle that the noun trust is used in a sense never contemplated by Shakespeare, Addison, Burke, and Macaulay; that the noun combine is struggling for literary recognition, and has already secured a place in the Statutes of the United States, and that commune, communist, anarchist, nihilist, proletariat, and plutocrat have established themselves in popular favor. In settling such cases of admission, analogy and euphony

ordinarily play only a secondary part. It is obvious that these general principles regarding diction are susceptible of very wide application to examples analogous to those that are here treated.

When references are from one part of "Faulty Diction" to another part, they are made without added specification: thus, "never so, etc., see EVER so, etc.," refers to the alphabetic place in "Faulty Diction."

The full names of various authors consulted, and complete titles of works treating directly or indirectly of matters of diction, with names of publishers, dates of publication, etc., will be found in the list following, and hence are not appended to quotations occurring in the course of the treatment.

Special acknowledgment is due to many professors and teachers in colleges and other schools for their helpful suggestion, in answer to letters of inquiry, of many popular faults of usage that have become inveterate through the influence of association or of early training.

N. B. The key to the phonetic alphabets used to indicate pronunciation will be found on page 8.

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#### KEYS TO PRONUNCIATION

The pronunciations given are indicated by the alphabet devised for pronunciation by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, called Key 1, and the well-known text-book key, called Key 2, both of which are used in the Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary.

#### EXPLANATION OF SYMBOLS

			KEY		
	KEY		KEY 1		
1	.2			2	
a	ä ä	as in artistic.	D	ŋ, ng	as in sing.
ä	a	as in art.	fh	th	as in <i>th</i> in.
3.	à	as in fat.	th	th	as in <i>th</i> is.
ā	â, ê	as in fare.	8	s, ¢	as in so, cent.
e	ě	as in get.	2	Z. S	as in zest, was.
ē	ā, e	as in prey.	ch	ch	as in church.
1	ĭ, ÿ	as in hit.	j	j, ġ	as in jet.
e ē i	ē, ī, ÿ	as in police.	8h	sh, ch	as in ship, ocean,
0	0	as in obey.			function, ma-
ō	ũ	as in go.			chine.
θ	Ŏ, Ą	as in not.	3	zh	as in azure, leis-
e ë	ô. a	as in or.			ure, vision.
u	u. c. 00	as in full.	a	á	as in ask.
ū		as in rule.	а	a, e, o, u, y	(unstressed) as
U	ŭ, ö	as in but.			in sofa, over,
Ū	û. ē. i. 9	as in burn.			arbor, guttu-
ai	I	as in <i>qi</i> sle.			ral. marter-
au	ou, ow	as in sauer-			dom.
	,	kraut.	1	a. e. i. u. y	(unstressed) as
iu	a	as in dura-			in habit, sen-
		tion.			ate, surfeit,
iū	a	as in feud.			biscuit, min'-
ei	ői, őy	as in oil.			ute, privilege,
Ř.	k, e	as in kin, cat,			valley. Sun-
	, 5	quit.			day, cities, re-
ø	ē	88 in #0			new.

H as in loch (Scotch), ach, mich (German). n as in bon (French). ü as in Lübeck (German), Dumas (French).

The single accent (') indicates the primary or chief accent; the double accent (') indicates the secondary accent. The double dagger (‡) indicates a variant form.

The abbreviations used are as follows: Ar. = Arabic; Aero. = Aeronautics; Eng. = English; F. = French; G. = German; Gt. Brit. = Great Britain; Mü. = Military; Rus. = Russian; Serv. = Servian; U. S. = United States.

- In such words as alms, calm, psalm, not to be pronounced with the short sound as in cat; but as a in
- arm, cart, dart.
  arm, cart, dart.
  b-hre'vi-ate. "The sermon appeared in abbreviated Compare ab-bre'vi-ate. form "; incorrect; should be abridged. Compare synonyms for abbreviation in Funk & Wagnalls NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.
- ab-do'men. ab-do'men, rather than ab'do-men. a-bor'tive. Not to be used of acts in which attempting
- or planning is not involved.
- a-bove'. In the language of business, often used as an adjective, or even as a noun ("the above statement," or "it appears from the above"). Such expressions, though employed by some good writers, have the weight of literary authority against them. If the reference is to something actually to be found in the text, as a sentence, a paragraph, or a statement, it is preferable to say, for instance, "The foregoing or preceding paragraph," "The statement given above." When the reference is to something, as a material object, a fact, a circumstance, or an incident, not actually included, but cnly mentioned, described, or related in the text, we may say, for example, "The above-mentioned circumstance," "The person referred to above," "The incident related above," etc.

  - htt/tlone. 1 a biffy lene 2 a botte: [Xx and 1 = big.]
- A-bu'ti-lon. 1 a-biū'ti-lon; 2 a-bū'ti-lon, not 1 a-biū'ti-lon; 2 ä-bū'ti-lon, nor 1 ar-biū'ti-lon; 2 är-bū'ti-lon.
- ac-cept' of. Although reputable writers make use of the locution accept of, nevertheless, in whatever sense the verb is used, the of is unnecessary; as, "I shall accept this," not accept of: "John accepts a present," not accepts of.
- ac-cli'mate. 1 a-klai'mit: 2 ă-cli'mat. not 1 ac'li-met: 2 ac'li-māt.
- E'cu-rate. 1 ak'yu-rıt; 2 ăe'yu-rat, not 1 ak'ər-ıt; 2 ăe'er-at, nor 1 ak'nt; 2 ae'ret.
  n'me. See CLIMAX. ac'cu-rate. ac'me.
- a-cous'tics. Like many other scientific terms, plural in form singular in construction. "Acoustics is (not are) a department of science treating of sound."
- adjective and adverb. The adjective is correctly used in close association with a verb when some quality of the subject rather than of the action of the verb is to be expressed. As a general rule, if any phrase denoting manner could be substituted, the adverb should be used; but if some part of the verb to be could be employed as a connective, the adjective is required; as, "The physician felt the pulse carefully (i. e., in a careful manner, or with care), and observed that the patient's hand felt cold (i. e., was cold to the touch). Hence it is correct to say "He feels sad," "It looks bad," "It smells sweet," "He stood erect." In some cases either form would be correct, and the choice be-

tween them is a matter of force, emphasis, or individual taste.

They escaped all safe [or safely] to land. Acts xxvii, 44. Special perplexity arises in connection with certain verbs, such as appear, feel, and look, that are used sometimes as active verbs and sometimes as substantive verbs (approaching equivalence to the verb to be). In the former sense these verbs take the adverb, in the In the former sense these verbs take the adverb, in the latter the adjective, in accordance with the principle just stated; as, "The ship appeared [came into view] suddenly"; "The decision appears [apparently is] unjust"; "She looked [glanced] shyly at him"; "She looked [had the appearance of being, or vas] shy." Yet it is common to say "You are looking (or he is feeling) badly," doubtless because bad refers not merely to physical or mental, but also to moral qualities at that (for fear of suggesting moral implications) ties, so that (for fear of suggesting moral implications) we are disinclined to say "You look bad," "I feel bad," or the like. But when a man suddenly disappears leaving accounts unsettled, we very promptly say "That looks bad."

ad-mit', ad-mit' of. Quite different in meaning. 'This gate admits to the grounds, but the size of the vehicle will not admit of its passing through." When Emerson says "Every action admits of being out-"the simple admit could not be substituted.

Not to be used indiscriminately of any arrival, but only of that which is important, stately, or sacred; not, "The schoolboy's unexpected advent."

Needlessly criticized as employing the singular article before an adjective plural in sense. We say a hundred and a great many, these expressions being viewed as collective. A few is correct idiomatic Engviewed as concerve. A few is constant to the lish, with a sense distinctively different from that of the adjective used alone; as, "A few men can be trusted" (i. e., a small but appreciable number). "Few men can be trusted" (i. e., scarcely any) is practically equivalent to the negative statement "Most men are not to be trusted."

a-gain'. 1 a-gen'; 2 a-gen', never 1 a-gen'; 2 a-gan'. a-gainst'. 1 a-genst'; 2 a-genst', never 1 a-genst': 1 a-genst'; 2 a-genst', never 1 a-genst'; 2 a-ganst'.

ag'gra-vate. Often erroneously used in the sense of provoke, exasperate, perhaps from confusion with aggrieve. To aggravate is etymologically to increase in weight, hence in gravity, severity, or intensity. A disease or other evil may be aggravated, but not a person.

ag"ri-cul'tur-ist. Etymologically preferable to agri-culturalist, no difference of meaning being recognized. Some analogous forms, as controvertist and controversialist, have been differentiated in meaning.

a'gue. 1 ē'giu; 2 ā'gū, not 1 ē'gər; 2 ā'gēr.
ain't. A modification of am not, or are not, always in-As used with a nominative of the third perelegant. son singular (it ain't, he ain't) it is ungrammatical and a vulgarism.

al"a-pac'a. A popular error for alpaca (pron. 1 al-

pac's; 2 al-pac'a).

all of. A popular idiom to emphasize the totality of 'How many of those that which is referred to; as,

men did you see?" "I saw all of them." "How much of this shall I take?" "All (i. e., the whole) of it." The best literary usage omits the of as needless, preferring "I saw them all," "Take it all," etc.; I saw all (not all of) my friends once more.

"I saw all (not all of) my friends once more."

al-low. In some parts of the United States used in the sense of think, believe, intend: as, "He allowed he would go"; "He allowed to pay it." It is used also in the sense of say. Such uses are inadmissible.

al-lude. Erroneously used in the general sense of mention or speak of. To allude means to refer delicately or incidentally, as if in play. It is not correct to say "The speaker alluded at great length to the tariff." See synonyms under allude in Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary.

Late in the eighteenth century Cowper did not venture to do more than allude to the great alegorist [Bunyan]: 'I name thee not, lest so despised a name. Should move a sneer at thy deserved fame. MACAULAY England ch. vil. p. 679 (note). [w. T. A. '81.]

Its use as an adjective, common in early al'most. English, is being revived to some extent, but has been sharply challenged; as, "the almost Christian"; "his almost impudence of manner." Almost no and almost nothing are also challenged. The shortening of almost into amost or 'most ("I see them 'most every day") is inadmissible in literature that is not obviously colloquial in style.

principle," for "the sole, or only, principle": a common use in the 16th and 17th centuries, but now an

archaism.

a-lu'mi-num, al"u-min'i-um. Scientific usage varies, but aluminum appears to be the form now preferred by manufacturers and in commercial speech as well as by most chemists.

al'ways. 1 ôl'wiz; 2 al'was, not 1 ôl'uz; 2 al'üs. Al-ways is a better prose word than ever for "through all time"; ever is appropriate in elevated or poetic diction, but elsewhere suggests affectation.

For amidst, is poetical rather than prose

usage.

a-mong' one an-oth'er. "They exchange confi-dences among one another"; should be "among them-selves" or "with each other."

Rightly used to superadd the action of one verb to that of another; wrongly used when, in connection with a following verb, made a substitute for the simple infinitive. "He saith unto them, Come and see. They came and saw where he dwelt" (John i, 39), is vigorous, idiomatic English. "Go and get it" implies two acts with successful result; "Go to get it, one act with a purpose, of uncertain result, to do another. "Try and do it" should not be used when the meaning is simply "Make an attempt to do it."

Sometimes used incorrectly where or is required. Not, "A language like the French and German contains as many words," but "A language like the French or the German," since there is no language

that is at once French and German.

Two nouns connected by and may be followed by a singular verb when the two nouns are but different

expressions for the same thing; as, "The only revelation of God's will to mankind, and the only record of God's dealing with men, is now to be obtained," etc.

Sometimes improperly used to introduce a relative clause where no conjunction is needed or admissible; as, "A good man and to whose untiring energy," etc., for "A good man to whose untiring energy," etc., This fault, rare in the United States, Dean Alford mentions [The Queen's English, par. 444] as "one of the commonest" in England.

an"i-mal'cules. Plural of ANIMALCULE: sometimes improperly animalculæ, as if the plural of the feminine form animalcula, which is not a nominative singular, but the Latin plural of animalculum.

an-oth'er from. Improperly used for another than: as, "Judges of quite another stamp from his Majesty's judges of Assize," for "of quite another stamp than," etc.

an-tip'o-des. 1 an'tip'o-diz; 2 ăn-tip'o-dēş, mispro-nounced 1 an'ti-pôdz; 2 ăn'ti-pôdş, the more readily because the singular is 1 an'ti-pôde; 2 ăn'ti-pôd.

an'y, adv. Used generally with adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree, but not directly with verbs. "Can you see any better?" is admissible; but not "Can you run any?" No, in strictly literary use, is ordinarily preferable to not any. "He is no wiser than I" is a more common literary form than "He is not any wiser than I," but the latter form is often more emphatic, especially in conversational use (as equivalent to "by no means," or "not at all").

an'y-how", an'y-way. Forcible colloquial expressions often used conjunctively, to indicate that something is to be done, admitted, believed, or the like, be the circumstances, results, or conditions what they may; as, "Anyhow, I have lost it"; "Anyway, I am going." In place of these, such expressions as "In any event," "At any rate," "Be that as it may," are ordinarily preferred by writers.

preferred by writers.

any manner of means. Erroneously used for any means.

an'y place. [Western U. S.] Erroneously for anywhere.

an'y-way, an'y-where. Frequently misspelled with a superfluous s: anyways, anywheres, probably in imitation of such adverbial forms as forwards, backwards. a-pos'tie. 1 e-pos'l; 2 a-pos'l, not 1 a-pos'tl; 2 a-pos'tl, nor 1 a-pos'ul; 2 a-pos'ul.

ap-par'ent. la-par'ent; 2 ă-pâr'ent, not lap-pê'rant;

2 ăp-pe'rent.

ap-pre'cl-ate. Strictly, to value (something) at its real worth (ad pretium); but in present commercial phrase used as meaning "to raise or rise in value," the opposite of deprectate: as, "Since the building of the new railroad real estate has rapidly appreciated."

ap-proach'. Sometimes incorrectly used for address, petition, etc. One is approached by indirect or covert intimation, suggestion, or question, which he may encourage if he will, or may put aside without formal refusal. Approach is often used in a bad sense, implying the use of bribery or intrigue. Do not say "The teachers have approached the Educational De-

partment for longer intermissions," when you mean "The teachers have petitioned," etc.

ap'pro-bate. To pass with approval: formerly used in England, but now an Americanism.

Ar'ab. 1 ar'sb; 2 ār'ab, not 1 ē'rab; 2 ā'rāb. gum ar'a-blc, not gum s-rē'bic. ar'du-ous. 1 ār'jū-[or -dū-]ūs; 2 ār'ju-[or -dū-]ūs, not 1 ār'jus; 2 ār'jūs.

1 ē'ri-a; 2 ā're-a, not 1 ār'ı; 2 âr'i.

en't. For are not when the subject follows; as, 'Aren't you?" "Aren't they?" The best converaren't. sational usage contracts the verb when the subject precedes: "we're not," "you're not," etc. Similarly we say "I'm not," "fill not." "you're not," etc. Similarly we say "I'm not," "You're not," etc.

ar'gue. We argue a case, dispute a bill. One side may do all the arguing: in debating both sides take part. See synonyms for argue in Funk & Wagnalls New

STANDARD DICTIONARY.

ar-raign', at, before, for, on, upon. "The criminal was arraigned at the court." No; a criminal is arraigned at the bar; before the tribunal or court; for a crime; on an indictment; upon discovery of his crime.

articles. The definite article is ordinarily required before a present participle used as a verbal noun and followed by of. Not, "It is drawing of a new constitution that startles us," but "It is the drawing of a new constitution," etc.

Two or more words connected by and referring to different things should each have the article; when different things should each have the article; when they denote the same thing, the article is commonly used with the first only; as, "Christ, the prophet, priest, and king." If we say "The sculptor and the painter should understand anatomy," we imply that the arts of sculpture and of painting are the province of different persons; but we say "Michelangelo, the sculptor and painter," since Michelangelo was both sculptor and painter. "The black and white horse "would denote one horse marked with the two colors would denote one horse marked with the two colors, black and white. "The black and the white horse" would denote two horses, one black and the other white.

art'ist. A word grossly abused, since, along with the painter and the sculptor, the barber and the cook also claim the title. Mechanic and artisan ought to be restored to their place in English, and artist held to its

true meaning.

as . . . as, so . . . as. A shade of difference in their meanings, as strictly used in comparisons, is often neglected. So . . . as suggests that, in the comparison of the person or things mentioned, there is present in the mind of the speaker a consciousness of a considerable degree of the quality considered; as . . . as does not carry this impression. In "John is not as tall as James" there is no implication that the speaker regards either John or James as tall; there is merely a comparison of their heights. So, too, in "John is not as old as James" there is merely a comparison of ages. But if one says, "John is not so tall as James," though the so is not emphasized, there is understood usually to be a reference more or less distinct to something uncommon in the height of James as compared

with the stature of other men or of other boys of his age; the speaker regards James as being tall. "John is not so old as James" suggests that, in some relation or other, James is thought of as being old: as in "James is taller than John." "Yes, but my boy is

not so old as yours."

In affirmative sentences so . . . as can not properly be used except in certain restricted constructions, and where the quality referred to is to be emphasized. occurs oftenest in sentences that, though affirmative in form, carry a negative suggestion; as, "So good a cook as Polly is hard to find," that is, "It is not easy to find so good a cook as Polly.

Few knights of the shire [in the 17th century] had libraries so good as may now perpetually be found in a servants' hall.

MACAULAY History ch. 3.

That is, " not many knights of the shire," etc. simple affirmative comparison like "Jane is as good

a cook as Polly," so . . . as is not used.
In interrogative sentences, as in negative sentences, a consciousness more or less distinct of a considerable degree of the quality referred to is conveyed by so . . . as, but not by as . . . as. "Is John as old as James?" and "Is your uncle so old as my father?" convey different impressions as to what the speaker means by old. In the question where as . . . as is used there is no implication of considerable age in old.

as far as, as soon as, as long as. Usually interchangeable with so far as, so soon as, so long as, etc., but, if the extent or degree usually implied in these phrases is to be emphasized at all (however slightly), so is used preferably to as.

We said of conduct, that it is the simplest thing in the world as far as knowledge is concerned, but the hardest thing in the world as far as doing is concerned.

MATTHEW ARNOLD Literature and Dogma ch. 3.

Therefore, we fulfil the law of our being so far as our being is esthetic and intellective, as well as so far as it is moral.-Ib. (Conclusion).

In the second of these quotations there is a distinct reference to and limitation of extent conveyed in so In the as far as of the first quotation there is no such reference; for "as far as knowledge is concerned" there might be substituted "in relation to

knowledge" or "with respect to knowledge." **a-side'.** An Americanism for apart. Not "auxiliary words aside," but "auxiliary words apart."

asked. 1 oskt; 2 askt, not ast.
as-plr'ant. 1 as-poir'ant; 2 as-plr'ant, rather than 1
as'pi-rant; 2 as'pi-rant.

at. in. Always in a country; either at or in a city, town or village; at, if the place is regarded as a point; in, if it is inclusive. "We arrived at Paris"; "He lives it is inclusive. "We arrived at Paris"; He lives in London"; "There are three churches in this village in the form and the state of the In England the use of in before towns and cities is more restricted than in the United States; the distinctions observed there between at and in often seem arbitrary.

The sense of at is virtually included in there and where, so that in the phrase "Where is it at?" — common in some parts of the United States - the at is redundant, and the expression somewhat grotesque.

at all. Used properly as meaning "in any degree," "in any respect," "at any time," etc.; sometimes improperly for entirely, a use now obsolete in good English; as, "The clock ceases to go at all."

at auc'tion. In England called an Americanism. Johnson says the verb auction means "to sell by auction" that is have formed to the highest hidden."

Johnson says the vero auction means to sell by auction," that is, by offering to the highest bidder. "At private sale" is also peculiar to the United States. The English say, "The good-will and furniture of the house were disposed of by private sale". "The elephant Emperor has been sold by auction." For reasons for differences in English and American usage. see vocabulary.

at length. The assumption that at length means the same as at last, and is therefore superfluous, is an error. Both at length and at last presuppose long waiting; but at last views what comes after the waiting as a finality: at length views it as intermediate with reference to action or state that continues, or to results that are yet to follow. "I have invited him often, and at length he is coming." "I have invited him often, and at last he has come." "At length he began to recover." "At last he died."

Scarce thus at length failed speech recovered sad.

MILTON P. L. bk. iv, l. 357.

MILTON P. L. bk. iv, 1. 79. O, then, at last relent. aux-il'ia-ry. 1 egz-il'ye-rı; 2 ağş-il'ya-ry, not 1 ex-il'i-a-rı; 2 ax-117-a-ry.

a-vails'. An Americanism for profits or proceeds.

av'e-nue. 1 av'a-niū; 2 av'e-nū, not 1 av'nū; 2 av'nu, nor 1 av'ner; 2 av'ner.

av"o-ca'tion. Loosely used by good writers for vocation. Vocation strictly signifies the main calling or business of life; avocation, a diversion from that voca-

In this sense avocation was exclusively employed in the seventeenth and the earlier part of the eighteenth century, being often opposed to vocation. Briefly, the case this: if avocation and vocation are to be held synonymous, English is poorer by a useful, and richer by a superfluous, term.

HODGON Errors etc., pp. 7, 8.

\*awful, awful-ly. In colloquial or slang use, for very, exceedingly, to be avoided; as, "an awful good time"; "an awfully jolly crowd"; "thanks awfully." aye. Pronounced 1 ai; 2 1, and meaning yes. aye. Pronounced 1 &; 2 e, and meaning always.

back. "Returned back"; omit back as included in returned.

back out. An Americanism for retreat.

back'ward, back'wards. Used by good writers indiscriminately, except as euphony may require the one form rather than the other. See vocabulary of FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.

The two forms may be conveniently used, in accordance with their origin etymologically, to distinguish the adjective and adverb; as, "A backward pupil"; "He walked backwards." Also, to distin-

guish movement back from but with the face toward a person, from mere direction of movement rearward. These ideas are usually expressed confusedly, except as back is used instead of backward or backwards to express the latter.

"A bad wound," "a bad pain": very common use, but verging upon pleonasm: better "a serier or dangerous wound"; "an intense pain." Avoid the use of bad for sick or ill; as, "I have been bad (rather ill) again with a spitting of blood."

bad'ly. Used in the sense of very, very much, or greatly, is colloquial and often somewhat inelegant; as, "I have wanted to see you badly" (rather, greatly); "We shall miss you badly" (rather, very much). "The carpet needs to be beaten badly" is a ludicrous blunder. der for "The carpet badly (or very much) needs to be besten"—the construction connecting badly with besten "rather than with "needs," which it

dualifies. See construction.

bag'gage. Meaning "the portable articles that a traveler takes with him on a journey," usually preferred in the United States to luggage, now commonly used in Great Britain. But Thackeray speaks of "The

baronet's baggage on the roof of the coach, 'and Johnson says' We saw our baggage following below."

bal'ance. A much-abused word. As an accountant's term the balance is that which must be added to the less or subtracted from the greater of two amounts, as receipts and expenses, to make them equal, so as to "balance" the account; it does not properly denote what is left of anything after a part has been taken away; that is the remainder. "The balance of one's dinner" and "the balance of the evening are at best objectionable colloquialisms. Say "the rest" or "the remainder."

ban'is-ter. In conversation, though not in writing, banister has superseded almost entirely the two words baluster and balustrade. The corruption ought not to be encouraged. See the words in vocabulary of FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.

ban'quet. Properly a sumptuous feast or entertainment; ridiculous or vulgar when used to denote an . ordinary meal.

bap'tism. 1 bap'tizm; 2 băp'tism, not 1 -tiz-um; 2 -tiş-ŭm. **bay'ou.** 

bay'ou. 1 bai'ū; 2 bī'u, not 1 bē'yū; 2 bā'yu.
be. What is the proper case of a personal pronoun following this verb and in apposition with its subject? Grammatically, the nominative is the proper form, as the case is simply one of apposition, and the pronoun in apposition with the nominative must itself be in that case. "It is I, be not afraid"; "it is he." Before the 19th century the objectives, me, him, her, etc., in such constructions (if at the end of a sentence) were somewhat commoner in literary usage than I. he, she, etc. The objective forms are still common in colloquial use, owing probably to the fact that most of our sentences are so formed that they require the pronoun at the end of a sentence to be in the objective case, and that case is accordingly the more natural one in that place. Present literary and educated use tends toward the grammatically correct locution, al-

though Dean Alford stoutly defended "It's me," appealing to Dr. Latham as authority. But Dr. Latham does not advocate the analogous forms "It's him," "It's her," "It's them," "That's him," etc. beard. 1 bird; 2 bërd, not 1 bërd; 2 bërd, nor 1 bërd; 2 bërd, as is often heard.

beastly. A British colloquialism expressive of disgust or contempt; as, "This is beastly weather"; some-times even used adverbially; as, "I was beastly tired." This locution, essentially in bad taste, though often affected by college students and others who should know better, seems never to be defensible except in the phrase "beastly drunk," and even this is objec-tionable as being a libel on the beasts.

be back. A common though unwarranted colloquial-ism; as, "I'll be back in a moment." "I'll come back" is legitimate, back denoting direction toward the starting-point; but be back has no such significance. One should say "I'll be here (or there) again in a

moment.

Fetch me this herb; and be thou here again, Ere the leviathan can swim a league

SHAKESPEARE Midsummer Night's Dream act ii, sc. 1, 1.173.

A good plain Saxon word, understood and felt by learned and unlearned alike, almost always to be preferred to the French commence. be-gin'ner. Not to be qualified by new.

A new beginner is absurd, as a beginner must needs be new in

his work

be'ing. Richard Whately, George P. Marsh, Richard Grant White, and other critics have objected strenu-ously to the use of " is being built," " was being built," and kindred forms of English imperfects passive, as recent and unwarranted innovations; but Fitzedward Hall has shown conclusively that they are neither recent nor unwarranted, but have been used by the best writers for a century, and now have well-nigh universal literary sanction. He says

Prior to the evolution of is being built and was being built, we possessed no discriminate equivalents of ædifi-catur and ædificabatur; is built and was built, by which they were rendered, corresponding exactly to adificatus est and addificatus erat.

Modern English App., p. 350. [s. '73.]

Is growing, was growing, indicate an activity from within; as, the tree is growing (from its own internal forces); is being grown, was being grown, the activity of some agent from without; as, the plant is being grown (by the gardener). So also, and strikingly, is bleeding (as from a wound), and is being bled (as by a surgeon).

be-long'. Used absolutely; as, "He doesn't belong,"
"We all belong" (sc. to this organization, society, community, or in the place, sphere, or associations where actually present): recent in the United States, and apparently rapidly spreading in popular use, though with no literary support.

be-long'ing, n. Commonly in the plural. An old word, now, after a period of almost complete disuse, resuming its place in literature and common speech.

be-side', be-sides'. These words should be discriminated carefully. "There were two beside him" (i. e.,

by the side of him); "There were two besides him" (i. e., in addition to him). See vocabulary of Funk & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.

be that as it will. Erroneously substituted for be that as it may.

Incorrectly used for more: as, "It is better

than a year since we met.

be-tween'. Strictly applied to but two objects or groups of objects; as, between one's lips, or between one's teeth. But between is often properly used with more latitude than this, as expressing the idea of contrast or opposition more clearly than among. Between requires at least two objects, and should not be used as in the following.

And with a gap of a whole night between every one. Dickens Martin Chuzzlewit ch. 8, p. 152. [E. & L. '86.]

bi'cy-cie. bai'si-kl, not bai'sai-el.

bid, v. Followed by the infinitive without to: as, "He bade him remain." See INFINITIVE in FUNK & WAG-

NALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.

bid'da-ble. An expressive provincialism, without literary recognition, in frequent use among the Irish residents of the United States, meaning manageable, obedient, submissive; as, "Servants are not as bid-dable now as they were before the war."

big. A sadly abused word often used colloquially for great. "He is a big man," instead of "a great man," is in bad taste. A big man may be very far from being a great man. Washington was mentally and spiritually a great man, physically a large man; but no one should speak of the Father of his Country as a big man.

1 bis'mārk: 2 bīs'mārk, not 1 biz'mārk: 2 Bis'marck. At the end of a syllable followed by a conbis'märk. sonant, s in German has a sharp, hissing sound.

bis'muth. 1 bis'muth; 2 bis'muth, not 1 bis'muth; 2 bis'mŭth.

Primarily a bite, a small piece, or by extension a small quantity; as, a bit of bread; a bit of fun. By extension the word is often applied to liquids; as, there is not a bit of water on the farm. But when reference is to liquid to be drunk, it is more discriminating to say, not a bit, but a sip.

**blame on.** Indefensible slang. We blame a person for a fault, or lay the blame upon him. Not, as in a New York newspaper, after the last Presidential election, "I do not blame the defeat on the President," but "I do not blame the President for the defeat," or "I do not blame the President for the defeat," or "I do not lay the blame. .. upon," etc. Here two points of view essentially different are confused.

both, a. & pron. When both is used in a negative sentence, the meaning intended is sometimes doubtful.

"Both applicants were not accepted." Were both applicants rejected? or was one rejected and the other accepted? or was neither applicant accepted or rejected? A similar confusion of sense occurs in some

negative sentences containing all, when not is misplaced. (See note under ALL, in vocabulary of FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY. It is a peculiarity of both that it can not be negatived by connecting not immediately with it, except elliptically

in sentences of unusual form that are obviously arranged for the prevention of misunderstanding—as in correcting the doubtful meaning of the sentence cited above, "Both applicants were not accepted." If one asks, in order to clear its confusing impression, "Were both rejected?" the reply may properly be, "Not both were rejected; one was rejected and one accepted"—a connection of not with both that is usually inadmissible. The confusion in meaning of a negative sentence containing both will be best avoided by making the sentence affirmative; "Both applicants were rejected," "One of the two applicants was rejected and the other accepted," etc.

both, conj. As an adjective or pronoun both emphasizes the idea of two. It has been well defined as "the two, and not merely one of them"; it can not properly, therefore, be connected with or refer to more than two objects. As a conjunction, however, both has a more extended meaning and employment than it has as an adjective or a pronoun: thus, it is permissible to say, "He lost all his live stock — both horses, cows, and sheep." Both, as so used, emphasizes the extent or comprehensiveness of the assertion. The use has been challenged, but has abundant literary suthority, and astedstee Chevere.

ary authority, and antedates Chaucer.

both a-ilke'. The sentence "They are both alike" suggests that (possibly) one of the two might be alike and the other unlike — a suggestion produced by the intrusive emphasis of two implied in both. Both may be correctly used with like, but not with alike: "Both sons, in looks and character, are like their father," but not "both alike" (that is, "like each other").

both of us, both of them, etc. Objects of critical censure, but have the sanction derived from their use by the highest authorities in literature.

breth'ren. 1 breth'ren; 2 breth'ren, not as three syllables breth-er-en.

bring and carry. Ignorantly interchanged. A servant asks, "Shall I bring it home?" when both speaker and hearer are far from home. The question should be, "Shall I carry (or take) it home?" See synonyms for CARRY, in the vocabulary of FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY. COMDATE FETCH.

NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY. Compare FETCH.

NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY. Compare FETCH.

NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY. Compare FETCH.

Durst'ed. A false formation. The imperfect and past
participle of burst are the same as the present. "The
gun burst"; "The bubble has [is] burst." Vulgarly,
busted.

but. Not to be used for than. Archbishop Trench says,
"It can be regarded in no other light but as a riddle,"
where the construction should be "no other light
than"

but that. There is no danger of slipping when but is a preposition and that is a pronoun; as, "I will take none but that," where the phrase means except that. When both words are used as conjunctions, the phrase must be employed with special discrimination. But is in many cases redundant before that, but is often in other cases required by the sense. In "Each by the other would have done the like but that they lacked the courage," but is essential, as introducing a reason or consideration to the contrary. The omission or insertion of but often reverses the meaning.

"I have no fear that he will do it" and "I have no fear but that he will do it" have contrary senses, the former indicating the feeling of certainty that he will not do it, and the latter the feeling of certainty that he will do it. Where ambiguity or hasiness results from the use of but that, it can ordinarily be avoided by changing the form of the sentence; as, "There is no certainty but that he will come" may be changed to "There is no certainty that he will not come."

but what. Should not be used for the conjunctive expression but that. "I don't know but what I did"; here the relative can not be disposed of grammatically. But what is, however, correctly used for the preposition and pronoun but that: as, "I know noth-

preposition and pronoun but that: as, "I know nothing but what (i. e., nothing except that which) you have just told me."

but yet. Should not be used when either but or yet is sufficient by itself; as, "Wealth may seek us; but wisdom must be sought"; not but yet. When, however, Archbishop Trench says, "But yet these pains hand us over to true pleasures" (Study of Words p. 232), each conjunction has its distinct educatives in 232), each conjunction has its distinct adversative sense. This appears still more clearly in "Ye are but common men, but [on the contrary] yet [notwithstanding that fact] ye think with minds not common "(Coleridge Wallenstein 2, 3).

by. Properly used before the agent or doer; with before the instrument or means; as, "He was killed by the assassin with a dagger." But active forces are often assassin with a dagger." But active forces are often thought of as agents, so that we properly say "The house was destroyed by fire." "His friends were displeased by the selection of another chairman "means that the action displeased them; "His friends were displeased with the selection," etc., means that the man selected was not their choice. See synonyms under BY, in the vocabulary of Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary.

A gentleman by the name of Hinkley.
Oh, no! You mean 'A gentleman of the name of Hinkley.' This is English, you know.

One may say "I know no one of the name of Brown," or "I know no one by the name of Brown"; but the meaning is different. One might know a man of the name of Brown, but know him by the name of Smith. It is better to say simply "a man named Brown."

by, bye. The noun is often spelled bye. We may write

either by the by or by the bye, the last word being a noun, as in the kindred phrase by the way. In by and by both the first word and the last are adverbs, and the form should be by.

ca-da'ver. 1 ka-dē'var; 2 ca-dā'ver, not 1 ka-dav'ar; 2 ca-dăv'ēr

Cai'ro. In Egypt, 1 kai'ro; 2 el'ro; in Illinois, 1 ke'ro; 2 eå'ro.

M'cu-late. In some parts of the United States often misused for intend: as, "I calculate to go to New York." Also misused for believe, think, suppose: as, cal'cu-late. The land over there is poor, I calculate.

cai'cu-la"ted. Should be used with careful discrimination. In the sense of adapted it is unquestionably good English when the sense does not contradict the meaning adapted by calculation; as, "The government policy was calculated to enslave the people," that is, expressly devised for that purpose. But it is often inconsistently used by good writers in a way that contradicts such an interpretation; as, "These are measures calculated to do harm," when in fact the measures were devised to do good.

cal'i-ber. Primarily, the internal diameter of a gun-barrel or the like. Figuratively, we may speak of large or small caliber, but high or low caliber involves

a mixed metaphor.

cal-lig'ra-phy. Beautiful writing. Not beautiful, elegant, fine, or good calligraphy, but beautiful, elegant, etc., writing. Bad or poor calligraphy is a contradicetc., writing. tion in terms.

an. Misused for may. Can always refers to some form of possibility. An armed guard may say "You can not pass," since he has physical power to prevent; hence the question "Can I pass the guard?" is perfectly natural. But where simple permission is re-ferred to may should be used. "May I (not can I) ferred to may should be used. use your ruler?"

ca-price'. 1 ke-pris; 2 ca-priç', not 1 kē'pris; 2 cā'priç. car'ou-sei (merry-go-round). 1 kar'u-zei; 2 căr'u-gei, not 1 ke-ru'zei; 2 ca-rou'şal, nor 1 ke-ru'zei; 2 ca-

ru'şal.

carry on. An Americanism for frolic. case. Not to be applied to persons. The expression sometimes used of an eccentric or vicious person, "He is a case" or "a hard case," is an objectionable colloquialism.

cas"u-al'i-ty. A rare provincialism for casualty. A casualty is a contingency or accident, especially a harmful accident; casuality is the state or quality of being casual.

ca-tal'pa. 1 ka-tal'pa; 2 ca-tăl'pa, not 1 ka-tal'pa; 2 ca-tal'pa.

cem'e-ter-y. 1 sem'1-ter-1; 2 çem'e-ter-y, not 1 sem'a-

tr; 2 cem'e-ter-y, not 1 sem r-ter-y; 2 cem e-ter-y, not 1 sem r-tr; 2 cem'e-try.

ett'l-zen. Not to be used for person, except when civic relations are referred to. "All citizens are entitled to the protection of the law," but not "Ten citizens were walking up the street," unless reference is had to some civil relation, as when opposed to soldiers, policemen, residents of the country, or the like.

civ'ii. 1 siv'ıl; 2 çĭv'il, not 1 siv'l; 2 çĭv'l.

"He claimed that the discovery was his," "I claim. claim that this is true," etc. Incorrect if the meaning is simply assert or maintain: but correct if the meaning is assert with readiness to maintain, and confidence that the thing asserted can be maintained, with the added idea that it makes for the advantage or side of him who asserts and maintains it.

clem'a-tis. 1 klem's-tis; 2 elĕm'a-tĭs, not 1 klem-

at'is; 2 elĕm-ăt'îs.

clergy. Properly collective, and not to be used to indicate individuals. Not "Twenty clergy walked in procession," but "Twenty clergymen,"

In the sense of good-natured or obliging, a clev'er. popular Americanism, the word being rarely used in the United States in the common English sense of dexterous, capable, talented, except by the educated.

See TALENTED.

I'max. Not properly the same as acme, though some-times so used by writers. A climax is strictly a series of ascending steps, of which the acme is the last and highest. The climax is the ladder, the acme the top cii'max. round of the ladder.

clothes. 1 klothz; 2 cloths, not 1 kloz; 2 cloz.

cog-no'men. 1 keg-nô'men; 2 eŏg-nô'men, not 1

keg'no-men; 2 cog'no-men.

Used for gathering moneys due, as taxes, from various sources, has come in mercantile use in the United States to apply to the obtaining of a single payment, and this sense has passed to the derivative collectable, so that good and collectable has become a regular form of endorsement of a certain class of notes. com'pa-ra-ble. 1 kem'pe-re-bl; 2 com'pa-ra-bl, not

1 kem-par'a-bl; 2 com-par'a-bl.

com-pare' to or with. We compare one thing with another to note points of agreement or difference. We compare one thing to another which we believe it resembles.

'As a writer of English he [Addison] is not to be compared, except with great peril to his reputation, to at least a score of men.

RICHARD GRANT WHITE Words and their Uses ch. 4, p. 79. [H. M. & CO. '90.]

He should have said with. If Addison is to be compared to the (presumably) able writers referred to, it can not be with "peril to his reputation." If comparing him with these men is perilous to his reputation, then for his sake the comparison should not be made. The sentence is an attempt to combine two ideas in-compatible in a single construction, viz., "If he is compared with these men, it will be to his disadvan-" and " He is not to be compared to these men.

com-ple'tion. A completion is necessarily final; hence the phrase final completion is essentially pleonastic. com'pro-mise. 1 kem'pro-maiz; 2 eom'pro-mis, never

com-prom'is.

con-dign'. Loosely used in the sense of severe. Condign means deserved. To say that one deserves condign punishment is tautological; to say that he does not deserve it is a contradiction in terms.

con-do'lence. 1 ken-dō'le ken'do-lens; 2 con'do-lenç. 1 ken-dö'lens; 2 con-dö'lenç, not 1

conjure. Two pronunciations and two corresponding meanings, viz., conjure. 1 kun'jer; 2 con'jur, to practise magic, affect by magic; conjure. 1 ken-jūr'; 2

con-struc'tion. Errors in grammatical and rhetorical construction (embracing connection and arrangement) are legion. They may be roughly classified for general guidance in detecting and avoiding faulty diction, as below. The principle should be kept in mind that any diction is faulty that compels the hearer or reader to conjecture what the author probably meant.

1. con-struction, gram-mattle-al. A fault in this

respect is called a solecism. A solecism may be: (1)

A violation of grammatical concord (including agreement and government), which requires the proper grammatical inflections in the use of related words in the sentence; as, "Who (not whom) do they suppose will be appointed?" "Each of the four living writers

had his (not their) writings recited.

(2) A violation of grammatical arrangement, which requires the proper disposition of both the principal tered to their great regret." Their gratification when informed that he was at last "about to resign" must have been proportionate. Such errors are similar to those noticed below under rhetorical construction, and many fall under both heads.

(3) A violation of grammatical propriety, which requires the use of the proper grammatical element; as, "This is a very different case than (should be from) that"; "Vices in community" (properly in the community); "The governor was attended with (correctly by) his staff"; "She wrote better than any (properly by) his staff"; "She wrote better than any (properly any other) pupil in her class." In the following statement the error is double: "This paper has the ablest staff of any of its contemporaries." Not only do we have ablest of any, but "this paper" is included among its own contemporaries: the statement should have been "an abler staff than," etc.

(4) A violation of grammatical precision, which requires the use of the proper number of words and no more, in expressing the thought, and forbids a confusing use of pleonasm and ellipsis; as, "The rich and the poor (not the rich and poor) are alike mortal";
"He treated his benefactors with supreme (not the most supreme) contempt"; "Had he have laid low (correctly had he lain low) he would not have been wounded"; "When he was (properly, had) retired to his ten! they sate signst a long time." his tent, they sat silent a long time."
2. con-struc'tion, rhe-tor'ic-al. Faulty diction in

this respect may arise from: (1) Improper use of relationed words, either by their too remote separation from their antecedents, or by their ambiguous reference; as, "God heapeth favors on his servants ever liberal and faithful "(correctly, "God, ever liberal and faithful, heapeth favors on his servants"); "Mr. French needs a surgeon, who has his arm broken "; "Found, a white-handled knife, by a child, that has a broken back"; "Robert promised his father that he would pay his (whose?) debts."

(2) Improper arrangement of the constituent members of the sentence, resulting in: (a) Failure to preserve the true relation of leading and subordinate members; (b) failure to keep related elements in proper proximity; or (c) failure to preserve the proper order of dependence of the members; as, "Did you take that book to the library, which I loaned you?" "The body

was dragged ashore, and she identified the remains, by the clothing, which were much decomposed."
"The moon was casting a pale light on the numerous

graves that were scattered before me, as it peered above the horizon, when I opened the small gate of the churchyard"; "And thus the son the fervent sire addressed"; "The rising tomb a lofty column bore.

(3) Introduction of long or involved parenthetical members: as, "The description Ovid gives of his situation, in that first period of his existence, seems, some poetical embellishments excepted, such as, were we to reason a priori we should conclude he was placed in."

con-tempt'i-bly. n-tempt'i-bly. Mistaken for contemptuously; as, "He spoke contemptibly of them." A speech may be contemptible in its character, while it is also contemptu-

ous toward its object.

con"tra-dic'tion in terms. To be avoided. one speaks of "the stern amenities of a religious life, it is as if one should speak of its harsh sweetness or severe gentleness. Avoidance of such contradictions requires a thorough knowledge of the signification of words, and an alert attention to the precise meaning of every word as used.

con'tu-ma-cy. 1 ken'tiu-mē-sı; 2 eŏn'tū-mā-çy, not

1 ken-tû'me-sı; 2 con-tu'ma-çy.

cor'net. 1 ker'net; 2 côr'net, not 1 ker-net'; 2 côr-net'. cor'po-ral pun'ish-ment. Not corporeal. See synonyms under PHYSICAL, in vocabulary of Fune & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.

cos-met'ic. 1 kez-met'ık; 2 coz-met'ic, not 1 kes-

cus-inet is. 1 met'ik; 2 eŏş-mët'ie. creek. 1 krik; 2 erëk, not 1 krik; 2 erïk. cu'il-na-ry. 1 kiû'il-nê-rı; 2 eû'il-na-ry, not 1 kul'ıne-rı; 2 eŭl'i-ne-ry. cu'po-la. 1 kiû'po-le; 2 eŭ'po-la. The word is not

spelled cupalo, but is sometimes erroneously so procu'ri-ous, in such expressions as " It is a curious fact,"

has been hypercritically censured. The propriety of the usage is unquestionable. It is not true, as some have affirmed, that novel, queer, remarkable, or strange will express all that is meant by curious: for curious adds to the meaning of novel or remarkable the sense of perplexing or difficult (at least momentarily) of ex-

A volume might be written such as few would rival in curious interest which should do no more than indicate the occasion upon which new words . . . first appeared.

TRENCH Study of Words lect. v, p. 184. [k. '88.]

dam'age. In the sense of cost, expense: "What is the damage?" a vulgar perversion of the law sense.
dan'ger-ous. Frequently misused colloquially for "dangerously ill," or "in danger"; as, "He is quite sick, but not dangerous," instead of "not dangerously" or "not in danger." Dangerous is always active

in signification, that which is dangerous being a cause

dec'ade. I dek'ēd; 2 dēc'ād, not I de-kēd'; 2 de-cād'.

dec'amate. Literally, to take the tenth part or the tenth man, but not to diminish or reduce in numbers indefinitely. It is inaccurate to say "Our troops in the dec'amate. were terribly decimated by the enemy's artillery when the number killed is indefinite.

de-co'rous. The dictionaries prefer to pronounce this word 1 di-kō'rus; 2 de-cō'rus, though admitting as an alternative the popular pronunciation 1 dek'o-rus; 2

dec'o-rŭs.

de-fal'cate. 1 dı-fal'kēt; 2 de-făl'cāt, not 1 de-fēl'kēt; 2 dě-fal'cat.

def'i-cit. 1 def'i-sit; 2 def'i-cit, not 1 de-fis'it; 2 defīs'it.

de-mean'. For degrade, debase, disgrace: "How could he demean himself by such a marriage?" A popular misuse — probably originating in the confusion of demean with bemean — of which examples may be found in the works of reputable writers. It would be as correct and reasonable to use demeanor in the sense of debasement, which is never done. To demean is to behave or conduct (oneself).

de-pos'l-ta-ry, de-pos'l-to-ry. Discriminated in the best usage, depositary denoting a person with whom and depository a place in which anything is deposited

for safe-keeping.

depths. Depths, not deps.

des'ig-nate. Pronounce s in the first syllable, not z. Modern usage seems to sustain the pronunde-sist'. ciation of z in the second syllable rather than s; -zist, but both are heard.

des'pi-ca-ble. des'pi-ca-bl, not des-pic'a-ble.

differ-ent from. Different to, though common in England, is not sustained by good authority. The best literary usage is uniformly from, following the analogy of the verb differ: one thing differs from or is

different from another.

differ from, differ with. While these phrases have both been used for "have a different opinion," or the like, differ with is not so good as differ from in that use, being rather reserved for "have a difference with " expressing conflicting opinion to. Differ from is thus properly the correlative of different from, and is always to be used when the sense is "be different from." Say "Washington differed from Hamilton in temperament, but he did not differ with him in political theory

di-rect'ly. As a quasi-conjunction in the sense of as soon as; as, "Directly he turned he fell"; a common but objectionable British colloquialism, introduced to some extent into the United States. The use of immediately in like construction has even less authority.

dis'ci-pline. Accent the first, never the second syllable.

dis"com-mode', at one time a favorite word, because convenient and useful, is apparently obsolescent, and, in the United States at least, incommode is taking its place.

dis-course'. 1 dis-kors'; 2 dis-cors', not 1 dis'cors; 2 discors, the latter pronunciation, as used in the United States, being a refinement of fashion borrowed from England.

dispense'. We dispense charity or medicine to those who need it; the service of incompetent persons may be dispensed with. The truth may be dispensed spoken; or it may be dispensed with — left unuttered, done without.

dis"re-mem'ber. Out of literary use; obsolete in England; still in colloquial use in parts of the United States.

'Well, I disremember about that, but I dew remember,'

etc. WHITCHER Widow Bedott Papers ch. 12, p. 129. [M. B. P.'74.]

di'vers, di-verse'. 1 dai'verz; 2 di'verz; 1 di-vūrs'; 2 di-vērs'. By inattentive persons not unfrequently interchanged. Divers implies severalty; diverse, difference. Hence we say: "The Evangelists narrate events in divers manners," but "The views of the two parties were quite diverse." Divers has nearly, if not quite, passed out of popular use.

do. As a substitutionary verb, strictly to be used only where some part of do precedes; as, "I did not say, as some do." But from its exceeding convenience, it is frequently used without reference to this rule; as, "I will not affirm, as some do (sc. affirm)." Disagreeable repetition of a preceding verb is often thus avoided.

dock. Misused for pier or wharf. See the vocabulary of Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary.

do'nate. Incorrectly used as simply meaning give. As meaning to bestow as a gift or donation, it has been vehemently objected to by some critics, but the word has certainly acquired a place in popular use, and is no more rendered unnecessary by the previous existence of give than donation is by the previous existence of give than donation is by the previous existence of give, the previous existence of give than donation is by the previous existence of give than donation is by the previous existence of give, the previous existence of give than donation is by the previous existence of give than donation of the best own that the previous existence of give than donation of the give that the previous existence of give than donation of the give that the given that

don't. As a contraction of do not, admitted by the best writers, but as a contraction of does not, inaccurate and disallowed. "They don't [do not] care." "He does not know any better," contracted into doesn't, not don't. The uncontracted forms are preferred almost uniformly in literary use, but in familiar speech

the contractions.

dra'ma. 1 drā'ma; 2 drā'ma, not dray'ma.

dram'a-tist. 1 dram'e-tist; 2 dram'a-tist, not dray'ma-tist.

drive. Conveniently distinguished from ride, but often misused for it, a misuse defended by some. See

vocabulary.

Rather subtle distinctions are made by Englishmen in using drive intransitively. An Englishman drives, even when he does not hold the reins and guide the horses, if the vehicle in which he is conveyed (especially if for pleasure) be one in which an English gentleman might be supposed to drive the horse or horses, as in a phaeton, drag, dog-cart, or the like; but he does not drive in a coach unless its form and purpose bring it within the class of vehicles already named. Still less does he drive in a public conveyance.

The distinction between the two words—riding and driving—which a pseudo-fashion has attempted to es-

tablish, both in England and in the United States, is mere pedantry, without a pretense of philological authority.

GOULD Good Eng. p. 84. [W. J. W. '67.]

drowned. 1 draund: 2 dround, not 1 draund'ed: 2 dround'ěd.

### E

each, eve'ry. Not constructed with plural of pronoun or verb. Not " Fach of the students have their own but " Each student has his (or her) own room. room, See the words in vocabulary.

Ate is now preferred by eat. et, as past tense of eat. many, but the usage is debatable.

eat'en. 1 it'n; 2 ët'n, true pp. of eat; not he has eat (et), but he has eaten, his dinner.

ef-fect', accomplish, to be carefully distinguished from af-fect', to influence. "The union of all good citizens may effect a reform." "The principles adopted

at the outset will affect the character of the reform. ef-flu'vi-a. Not to be used as a singular, the word is the Latin plural of effluvium. Hence, we may say, "The effluria (foul odors) from the sewers," but not

"The effluria (foul odors) from the sewers," but not "A disagreeable effluria."
el'ther. Misused for any: as, "the United States or either [properly any] of them."
eke, v. Properly, "to add to so as to make barely sufficient; piece out." Sometimes incorrectly employed in the sense of "use sparingly," i. e., to take as little as possible from, in direct contravention of its original meaning.
eld'er, eld'est, old'er, old'est. Older and oldest may be said either of prepare or of things while elder and

be said either of persons or of things, while elder and eldest apply to persons only. These latter are besides, strictly speaking, limited to members of the same family, while older and oldest are not so limited; "He will succeed to the title in the event of the death of his elder brother"; "Franklin was older than Washington." The first-born, though perhaps dying a mere infant, still remains the eldest son (or the elder, if there were but two sons, the word thus indicating priority also); but we speak of the oldest branch of the family.

e-lec'tri-cute, e-lec"tri-cu'tion. Recent words, invented to avoid awkward circumlocution, now widely accepted and not likely to be discarded, although condemned by many of the current critics. As neoter-isms they supply an antecedent blank. The forms above given are preferable to electrocute, electrocution.

el'e-gant. Often misused as a general term of approval. That which is *elegant* is marked by refinement, grace, or symmetry, or by choiceness or delicacy of structure, form, or action. A dress may be elegant, but such expressions as "an elegant field of corn," "an elegant ride," or "an elegant time" are

glaring lexical improprieties.

e-lev'en. 1 :-lev'n; 2 e-lev'n, not 1 e-lev'en; 2 ĕ-lev'en, nor lev'n.

im. elm, not 1 el'em; 2 el'em.

ise. Not to be followed by but, but by than.

nothing else than pride." Else is often use Else is often used redun-

dantly. "No one else but him" adds nothing to "no one but him.

For the use of the sign of the possessive case with else in such phrases as somebody else, see ELSE, in vocabulary.

em'i-grant, im'mi-grant. Not infrequently confounded by some educated persons of careless speech. If a person is considered as migrating from a country, he is an emigrant; if to a country, he is an immigrant.

em"ploy-ee'. Now fully Anglicized, and best spelled as an English word and pronounced as English, em"ploi-i". As an English word it is a useful correlative of employer. The attempt to treat the word as French leads to absurdities; as, "a strike took place among the female employés," instead of employées, the feminine form.

en'gine. Pronounce the "i" as in "pin" not as in "pine."

en-thuse'. An ill-formed word, prevalent in some parts of the United States; now a colloquialism mean-

ing to yield to or display enthusiasm.

A plural misused for the singular noun, eph-em'e-ra. which is ephemeron. A false plural, ephemera, is sometimes invented.

ep'i-thet. In strict sense always an adjective or adjectival term or phrase whose import may be either good or bad. Improperly and carelessly applied by many to nouns, as coward, thief, fool, villain, though properly applicable to the adjectives only, cowardly, thievish, foolish, villainous. A popular notion exists that to apply epithets to a person is to vilify or traduce him, although brave, honest, wise are as truly epithets as cowardly, etc.

ep"i-zo-ot'ic. 1 ep"1-zō-et'1k; 2 ĕp"i-zō-ŏt'ĭe, not

ep"i-zoo'tic. ep'och. 1 e 1 ep'ak; 2 ĕp'oc, not e'pock.

qual-y as, equally as well, equally as great, etc. Omit the as; "That will do equally well" (or "quite as well"); "This will produce misfortune equally great.

e"qua-nim'i-ty. Derived from the Latin \*equus, equal, +animus, mind. "Equanimity of mind" is therefore pleonastic; the words "of mind" should be omitted.

eq'ui-page. 1 ek'wi-pij; 2 ec'wi-pag, not e-quip'age. ere. 1 är; 2 år, not 1 ir; 2 ër, poetic form for before. er"y-slp'e-las. 1 er'i-sip'i-ləs; 2 ër y-slp'e-las, not 1 l'ri-sip'lis; 2 ë'ri-sip'lis. Eu"ro-pe'an. 1 yū'ro-pi'ən; 2 yu'ro-pë'an, not 1

yū-rō'pi-ən; 2 yu-rō'pi-an.
e-ven'tu-ate. Rejected contemptuously by some critics, and called by Dean Alford "another horrible word." It seems to have been first used in the United word. It seems to have been first used in the United States, but is employed by good writers in England, and apparently meets a lexical need. It is not a mere undiscriminated synonymn of result, terminate, culminate. See the word in vocabulary of the New STANDARD DICTIONARY, and compare DONATE, above.

And very like donate is eventuate. Event has no true synonym; eventuate expresses an idea not otherwise expressible by a single word; and, as pertains to its form,

it sorts with accentuate and graduate. Eventuate justified.

eventuation is justified inclusively.

FITZEDWARD HALL False Philology p. 771. [5. '72.]

e'ven up, v. [Local, U. S.] Inadmissible, being a slang

expression, though much used in the South and West, signifying "get even with, exact compensation from." ever. Missued for never; as, "We seldom or ever see those forsaken who trust in God," which should be "seldom or never." But "seldom if ever" would be correct; i. e., "in few or no instances" or "in few if any."

if any.'
ev'er so.

if any."

ver so. The phrases ever so great, little, much, many, etc., meaning "very" or "exceedingly great," etc., may be carefully discriminated from never so great, "when meaning "inconceivably great, little," etc. Compare Never so; never so great, in the vocabu-lary of Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Diction-The tendency has been to use both ever so and ARY.

never so loosely and vaguely.

eve'ry. Not to be misused for all. The expression "I have every confidence in him" may be employed to mean " I have entire (or, not so properly, all) confidence in him ": an incorrect usage, since every is distributive, referring to a number of things that may be considered separately, while confidence is used as a mass-noun; or it may mean "I have every kind, or every form, of confidence": a recent literary usage not uncommon in good English.

e'vil. 1 i'vl; 2 e'vl, not 1 i'vıl; 2 e'vil, a miserable affectation common in the pulpit, nor 1 I'vul; 2 ē'vul, a

common vulgarism.

ex'it. 1 eks'ıt; 2 ĕks'it, not egz'it. ex'o-dus. Misused as a general synonym for departure: properly used in English especially of a somewhat ture: properly used in English especially of a somewhat multitudinous going out or departure from a country or place, like that of the Israelites from Egypt. Not "My exodus was hasty," but "My departure," if away from a place or point; "My exit," if out of a place, as a room; as, "His departure (not exodus) from home was hasty"; "An incendiary fire led to his hasty exit (not exodus) from the house"; "A fire in the theater led to a hasty exodus of the spectators."

ex-pect'. Very widely misused both in England and the United States for think, believe, suppose: also for suspect. Expect refers to the future, usually with the implication of interest or desire. Yet "I expect it is," implication of interest or desire. Yet "I expect it is," or even "I expect it was," is very common. ex-pect' like'ly, ex-pect' prob's-bly. It is not the

x-pect' like'ly, ex-pect' prob'a-bly. It is not the expectancy, but the future event, that is likely or probable. One may say "I think it is likely," "I think it [the act, event, or the likel probable," or "It seems likely" or "probable." When another person's expectancy is matter of conjecture, one may say "You probably expect to live many years "; i. e., "I think it probable that you expect," etc.; but "Probably years expect," etc.; but "Probably years expect" etc.

you expect," etc., would be better. ex-pe'ri-ence. Whether as verb or noun, should not be applied to what does not enter or has not entered into personal connection with the feelings or life. would of course be absurd, as some of the hypercritics suggest, to say "The hay-crop is the most deficient experienced in many years." But not only is the use of the verb to express what is or has been matter of personal experience perfectly legitimate — as when one is said " to experience joy, sorrow, hope," or the like - but it is also true that the usage has been wellnigh universal among the best writers of English from

the 16th century to the present time. See Friz-EDWARD HALL False Philology pp. 31-36. [s. '72.] ex-per'l-ment. Since an experiment is a trial, the col-loquial phrase "try the experiment" uses the word as a cognate accusative, as in do the deed, die the death. The usual expression in speaking of a formal or exact trial is " make the experiment." A man of science conducts (a series of) experiments for the discovery of truth; he performs experiments before a class to demonstrate that truth.

ex'pli-ca-ble. **r'pli-ca-ble.** 1 eks'pli-ka-bl; 2 ĕks'pli-ca-bl, not 1 eks-plik'a-bl; 2 ĕks-plie'a-bl.

ex-ploit', v. In the meaning "utilize or employ in selfish schemes," a comparatively recent importation sensa schemes, a comparatively recent importation from the French, but, owing to its usefulness and brevity, almost fully naturalized. James Russell Lowell says "They did not exploit the passion of patriotism." My Study Windows p. 89. [o. & co. 71.] Socialistic writers tell us "The capitalists excels!" ploit the people.

ex'qui-site. 1 eks'kwı-zit; 2 ĕks'kwi-şit, not 1 eks-

kwiz'it; 2 čks-kwiş'it.

ex-tem'po-re. 1 eks-tem'po-ri; 2 ěks-těm-po-re, not 1 eks-tem'por; 2 ěks-těm-por.

fac'et. 1 fas'et; 2 făç'ĕt, not 1 fê'set; 2 fă'çĕt, nor 1 fê'zet; 2 fă'zĕt.

. 1 fe'set; 2 fa'cet, not 1 fas'et; 2 fac'et.

At fault and in fault are to be discriminated. Hounds are at fault when they have lost the scent, and know not which way to turn in order to recover it. A man is at fault when he chooses wrongly or makes a mistake; he is in fault when he has done something blameworthy.

fa'vor-ite. 1 fe'ver-it; 2 fa'vor-it, not 1 fe'ver-ait; 2 fā'vor-īt.

Feb'ru-a-ry. 1 feb'ru-ë-ri: 2 fĕb'ru-ā-ry, not 1 feb'yuē-rı: 2 fĕb'vu-ā-rv. The r is omitted by many who are not careful in speech.

fe'male. Often misused for woman. In the following quotation woman should be substituted for female:

With the repugnance not unnatural to a female, etc.

In the following sentence female is appropriately used as an expression of contempt:

He did not bid him go and sell himself to the first female he could find possessor of wealth.

Female is correctly used also as the correlative of male, whether the latter be expressed or not; as, "Statistics of population show that there is an excess of females in many of our eastern cities.

fem'i-nine. 1 fem'1-nin; 2 fem'i-nin, not 1 fem'1-nain; 2 fĕm'i-nīn.

Properly, to go and bring: hence go and fetch is pleonastic. If go must be said, bring should be used, not fetch. Hence. "Go and bring the package," or "Fetch the package."

fina'le. 1 fi-na'le; 2 fi-na'le, not fai-nêl'; 2 fi-nâl', nor l fi-nal'; 2 fi-nâl'e. fi'nal syl'la-bles. The prevalent popular fault of obliterating or clipping short final syllables, as in bar'l, curt'n, pô'm, pô't, etc., should be carefully guarded against.

fi-nance'. 1 fi-nans'; 2 fi-nanc', not 1 fui'nans; 2 fi'nanc. fi-nan'cial. 1 fi-nan'shel; 2 fi-nan'shel, not 1 fai'nan-

shal; 2 fi'năn-shal.

first, a. The prevalent literary usage (almost universal in Great Britain) sanctions the forms like "the two bravest," "the two strongest," "the two first," "the two last," etc.; it is nevertheless more discriminating and would be better to say, as many now do say, in accordance with the suggestion of the grammarians, "the first two," etc., "the last two," etc., whenever the two form a first pair or group of persons or things, corresponding to or distinguished from a last pair or group. The two first should be used in referring to two persons or things each of which is at the head of its own series, or both of which are fore-most in the same class not divided into pairs. rst, adv. Often introduced superfluously: as, "I must first be invited before I attend"; first adds nothing to

**first,** adv.

first'ly. First, being itself an adverb, does not need

the -ly that is frequently added. In an enumeration say first, secondly, thirdly, etc., rather than firstly, etc. It, r. The best usage avoids such expressions as "Fix the furniture in the room," "Fix the books on the shelves," when the meaning is set or arrange them. We fix a statue on its pedestal, a stone in the wall. Fix in the sense of repair is a convenient American and British colloquialism, rooted in popular use. In the United States, especially among mechanics and artificers, to fix a thing is to do to or with it whatever is needed to make it answer its purpose, whether by arrangement, adjustment, repair, or otherwise; to fx a furnace, fx a clock, or the like, is to put it in complete working order by whatever process. Up is often added, and the expression is applied even to matters of business; as, "Fix that matter up somehow"; i. e., make some kind of agreement or adjust-ment that may dispose of it. The best speakers, while giving the popular term a certain colloquial license, prefer wherever practicable some more discriminating word or phrase. Fix in the sense of disable, injure, or kill, and fix up in the sense of dress elegantly, are vulgarisms.

fix, n<sub>;</sub> Misused for condition: as, "Things are in a bad fix.

flac'cid. 1 flak'sıd; 2 flăe'çid, not 1 flas'sıd; 2 flăç'çid.

flor'id. 1 fler'ıd; 2 flör'id, not 1 flör'ni, 2 flör'id.

folk. As used in Old English, a collective noun meaning "people," having a plural of the same form meaning "peoples." In later English the plural form folks was introduced. In present usage the two plurals have become differentiated in sense, so that folk means

"peoples," or, as a collective, "people," and folks, especially with an adjective (widely used colloquially in spite of the drawing-room fastidiousness of some writers) means "persons," and the two are no longer to be employed indiscriminately. We say "The conies are a feeble folk (not folks)"; "The old folks (not folk) at home "; "Folk-lore is an interesting study."

for, to, etc. Redundant or improper in such expressions as "More than you think for"; "Where are you going to?"

for-bear from. From, needless and not good English.
for-bid'. Not "I forbid you from doing," but "I for-bid your doing," or "I forbid you to do."
for'mi-da-ble. 1 for'mi-da-bl; 2 fôr'mi-da-bl, not 1
for-mid'o-bl; 2 for-mid'a-bl.
for'ward, for'wards. See BACKWARD, BACKWARDS.

foun'tain. 1 faun'tin; 2 foun'tin, not 1 faun'tn: 2 foun'tn

rom. Sometimes improperly used for of: "He died from cholera" should be "He died of cholera." But we say correctly "He died from the effects of," etc., from. where effect suggests the idea of cause from which the result proceeded.

Adjectives with this ending do not properly take -er or -est, to form the comparative or superlative. Not graceful, gracefulest, but more graceful, most grace-

ful.

fu'ture, a. Not properly to be used of past time or events. Not "The future career of Milton was," but "the subsequent," etc. When, however, a matter already past is related from the point of view of some person or persons concerned, so that the statement has the effect of an indirect quotation, the use of the future is permissible; as, "He saw that his whole future career depended on this decision.'

gath'er. 1 gath'ər; 2 ğăth'er, not 1 geth'ər; 2 ğĕth'er. gen"e-al'o-gy, min"er-al'o-gy. Too often mispronounced geneology, minerology.

gen'er-al-ly. 1 jen'er-al-1; 2 gen'er-al-y, not 1 jen'rəl-ı; 2 gĕn'ral-y.

gen'u-ine. 1 jen'yu-in; 2 gĕn'yu-in, not 1 jen'yu-ain; 2 gěn'yu-in.

ge-og'ra-phy. 1 ji-eg're-fi; 2 ge-ŏg'ra-fy, not 1 jeg'-

ra-fi; 2 gog ra-fy. ger"ry-man'der. Pronounced with hard g, 1 ger 1man'der; 2 ğer"y-man'der, not 1 jer-; 2 ger-: named

from Elbridge Gerry.
ger'und. 1 jer'und; 2 ger'und, not 1 ji'rund; 2 ge'rund. gey'ser. 1 gai'zər or gai'sər; 2 gy'ser or gy'ser. gher'kin. 1 gür'kın; 2 ger'kin, not 1 jür'kın; 2 ger'kin.

gi"gan-te'an. 1 jai gan-ti'en; 2 gl'gan-te'an, not 1 jai-gan'tı-ən; 2 gī-găn'te-an

God. 1 ged; 2 god, not 1 gad; 2 gad, nor 1 ged; 2 god. o-la. 1 gen'do-le; 2 gon'do-la, not 1 gen-do'le; gon'do-la. 2 gon-do'la.

Properly having the sense of acquired, procured. and the like, but improperly used to express mere

possession. Not "The hound has got long ears," because he has done nothing to get them; he has them; but "He has got the rabbit" (which he has been chasing). I have got a pencil when I buy or find it. form gotten, now partially restored to use after being form gotten, now partially restored to use after being lable almost obsolete, has the advantage of not being liable to such confusion. Those who would readily say "The man has got a heart," meaning simply "he has "one, would not think of saying "He has gotten a heart." Either got or gotten may be used when

there has been a *getting*, but not otherwise. **gov'ern-ment.** The n of the second syllable must be

heard; 1 guv'ern-ment or -ment; 2 gov'ern-ment or -ment, not 1 guv'er-ment; 2 gov'er-ment.

grad'u-ate, v. Popularly used as signifying "to receive a degree at the end of a course of study; become a graduate." The institution graduates the candidates. date, i. e., admits him to a degree, or marks him with a degree, at the end of a course of instruction; the man is therefore graduated, and objection is often made to "He graduated," but this double meaning (passive and middle) is frequent, and in this word well established.

zriev'ous.

riev'ous. 1 grīv'us; 2 grēv'ùs, not 1 grīv'ı-us; 2 grīv'i-ŭs nor 1 grēv'yus; 2 grīv'yùs. ri-mace'. 1 grī-mēs'; 2 grī-māç, not 1 grīm'ēs; 2 gri-mace'.

ğrim'ac In the sense of become, objected to by some critics, especially in what they deem the self-contra-dictory phrase to grow small, is good idiomatic English. Fitzedward Hall (False Philology p. 82) quotes Dr. Johnson as using "grow fever," "grew able," "grow less," etc., Steele and Gray as using "grow less," and Macaultay as using "grow smaller."

Macaulay as using "grow smaller."

guild. Pronounced 1 gild; 2 gild, not 1 gaild; 2 gild. The older spelling gild is now revived and by many

preferred.

gy'ro-scope. 1 jai'ro-skop; 2 gy'ro-scop, not 1 gai'roskop; 2 gy'ro-scop.

h. The so-called "dropping of the h," common among the lower classes in England, is one of the mysteries of nanguage. It is not as when foreigners fail to pronounce a letter because of some difficulty in uttering it, for the very persons who say "all" for high, and "ill" for hill, will tell you "That's hall in your heye," and will say of a sick man "e's very hill, sir." A waiter will inquire "Am and heggs, sir?" The fault is simply one of misplacement. whimsical as it is obstinate.

had have. Improperly used in such expressions as "Had I have known it." Had, used elliptically for if I had, itself carries the contingency back into the past, and there is no need of an added have to do the same thing. "Had I known this," "Had he done that," are conditional clauses, each complete in itself as ex-

pressing past possibility.

had ought. The use of any part of the verb have with ought is a vulgarism. Not "I had ought to have

written," but simply "I ought to have written"; not "He hadn't ought to have done it," but "He ought not to have done it.

had rath'er, had bet'ter. Forms disputed by certain grammatical critics, from the days of Samuel Johnson, the critics insisting upon the substitution of would or should, as the case may demand, for had: but had rather and had better are thoroughly established English idioms having the almost universal popular and literary sanction of centuries. (See note under have, vi., in the vocabulary of Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary.) "I would rather not go" is undoubtedly correct when the purpose is to emphasize the element of choice or will in the matter; but in all ordinary cases "I had rather not go" has the merit of being idiomatic and easily and universally understood.

I had rather be a doorkeeper in the house of my God than to dwell in the tents of wickedness. Ps. lxxxiv. 10.

If for "You had better stay at home," we substitute "You should better stay at home," an entirely different meaning is expressed, the idea of expediency giving place to that of obligation.

Would rather may always be substituted for had rather. Might rather would not have the same meaning. Would and should do not go well with better. In one instance can is admissible. 'I can better afford,' because can is especially associated with afford. We may say might better, but it has neither the sanction, the idiomatic force, nor the precise meaning of had better. SAMUEL RAMSEY Eng. Lang. and Gram. pt. ii, ch. 6, p. 413. [G. P. P. '92.]

hain't. A common vulgarism for have not, haven't, and made worse, if possible, by being used also for has not or hasn't: as, "I hain't," "He hain't," etc.
"I haven't," "He hasn't," are permissible, "haven't
I?", "hasn't he?" are acceptable in conversation.

But when the subject precedes in conversation.
But when the subject precedes in the first person singular and the plural, it is preferable to abbreviate the verb; as, "I've not," "You've not," etc.
hand'write", v. A recent coinage to avoid circumlocution, used to a limited extent, especially in business circles, as the correlative of 'upewrite; as, "Was the letter typewritten?" "No; it was handwritten." In literary usage "written by hand" is the prevailing and preferable form.
hand'write". n. "Did you notice his peculiar hand-

hand'write", n. "Did you notice his peculia.

write?" This is illiterate and inexcusable. " Did you notice his peculiar hand-Handwriting is the proper English word, for which there is

no occasion to coin a modern barbarism.

hand'y. Properly said of articles on which one may lay the hand, or possibly of persons, as attendants, ready at hand for service. Applied to neighborhood, as "He lives quite handy," or "His house is handy (or handy by)," the word is a scarcely admissible colloquialism. "Near." "near by," close at hand," or the like should be used in preference.

hap'pen in. For "to come in accidentally": an

Americanism.

have. Used in a past tense following another past tense; a use often indiscriminately condemned, though sometimes proper and necessary. (1) Improper con-struction. Where what was "meant," "intended," or the like was, at the time when intended, some act

(as of going, writing, or speaking) future in its purpose and not past, and therefore not to be expressed by a past tense: as, "He meant to have gone," for "He meant to go"; "I meant to have written to you, but forgot it," for "I meant to write," etc.; "I had intended to have spoken to him about it," for "I had intended to speak," etc.; "I should like to have gone," for "I should have liked to go." The infinitive with to expresses the relation of an act as so conceived, so that both analogy and prevalent usage require "meant to go" instead of "meant to have gone." Such construction, although occasional instances of it still occur in works of authors of the highest literary reputation, and still often heard in conversation, is now generally regarded as ungrammatical.

(2) Proper construction. The doubling of the past

(2) Proper construction. The doubling of the past tenses in connection with the use of have with a past participle is proper and necessary when the completion of the future act was intended before the occurrence of something else mentioned or thought of. Attention to this qualification, which has been overlooked in the criticism of tense-formation and connection, is especially important and imperative. If one says "I meant to have visited Paris and to have returned to London before my father arrived from America," the past infinitive in the dependent clause is necessary for the expression of the completion of the acts purposed. "I meant to visit Paris and to return to London before my father arrived from America," may convey suggestively the thought intended, but does not express it.

he, she, her, him, etc. Incorrect use of pronouns, inexcusable in the educated, is illustrated in such expressions as "If I were him (or her), I would," etc. It should be "If I were he (or she), I would," etc. Compare BE.

heap, heaps. In the general sense of "a great number" or "quantity," a colloquialism that approaches a vulgarism. While it is true that this sense was included in the word in the Anglo-Saxon period, it is also true that we now have quantity, number, crowd, and many other words of similar general application, and heap has been well differentiated to mean "a collection of things laid or thrown together in a body so as to form an elevation"; so that to speak of "a heap of friends," or of "doing one heaps of good," seems incongruous and is unnecessary and madmissible.

hearth. 1 hārth; 2 hārth, not 1 hūrth; 2 hērth.
heav'en. Final syllable shortened, 1 hev'n; 2 hĕv'n, not 1 hev'ən; 2 hĕv'en.

height. 1 hait; 2 hit, not 1 haitth; 2 hitth.

hei'nous. 1 hē'nus; 2 he'nus, not 1 hī'nus; 2 hē'nus,

nor 1 hēn'yus; 2 hen'yus.

hefp. "No more than I can help" is a favorite colloquialism that defies analysis. Help, being used in the sense of avoid or prevent, requires a negative after the comparative with than, so that the phrase would regularly be "No more than I can not help," which is harsh, and to many ridiculous. Better avoid the expression, using "No more than is necessary," or some similar phrase.

help'mate, help'meet. Forms originating doubtless in a corruption of Gen. ii, 18, "An help meet (i. e., suitable) for him," but having nevertheless the sanction of such names as Milton, Cardinal Newman, and Macaulay, and of wide usage.

Hen'ry. 1 hen'ri; 2 hěn'ry, not 1 hen'ar-i; 2 hěn'er-y. Her-cu'le-an. 1 hər-kiu'lı-ən; 2 her-eu'le-an, not 1 hūr kiu-lī'an; 2 hēr eū-lē'an.

his'to-ry, his-to'ri-an. With a or an? The form preferred by the Standard Dictionary is a, to avoid the tendency of the h sound to quiesce after an: but many writers in Great Britain and some in the United States use an before an unaccented h. See quotation, for the reason for the latter usage; and compare AN. in vocabulary of the New STANDARD DICTIONARY.

We cannot aspirate with the same strength the first syllables in the words history (first syllable accented) and historian (first syllable unaccented), and in consequence, we commonly say a history, but an historian.

Alford Queen's English par. 33, p. 34.

1 heist; 2 höist, not 1 haist; 2 hīst.

hor'o-scope. 1 her'o-skop; 2 hor'o-scop, not 1 ho'roskop; 2 ho'ro-scop.

hos'pi-ta-ble. 1 hos'pi-ta-bl; 2 hos'pi-ta-bl, not 1 hes-pit's-bl; 2 hos-pit'a-bl.

host'ler. 1 hos'ler or os'ler; 2 hos'ler or os'ler. Always drops the t, but preferably retains the initial aspirate, though there is good authority for its omis-

how? Should not be used to ask for the repetition of a word or a sentence that was not readily understood.

Do put your accents in the proper spot;
Don't,—let me beg you,—don't say "How?" for
"What?" O. W. HOLMES A Rhymed Lesson st. 43.

how do? how de? Unpardonable abbreviations of How do you do?

how-ev'er, adv. However has proper and elegant use as an adverb; as, "However wise one may be, there are limits to his knowledge." But its use for how and are inmits to his knowledge. Dut its use for now and ever should be avoided as a vulgarism; as, "However could he do it?" while its employment in the sense of "at any rate; at all," as in the example, "He tried to keep me, but I'm going, however," is provincial and archaic.

archauc.

how-ev'er, conj. Not to be used indiscrimination, it often is used, for but or notwithstanding. Not "He was sick; not, however, so much so as he thought, but "He was sick, but not so much," etc.; since the relationary adversative.

"And Moses said, Let "Archithstanding" Not to be used indiscriminately, as -no man leave of it till the morning. Notwithstanding (not but) they harkened not unto Moses "; since the preceding thought is represented as no impediment to the succeeding one. "I have not seen her since our quarrel; however (not but, or notwithstanding), I expect to be recalled every hour "; since the relation is one of concession and simple transition, however denoting that "in whatever manner or degree what precedes is valid, what follows nevertheless stands firm." See MAETZNER English Grammar vol. 3, pp. 361-3.

hu'man. In the sense of human being: as, "No human ever climbed that mountain": a usage at present either archaic, or colloquial and humorous.

hun'dred. 1 hun'dred; 2 hun'dred, not 1 hun'derd; 2 hun'derd.

hy-drop'a-thy, 1 hai-drop'a-thi; 2 hỹ-drop'a-thy, not 1 hai-dro-path'i; 2 hỹ-dro-păth-y. A widely accepted word formed after the supposed analogy of allopathy, homeopathy, and intended to signify "water-cure" or "water-treatment," but etymologically signifying "water-suffering." The vernacular compound word water-cure is preferable on etymological and lexical grounds.

### 1

I, me. Inaccurately interchanged. See BE and YOU AND I.

i-de'a. 1 ai-di'e; 2 I-dê'a, not 1 ai'dı-e; 2 I'de-a, nor 1 ai-dir'; 2 I-dêr'.

i-de'al. 1 ai-di'el; 2 I-de'al, not 1 ai-dil'; 2 I-del'.

Id'I-om, Id"I-o-mat'ic phrase. A clear understanding of idioms and idiomatic phrases is made necessary by the fact that so much of futile criticism of faulty diction originates in misapprehensions of their nature and functions. For the general uses of the expressions, see the vocabulary.

Idiom, or idiomatic phrase, as here used, is a phrase the meaning of which can not be deduced from its component parts. The following are examples of idiomatic phrases; to bring about (accomplish); to bring to pass: to carry out (make effective; accomplish); to come by (obtain); to go hard with (be painful or harmful to); to put up with (tolerate; endure); to set about (begin). An examination of these phrases shows that the meaning of each (when used in its idiomatic sense) belongs to the phrase as a single element, and is not a composite effect made by joining the meanings of its parts. The peculiarity of such phrases becomes apparent if we compare them with phrases that are not in this sense idiomatic; as, "To go to the city," "To sleep late in the morning," where every word has a meaning that is contributed to the meaning of the phrase.

When thoughts are expressed freely and naturally, they usually take form in idioms, or, at least, in language in which idioms abound. The employment of idioms is, therefore, strongly recommended by literary critics; and however much they may depart from the ordinary forms, the fixed idioms of a language are not proper subjects for the grammaticasters.

Dreary and weary must the style be that can all be parsed. Idloms are short, forcible, and great favorities with people who would rather work or think than talk; and they abound in the best writers. Yet idloms are expressions that taken literally are either absurd, or, what is worse, untrue. There is no water here, 'All the lamps worse, untrue. There is no water here,' All the lamps worse, untrue. The butter say,' Dans maar op, where the English say,' Cet out,' which means Depart on all three prasect taken literally are norsented. Ramsey Eng. Lang. Procure out,' From part. Sature Ramsey Eng. Lang.

Idiomatic phrases should be carefully distinguished from figurative phrases, or phrases in which the words have their ordinary connections and relations but are used figuratively; as, to break the ice: to carry coals to Newcastle; to ring the changes on; to set a trap for; to stand in one's own light. It is not well to multiply figurative phrases, since their very frequent use tends to obscure thought and weary the attention.

It is probable, however, that many, perhaps most, idiomatic phrases originated in figurative speech, and atterward passed into the idiomatic stage by insensible transitions, becoming in the transitional stage intermediate phrases; as, to carry through (accomplish; effect); to hold forth (utter, especially publicly); to put down (suppress); to put off (defer); to go without (be or do without).

The use of if for whether is properly condemned, except in colloquial and poetic language, for the obvious reason that when there is a common word meaning precisely a certain thing, a word meaning precisely another thing should not be used for it without some special ground. "Go and see if [instead of whether] the package has come" is common colloquial use. It special ground. is doubtful whether in this case the indolence that is so often the warrant for using a shorter word justifies its use, while such use is certainly not justifiable if it results from ignorance or sheer carelessness. The exigencies of rhythmic construction may call for the employment of if for whether in poetry, and it has the support of Milton, Shakespeare, Dryden, Prior, Cowper, Tennyson, Lowell, and other masters of English.

I'll . . . try your penitence if it be sound, Or hollowly put on. SHAKESPEARE Measure for Measure act ii, sc. 4.

Words with this final syllable have exceptions with i long, and one who is in doubt about a word so ending should consult the vocabulary. To pronounce fertile, hostile, etc., otherwise than 1 fūr'til; 2 fēr'til, 1 hos'til; 2 hos'til, etc., is antiquated. To pronounce

The use of ill and sick differs in the two great English-speaking countries. Ill is used in both lands alike, but the preferred sense of sick in England is that of "sick at the stomach, nauseated," while in the United States the two words are freely interchangeable. Still Tennyson and other good writers freely use sick in the sense of ill. (See synonyms for ILLNESS in FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.) The tendency of modern usage is to remand ill and well (referring to condition of health) to the predicate. We say "A person who is ill," rather than "An ill person"; "I am well," but not "I am in a well state of health." I'll in the abstract sense of bad or wicked is obsolescent, or rather practically obsolete except in poetic or local use.

Ill'y, adv. The -ly is superfluous, since ill is itself an adverb as well as an adjective; as, "He behaved ill"

(not illy).

im'pe-tus. 1 im'pi-tus; 2 im'pe-tus, not 1 im-pi'tus; 2 lm-pē'tŭs.

im-me'di-ate-ly. See DIRECTLY.

in, in'to. Often confused. In denotes position, state, etc.; into, tendency, direction, destination, etc.; as, "I throw the stone into the water, and it lies in the I throw the stone into the water, and it lies in the water." It is not uncommon to find such misuse even by reputable writers; as, "I divide these pleasures in (for into) two kinds"; "To keep stragglers into (for in) line." "Come in the house" is a colloquialism. The proper expression is always "Come into the house." But where no object is expressed we say house." But where no object is expressed, we say "come in," "go in." Faith, confidence, trust, and the like, are viewed as reaching from the one exercising them, and resting in the one toward whom they are exercised. Hence we speak of putting confidence

Put not your trust in princes.

Ps. exivi. 3.

in-com'pa-ra-ble. 1 in-kem'pa-ra-bl; 2 in-com'pa-ra-bl, not 1 in kem-par'a-bl; 2 in com-par'a-bl.
in-den'tion. The printers' indention is not (as it is

often said to be) a shortened form of indentation, but an original word from dent (dint), "a denting in, a depression," and hence is the proper word, rather than indentation, to express the idea.

The indention of an em only . . . [is] scarcely perceptible in a long line.

THOMAS MACKELLAR American Printer p. 132.

in'dex. Two plurals — indices in the sense of mathematical or other abstract signs, indexes in the sense of tables of contents.

of tables of contents.

in-ex'pli-ca-ble. 1 in-eks'pli-ka-bl; 2 In-eks'pli-ca-bl,

not 1 in'eks-plik's-bl; 2 In'eks-plie's-bl.

in-fe'rl-or. In constant and approved use in such expressions as "an inferior man," "goods of an inferior

sort "; corresponding to such expressions as "a superior man," "materials of superior quality" — all of

which may be regarded as elliptical forms of speech.

In reply to Dean Alford's challenge of this usage

(Queen's English ¶ 214, p. 82), it is enough to say that

life would be too short to admit of all such ellipses life would be too short to admit of all such ellipses being supplied, even if such supply would not make speech too prolix for common use.

in our midst, in their midst. These locutions antedate Chaucer, but have recently gained currency especially in religious usage, as substitutes for "in the midst of us," "in the midst of them." The shorter phrases have abundant English analogy, as has been shown by Fitzedward Hall (Modern English p. 48), but, contrary to the impression of many, they have no warrant in Scripture, but are avoided just where they might have been most conveniently used.

For where two or three are gathered together in my name, there am I in the midst of them. Matt. xviii, 20.

in-quir'y. 1 in-kwair'ı; 2 în-kwir'y, not 1 in'kwı-rı; 2 ĭn'kwi-ry.

The in is redundant. So far as is comin so far as. plete in itself as an adverbial phrase, and expresses all that is meant. The incorrect phrase is probably modeled on inasmuch as, which, however, is grammatically different, much being a noun and requiring the preposition to give it adverbial force (in such amount or measure as), while far is itself an adverb, needing no preposition.

in'ter-est-ing. 1 in'tar-est-in; 2 In'ter-est-ing, not 1

in 'ter-est'n; 2 in 'ter-est'ing.

-trigue'. 1 in-trig'; 2 in-trig', not 1 in'trig; 2 in'trig. in-trigue'. 1 in-trig'; 2 in-trig', not 1 in'trig; 2 in'trig. in-trude', in-tru'sion. When used of persons, always in unfavorable sense. In using the words we do not need to say that the person's presence is undesired, or that the *intrusion* is undesirable. Yet Gould says:

A third person intruding on a tête-à-tête, or anywhere eise where he is not wanted. Good English p. 103.

Properly used only of considerable transactions, and always with a suggestion of permanent proprietary right. One does not invest (except in a humorous sense) in a postage-stamp.

1 in'vait; 2 in'vit, n. A needless barbarism, in'vite. since we have the correct and established term in-

vitation.

ir-rep'a-ra-ble. 1 i-rep'a-ra-bl; 2 I-rep'a-ra-bl, not 1 ir'ra-par'a-bl; 2 Ir're-par'a-bl.

ir-rev'o-ca-ble. 1 i-rev'o-ka-bl; 2 I-rev'o-ca-bl, not 1 ir'ra-vô'ka-bl; 2 Ir're-vô'ca-bl.

1t. Often used in such manner as to violate the principles of grammatical and rhetorical construction, as when referring to any one of several words or clauses preceding, or perhaps to some idea merely implied or hinted at in what has gone before, as in the following: "A statute inflicting death may, and ought to be, repealed, if it be in any degree expedient, without its being highly so"; in which "if it be" should be replaced by "if such repeal be," and "its" should be omitted.

In general, personal and relative pronouns with ambiguous reference to preceding words or clauses in the sentence are stumbling-blocks of inexperienced or

tolose writers. See CONSTRUCTION.

tal'ie. 1 1-tal'ık; 2 i-tăl'ie, not 1 ai-tal'ık; 2 i-tăl'ie.

vo-ry. 1 ai'vo-rı; 2 I'vo-ry, not 1 ai'vrı; 2 I'vry. i-tal'ic. i'vo-ry.

jeop'ard-ize. Has been criticized as "foolish and intolerable," as having been improperly derived from jeopard, and as not being needed, since jeopard (without the -ize) means the same thing: to which reply has been made, that jeopardize was quite as probably derived from jeopardy, that the termination -ize has the advantage of suggesting that the word is a verb, and that in spite of the adverse criticism it has the best of authority in usage, and is gradually and quite generally superseding the shorter form jeopard.

Jew, He'brew, Is'ra-el-ite. Often properly used as synonyms. But in strict use Hebrew is the ethnological and linguistic name, Israelite the national name, and Jew the popular name of the people; as, "The Egyptians oppressed the Hebrews"; "David was the typical king of the Israelites"; "The Jews revolted under the Maccabees." The three names have their special application to the people in the pre-monarchial period (Hebrew), in the monarchial period (Israelite), and in the period subsequent to the return from the Babylonian captivity (Jew).

jew'el-ry. Jewelry is a collective noun, and not properly to be used of individual gems or ornaments. Not "She wore magnificent jewelry," rather "magnificent jewels", not "His stock of jewels was large," rather "His atthe of jewelry was large." "His stock of jewelry was large."

joc'und. © 1 jek'und; 2 jöc'und, not 1 jö'kund; 2

jō'eŭnd.

join is sue. Not to be confounded with to take issue. To take issue means "to deny"; to join issue, in strict usage, "to admit the right of denial," but not also "to agree in the truth of the denial." In the example "In their career father and son meet, join issue, and pursue their nefarious occupation in conjunction," join issue is improperly used for "agree" or "come to an agreement." To join issue is properly "to take opposite sides of a case," etc. See Issue, in vocabulary of Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Diction-ARY. See also Hodgson Errors in the Use of English pt. i, p. 40.

jour'nal. Directly from the French, which derives it from Latin diurnalis, whence also English diurnal; properly means daily. "Daily journal" means daily daily, "while "weekly journal," "monthly journal," "quarterly journal" (weekly daily, monthly daily, quarterly daily), forms of expression in popular use, and approaching very near to good literary use, appear to be instances of violent catachresis. The usage has probably arisen from attaching to journal the loose meaning of "a publication," or "record of events or news." Even one of the great quarterlies writes of "the course uniformly pursued by this journal"." It would be more discriminating, and hence better, to confine the word to its strict meaning of "daily newspaper," and to say "weekly newspaper," monthly "or "quarterly magazine" or "review," or simply "monthly "or "quarterly."

[]owl. 1 jol or joul; 2 jol or jowl.

just. 1 just; 2 just, not 1 jest; 2 jest.

## K

kept; 2 këpt, not 1 kep; 2 këp.
 ket'l; 2 kët'l, not 1 kit'l; 2 kit'l.

ket'tle. 1 ket'l; 2 ket'l, not 1 kit'l; 2 kit'l. kind'er. For kind of, pronounced as one word, kaind'er, is merely a low vulgarism. The same remark holds of sorter similarly used for sort of.

kin'der-gar"ten. In'der-gar"ten. 1 kin'dər-gar"tn; 2 kin'der-gar"tn, not 1 kin'dər-gar"dn; 2 kin'dər-gar"dn Ind'ness. "He wishes to express gratitude for many

kind'ness. ind'ness. "He wishes to express gratitude for many kindnesses"; sometimes objected to on the ground that kindness is an abstract noun. Nothing is commoner than the making of abstract nouns into concrete in this way; "affinities"; "charities"; "His tender mercies are over all His works." Besides, by many kindnesses "is meant, not "much kindness," nor "great kindness," but "kindness manifested in many forms or shown on many occasions. many forms or shown on many occasions, many acts of kindness." Compare EVERY CONFIDENCE.

Does not require the indefinite article before Not "What kind of a man is the following noun.

he?" but "What kind of man." Not "It is a kind of an animal," but " A kind of animal."

kind of. An American provincialism; as, "I'm kind of tired," for "I am somewhat tired" or "a little tired.

kins'man. To be preferred in certain cases, on the ground of greater clearness, to relative, relation, connection. A kinsman is a "man's kin," or one of his own blood; as, A brother or a cousin is one's kinsman: a man's relative or relation is one who is related to him, either by blood, as a brother (a kinsman), or by law, as a brother-in-law (not a kinsman), or, loosely, by some other bond. Connection is still more vague and unsatisfactory. The same remarks apply to kins'wom"an.

kitch'en. 1 kich'en; 2 kich'en, not 1 kich u. z kich in. knight. Such terms as knight banneret, knight baronet, nouns in apposition. In the plural each word takes the inflection; as, knights templars, etc. In knight errant the second word is an adjective, and the term means "errant knight." A few such English terms follow the French idiom in placing the adjective after the noun, but not the French practise of pluralizing the adjective: as, knights errant, laws merchant, bodies politic. Some terms of these kinds have been often perroneously treated as compounds, knighterrant being particularly frequent in print. They are not compounds, the adjective properly qualifying its noun as a separate word, and apposition of two nouns having a similar effect as to relative force, but attributing a named office, rank, or the like, instead of quality or character.

la'bel. 1 lë'bel; 2 lä'bël, not 1 lë'bl; 2 lä'bl.
la'dy. The feminine of lord, meaning, according to Max Muller, "she who looks after the loaf," the mistress, has always been a title of superiority, all ladies being women, but not all women being ladies. In England it is a title of rank (see LADY, in STANDARD DICTIONARY); throughout the English-speaking world it signifies "a refined or well-bred woman or one of superior social position," and is used as the correlative of gentleman. Its use as indicating mere distinction of sex is a sheer vulgarism. Not "A man and a lady," but "A man and a woman," or "A gentleman and a lady," Not "A man and a lady," but "A man and his lady," but "A man and his wife." The entry in a hotel or steamship register, "John Smith and lady," may be a survival of older English usage; but except in such purely business registers the proper form is "John Smith and wife," or "Mr. and Mrs. John Smith." The good old-fashioned name woman best expresses the permanent and all-important relations of the female sex to the race and to the work of the world. The use of lady for woman, by those who wrongly suppose that the latter term is in some way derogatory, in cases where the distinction to be brought out is only one of sex, or of racial relations, and does not necessarily involve

rank, character, or culture, is often ludicrous, as in such expressions as saleslady, a form as objectionable as salesgentleman would be. Even in the drawingroom usage of the English aristocracy, where the word lady, in its use as a title, implies high rank or birth, woman is always preferred when at all permissible, and in literature the undiscriminating use of lady is less common now than formerly.

lam'en-ta-ble. 1 lam'en-te-bl; 2 lam'en-ta-bl, not 1 la-men'ta-bl; 2 la-mén'ta-bl.

lan'guid. 1 lan'gwid; 2 lăn'gwid, not 1 lan'gwid; 2

lăn'ğwid. lar"yn-gi'tis. 1 lar"in-jai'tis or -ji'tis; 2 lar yn-gi'tis

last, lat'ter. In strict sense, last is not properly used of only two, since it is a superlative; latter, not properly of more than two, since it is a comparative. while the use of last for latter and of latter for last has had wide sanction in literature, the present tendency, under the impulse of grammatical criticism, is toward strict construction.

last two, etc. See FIRST.

la'tent. 1 le'tent; 2 la'tent, not 1 lat'ent; 2 lat'ent. Lat'in. 1 lat'in; 2 lat'in, not 1 lat'n; 2 lat'n.

lat'ter end. Obsolete or archaic use for "last years, days, or hours.

1 le'ver; 2 la'ver, not 1 lav'er; 2 lav'er.

www. A singular colloquial error, in cases where a vowel follows law; sometimes heard in the pulpit; as, "The lawr [1 ler; 2 lor], of the Lod [1 led; 2 lod]," in the latter word being omitted as capriciously as it is added to the former. See R. The addition of r is added to the former. See R. The addition of r to idea (idear) is, in parts of the United States, not

uncommon among people of considerable education.

Lay, lie. Lay, vt., "to put down," "to cause to lie down," is a causal derivative of lie, vi., "to rest."

The principal parts of the two verbs are:

Present. Imperfect. Past Participle. laid laid lay, tt. lay lie, vi. lain

The identity of the present tense of lay, vt., with the imperfect tense of lie, vi., has led to the frequent confounding of the two in their literary usage. (For the nautical use, see phrases under these verbs, in the dictionary vocabulary.) It should be noted that lay (present tense), being transitive, is always followed by an object; lie, being intransitive, never has an object. Lay, in "I lay upon thee no other burden," is the present tense of lay, vt., having as its object burden; in " I lay under the sycamore-tree in the cool shade, lay is the imperfect tense of lie, vi., having no object; laid, in "I laid the book on the table," is the imperfect tense of lay, vt., having as its object book. presence or absence of an object and the character of presence or an object, and the enaracter of the verb as transitive or intransitive, may be decided by asking the question "Lay [or laid] what?" The past participles of the two verbs (laid and lain) are also frequently confounded. Laid in tense-combinations is to be followed by an object always; lain, never; as, "He has laid (not lain) the book on the table"; "He has lain (not laid) long in the grave."

The statement in present time, "The soldier lays

aside his knapsack and lies down," becomes as a statement of a past act; as, "The soldier laid aside his knapsack and lay down"; "The hen has laid an egg"; The egg has lain (too long) in the nest.

In poetic phraseology especially the transitive lay (in all its tenses) is used reflexively as an equivalent of

lie, lay, etc., as in the following examples: Intransitive.

Transitive. = I lay me down.

Pres. I lie down Imp. I lay down Fut. I will lie down

Imp. I lay down

Fut. I will lie down

Plup. I had lain down

I laid me (myself) down.

I will lay me (myself) down.

I had laid me (myself) down.

learn. "The ladies at the College Settlement learned many poor girls to make their own clothing." No: the ladies taught them; the girls learned. Learn, once used with approval as signifying "impart knowledge to," long ago lost that sense, which is now clearly expressed by teach. These words should be kept distinct

arned. As imperfect and past participle of learn, pro-nounced lernd; "He has learned his lesson"; as participial adjective, pronounced lern'ed; "A learned

man.

least. Grammatical critics object to the use of least where only two objects are compared, and their objection has no doubt induced a tendency to say "the less or lesser of the two"; but it has always been common English usage to employ the superlative to express the extreme of a comparison, whether the objects compared were two or two hundred, and there is no

compared were two or two hundred, and there is no obvious reason why it should not have been so used. leave. Used without an object; as, "I shall not leave before December"; a usage condemned by some critics. It is rare in writings that have much literary authority as exemplars of good English, altho used in Scotch writings and in English books of travel; but as it meets a need, and as, analogically, the omission of the object is quite regular no conclusive reason of the object is quite regular, no conclusive reason appears for objecting to its use thus.

leg'is-la"tive. 1 lei'ıs-le"tıv; 2 leg'ıs-la"tiv, not 1 la-

jis'le-tıv; 2 le-gıs'la-tiv. length'en, length'y. The verb means to " make or ngth'en, length'y. The verb means to make or to grow longer." Its participle lengthened no more means "long" than heightened means "high" or strengthened means "strong." It is correct to say "He lengthened the discourse, but it was still too short"; but not to say "He quoted a lengthened passage from the sermon." A sermon is lengthy when "unusually or unduly long" (with a suggestion of tediousness), not when it is simply "long." ength'ways, side'ways, end'ways. Undesirable

length'ways, side'ways, end'ways.

variants of lengthwise, sidewise, endwise.

less'er. An irregularly formed comparative, but established in literary use.

The lesser light to rule the night. Gen. i, 16,

le-thar'gic. 1 h-thar'jik; 2 le-thar'gie, not 1 leth'orjik; 2 leth'ar-gie. c'o-rice. 1 lik'o-ris; 2 lie'o-ric, not 1 lik'ūr-ish; 2 iic'o-rice.

lle'er-ish.

Not "She like, adv. Incorrectly substituted for as. thinks like I do," nor "Do like I do," but "as I do."

"Be brave like him," or "as he is." Like is also used provincially for "somewhat," "as it were "; as, "He breathed heavy like."

like, v. See LOVE. li'lac. 1 lai'lek; 2 li'lac, not 1 lai'lek; 2 li'löc, nor 1 lē'lok; 2 lā'lŏe.

lim'it-ed. Often faultily used for small, scant, slight, and other words of like meaning; as, " He had a limited (slight) acquaintance with Milton "; " Sold at the limited (low or reduced) price of one dollar"; "His pecuniary means were likely to remain quite limited" - admissible if suggesting the reverse of unlimited wealth, otherwise small or narrow. See Hodgson Er-

rors etc., p. 43.

lives. For lief; "I'd just as lives as not": a common though quite inadmissible colloquialism. In England lief itself is somewhat archaic.

long'-lived". 1 len'-laivd"; 2 long'-livd, not 1 len'ing "inved": I left "lavd"; 2 long "invd", not I left "livd"; 2 long "livd", not I' left "livd"; boks. Not "She looks beautifully," but "She looks beautiful." See adjective and advers.

See ADJECTIVE and ADVERB.

lot or lots. A slipshod colloquialism for "a great many"; as, "We sold a lot of tickets"; "He has lots of friends"; to be avoided, as are all other vague, illassigned expressions, as tending to indistinctness of thought and debasement of language. Compare HEAP

love, like. Although their distinction in meaning is one of the peculiar felicities of the English language, these words are often confounded in use. that which ministers to our affections; we like what ministers to appetite, taste, fancy, etc. A man loves his wife and children; he likes roast beef; he likes some good-natured acquaintance whom he could not be said to love, except as he should love all men; he likes a fleet horse, a fine house, a pleasing picture, a brisk walk; the Christian loves God.

love'ly. A valuable word in proper use, as applied to that which is adapted and worthy to win affection; but as a colloquialism improperly applied indiscriminately to every form of agreeable feeling or quality. A bonnet is lovely, so is a house, a statue, a friend, a poem, a poodle, a bouquet, a visit; and it is even said after an entertainment, "The refreshments were after an entertainment, lovely!"

low'-priced". Often confounded with cheap. A thing is cheap when its price is low compared with its intrinsic worth, it is low-priced when but little is paid or asked for it. A low-priced article may be dear; a cheap article may not be low-priced; as, "One horse was low-priced (he paid only \$50 for it), and it was dear at that price; the other cost him \$500, but was cheap at that price."

ly-ce'um. 1 lai-sī'um; 2 ly-cē'um, not 1 lai'sı-um; 2

ly'ce-ŭm.

mack'er-el. 1 mak'ar-el; 2 mak'er-el, not 1 mak'rel: 2 măk'rěl.

In the sense of angry or much vexed, although occasionally so used by 19th-century writers of the

highest literary reputation (as by Cardinal Newman), is distinctly archaic in literature. Colloquially, in the United States, mad in this sense is very common, and as a provincialism it is not uncommon in England. Its use may be regarded as permissible colloquially when connected with a cause of veration that is not a person; "mad at triflee," "mad at such behavior"—not "mad at John or Jane."

main'te-nance. 1 mēn'ta-nans: 2 mān'te-nanc, not 1

-ten'ans: 2 -ten'ane.

nake. Used with excessive frequency for earn, gain, etc.; as, "How much did he make?" "You can't make anything there"; "He made a lot of money in Cali-Such colloquialisms should not be allowed to crowd out more exact and unobjectionable phrases.

ma'nes. 1 mē'nīz; 2 mē'nēg, not 1 mēnz; 2 māng. man'gy. 1 mēn'jī; 2 mān'gy, not 1 man'jī; 2 mān'gy. ma-ni'a-cal. 1 mə-nai'ə-kl; 2 ma-ni'a-el, not 1 mē'nī-

a-kl; 2 mā/ni-a-el.

mar'i-tal. Properly used of the husband only; "His marital rights were disregarded." Matrimonial, on the other hand, may be used with reference to either the husband or the wife, or to the marriage relation generally.

mar'i-time. 1 mar'ı-tım or -taim; 2 mar'ı-tim or -tim. mar'jo-ram. 1 mar'jo-ram; 2 mar'jo-ram, not 1 mar-

jő'rem; 2 mär-jö'ram. nas'cu-line. 1 mas'kiu-lin, not -luin; 2 măs'eū-līn mas'cu-line. or -lin. mas'sa-cred. Final syllable 1 -kerd, not -kred; 2

-kerd, not -kred; in the noun massacre, 1 -ker; 2 -eer, not 1 -krs; 2 -ere.
na'tron. 1 me'tron; 2 ma'tron, not 1 mat'ron; 2 ma'tron.

măt'ron.

mat'tress. 1 mat'res; 2 măt'res, not 1 mat'ras; 2 măt'res

mau″so-le′um. 1 mē so-lī'um; 2 ma so-lē'um, not 1 mē-sō'-; 2 ma-sō'-.

may'or. 1 me'er or -er; 2 ma'or or -or, not 1 mar; 2 mår.

mere'ly. Often misused for simply. Merely implies no addition; simply, no admixture or complication; "The boys were there merely as spectators; it is simply incredible that they should have so disgraced them-selves "; "It is simply water."

mes'mer-ize. 1 mez'mer-aiz; 2 mes'mer-iz, not 1

mes'mer-; 2 més'mer-.
met'al-lur'gist. 1 met'e-lūr'jist; 2 mět'a-lûr'gist,
not 1 met-al'-; 2 mět-ăl'-.

met"ro-pol'i-tan. 1 met ro-pel'1-tan; 2 met ro-pol'1tan, not 1 mi'tro-; 2 me"tro-.

mid'dling. Not in good use as an adverb. Not "a middling (but a tolerably or fairly) good year for grapes"; not "a middling good performance"; "he did middling well."

midst. See in our midst.

might'y. For very: in common use, perhaps always with a colloquial tinge, for more than two hundred years; as, mighty hard, mighty weak, mighty well. In strict construction mighty is an adjective only, and to be used to qualify a noun or pronoun; as, "He was

mighty"; "a mighty man"; not "He had a mighty hard time."

1 min'a-ret; 2 min'a-ret, not 1 min'a-ret'; min'a-ret.

2 min a-rět'.

mis'chie-vous. 1 mis'chi-vus; 2 mis'chi-vus, not 1 mis-chī'vus; 2 mīs-chī'vŭs, nor 1 -chī'vı-us; 2 -chī'vi-us. mis-ta'ken. The anomalous use of mistaken has naturally attracted the attention of speech-reformers; we ought to mean, "You are misapprehended or misunderstood," they tell us, when we say "You are mistaken," and if we mean "You are in error," we ought to But suppose the alleged misuse of mistaken 88.V 80. gives rise to no misunderstanding whatever - that everybody, high or low, throughout the Englishspeaking world, knows what is meant when one says "You are mislaken"—in that case, to let alone seems to be wisdom. The corruption, if it be one, has the sanction not only of universal employment, but of

antiquity. Iachimo: Either your unparagoned mistress is dead, or

she's out-prized by a trifle.

Posthumus: You are mistaken. SHAK. Cymbeline act i, sc. 5.

moire an"tique'. 1 mwar an'tik'; 2 mwar an'tik', not 1 mor; 2 mor.

1 meis'n; 2 mois'n, not 1 meis'ten; 2 moist'en. mŏis'ten.

mon'grel. 1 mun'grel; 2 mon'grel, not 1 men-; 2 mon-. e'. 1 mo-rāl'; 2 mo-rāl, not 1 mer'el; 2 mor'al. For almost. See almost. mo-rale'.

most.

10st. Often used with an adjective, simply as an intensive; as, "a most piercing cry," "the most terrible slaughter," "a most unjust decision." The indefinite most. article seems to indicate that the superlative sense has dropped out. In British English of the present day most has almost displaced very in such phrases as "most beautiful," "most surprising."
moun'tain-ous. 1 maun'tin-us; 2 moun'tin-us, not

1 maun-tē'ni-us; 2 moun-tā'ni-us.

1 miu-zī'um; 2 mū-sē'ŭm, not 1 miu'zımu-se'um.

um; 2 mū-sē'ŭm. musk'mel"on. 1 1 musk'mel an; 2 musk'mel on, not

1 mush'-; 2 mush'-.

Mus'sul-man. Not a compound of Mussul and the English word man: hence its proper plural is Mussulmans (after the analogy of Turcoman, plural Turcomans), not Mussulman. Moslems or Mohammedans

is usually preferred. mu'tu-ai friend. H Before the publication of Samuel Johnson's dictionary (1755) mutual had, as now, two distinct meanings, (1) reciprocal, (2) joint or common. Each of these senses was accepted literary usage, and it would be hard to say which of the two was commoner. Johnson gave to mutual only one meaning, reciprocal: but the first of the two quotations cited by him (that from Shakespeare) illustrated the meaning joint or common. There was the same inconsistency between definition and illustration in his treatment of mutually. The authority of Johnson's dictionary became by and by so great that an omission in it to note a meaning was regarded by many as an exclusion of such meaning from the correct uses of a word, so

that by the beginning of the 19th century joint or common as one of the senses of mutual had fallen into

Centuries of English literature authorize the employment of mutual in the sense of joint or common. On the other hand, the very strong disapproval with which this and like uses of mutual are regarded by many writers of good taste may not unreasonably be considered as sufficient ground for avoiding mutual friend and kindred expressions. See MUTUAL and synonyms, in Funk & Wagnalls New Standard DICTIONARY.

na-ive'. 1 na-iv'; 2 nä-iv', not 1 nëv; 2 näv.
na'ked. 1 në'ked; 2 nä'kěd, not 1 nëk'əd; 2 näk'ed.
na'sal. 1 në'zəl; 2 nä'sal, not 1 në'səl; 2 nä'sal.
nas'ty. A British colloquialism verging upon slang, in
very frequent use for "disagreeable," "unpleasant"; as, nasty weather; a nasty road; a nasty trick. "A nasty retort" is understood to mean one that is illnasty retort is understood to mean one that is ill-natured, or exasperating, or very telling. The epithet is quite generally offensive to American ears, since Americans associate the word, in its material sense, with a physical condition "excessively filthy or dirty"; as, "A sty is a nasty place"; and, in its moral sense, in its application to speech, with the character of obscenity; as, "He indulged in saying nasty things." nasty things.

na'tion-al. 1 nash'en-el; 2 năsh'on-al, not 1 në'shen-

əl; 2 nā'shon-al.

ne-ces'si-ta"ted. e-ces'si-ta"ted. Except in formal or philosophical discourse, an ambitious and somewhat clumsy word for which there are familiar substitutes, as compelled,

nec'tar-ine. 1 nek'tər-in; 2 nec'tar-in, not 1 nek"tər-

n': 2 nee tar-in; 2 nee tar-in; not i nea tor-in; 2 nee tar-in; not i nea tor-in; 2 need. Followed by the infinitive without to: "He need not to go " would be contrary to English idom, which in this instance would be "He need not go." net'ther, el'ther. For "none" and "any one," not the best usage; "That he [Shakespeare] wrote the

plays which bear his name we know; but . . . we do not know the years . . in which either (correctly, any one) of them was first performed "; " Peasant, yeoman, artisan, tradesman, and gentleman could then be distinguished from each other almost as far as they could be seen. Except in cases of unusual audacity, neither (correctly, no one, or none) presumed to wear the dress of his betters."

nel'ther, nor. As disjunctive correlatives, each accompanied by a singular nominative, often incorrectly followed by a plural verb form; as, "Neither he nor

I were (properly was) there.'

neth'er-most. 1 neth'er-mōst; 2 něth'er-mōst. neu-ral'gi-a. 1 niu-ral'ji-e; 2 nū-ral'gi-a, not 1 niu-

ral'ii; 2 nū-ral-gi.
nev'er. The employment of never for an emphatic not in cases where a period of time of some considerable length is thought of, as in " I will keep my promise -

never fear " (fear not at all, or at any time in the interval, that I may break it), is sanctioned by abundant authority. But such a use of never ought not to be regarded as justifying its employment where the time mentioned or understood is momentary or short, as in "We met the other day, but he never referred to the matter"; "George Washington was never born in New York."

nev'er so, etc. See Ever so, etc.

nice. Improperly used to express every kind and degree of admired or appreciated quality; as, "a nice time," "a nice horse," "a nice rain," "a nice man," "a nice sermon," "a nice funeral."

ni'ce-ty. 1 nai's1-t1; 2 nI'ce-ty, not 1 nais't1; 2 nIc'ty ni'hil-ism. 1 nai'hil-izm; 2 nI'hil-Ism, not 1 nī'hil-; 2 nī'hil-.

no'how. A vulgarism for "in no way" or "by no means." If after a negative, say "in any way," "by any means," "at all." "I don't believe in them nohow "should be "I don't believe in them in the least,"

nom'i-na-tive. 1 nem'i-na-tiv; 2 nom'i-na-tiv, not 1 nem'ne-tıv; 2 nŏm'na-tiv, nor 1 nem'ı-në'tıv; 2 nŏm"ı-nā'tiv.

Construed in the singular or plural as the none, pron. sense, or the best expression of the meaning intended, may require. "Did you buy melons?" "There were none in market." "Have you brought me a letter?" "There was none in your letter-box." When the singular or plural equally well expresses the sense, the plural is commonly used. "None of these words are now current.

The influence of an adjective or noun usually construed in the plural changes into a plural a none that would be more emphatic in the singular. "None but the wise follow that precept." It is for this reason, no doubt, that Dryden's "None but the brave deserves the fair" is often quoted "None but the brave deserve the fair." But there is also a distinct tendency to make none plural when it is used of a person instead of a thing, especially if the person mentioned stands for a class. In the following quotation the "are," although ungrammatical, connects "right" with any one of the persons named—not with any one of the things named. If is be substituted for "are," "right" may be as reasonably connected with "mind," "soul," or "brain" as with the persons (or classes of persons) spoken of.

Mind says one, soul says another, brain or matter says a third, but none of these are right.

The form of sentence should be changed, in such cases, so as to evade any grammatical difficulty.

non"pa-reil'. 1 nen'pe-rel'; 2 non'pa-rel', not 1 -ril'; 2 -rēl'.

nor, or. To be discriminated when used after no or not. "He has no money or credit"; here "credit" is only an equivalent of "money" and serves merely to amplify expression. "He has no money nor credit presents "credit" as an important alternative an additional resource. In less simple state. tive, an additional resource. In less simple statements the distinction may be of much importance.

"Will or disposition," "power or faculty," may be but pairs of synonyms. The locution "will nor disposition," "power nor faculty," distinguishes the two members of a pair as different.

nos'trum. 1 nes'trum: 2 nos'trum. not 1 no'strum:

2 nō'strŭm. no'ta-ble. Means worthy of note; not'a-ble, clever, prudent.

nothing like. Not to be used adverbially for not nearly. Do not say "He was nothing like as handsome as his brother," but "He was not nearly so handsome as his brother," but "He was not nearly so hand-some," etc.

no use. Instead of "It was no use to argue with him,"
say "of no use."

nox'lous. 1 nek'shus; 2 nok'shus, not 1 nek'shi-us; 2

nŏk'shı-ŭs. nu-cle'o-lus. 1 niu-klī'o-lus; 2 nū-clē'o-lus, not 1

niu'kli-ô'lus; 2 nû'ele-ô'lŭs.

num'ber. Not to be used with such words as innumerable and numerous, which themselves contain the idea of number (Latin numerus). "A countless number, not "an innumerable number."

nup'tial. 1 nup'shal; 2 nup'shal, not 1 nupt'yal; 2

nŭpt'yal.

O and oh. Interjections often interchanged, but having certain well-marked distinctions. See statement under O in Funk & Wagnalls New Standard DICTIONARY.

oaths. 1 othz; 2 oths, not 1 oths; 2 oths.

o-bes'i-ty. 1 o-bes'1-t1; 2 o-bes'i-ty, not 1 o-bi's1-t1; 2 o-be'si-tv.

o-bilge. 1 o-blaij; 2 o-blig', not 1 o-blij'; 2 o-blig'.
oc-cuit'. 1 o-kult'; 2 o-blig', not 1 ok'ult; 2 oc'ult.
of. In such expressions as "the love of God," equivocal, since it may be taken subjectively as "the love
that God cherishes " toward some one, or objectively
as "the love that is cherished toward God" by some

one. It is better to use some other form of expression when the accompanying words do not make the sense

unmistakable.

of all oth'ers. When with a superlative stating the results of a comparison, a grammatically censurable form; as, "Of all others, he was the greatest man." The fault arises from failure to distinguish the forms appropriately used with the comparative degree from those appropriate with the comparative and the superlative degree. In a comparison by means of a comparative followed by than, the thing compared must always be excluded (as by other or some like word) from the class of things with which it is compared; as, "The molting-season is a very delicate and interesting period both for birds and bipeds" should be "The molting, etc., for both birds and other bi-peds," since the omission of other implies that birds are not bipeds.

But in the case of such a comparison by means of a superlative, the object designated by the superlative must always be included in the class of things with which the comparison is made; not "Washington is

the best-known of all other modern patriots," but "Washington is the best-known of all modern patriots," since the use of other excludes Washington from the class with which he is compared, and makes the form of expression self-contradictory. "This measure of all others ought to have been avoided." of all others ought to have been avoided." By no possibility could this measure be one of all others.

possibility could this measure be one of all others. See Hodgson Errors in the Use of English pp. 83-85.

of any. Often erroneously used for of all. "This is the finest of any I have seen "should be "finer than any other," or "finest of all."

off. Often followed colloquially by a misplaced of, as in "Cut a yard of the cloth," A redundant of also is often heard in popular speech in connection with off, as in "Get off of that fence."

off. of 1 of that fence."

oft'en. 1 öf'n; 2 ôf'n, not 1 öf'ten; 2 ôf'ten.
o"le-an'der. ö"li-an'der; 2 ö"le-an'der, not 1 ö'li-an'dər; 2 ö'le-ăn der.

on, up-on'. See upon, in Standard Dictionary.
one, n. One used indefinitely for "a person," any
person," often requires to be followed by a possessive, or a new nominative referring to the first one. As the employment of his, he, etc., in such cases breaks the continuity, and may violate the rules of agreement in

continuity, and may violate the rules of agreement in gender, the tendency of late has been to use one's and one to the end of the statement. Thus, "When one has learned one's lesson, one should take one's exercise, after which one may eat one's dinner," etc. In extended statements it is always advisable to avoid the frequent recurrence of one and one's by changing the mode of expression. If a writer begins with "When a person," "a pupil," or the like, he may go on to say "has learned his lesson," and continue with "he" and "his " without objection.

One, pron. Special care is needed to avoid ambiguity in the relation of the indefinite pronoun one to its proper

the relation of the indefinite pronoun one to its proper antecedent. An example will best illustrate this fault.

Until I began to write this chapter, and had framed a definition of word for myself, I had never seen or heard one. RICHARD GRANT WHITE Words and Their Uses ch. vii, p. 199.

The meaning of course is "I had never seen or heard such a definition"; but a meaning suggested is "I had never seen nor heard a word." See RHETORICAL CONSTRUCTION.

on'er-ous. 1 en'er-us; 2 on'er-us, not 1 o'ner-us; 2 ō'ner-ŭs.

on'ly. Rules for the correct use of only are chiefly instructive as showing the present impracticability of reducing English usage to rule. In general, any posi-tion of only that results in ambiguity of reference is of course faulty. Yet in the writings of even the best authors the word may be found in every possible position with reference to the words it is meant to restrict, and considerations of rhythm or euphony often give to it the worst possible place for indicating the meaning intended. Some years ago a critic showed that, by the principles of permutation, a short paragraph of a noted English writer, containing several onlys, might have any one of about 5,000 meanings.

Sometimes the position commonly given the word by writers is the one universally condemned by the crit-"He only painted ten pictures," for "He painted only ten pictures," or (for greater emphasis)
"He painted ten pictures only." In written discourse In written discourse the principles of rhetorical construction aid in guard-

ing against faulty usage. See construction.

In spoken language the relations of only and similar words in the sentence are indicated to a great extent by stress and tone of voice, but in written language these relations must be conveyed by the position of the word. The general rule, so far as any rule can be given, is to place the "only" next to the word or phrase to be qualified, arranging the rest of the sentence so that no word or phrase that the word might be regarded as qualifying shall adjoin it on the other side. The sentence "Only his mother spoke to him" is not ambiguous, for the word only must apply to the succeeding phrase "his mother." "His mother only spoke to him" is ambiguous in written language, but in speech the inflection would show whether the only referred to "his mother" or to "spoke." "His mother spoke only to him" would scarcely be ambiguous, because only is rarely used in prose immediately after a verb that it qualifies. Yet for absolute clearness "His mother spoke to him only " would be better. It will be thus seen that in applying the rule the circulations of the control of the contr cumstances of each particular case must be carefully considered

Like ambiguity often results from the improper disposition of not only, not merely, not more, both, and not, to the use of which the same general directions are

applicable.

As a final resort, when the resources of position and construction have been exhausted without securing clearness, it is better to change the mode of expression so as to get rid of the refractory word or phrase.

on to, on to. Objected to by some critics as redundant or needless, but doubtless becoming more frequent in print, the newspapers often printing it as a solid word. Considered as a new word (it is in reality a revival of an old form), it conforms to the two main neoteristic canons by which the admissibility of new words is to be decided. (See HALL Modern English pp. 171, 173.) It obeys the analogy of in to, into. It may also be held to supply an antecedent blank, as may be shown by examples. It never should be employed where on is sufficient; but simple on after verbs of motion may be wholly ambiguous, so that on to, meaning "to or toward and on," may become necessary to clear up the ambiguity. "The boy fell on the roof" may mean that he fell while on the roof, or that he fell, as from the chimney-top or some overlooking window, to the roof so as to be on it; but if we say "The boy fell on to the roof," there is no doubt that the latter is the meaning. The canons for deciding the eligibility of new words appear therefore to claim for on to the right to struggle for continued existence and general acceptance.

1 e-pô'nent; 2 ŏ-pô'nent, not 1 ep'oop-po'nent. nent; 2 ŏp'o-nĕnt.

o'rate. Should not be used when speak, declaim, ha-

rangue, or a like word will express what is intended to be said. As meaning "to play the orator, talk wind-ily in round periods," it meets the canon of "supplyily in round periods," it meets the canon of "supply-ing an antecedent blank," and is a legitimate word, especially in humorous or contemptuous use.

or'chid. 1 ēr'kid; 2 ôr'eid, not 1 ēr'chid; 2 ôr'chid. r'de-al. 1 er'dı-əl; 2 ör'de-al, not 1 er-di'əl; 2 ör-de'al, nor 1 er-di'; 2 ör-del'. or'de-al.

or'tho-ep"ist. Now the approved accentuation, but or-tho'ep-ist is the pronunciation generally heard.

ou, ow. In such words as our, out, down, round, often locally mispronounced as xu (i. e., a in at+u in full, sometimes represented by aou, as araound), a prounciation that has a disagreeable twang. Care should be taken to give the diphthong its full sound. The fault mentioned above has been supposed to be peculiarly American, but it is very common in England.

ur. In some parts of the United States pronounced as if it were ar, as ar house, instead of our house. The our. diphthongal sound in the former word is identical with

that in the latter.

oust. 1 aust; 2 oust, not 1 ast; 2 ust.
o'ver, not o'ver. Equivalent to more than, not more than; objected to by some critics, but supported by literary usage, and further defensible as having a tinge of metaphor suggestive of overflowing quantity or overtopping height.

o'ver-alls. 1 o'ver-elz"; 2 o'ver-als, not 1 o'ver-helz";

2 ō'ver-halş.

o"ver-flown'. Incorrectly used for overflowed: "the rflown its banks." Flown is the partiriver had overflown its banks." ciple of fly, not of flow: there is no such verb as overfly, and if there were its participle could not apply to a

river, as in the example.

o'ver his sig'na-ture. The common present phrase to describe the relation of written matter to a person who has appended his name to it. The affixing of signatures and seals to the end or bottom of letters and documents, as a prevalent custom, is comparatively Formerly signatures and seals were often put at the top of letters and documents - oftener at the top than at the bottom; so that the older phrase for the same thing is under his signature.

**a-dro'ne.** 1 pa-drō'nē; 2 pä-drō'ne, *not* 1 pa-drōn'; 2 pä-drōn'. pa-dro'ne.

palm'is-try. 1 pam'ıs-trı; 2 pam'is-try, or 1 pal'mıstrı; 2 păl'mis-try.

pa-py'rus. 1 pa-pai'rus; 2 pa-py'rus, not 1 pap'ı-rus;

2 păp'y-rus.

par'a-dox. A paradox is something that seems, at first sight, absurd or false; hence the expression " a seeming paradox" is pleonastic; it is better to say "a paradoxical statement.

par'ent. 1 par'ent; 2 par'ent, not 1 pe'rent; 2 pa'rent. par'e-sis. 1 par'ı-sis; 2 păr'e-sis, not 1 pē-rī'sis; 2 pā-rē'sīs.

art'ner. Pronounced part'ner, never pard'ner (which has been shortened into the vulgar "pard"). part'ner.

In the sense of person, a colloquial perversion of the legal term, which views a person as taking part, or the legal term, which views a person as caning participating in a cause, action, or contract; as, in a contract, "the party of the first part," i. e., the one who participates on the first side. Though sometimes employed by good writers to mean "person," its use by them has generally been humorous, and its indiscriminate use in this sense is now condemned as a

vulgarism

Many writers use what may be termed a passive. double passive, by wrongly making the change from an active to a passive construction. This is sometimes done by taking the object of a verb that is itself times done by taking the object of a verb that is letter in an object clause, to serve as the new subject, and changing both principal and dependent verbs to the passive. Thus, "He omitted to light the lamp," can not properly be changed to "The lamp was omitted to be lighted." This mistake, which appears glaring in such an instance, occurs in forms like "The armed to be lighted. This mistage, which appears grather in such an instance, occurs in forms like "The armed men were obliged to be taken on board." The armed men were not obliged to do anything; some persons were obliged to take the armed men on board. "The offense attempted to be proved," should be "The offense attempted to be proved," should be "The offense which there was an attempt to prove," which [the accusers] attempted to prove.

which is properly indirect; as, "I gave (to) him an apple," the passive form is strictly "An apple was given (to) him," but the tendency of the language is given (to) him," but the tendency of the language is to lose sight of the fact that it ever possessed a dative, so that the objects are often treated as if both were direct; and when it is wished to make the person instead of the thing a subject, we naturally say "He was given an apple"—a form widely used, but con-

demned by grammatical critics. demned by grammatical critics.

past participles. Some past participles obsolete in good prose, such as broke, chose, froze, shook, are admissible in poetry by poetic license or when the poetry affects an ancient flavor. They survive otherwise only in crude speech; as, "The rope was broke."

ped'a-gog(we. A singular variety of pronunciations—resulting in peculiar liability to mispronunciation—is noticeable in the derivatives of this word, thus:

ped'a-gog(we. 1 had/a-gag ? rad/a-sho

nouceable in the derivatives of this word, thus:

ped'a-gog(ue. 1 ped'a-geg; 2 pěd'a-gòg.

ped'a-gog'ic. 1 ped'a-goj'ik; 2 pěd'a-gòg'ie.

ped'a-gog-ism. 1 ped'a-gog-ism; 2 pěd'a-gòg-ism.

1 ped'a-gog-ism; 2 pěd'a-gòg-ism.

ped'a-gog-ist. 1 ped'a-gog-is; 2 pěd'a-gòg-ist.

ped'a-go"gy. 1 ped'a-gò'ji or -goj'i; 2 ped'a-gò'gy or

pell' mell'. This word etymologically implies a crowd and confusion (French melle), and is not applied to an individual. Thus, "He rushed out pell-mell" should be "He rushed out hastily and excitedly."

pe'o-ny. 1 pi'o-ni; 2 pë'o-ny, not 1 pai'o-ni; 2 pi'o-ny, nor 1 pai'ni; 2 pi'ny.

peo'ple. For persons: a usage unsparingly condemned

by some critics, but freely followed by others, as well as by most writers and speakers of English. It is obvious that it is scarcely proper to use people of a

very small number of persons when considered sepvery small number of persons when considered separately or numerically; as, "Three people entered the room"; better, "Three persons." But "A crowd of people," "The young people of the church," "The room was full of people." are good English expressions. It would be quite out of place to say." A crowd of persons," "The pastor desires to meet the young persons of the church," "The room was full of persons."

A Latin preposition, properly to be joined only with Latin words; as, per diem, not per day: per annum, not per year. "So much a day," "so much a year," etc., are the correct expressions. "Per invoice" and similar expressions are current in com-

mercial use.

perfect. More perfect and most perfect are condemned by some grammarians, since what is perfect can not be more so. But every adjective of this kind that strictly means an absolute and unsurpassable degree, becomes gradually weakened in force in colloquial use so that a secondary meaning is developed, and in that so that a secondary meaning is developed, and in that seems such adjectives may properly be compared like other adjectives. Phrases of this kind are common in popular use to signify "having more or most of the qualities that constitute perfection," and with similar expressions have been employed by Shakespeare, Milton, and other great English writers.

per-sist'. 1 par-sist'; 2 per-sist', not 1 par-zist'; 2 per-şĭst'

per'son-al-ty. A legal term properly signifying personal property, as distinguished from real property, but often misused to signify either what is worn on one's person or what one personally owns, in distinction from property held in common with others or in trust.

Some years ago, a lady in England . . . who wished to leave to her servant her clothing, jewels, etc., described them as her personalty, and unwittingly included in her bequest ten thousand pounds. MATHEWS Words: Their Use and Abuse ch. xiv, p. 365.

phe-nom'en-a. The plural of phenomenon, sometimes

plece. Used locally in the United States for "bit," meaning a small indefinite time or space. The use should be avoided as a provincialism, as in "Can't you wait a piece." "He went down the road a piece."

place. Used objectively without a preposition, or even adverbially; a provincialism common in parts of the United States; as, "She is always wanting to go places"; "Can't I go any place (anywhere)?" "I must go some place (somewhere)"; "I can't find it any All such forms are solecisms. See con-STRUCTION.

plen'ty. For plentiful: a common fault, even among the fairly educated; as, "Fruit is plenty."
plurals. Solecisms, as violations of the principles of grammatical construction in the use of the plural, are exceedingly numerous. Compare construction. They most commonly arise from violating the following rules:

1. In the grammatical inflection of words.

1. A compound word, whether hyphened or solid, forms its plural by adding s at the end of the whole

word, and not at the end of any one of its component parts; thus, spoonfuls, handfuls. (See note under -FUL, in vocabulary.) A few compounds, with elements in regular grammatical construction, form exceptions to this rule; as, sisters-in-law, men-of-war. Courts martial and cousins german are not exceptions to the rule given above, for court martial is a phrase made up of a noun and an adjective - simply martial court: the same is true of cousin german, knight errant, See KNIGHT.

2. Words ending in y preceded by a vowel add s to form the plural, according to the common rule, but words ending in y preceded by a consonant change yto ies to form the plural; thus, chimney, chimneys; attorney, attorneys; monkey, monkeys; donkey, donkeys; but mercy, mercies; supply, supplies; pony,

ponies, etc.

3. The first element of an ordinary compound composed of two nouns, even though it may refer to a whole class of things, is never pluralized. We say bookkeeper (a keeper of books), bookbinder, fox-hunter, hair-brush; not bookskeeper, booksbinder, foxes-hunter, and hairs-brush. So footstool, not feetstool; toothache, not teethache; woman-hater, not women-hater.

4. The second element of a compound whose first element is a numeral adjective is not pluralized; thus, a ten-foot (not ten-feet) rule; a three-story house; a two-

mile race.

5. Certain words denoting a quantity, measure, weight, or the like, are used in the singular after a numerical adjective; as, brace, couple, dozen, gross, head, pair, score, yoke. We say "three dozen eggs"; twenty head of cattle"; "five yoke of oxen." The number of words so used is much less than formerly,

number of words so used is much less than formerly, and tends to diminish; three pairs of shoes would by very many persons be preferred to three pair.

1. In the grammatical construction of words.

1. Nouns plural in form, but singular in sense, should not be used with plural construction; as, "The latest news is," not "The latest news are"; "No other means is to be found," not "No other means are to be found"; "Economics is a useful study," not "Economics are," etc. We say correctly "This is a means to an end"; but when means refers to more than one device plan or the like it is plural; as, than one device, plan, or the like, it is plural; as, "Various means were tried." We say also "His remains were laid in the grave," because the word is commonly used for parts that are left of anything, as the remains of a fence, of a ruined castle, of a dinner, etc.

2. A multiple, or a sum or collection of units, is viewed as a singular, and should be so used. "That hundred dollars is here" is correct when the amount is viewed as one sum. When the separate coins are when the separate coins are referred to, the expression is plural; as, "Those hundred dollars were all coined last year." Whether we should say "Three times three are nine, or "Three times three is nine," "Seven and five are [or is] twelve," depends upon whether the numbers are regarded as made up of so many separate factors, or simply as an aggregate. The mathematical sign = is always read "equals," whatever the quantities pre-

ceding it, which seems to favor the use of is in like situations.

3. A singular subject takes a singular verb, even when that subject is followed by a dependent plural; as, "A great quantity of lossil remains was found," not "A great quantity . . . were found." Violations of this rule can always be avoided by a simple test: leave out, all the dependent words, see what verbal form the subject then requires, and use that form, regardless of the dependent words intervening. "Not one of our friends were present"; cut out the dependent phrase "of our friends," and "Not one . . . were" is at once seen to be incorrect; the sentence should be "Not one of our friends was present."

4. Each and every require singular verbs. A violation of this rule is a common form of the error just noted. Fitzedward Hall (Modern English ch. iv, p. 117) quotes from Bentley, "The words . . every one of which were in print before I used them." This should, of course, be "every one . . . was." "Each of the men were paid a dollar"; evidently, "Each

. . . was.''

5. Collective nouns are-followed by verbs and pronouns in the singular or in the plural according as they are regarded collectively or distributively. In the sentence "There was a large congregation," the assembly is spoken of collectively, or as a whole. If the word is used distributively, that is, if anything suggests the idea of the component individuals, a plural verb should be used, as in the sentence "The congregation were not all of the same opinion." The choice of a singular or a plural verb in cases where either form would be proper is hence often influenced by the writer's way of looking at the subject.

6. A pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent. An indefinite antecedent is often mistaken for a plural, as in the sentence "If any one has been overlooked they may raise their hand." This error arises from the lack, in our language, of a singular pronoun of common gender. No one but a lawyer would care to say "If any one has been overlooked, he or she may raise his or her hand." The common solutions are: (1) To alter the construction, using the definite article, where it is necessary, instead of the pronoun; as, "Any one who has been overlooked may raise the hand," or "If any of you have been overlooked you may raise your hand." (2) To use he in its general sense as representing both masculine and feminine. See He, 2, in STANDARD DICTIONARY.

To meet this deficiency of the language, thon has been suggested. See thon, in Faulty Diction and in Funk & Wagnalls Standard Dictionary.

7. A plural verb or pronoun never should be used with two subjects in the singular connected by a simple disjunctive, as or.

When you wish to use very dry bread for any purpose, soak it in cold milk or water, instead of having them hot.

Housekeeping column of New York newspaper.

This is plainly wrong. It would be possible to say "either of them"; but the best way is to avoid the pronoun and use a noun. Say "instead of having

the liquid hot " or better " in cold instead of hot milk or water.

po'em. 1 pō'em; 2 pō'ĕm, not 1 pōm; 2 pōm.

Pronounced without the g, pein'ant. poign'ant. its derivatives, poignancy, poin'an-si, and poignantly, pein'ant-li.

po-lice'. 1 po-līs'; 2 po-līc, not 1 pō'lis; 2 pō'līc.

1 per'trit; 2 per'trit. por'trait.

pos-sess'ive, doub'le. "A story of my father's";
"A servant of his aunt's"; "A command of the king's." This construction is usually explained as an elliptical partitive genitive; as, "A servant of his "is equivalent to "One of his aunt's servants, aunt's This so-called double possessive, however, is not restricted to expressions that can be thus explained. One hears "That house of A's," though the speaker knows that A has but one house, and even such ex-clamations as "That rasping voice of Bridget's."

In the Shakespearian period the use of the double possessive ("money of the king's," 1 Henry IV. ii, 2) was not uncommon, but before that time its employment seems to have been rather rare, except in connection with the possessive pronouns, as in "a friend of mine," "a cousin of thine." The latter form of the double possessive goes back to an early period—as is seen in Chaucer's "every knight of his." It is a reasonable conjecture that the pronominal double possessive originated in a construction allied to the partitive genitive, although Maetzner (after citing numerous instances of its early use) says:

The origin of this form of speech seems lost in popular language: the most ancient period of the language presents no support for it. *Grammar* vol. iii, p. 223.

The partitive sense, however, had ceased to be an essential element of the double possessive in Shakespeare's time, and probably at a period considerably

earlier.

The value of the double possessive as a vehicle of thought is unquestionable. It distinguishes emphatitalought is unquestionable. It distinguishes emphatically a phase of the subjective genitive from all phases of the objective genitive. A language that permits the distinctive phrases "A criticism of his," "A portrait of mine," and "A portrait of me," "A notion of Peter" and "A notion of Peter", is certainly richer in capacity of expression than a language limited to either of these construc-And, in spite of ignorant censure of the double possessive, literary usage has long accepted it.

possessives. Some of the difficulties or errors in the

use of the possessive case are as follows:

1. Where several coordinate nouns are in the possessive, the strict grammatical requirement would be the inflection of each; but the awkwardness of such a succession of possessives forbids its use. A common way of avoiding the difficulty is to inflect only the last of the series; but this is incorrect unless the series of names forms a combined name, as that of a business firm. The preferable way is to discard the possessive form for the objective case with of. Thus, instead of "John's, William's, and James's father," or "John, William, and James's father," it is better to say "The father of John, William, and James."

In the case of a business firm the form "Smith & Jones's warehouse" would be correct.

2. Where possessive nouns are in apposition, the same difficulty arises. "At my friend's the banker's house" would be the strict grammatical form; but "At my friend the banker's house," the idiomatic form. The difficulty may be avoided, as in the preceding case, by changing the construction to "At the house of my friend the banker."

3. When a participle or participial phrase is dependent on a noun or pronoun, that noun or pronoun is often incorrectly put in the objective case instead of in the possessive; as, "The cause of your brother (rather, brother's) writing the letter"; "The fact of a vatchman (rather, watchman's) being employed." Here the thing affirmed is not "the cause of your brother" nor "the fact of a watchman"; it is "the cause of . . . writing"; "the fact of . . being employed." That is, the act or state is spoken of, and spoken of as belonging to a person; and the word denoting the person should be in the possessive.

In the case of pronouns, the correct usage is followed by all good speakers and writers; as, "The cause of my (your, his, her, our, their) writing," etc. It is with nouns only that there is any doubt, and then often simply because the possessive form becomes clumsy; e. g., "To provide for every particular's being correctly stated." In such case it may be better to change the construction, and say "To provide for the correct statement of every particular." This is especially desirable where the noun is in the plural, so that to the ear the phrase is ambiguous. "As to the translators having often injudiciously used," etc., leaves the hearer doubtful whether the expression refers to one or more than one translator. Change the form to "As to the frequent injudicious use by the translators."

4. Possessive pronouns ending in s are not ordinary possessive forms, and therefore do not take the apostrophe; hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, not her's, it's, our's, your's, their's.

5. For the form of the possessive in nouns ending in sibilants, see 's, in STANDARD DICTIONARY.

post. In the sense of inform, a colloquial use derived from trade, ordinarily undesirable. "He is well informed" is better than "He is posted."
prac'tl-cal. Often misused for "skilled" or "skilful,"

prac'ti-cal. Often misused for "skilled" or "skilful," as on a barber's sign, "Practical Hair-Cutting." What would "theoretical hair-cutting" be?

**pre-ce'dence.** 1 pri-si'dens; 2 pre-çē'děnç, not 1 pres'-i-dens; 2 preç'e-děnç.

pre-dic'a-ment. 1 pri-dik'a-ment or -mant; 2 pre-dic'a-ment or -ment, not 1 par-dik'-; 2 per-dic'-.

**pref'er-a-ble.** 1 pref'er-a-bl; 2 pref'er-a-bl, not 1 praf\overline{v}r'a-bl; 2 pre-f\vec{e}r'a-bl.

prepositions. Some authorities object to the use of a preposition as the final word in a sentence, but such usage is in accord with the genius of all the Teutonic languages. The correctness of such usage — often the necessity for it — is to be determined by the meaning intended to be conveyed. For the general prin-

ciples governing the position of relational words, see CONSTRUCTION.

pres"en-ta'tion. 1 prez'en-tē'shan; 2 pres'en-tā'-

shon, not 1 pri zen-; 2 pre sen-.

pre-sen'ti-ment. 1 pri-sen'ti-ment or -ment; 2 pre-

sen'ti-ment or -ment, not 1 pri-zen'; 2 pre-sen'.

pre-vent'a-tive. A spurious variant of preventive, formed to correspond with such words as demonstrative, but resting on a false analogy, since there is no form preventate from which to derive it. Moreover, there is no "antecedent blank" to be supplied by it, preventive being the universally accepted word for

the idea to be expressed by it.

pre'vi-ous. Used as an adverb for previously without grammatical warrant, though occasionally by good writers. Not "previous to," but "previously to." When the use is adjectival, the proper word is previous; when adverbial, previously. However, there is really no occasion to use previous as an advert while we have the better word before; as, "A quarter's notice is required before (not previous, nor previously, to) the removal of a pupil."

prin'cess.

Pronounced 1 prin'ses; 2 prin'çës.
1 pris'tin; 2 pris'tin, not 1 pris-tīn'; 2 pris'tine. pris-tin'

prob'a-biy. Three clear syllables, prob'a-bli, never preb'li; the latter an error so frequent, and so fixed in some careless minds, that the word is even written

probly. pro-cliv'i-ty. ro-cliv'i-ty. In its modern use, always in unfavorable sense (Latin proclivis, down-hill); as, a proclivity to steal; a proclivity to grumble. We do not now say "He has a proclivity for art, music, or poetry"—rather aptitude, taste, or talent—nor "The young man has virtuous proclivities"—rather tendencies, inclinations, or impulses. Although once deemed an Americanism, the word has been shown to have the warrant of approved use in early English, originally in the favorable sense that it has since lost.

ro'gramme, pro'gram. The former, the French

pro'gramme, pro'gram. spelling of this word, has been till recently the common form. Now the Anglicized and more compact program is preferred, but must not be pronounced

pro'grm, any more than telegram, tel'e-grm.

prom'ise. Always properly refers to the future; as, "I promise to go"; "I promise to pay." An affected misuse makes it equivalent to assure, and even refers it to the past; as, "I was frightened, I promise you":

it to the past; as, "I was frightened, I promise you": a faulty usage parallel to that of expect. See EXPECT. Pro-po'sal, prop"o-si'tion. Usefully discriminated; as, "He rejected the proposal of his brother"; "He demonstrated a proposition in Euclid." A proposal is "something offered to be done"; a proposition, "something submitted for one's consideration." pro-pose'. Misused for purpose or intend; as, "I don't propose to be imposed on"; "I propose to get my lunch early."

prot"es-ta'tion. 1 prot es-tē'shan; 2 prot es-tā'shon, not 1 pro tes-; 2 pro tes-.

prov'en. Proved is the true English preterite and past participle of prove: proven, though an irregular form and originally a Scotticism, and used for proved chiefly

in law courts and documents, has had wide usage

among good authorities.

pro-vi'ding. Often inaccurately used as a conjunction for provided. Not "Providing he has the money," but "Provided he has the money."

put. For run or ran: as, "You ought to have seen him put"; "Then he put (sometimes put out) for home": an archaic usage now appearing as a colloquial Americanism. Stay put in the sense of "remain where (or as) placed "is also an Americanism, never used (unless playfully) by correct speakers.

Quad-ru'ma-na. 1 kwed-rü'mə-nə; 2 kwad-ru'ma-

na, not 1 kwed-rū-mē'ne; 2 kwad-ry-mā'na.

quag'gy. 1 kwag'ı; 2 kwag'y, not 1 kwag'ı; 2 kwag'y. qual'ı-ty. Etymologically, "property whether good or bad" (Latin qualis, of what sort). This is the or Dad (Latin quans, of what sort). Into is the proper sense; but some modern English writers seem to be aping the French usage of restricting it to "good quality"; as, "They enumerated his qualities and his defects"; better "his excellencies and his defects." Another restricted use of quality for "high estate," or "persons of high rank or standing"—common a century ago, especially in England—is now provincial or observed. cial or obsolete.

quan'ti-ty. Properly said of that which is measurable, as number is of that which may be counted. In mathematics number is numerical quantity, as distinguished from physical quantity, but in ordinary use number and quantity are distinct in sense, and quantity, in such expressions as "a quantity of people," "a quantity of expressions as "a quantity of people," "a quantity of birds," is decidedly inappropriate. For other uses of quantity, see Funk & Wagnalls Standard Dic-

TIONARY.

quash. 1 kwesh; 2 kwash, not 1 kwash; 2 kwash. quick'ly. A synonym of soon, but not always interchangeable with it. In strict use quickly refers to the speed of the action; as, "I will do it quickly"; soon, to the early beginning of the action; as, "I will do it

quite. Strictly means "completely," "wholly"; as "His task is quite done." Its loose use, as meaning "very," "considerably," has been severely criticized, though it has the authority of many great literapy.

- Macaulay, Goldsmith, Gibbon, Gay, Gray, names, as Macaulay, Goldsmith, Gibbon, Gay, Gray, and Cowper; as, "They are quite loving"; "Quite a severe article." In many phrases it is impossible to tell whether quite means completely, wholly, or very. quite so. In England and to some extent in the United

States an overworked formula of sasent; as, "He talks indiscreetly." "Quite so: quite so." "I think we shall arrive in time." "Quite so: quite so." quite so." quite so." all kwō'rum; 2 kwō'rum, not 1 kwor'um; 2

quo'tient. 1 kwo'shent; 2 kwo'shent, not 1 ko'shi-ent; 2 kô'shi-ĕnt.

# R

**B.** Its omission, misplacement, and faulty enunciation to be guarded against. Not nev'a, but'a, lak, lāi, lēd Nu Yēk, befo', for never, butter, lark, large, Lord, New York, before. Not wedh'er, hō'wid, etc., for rather, horrid, etc. Do not insert r to fill the hiatus that occurs when a word ending with a vowel is followed by one beginning with a vowel: a practise at once careless and lasy, that converts the proper name Amelia Ann into an allegation Amelia ran. Do not

Amelia Ann into an allegation Amelia ran. Do not say, lêr, jêr, for law, jaw. rad'ish. 1 rad'ish; 2 răd'ish, not 1 red'ish; 2 răd'ish. raise. Raise, "to cause to rise; elevate"; never to be used intransitively. "He was so weak that he could not raise." "He could not raise in the saddle"—(raise what?); the meaning is "He could not rise." But we correctly say "He could not raise himself, his hand, or his head." Compare LIE and LAY; SIT and SET.

raise chil'dren. Raise, "to rear (an animal)," never to be used of bringing human beings to maturity: a misuse common in the southern and western United Cattle are raised: human beings are brought up, or, in older phrase, reared. Do not say, with the Westerner, "I have raised ten children," nor, with the old slave "Auntie," "I've raised thirteen head o' ehildren.

ran'cor. 1 ran'kar: 2 răn'cor. not 1 ran'kar: 2 răn'cor. rare'ly or ev'er. An incorrect expression for rarely if ever. See seldom.

rath'er. 1 rath'er or rath'er, 2 rath'er or rath'er, not tuner. I radies of radies, 2 rather of rather, not l'ruth'es; 2 rüth'er. Superfluous with adjectives ending in ish, when this implies rather; as, "rather warmish," rather coldish." Charles Lamb jestingty made the error apparent in closing a letter with "yours ratherish unwell." But with adjectives where -ish expresses quality only, not degree, rather is ad-nissible, and may make a neat distinction; as, "rather foolish.

re"al-i-za'tion. 1 rī'əl-1-zē'shən; 2 rē'al-i-zā'shon, not 1 ri el-ais-e shen; 2 re al-is-a shon.

re'al-ly. 1 ri'ol-i; 2 rë'al-y, not 1 ril'i; 2 rël'y.
rec''i-ta-tive'. 1 res'i-ta-tiv'; 2 rëc'i-ta-tiv, not 1

res'i-të-tiv; 2 reç'i-tä-tiv.
rec'og-nize. 1 rek'eg-naiz; 2 rĕe'ŏğ-niz, not 1 rek'un-

ais; 2 rec'un-iz.

re-demp'tion. 1 ri-demp'shon; 2 re-demp'shon, not 1 ri-dem'shon; 2 re-dem'shon.

rel'a-tive. More discriminating than relation, meaning one connected by blood or marriage. Since one has numberless relations in other senses of the word, it can hardly be regretted that the word relative is supplanting the older form. See KINSMAN.

rere'dos. 1 rīr'des; 2 rēr'dos, not 1 rī-rī'des; 2 re-

re-side', res'i-dence. Somewhat stately words, not to be indiscriminately used for live, house or home. In the legal sense, as affecting, for instance, the right to vote, a man's residence may be in a cheap lodging-house; but commonly the word would be understood

of a building of some pretensions. "Where does he live?" is ordinarily better than "Where does he reside?" and to call a plain little cottage "my residence" is a bit of petty affectation.

re-source'. 1 ri-sors'; 2 re-sorç', not 1 rī'sors; 2 rē'sorç. res'pi-ra"tor. 1 res'pi-re ter or -ter; 2 res'pi-ra tor or -tor, not 1 ri-spair'e-ter; 2 re-spir'a-tor.

rest'ive. Naturally understood by every English-

speaking person of a horse resisting control, and seeking to break from or escape it, or of persons similarly disposed. But certain critics, having determined that restive must mean resting, attempt to apply resting to the strained intensity of a balky horse - an idea that probably never occurred to any one but a critic. See definition and synonyms for RESTIVE, in STANDARD DICTIONARY. See examples from Burke, Coleridge, De Quincey, and many others, in Hall's False Philology, p. 97.

re-stor'a-tive. 1 ri-stor'a-tiv; 2 re-stor'a-tiv, not 1

ri-ster's-tiv; 2 re-stor'a-tiv.
res"ur-rect'. A body-snatchers' term, now creeping into respectable speech, and even into literature: a word undesirable in all uses, and in sacred use deplorable.

plorable.

re-tail', tt., 1 ri-tēl'; 2 re-tāl'. } The grocers ri-tēl'

re'tail, a. & n., 1 ri'tēl; 2 rē'tāl. } sugar at five cents a
pound when they sell at ri'tēl in ri'tēl stores.

Rev'er-end, abbr. Rev. As a title, should, like Honorable, in strict propriety have the definite article, the
phrase being adjectival; as, "The Reverend Thomas
Jones"; or, if the first name is not used, we may say

"The Reverend Mr. Jones." "Rev. Jones," often
used in the western United States, is harsh if not rude.

"Rev. Mrs." or "Mrs. Rev. Jones" should not be
used in speech or writing. used in speech or writing

re-verse'. Not to be confounded with converse. everse: Not to be contounded with converse. Re-verse is the opposite or antithesis of something; minus is the reverse of plus. The "converse" is "an op-posite reciprocal proposition," reached by transposi-tion of the terms of the proposition, the subject be-coming predicate and the predicate subject; the con-verse of the proposition, "If two sides of a triangle be equal, the angles opposite to those sides are equal," is "If two angles of a triangle be equal, the sides of a triangle be is, "If two angles of a triangle be equal, the sides opposite to those angles are equal." A proposition and the reverse (or contradictory) proposition can not both be true; the converse of a true proposition may or may not be true.

or may not be true. **re-volt'.** The transitive use of this verb, in the sense of "awaken aversion in," is a modernism, though having the sanction of such names as Cowper, Walpole, and Southey. The form "Such a spectacle is resolting to me" is, however, more common than the form "Such a spectacle revolts me.

**rhythm.** Pronounced rithm, never rith'um.

ride, drive. See RIDE; DRIVE, in STANDARD DICTIONARY, and DRIVE, in Faulty Diction.
right. In the sense of "obligation" or "liability," a
barbarous Briticism or Hibernicism; as, "You have a right to be arrested if you break the law."

rights and priv'i-leg-es. To be used with discrimination. A privilege is "something peculiar to one or

some as distinguished from others," " a prerogative ": so that the term is to be employed relatively. "The rights and privileges of the people," as often used absolutely in political platforms, demagogical speeches, solutely in political places and, solution and radical newspapers, is incorrect, since the people in this same can have no mivilenes. i. e., "things in this sense can have no privileges, i. e., "things peculiar to individuals." Milton's use is correct when he says "We do not mean to destroy all the people's rights and privileges," since he is speaking of the people relatively, as distinguished from the magistrates and the king.

rind. 1 raind; 2 rind, not 1 rind; 2 rind.

1 risk; 2 risk, not 1 resk; 2 resk.

To have the full, long sound of o, not road, coat, etc. obscured or shortened.

Learning condemns beyond the reach of hope The careless chur! that speaks of soap for soap; Her edict exiles from her fair abode The clownish voice that utters road for road; Less stern to him who calls his coat his coat, Less stern to him who calls his coat his coat, And steers his boat, believing it a boat, She pardoned one, our classic city's boast, Who said at Cambridge, most instead of most, But knit her brows and stamped her angry foot To hear a Teacher call a root a root. O. W. HOLMES A Rhymed Lesson st. 43.

1 ro-bust'; 2 ro-bust', not 1 ro'bust; 2 ro-bust'. ro'bŭst.

1 ro-mans'; 2 ro-manç', not 1 rō'mans; 2 ro-mance'. rō'mănç.

1 ro-zi'o-le; 2 ro-şē'o-la, not 1 rō"zī-ō'le; ro-se'o-la. 2 rō'sē-ō'la.

Formerly objected to as a vulgar and ro'ta-to-ry. needless variant of rotary, but now apparently becoming differentiated from rotary in meaning. tendency is to use rotary of the thing that rotates, er is capable of rotation, or of its motion, and rotatory of that which effects or pertains in some other way to Rotary more nearly approaches the partirotation. ciple rotating; rotatory, the noun rotation used as the first element of a compound. Thus, we speak of a rotary (i. e., rotating) part or movement, but of rotatory power or action (i. e., rotation-power, or power of rotation).

sac"cha-rine. 1 sak's-rin, -rin, or -rin; 2 săc'a-rin. -rin, or -rin.

1 sak'rı-li'jus; 2 săe"ri-lē'gus, not 1 sac"ri-le'gious. -ij'us; 2 -le'ŭs.

1 sa-gē'shus; 2 sa-gā'shus, not 1 sasa-ga'cious. gash'us; 2 sa-gash'us. 1 sed, sez; 2 sed, ses, not 1 sed, sez; 2

said, says. sād, sās. sāl'ver. Pronounced with the l, sal'ver.

sal'ver.

same. Often used where similar is the proper word. Sameness is absolute identity; similarity, mere likeness, or relative identity. A gale blowing to-day with a velocity of 60 miles an hour is similar to, but is not the same as, one that blew with a velocity of 60 miles one year ago, although it has the same amount of velocity.

san'guine. 1 san'gwin; 2 săn'gwin, not 1 san'gwoin: 2 săn'gwin

sar"sa-pa-rii'la.

sar"sa-pa-ril'la. 1 sār sa-pa-ril'a; 2 sār sa-pa-ril'a, not 1 sas -; 2 sās -. saw, seen. In popular use, in some regions, often carelessly and inexcusably interchanged. Saw is the imperfect tense of see, and to be used as such only; seen is its past participle, and the form to be used, with the proper auxiliaries, in the tenses formed with the aid of the past participle. Not "I seen him," but "I saw him"; not "I have (or had) never saw it,"

but "I have (or had) never seen it."
say! I say! As an introductory exclamation, a colloquialism approaching a vulgarism.

says I. A colloquial solecism sometimes heard from

even the educated; entirely indefensible. scal'lop. By some arbitrary exception, pronounced

scal'up.
scarce'ly. Often improperly used for hardly. In strict use scarcely has reference to quantity, hardly to degree; as, "It is scarcely an hour to nightfall"; "He will hardly finish his task by nightfall." Scarcely is not properly used as a conjunction; scarcely . . . than. Not "Scarcely had I addressed him than he recognized me," but "No sooner had I addressed him than, etc.

scared. 1 skārd; 2 seard, not 1 skārt; 2 seart.

SCOPE. See PLURAL.

scythe. 1 south; 2 syth, not 1 south; 2 syth. seam'stress. After long attempt to establish the pronunciation sem'stress, most of the leading English dictionaries now pronounce this word as it is spelled. sim'stres.

seck'el (variety of pear). 1 sek'l; 2 sek'l, not 1 sik'l;

2 sĭk'l.

2 sik'l. sel'dom or ev'er. A common vulgarism and solecism. A person may say "I seldom if ever use that word," that is, "I seldom use it, if indeed I ever do so"; or the seldom use it, if indeed I ever do so"; or the seldom use it, if indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use it is indeed I ever do so "; or the seldom use i he may say, using a slightly more emphatic form, "I seldom or never do it," that is, "I do it very seldom at the utmost, or (in my own opinion) probably never.

sep'a-rate. As verb, 1 sep'a-rēt; 2 sep'a-rāt; as adjective, 1 sep'a-rīt; 2 sep'a-rat.

se-que'la. 1 sı-kwi'le; 2 se-kwe'la, not 1 sek'wı-le; 2 sěk′we-la.

ser'pen-tine. 1 sūr'pen-tain or -tin; 2 sēr'pēn-tīn or

set, sit. In strict grammatical usage sit is always intransitive when referring to posture; set, transitive. The uses meaning "to sit on eggs" ("the hen sets") and "to fit" ("the coat sets well or badly") are colloquialisms, especially common in the United States, where many consider it pedantic to use sit in these senses. But literary usage has hardly sanctioned set as thus used, and most authorities hold that it should be employed in this way only colloquially.

sew'age, sew'er-age. Sewerage is the system of sewers, sewage the waste matter carried away in them.

shall, will. Often erroneously interchanged. eral, simple futurity is expressed by shall in the first person and will in the second and third, while determination is expressed by will in the first and shall in

the second and third. In interrogations in the second and third persons the usage is not so simple, the speaker often putting himself in the place of the one spoken to or spoken of, and using shall or will, as if for the first person. For closer discrimination in their use, see SHALL and WILL, in the STANDARD DICTIONARY.

These words follow in the main the shouid. would. usage of shall and will, but with certain modifications required by their common use in dependent sentences. In general, in indirect quotation should is to be used after a historical tense where the speaker quoted employed shall, and would where the speaker quoted employed will. Thus:

| Direct quotation: "He said to me, 'You shall go.'" | Indirect "He said that I should go." | Direct "He said to me, 'Will you go?'"

"He asked me if I would go. Indirect

The mixture of direct and indirect is always wrong;

" He asked me would I go.

A correspondent of a leading New York daily newspaper, himself a well-known editor, writes: "As we have the gold standard established, we would lose have the gold standard established, we would lose thousands of millions and gain nothing by its disestablishment." This statement as it stands expresses a national wish for the loss of this vast sum. It is as if the writer had said in direct statement, "We will lose thousands of millions," i. e., it is our intention to do so. "We shall lose thousands of millions simply states a future fact. This, put into the form of indirect statement, must become should: as, "We should lose thousands of millions," such loss being the invertible result. The necessary latter of such action. inevitable result, the necessary future of such action, though not by our intent or will.

should seem, would seem. The softening of assertion belongs to the amenities of literature. Even secm is sometimes too strong, or, oftener, the writer desires to give his reader an impression of extreme moderation of statement or of the writer's cautious distrust of his own opinion; as, "It would seem that he was misinformed"; "It would seem that so far England and the United States were in accord." This use of would is not exceptional; it is constantly resorted to in softening commands, directions, requests, suggestions, etc.; as, "It would be well to return before sunset"; "Would you object to stopping at the post-office?"

"It would seem so," evidently, thus means some-thing different from "It should seem so" — the latter being used as an inversion in this and other like cases for "It seems that it should be so." A says "I think the writer is in error." B concurs by saying "It should seem so" — meaning "It seems that the facts are such that the writer must be regarded as being in error." Odd as this misplacement of should is, it probably antedates the Elizabethan period. ters that have come into prominence since the middle of the 19th century, it would seem is commoner than it should seem, and if the former should eventually displace it should seem, the phrase substituted would be one that accords with analogy.

Not to be pronounced sr; shrill, 1 shril, not sril; For Keys to Symbols used, see page 8.

2 shril, not sril; shrewd, 1 shrüd, not srüd; 2 shrud, not sryd; shriek, 1 shrik, not srik; 2 shrik, not srik. sight. For a great number or quantity: as, "There was a sight of people"; "He made a sight of money": a

slovenly colloquial use.

since, adv. 1 sins; 2 sinc, not 1 sens; 2 senc. Used in the sense of ago, it refers to quite recent past time, while ago covers past time in general; as, "A messenger was here to see you." "How long since?" or "How long ago?" But if one says, "The Spanish Armada was destroyed off the coast of England, to ask, "How long since?" instead of "How long ago?" would have a grotesque effect, as if the event had happened lately.

Why, sir, I brought you word an hour since.
SHAKESPEARE Comedy of Errors act iv, sc. 3.

"He died a century ago."

sirname. A misspelling of surname.

sieek. 1 slik; 2 slek, not 1 slik; 2 slik.

slough. Three senses and three corresponding pronunciations, 1 slau; 2 sloy; 1 slü; 2 sly; 1 sluf; 2 slüf.

See slough<sup>1</sup>, <sup>2</sup> & <sup>3</sup>, in the Standard Dictionary.

soft'en. Drops the t in pronunciation, 1 sof'n; 2 sof'n; as do all its derivatives. See the Standard Dictionary. so'journ. As meaning to "have a residence, definite

though temporary, in some place that is not one's home ": once obsolescent, but now revived as supplying a lexical blank. Sojourn is incomparably better than the colloquial stop, which may imply merely momentary cessation of motion, and does not properly express even temporary residence; more specific than stay, which may apply to a delay of an hour between trains or the passing of a night. There is no other single English word to express the kind of residence expressed by sojourn.

sold'er. 1 sed'er; 2 sôd'er; the pronunciation 1 sō'dər;
2 sô'der (as if spelled sawder) wholly inadmissible.

sol'e-clsm. 1 sel'1-sizm; 2 sôl'e-clsm, not 1 sô'lə-

sizm; 2 so'le-cism. See construction.
solemn style. So called from its use in prayer. characteristic features are the use of thou, thee, and thy or thine, in reference to the Deity, with archaic inflections of the verb in the second and third person singular; requiring for its mastery and consistent use thorough grammatical training and careful study of the English Bible.

sol'stice. 1 sel'stis; 2 sŏl'stĭç, not 1 sŏl'stis; 2 sŏl'stĭç. some, adv. Used for somewhat; as, "I am some tired," some, adv. is a bad provincialism. The restrictive use of some, with a numeral in the sense of about, is a well-established English idiom, but is unnecessary; as, "Look you bring me in the names of some six or seven. SHAKESPEARE Measure for Measure act ii, sc. 1.

some place. For somewhere, is inadmissible.

PLACE

sort of (vulgarly sorter). See kind of.

Mistaken for sewed, as cloth.

spasm. 1 spazm; 2 späsm, not 1 spaz'um; 2 späs'um. speak to a point, or res"o-iu'tion. Properly, speak on, except when pertinency of remark is intended. spe"ci-al'i-ty, spe'cial-ty. Often confused. Speci-

ality is the state or quality of being special; specialty

is an employment to which one is specially devoted, an article in which one specially deals, or the like.

spe'cies. The same in singular and plural; not singular specie. Specie is a distinct word meaning coin. spir'it. 1 spir'it; 2 spir'it, not 1 sper'it; 2 sper'it.

splen'did. Applied properly to something characterized by splendor; hence, its indiscriminate application to anything admired or agreeable, as "a splendid man," a splendid dinner," a splendid bargain," is a gross misuse. See NICE.

stamp, v. 1 stamp; 2 stamp, not 1 stemp; 2 stamp.
stand'point. Irregularly formed — probably in imitation of the German standpunkt — and sometimes inconsiderately censured as being a superfluous sub-stitute for point of view. That standpoint and point of view are not always interchangeable will be evident of view are not always interchangeable will be evident when the fact is recalled that, in literary usage, point of view has two different senses: (1) The point from which one views. (2) The point or relative place at which something is viewed, giving rise to the two phrases: From this point of view and In this point of view. Furthermore, there is in standpoint, as commonly employed, an implication of some permanence of position as regards the view taken or the opinion held; it is especially applicable to principle, convictives at a sed terminion views. convictions, etc., as determining views. No such implication of permanence attaches to point of view. Lincoln and Douglas argued, in their celebrated debate, from different standpoints: at times each, for the purposes of argument, took the other's point of view. Standpoint, therefore, besides being convenient as a single word, conveys a suggestion not carried by point of view, and, though it is less regular in formation than standing-point, its irregularity is not wholly anomalous.

staves. As plural of staff, pronounced 1 stavz; 2 stavs;

Staves. As plural of staff, pronounced 1 stavs; z stavs; as plural of stave, pronounced 1 stevs; z stavs; as plural of stave, pronounced 1 stevs; z stavs; stead'i-ly. 1 sted'i-l; z stěd'i-ly, not 1 stid'-; z stô'id. stop. I sto'l'id. 2 stô'id. stop. Stop is to cease moving or acting: the reverse of start. "I shall stop at Baltimore on my way to Washington" is correct; but "How long will you stap?" is as unreasonable a question as "How long will you stay (or remain)?" " How long will you stay (or remain)?

The true meaning of the word stop was well understood by the man who did not invite his professed friend to visit him: 'If you come, at any time, within ten miles of my house, just stop. MATHEWS Words, Their Use and Abuse ch. xiv, p. 359.

strat'e-gist. 1 strat'ı-jist; 2 străt'e-gist, not 1 strētī'jist; 2 strā-tē'gist.

strick'en. As a past participle of STRIKE, archaic in England, except when there is an implication in it of misfortune; as, "He was stricken with paralysis." In the United States stricken, in general applications, is not so distinctly archaic, and its use in reference to the erasure of words is very frequent; as, " It is ordered that the words objected to be stricken out. the best literary usage of both countries struck is preferred to stricken when no implication of misfortune is conveyed in it. Stricken is the appropriate parti-

cipial adjective; as, "a stricken man"; "a stricken deer.

stu'pld. 1 stiu'pid; 2 stū'pid, not 1 stū'pid; 2 stu'pid. suc-ceed', vt. The transitive use, "If Providence suc-ceed us in this attempt," is an archaism now almost disused.

suc-ceed' him-self'. In the phrase "elected to suc-ceed himself." This phrase, probably at first used jocosely, is in danger of being adopted under the im-pression that it, is smart. One person succeeds an-

other, or one of his terms of office-holding succeeds his own previous term, but the person no more succeeds himself than he becomes a substitute for himself.

such. Often used where so is the preferable word.
"I never have seen such a man" means "I never have seen a man like that one in appearance or character."
"I never have seen such a tall man" is ambiguous; it may be intended to mean "I never have seen a tall man like this one in appearance or character," in which case the form is allowable; or it may mean "I never have seen so tall a man," in which case it should be so expressed.

such an-oth'er. A frequent error for another such. Never such an one. See AN, in the FUNK such a one. & WAGNALLS STANDARD DICTIONARY.

Ho, such a one! turn aside, sit down here. Ruth iv. 1. sug-gest'. 1 sug-jest'; 2 sŭg-gest, not 1 suj-jest'; 2 sŭġ-ġĕst'.

sum'mons, v. A gross and useless provincialism or colloquialism for summon, which is the established word in legal and literary usage.

su-pe'ri-or. Compare INFERIOR.

sup'ple. I sup'l; 2 sup'l, not I su'pl; 2 su'pl. sure. Not to be used adverbially; not "I'm going sure," but "I'm surely going "; not "Sure enough, that's the same man," but "very surely," or "certainly".

sym'pa-thize with, sym'pa-thy for. The verb sym-pathize takes only with: the noun sympathy, in its secondary sense of commiseration, is often properly followed by for. We have sympathy with one's aspirations, for his distress; the sound man has sympathy for the wounded; the wounded man has sympathy for the wounded; pathy with his fellow sufferers.

### Т

take on. For grieve, scold, etc., like carry on for behave sportively; both may be tolerated as colloquialisms that are popular because of their irrationality, or because they require no discrimination in statement.

take up school. An objectionable local Americanism for begin school: used also intransitively; as, "School took up at 9 o'clock," for "School began," etc.

tal'ent-ed. Has been objected to, first, because formed contrary to English analogy; but we have booted, caped, cultured, leisured, tippled, unprincipled, and many more such analogous forms, and have had some of them for upward of three centuries. Has been objected to, secondly, as based on a false metaphor.

since "a talented man" should mean "a man of talent," i. e., " a man with one talent," while in the parable the man with a single talent was not what is now meant by "a talented man"; but while talent and genius are carefully distinguished (see synonyms of genius, in vocabulary), there is no adjective form corresponding to genius, so that to avoid the use of a paraphrase many of the best English writers, as Burke, Hazlitt, Lamb, De Quincey, Macaulay, and Newman, have used "a talented man" in the sense of "a man of genius," i. e., "a man of talents " in the strict use of the metaphor. Moreover, talented may be regarded as having won a place in the language in Great Britain, as expressing a higher order of ability than clever, as when "a talented writer" is used in-stead of the phrase "a writer of genius"; and in the United States not only as expressing the higher order of ability, but also as avoiding the ambiguity that would result from the colloquial use of clever if the latter word should be substituted for talented.

tap'es-try. 1 tap'es-tri; 2 tăp'ës-try, not 1 tep'es-tri; 2 těp'ës-try, nor 1 tap'stri; 2 tăp'stry, nor 1 tep'stri;

? těp'stry.

ta-ran'tu-la. 1 te-ran'tu-le; 2 ta-răn'tū-la, not 1 tar-an-tiu'le; 2 tăr-ăn-tū'la.
tar-pau'lin. 1 tar-pē'lin; 2 tăr-pa'lin, not 1 tar-

tar-pa'inn. I tur-po'in; 2 tar-pa'inn, not I tur-po'lin; 2 tär-po'lin. teat. 1 tit; 2 tët, not 1 tit; 2 tit. tec'di-ous. 1 ti'di-us; 2 të'di-ŭs, not 1 ti'jus; 2 të'jŭs. tech'y or tetch'y. Not, as commonly supposed, a cor-ruption of touchy, but an independent word in old English: now only provincial or dialectic. "Techy and wayward was thine infancy." SHAKESPEARE K. Richard III. act iv.

Il of. Meaning to "give information concerning":

to be distinguished from tell on

to be distinguished from tett on.

tell on. "To tell on a person," in the sense of "to inform against a person," is used in the Bible (1 Sam. xxvii, 11), but is now mainly heard in the language of children. The loss of it in literary English has not been supplied by any equivalent. "Tell of" has a different meaning.

te-na'clous. 1 ti-nē'shus; 2 te-nā'shus, not 1 ti-

nash'us; 2 të-nash'us.

Requence of. Faulty diction is often the retenses, sequence of. sult of failure to employ the proper sequence of tenses in complex sentences. By what is called the attraction of tenses, the requirement is, as a rule, that the tense of the dependent verb shall be present when that of or the dependent verb shall be present when that of the principal verb is present, and past when that of the principal verb is past. "He says that he is tired" becomes when reported as a past state "He said that he was tired," and could not be "He said that he is tired." "He says that his friend is living becomes "He said that his friend was living"; "He said that his friend was living"; "He said that his friend is living" would be contrary to English salary. English analogy.

If the time of the dependent verb is antecedent to

that of the principal verb, it continues antecedent when the principal verb is carried into the past. "He says that his friend has studied French" becomes "He said that his friend had studied French." So

with will and would, shall and should. The speaker says "I will pay it," "I shall die"; the messenger correctly reports these utterances "He said that he would pay it," "He said that he should die." Compare should.

To the general rule of the attraction of tenses one notable exception is that, when the dependent sentence states a fact that is unchanging or universal, and hence always existing, the present tense is reained in the dependent sentence, even when the action of the principal verb is transferred to the past. "He says that space is infinite" becomes "He said that space is infinite"; "He says that God is good" becomes "He said that God is good." But "He said that God was very bountiful to him" is correct, because that is a fact alleged of a certain limited time. So "He says that God will take care of him," as expressing confidence touching the destiny of one person, rather than a universal truth.

Terp"si-cho-re'an. 1 tūrp"si-ko-rī'an; 2 tērp"si-corē'an, not 1 tūrp"si-kō'rī-an; 2 tērp"si-cō're-an.

ter'ra-pin. 1 ter'e-pin, not tūr'e-pin, nor tar'e-pin; 2 ter'a-pin, not tēr'a-pin, nor tār'a-pin.

tera-pin, not tera-pin, nor tar-pin. than, conj. Has the office of connecting a subordinate proposition, as an adverbial modifier, with an adjective or adverb of comparison in a principal proposition; hence its use is improper where there is no comparison. "No sooner ... than"; but not "hardly ... than," scarcely ... than." The faulty construction is obvious when the words are closely joined, but is readily fallen into by careless writers when there are intervening words or sentences; as, "This is derived from a wholly different source than the other," properly "from the other."

than whom. A phrase objected to by some grammatical critics, in such locutions as "Cromwell, than whom no man was better skilled in artifice"; but shown to be "a quite classic expression." Formerly than was often but not always used as a preposition, and than whom is probably a survival of such usage. The habit of putting a pronoun that ends a sentence in the objective case strengthens the tendency to the prepositional employment of than, and hence the usage in such sentences as "He is older than me," you are taller than him," so common in English literature before the 19th century. Nevertheless, this tendency has been resisted by grammarians, and in the 20th century such phraseology is considered bad English. "Than whom," however, is generally accepted as permissible — probably because the sentence where it occurs can not be mended without reconstruction, and it has abundant literary authority.

that, who, which. In general, that in its relative use may be regarded as restrictive, who or which as coordinating. As thus discriminated, that is often nearly equivalent to such as, and who or which to a conjunctive phrase with and, as, since, or the like.

'I met the boatman who took me across the ferry.' If 'who' is the proper word here, the meaning is 'I met the boatman, and he took me across,' it being supposed that the boatman is known and definite. But if there be

several boatmen, and I wish to indicate one in particular by the circumstance that he had taken me across the ferry, I should use 'that.' ALFRED AYRES The Verbalist p. 202.

"All words that are signs of complex ideas, furnish matter of mistake"; "All words which are signs," etc., which of these expressions is correct? "All words that are," etc., signifies "words such as have this quality of being complex"; "All words which are," etc., may be equivalent to "All words, since they are signs," etc. But the latter statement is not true; hence the sentence is better written "All words that are signs of complex ideas," etc.

are signs of complex ideas," etc.

The following are some of the limitations to the uniform observance of this discrimination of that, as re-

strictive, from who and which.

1. Since who relates to persons only, while that may equally well refer to things, who is used instead of that even in restrictive clauses when the personal element is to be made prominent. "The disciples that constituted the early church" is less vivid than "The disciples who constituted the early church."

2. Since that requires its governing preposition to be placed at the end of the clause, many speakers and writers prefer to substitute which for that in such expressions as "The faith that the martyrs died for," changing it to "The faith for which the martyrs died"—on the ground that the latter form lends itself better to dignity and ease of style. Many, however, pre-

fer the form with that.

3. Since that is not only relative, but also adjective, conjunction and demonstrative, it is often better to avoid an infelicitous accumulation of that's in a sentence, by the use of who or which, or some other expression, in place of that. For "I am told that that man that brought you that message said that" may be substituted "I am told that the man who brought you the message said so."

Special care is needed in substituting either of the coordinating relatives for a restrictive that, since, while the reference of that is almost always to the noun immediately preceding it, the reference of the other words may be to something more remote. In cases of such substitution it often becomes necessary to indicate the exact relation and meaning by the presence or absence of a comma. "All words, which are signs of complex ideas," can only be understood to mean that all words are signs of complex ideas. "Avoid the society of men that are selfish and cruel" means of such men as are," etc. "Avoid the companionship of men who are selfish and cruel" may be said with the same meaning; but "Avoid the society of men, who are selfish and cruel," can only mean that men as a class are selfish and cruel and should be shunned.

In the course of editing the Greek text of the New Testament, I believe I have destroyed more than a thousand commas, which prevented the text being properly understood.

Alford The Queen's English, ch. iv, par. 192, p. 74.

This can mean nothing else than that the "destruction" of "commas" prevented the correct

understanding of the text of the New Testament lamentable result. If the comma were omitted after the word commas it might be inferred that the "commas destroyed "were what" prevented the text being properly understood." But a better statement, free from all ambiguity, would be "commas that prevented the proper understanding of the text.

1 thī'a-tar; 2 thē'a-tēr, not 1 thī-ē'tar; 2 the'a-ter. thē-ā'tēr.

these kind, those sort, etc. As of fruits or anything else, an inexcusable vulgarism.

they, their, them, etc. Erroneously used in such expressions as " If any one has lost a penknife, they may apply to the janitor." See PLURAL and CONSTRUC-TION.

this. Allowable before a collective expression; as, "this

ten years.

this, that, or these, those. In the sense of former and latter: archaic, but, if used, this, these, should refer to the latter of the two things mentioned; that, those, to the former.

non. Pronoun of the 3d person, common gender, meaning "that one, he, she, or it": a neoterism proposed by Charles Crozat Converse, and apparently complying with the neoteristic canons, since it supplies an antecedent blank, obeys an obvious analogy, and is euphonious. See STANDARD DICTIONARY.

thou'sand. 1 thau'zend; 2 thou'sand, not 1 thau'zen;

2 thou an.

through. "The speaker when through was cheered to
the echo"; rather, "when he had finished." "I am
through," meaning "I have finished eating," or "I
have dined," is a vulgarism.

tick'lish. 1 tik'hsh; 2 tik'lish, not 1 tik'l-ish; 2

tĭk'l-ĭsh.

till. In some parts of the United States oddly misused for by: as, "I'll be there till [by] ten o'clock."

ti'ny. 1 tai'ni; 2 tī'ny, not 1 tī'ni; 2 tī'ny, nor 1 tin'i; 2 tin'y.

As a sign of the infinitive, to not to be separated (save in exceptional cases) from its verb by any intervening word or phrase; as, "to go immediately."

to immediately go.

Strong censure of the " cleft or split infinitive " (infinitive in which to is separated from the verb) has been expressed by grammatical critics; but while it must be admitted that its employment is a blemish, it is to be noticed that its occurrence in good literature is frequent. Briefly, then, one may say that its use is in general to be avoided, but that it is permissible where ambiguity of sense or complexity of structure would result from using the infinitive in its regular form.

An adverb is often suitably put before the to instead of after the verb it qualifies; but this arrangement is open to the objection that it sometimes permits uncertainty as to the word qualified by the

The indication of an infinitive by to without the actual expression of the verb to which it belongs is a colloquialism pardonable in conversation, but unsuit-

able to writing that is not intended to be colloquial in style.

But don't [said Lady Holmhurst], if you don't wish to, ou know

you know. H. Rider Haggard Mr. Meeson's Will ch. 5, p. 61. [H. '88.] trans-act'. 1 trans-[or tranz-]akt'; 2 trăns-[or trănş-]ăet'. trans'mi-grate. 1 trans'mi-gret; 2 trăns'mi-grat, not 1 trans-mai'gret; 2 trăns-mi'grat.

tran-spire'. Often misused, especially in carelessly edited newspapers, for occur or happen, as in "Comments on the heart-rending disaster that transpired yesterday are superfluous, but," etc. A thing that yesterday are supernuous, but, etc. thing that occurred a year ago may not transpire until to-day. For a criticism of this misuse of transpire, see a quotation from J. S. Mill under transpire, in Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary.

trav'el-er. 1 trav'el-er; 2 trav'el-er, not 1 trav'ler; 2

1 tri-men'dus; 2 tre-men'dus, not 1

tre-men'dous. 1 tri-men' tri-men'jus; 2 tre-men'jus.

trod'den, trod. In prose, trodden as a perfect participle is much better than trod. "You have trodden [not trod] on my foot." In poetry, the participle trod is not uncommon.

They should have trod me into clay.

TENNYSON Ballad of Origna st. 7.

truths. 1 trūths; 2 truths, not 1 trūthz; 2 truths.
tube. 1 tiub; 2 tūb, not 1 tūb; 2 tūb.
Tues'day. 1 tiuz'di; 2 tūg'da, not 1 tūz'di; 2 tūg'da,
nor 1 chius'di; 2 chūs'da.
tur'bine. 1 tūr'bin or -bain: 2 tūr'bin or -bin, not 1
tūr'bin; 2 tūr'bin.

tur'nip. 1 tur'nip; 2 tar'nip, not 1 tur'nup; 2 tar'nup. ty'phus. 1 tai'fus; 2 tỹ'fus, not 1 tai'pus; 2 tỹ'pus. tyr'an-ny. 1 tir'o-ni; 2 tyr'a-ny, not 1 tai'ro-ni; 2 tỹ'ra-ny.

ug'ly. In England the prominent meaning is "ill-looking or unsightly," the opposite of beautiful; in the United States it is used both of men and beasts in the sense of "vicious, ill-natured, and dangerous." "Drink makes that man ugly"; "That horse has an ugly eye." In the latter use the word is liable to a misapprehension of its meaning, unless its relation to temper or disposition is either expressed or readily implied; as, "She had an ugly face." Had she a face indicative of bad temper, or a face not beautiful?

ul"tra-mon'tane. 1 ul 'tro-mon'tēn; 2 ŭl 'tra-mon'
tān, not 1 -mon-tēn'; 2 -mon-tān'.

um-brel'la. 1 um-brel'a; 2 um-brel'a, not 1 um'-brel-a; 2 um'brel-a, nor 1 um-bre-el'a; 2 um-ber-el'a.
un-. In the use of words beginning with un- as expressive of negation, care must be taken not to join them in the same construction with antecedent negatives. The following incorrect sentence recently appeared in a New York newspaper: "The policy of the company was announced in no unmistakable language." "No unmistakable language." is, of course,

" mistakable (or ambiguous) language " --- the reverse of what the writer of the sentence meant to say.

un"be-known'. An obsolete or provincial colloquialism, even ignored by some dictionaries. Unbeknownst is its vulgar variant.

un-civ'il. 1 un-siv'ıl; 2 ŭn-civ'il, not 1 un-siv'l; 2 ŭn-çĭv'l.

un-com'mon. Incorrectly used instead of the adverb uncommonly, in the sense of " to an unusual degree or extremely "; as, " Her eyes are uncommon beautiful." un-con'scion-a-ble. An adjective used for the ad-

verb unconscionably: a bad provincialism. times vulgarly misused as a synonym of uncommonly; as, " She is an unconscionable handsome girl.

un"der-hand'ed. Has been characterized as a loose use of underhand, but common usage has almost legitimes and the state of mated it, although the best writers still prefer under-

un'der one's sig'na-ture. See OVER HIS SIGNATURE. un"der-stand'. Colloquially misused as an expletive with interrogatory inflection, as a contraction of do you understand? and often with decidedly objectionable iteration, as if one should say: "Grammar, understand, is the science that treats of the principles, understand, that govern the correct use of language, etc. See is also misused in the same manner.

un'der way, un'der weigh. Distinguish between these terms. Consult the New STANDARD DICTIONARY.

unemphatic words. The use of an unemphatic word or words at the close of a statement or declaration seriously weakens the force; as, "His letters show how honorable in all his purposes he was." See con-STRUCTION.

un"fre-quent'ed. 1 un'fri-kwent'ad: ŭn"frekwent'ed, not 1 un-frī'kwent-ed; 2 un-frē'kwent-ed.

u-nique'. An adjective frequently perverted, as denoting a degree of strangeness or oddity instead of indicating an object as the only one of its kind, which is the sole proper sense of the word. We may say quite unique if we mean absolutely singular or without parallel, but we can not properly say very unique. . This word has been nonsensically used as a synonym of beautiful.

n-learn'ed. 1 un-lūrn'ed; 2 ŭn-lērn'ed, in poetic use sometimes 1 un-lūrnd; 2 ŭn-lērnd. un-learn'ed.

un-prec'e-dent-ed. n-prec'e-dent-ed. 1 vn-pres'i-dent-ed; 2 ŭn-prec'e-dent-ed, not 1 vn-pri'si-dent'ed; 2 ŭn-pre'cedent'ed, nor 1 un-pri-si'dent-ed; 2 un-pre-ce'dent-ed. 1 un-we'rı; 2 un-wa'ry, not 1 un-war'ı; 2 un-wa'ry.

un-war'y.

up. While the adverb up is often purely a redundance, usage has sanctioned it in many cases where rigid style might object to its appearance. Up as indicating completeness or emphasis should be discriminated from the redundant up. In open up, if the sense is that of the mere entrance upon or beginning of something, up is pleonastic; as, "He opened up his speech with a story." But if the meaning is that of more or ster always opened up a subject ";" The Aspen mines have been generally opened up." See UP, in FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.

up-on'. Often used for on in such phrases as "call upon," whether meaning visit or sum:non, and "speak (or write) upon." The reasonable tendency now is to use the simpler on whenever the idea of superposition is not involved.

ur-ban'i-ty. 1 ūr-ban'i-ti; 2 ûr-băn'i-ty, not 1 urbē'nı-tı; 2 ûr-bā'ni-ty.

u're-a. 1 yū'rī-a; 2 yu're-a, not 1 yū-rī'a; 2 yu-rē'a. used. 1 yūzd; 2 yuşd, not 1 yūst; 2 yuşt. use to. The word used is often improperly shortened to use, and is so employed in such phrases as "I use to be," "He use to go," etc.

u'su-al-iy. 1 yū'zu-əl-ı; 2 yu'zhu-al-y, not 1 yū'zəl-ı; 2 yu'zhəl-y.

u-surp'. ľ yū-zūrp'; 2 yu-şûrp', not 1 yū-sūrp'; 2

yu-sûrp'.

t'ter. The adjectival use of utter in any but an unut'ter. sense; utter discord, but not utter harmony; utter darkness, but not utter light. The adverb ut'ter-ly is subject to the same rule. It may be said of a man that he is utterly vicious, but not that he is utterly good.

vac'ci-nate. 1 vak'sı-nēt; 2 văc'çi-nāt, not 1 vas'ınēt; 2 văç'i-nāt.

va-ga'ry. 1 va-gē'rı; 2 va-gā'ry, not 1 vē'gar-ı; 2 vā'ga-ry

vai'u-a-ble. al'u-a-ble. 1 val'yu-a-bl; 2 văl'yu-a-bl, not 1 val'yu-bl; 2 văl'yu-bl. Properly used only of things that have monetary worth or that possess a precious or useful character or quality, but sometimes improperly extended in colloquial use to persons and used instead of valued; as, "We have lost a valuable friend." "One of our most valued contributors has sent us several valuable articles" is correct. Transposition of the

adjectives would make the sentence faulty.
va-mose'. This verb, although it has a pseudo-classical

etymology, is ranked as slang.

va'ri-e-gate. 1 vë'ri-rgët; 2 vä'ri-e-gāt, not 1 ve-rui'-gët; 2 vä'ri-gāt.

va-ri'o-la. 1 ve-rui'o-le; 2 va-ri'o-la, not 1 vë'ri-jāt. 2 vā'ri-ō'la.

vaude'vilie. 1 vod'vil; 2 vod'vil, not 1 vod'vil; 2 vôďvĭl.

ve'he-ment. 1 vl'h1-[or -1-]ment; 2 ve'he-[or -e-]-

ment, not 1 vi-hi'ment; 2 ve-he'ment. ve'nal and ve'ni-al. Careless and ignorant writers sometimes confound these adjectives. Theft on the part of a starving man is a venial sin, but the act is not venal: embezzlement by a bank cashier is venal, but not venial.

ven'i-son. 1 ven'i-zon or ven'zon; 2 ven'i-son, or ven-son, not 1 ven'i-son; 2 ven'i-son, nor 1 ven'son;

2 věn'son.

ven'ti-late. Care must be taken in the metaphorical use of this verb not to apply it directly to persons; in such application it is slang. It is properly applicable to facts, motives, opinions, etc., and permissible only in the sense of exposing or giving publicity to; as, to

ventilate a public abuse, a criminal purpose, or a silly

ve-rac'i-ty. Said only of persons or their statements. not of facts, while truth is applicable to both persons and facts. It would be incorrect to speak of the veracity of anything that has been done or has come to pass. A man is or is not considered a person of veracity; a story is or is not true. "A man of truth and veracity" is a pleonastic expression. See synonyms under veracity, in New Standard Dictionary.

ver-bos'i-ty. 1 var-bos'i-ti; 2 ver-bŏs'i-ty, not 1 var-

bős'ı-tı; 2 ver-bős'i-ty.

Primarily a single line of poetry; often questionably extended to apply to a connected series of lines, as a stanza; "The congregation will sing the 103d hymn, omitting the second and third rerses (stanzas)." Some grammarians of high standing, as Professor W. D. Whitney, advocate the use of verse instead of stanza.

ver'sion. 1 vūr'shən; 2 vēr'shon, not 1 vūr'zən; 2

vēr'zhon. ver'y. An adverb that from the grammarian's point of view properly qualifies a participle only when the latter is used merely as an adjective; as, very tired; very pleasing. The grammatical critics accordingly object to such expressions as very pleased, very dis-satisfied, or very hated. It must be said, however, that, although it may be better grammar to interpose an adverb; as, very much pleased, very greatly dis-satisfied, or very bitterly hated; yet this use of very has been good English for centuries.

vet'er-i-na-ry. 1 vet'ar-i-nē-ri; 2 vět'er-i-nā-ry, not 1 vet'rin-ē-ri; 2 vět'rin-ā-ry, nor 1 vet'ın-ē-ri; 2

vět'in-ā-ry.

vic'ar. 1 vik'er; 2 vic'ar, not 1 vai'ker; 2 vi'ear.

vic'to-ry. 1 vik'to-ri; 2 vic'to-ry, not 1 vik'ta-ri; 2 vle'to-ry, nor 1 vik'trı; 2 vle'try

vin'di-ca-to"ry. 1 vin'di-ka-to"ri; 2 vin'di-ca-to"ry,

not 1 vin-dik'a-to-ri; 2 vin-die'a-to-ry.

vi"o-lin-cel'lo. A corruption of violoncello. vir'u-lent. 1 vir'u-lent; 2 vir'u-lent, not 1 vur'u-lent;

2 vir'u-lënt. is'count". 1 vai'kaunt; 2 vi'count, not 1 vis'kaunt; vis'count".

vi 'ri-ol. 1 vit'rı-ol; 2 vit'ri-ol, not 1 vit'rəl; 2 vit'rol. viz'or. 1 viz'or; 2 viz'or, not 1 vai'zər; 2 viz'or. vol-ca'no. 1 vol-kē'no; 2 völ-cā'no. Fitzedward Hall says (Modern English, p. 319): "The pronunciation of volcano with the Italian a [1 vel-kā'no; 2 vol-ca'nol is a sort of shibboleth of the English nobility."

vol'un-ta-ri-iy. 1 vol'un-tē-ri-li; 2 vŏl'ŭn-tā-ri-ly, not 1 vel-un-të'ri-li; 2 vŏl-ŭn-tā'ri-ly.

waft. 1 waft; 2 waft, not 1 waft; 2 waft. waist'coat. 1 west'köt or wes'kst; 2 wast'cot or wĕs'eot.

wan'der-ing. 1 wan'der-in; 2 wän'der-ing, not 1 wan'drın: 2 wän'dring.

- wa'n't. A contraction of was not, or improperly of were not; as, "He wa'n't (or they wa'n't) at home": a common vulgarism.

- common vulgarism.
  wasp. 1 wesp, not wesp; 2 wasp, not wasp.
  wa'ter. 1 we'ter; 2 wa'ter, not 1 we'ter; 2 we'ter.
  ways, for way. In the sense of "space or distance,"
  the erroneous form ways, for way, is often used colloquially, perhaps originally through confusion with the
  suffix -ways: as, "The church is a long ways from
  here," which should be "The church is a long way,"
- e. The "editorial we" is occasionally misused, as when an editor writes "We asked the advice of our wife." In such case the writer should not use the pronoun we, but should allude to himself as in the third person, "He asked the advice of his wife." It would be proper to say, "Our editor (or the editor) asked the advice of his wife.
- weap'on. 1 wep'en; 2 wep'on, not 1 wip'en; 2 wep'on. Wednes'day. 1 wenz'dı; 2 wenş'da, not 1 wed'nəs-dı; 2 wěd'nes-da.
- The imperfect went is often vulgarly went for gone. used for the past participle gone in conjunction with the verb have: as, " I have went there many times," instead of "I have gone," etc.
- whack, what, which, etc. Pronounced hwac, hwet, hwich, etc.; not wac, wet, wich, etc. The English are especially lax in the pronunciation of such words as these, almost uniformly dropping the initial h sound, while many Americans err by making the aspirate too sharply prominent. The h sound should be distinct, but not too conspicuous.
- wharf. Either wharfs or wharves is correct as the plural of wharf. By extension, wharf is sometimes erroneously used in the sense of dock. See DOCK, in FUNK & WAGNALLS NEW STANDARD DICTIONARY.
- where. The preposition to or at must never end a sentence beginning with this interrogative. Examples of such vulgar redundance are: "Where has he gone to?" "Where was I at?" where.
- wheth'er or no. A phrase that has by usage been legitimated, though whether or not is more strictly correct.
- which, who, that. The use of these words must be confined to the antecedent clause or phrase, and care must be taken to have such antecedent perfectly clear. For the general principles, see CONSTRUCTION. For the use of who, which, and that in relative clauses, see that. Compare also who, which, and that, in Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary. who. Improperly for whom; as, "Who do you refer to?" In all such instances if the words are transposed
  - the impropriety becomes obvious.
- whole of. A phrase not to be used for whole or entire before a plural noun; as, "The whole of the (rather the entire) audience rose and cheered." Nor can whole of be substituted for all: as, "The whole of the conspirators were caught," which should read "All the conspirators were caught.
- whose. The use of whose, the possessive of who, in place of the phrase of which, is now considered good

style. Instead of "Poetry, the chief purpose of which is to exalt the beautiful" we can correctly say "Poetry, whose chief purpose," etc.
wld'owwom'an. An obsolete or provincial expression,

now a pleonasm, the word widow now always signify-

ing a woman.

wind. The noun wind is pronounced with the short i, except in poetry, where it sometimes legitimately takes the long i (ai), to rime with mind, kind, etc.

with-out. Not to be used as a conjunction for unless or except. "I'll come without it rains" is incorrect for "I'll come unless it rains." Without has the disadvantage of occurring as three parts of speech with a perplexing variety of meanings.

Witness. A verb sometimes misused as a synonym of

see. We can witness an assault, a murder, a theft, a sunrise, anything that is of the nature of an event or

is subject to change - but not a thing - not a river, a house, a fire, or a star.

wom'an. See LADY.

worse. An adverb sometimes used for more: as, "He dislikes tea worse than coffee": a vulgarism.

worst kind. For much or extremely: as. "I need (or want) a new pen the worst kind ": a vulgarism, besides equivocally suggesting " the worst kind of a pen." wres'tle. 1 res'l; 2 res'l, not 1 rest'l; 2 rest'l.

In y-cleped, and other old words, has only the sound of i short as in tin.

yacht. Pronounced yet, not yat.

yel'low. I yel'o; 2 yêl'o, not 1 yel'a; 2 yêl'êr.
yolk. 1 yök or yölk; 2 yök or yölk, not 1 yelk; 2 yêlk.
yon'der. 1 yen'der; 2 yön'der, not 1 yen'der; 2 yên'der, nor 1 yen'der; 2 yên'der.
you. Even when used in relation to one person, is still

grammatically plural, always requiring the plural verb; as, "You were fortunate," not "You was fortunate"; "If you were to curse you would sin," not "If

you was to curse," etc. See TENSES.
you and I, you or I. Phrases in which the objective pronoun me and the first personal pronoun I are often confused; as, "This will not do for you and I," in-stead of "This will not do for you and me." The rule is very simple, viz. use I or me in such connection just as if the words "you and" or "you or" were omitted. "They were not citizens as (you and) I"; "He is not so tall as (you or) I."

youths. 1 yûths; 2 yuths, not 1 yûthz; 2 yuths.

zeal'ot. 1 zel'ət; 2 zel'ot. not 1 zel'ət; 2 zel'ot. zeug'ma. Is the joining of two or more words (as nouns) to a third (as a verb) with which only one or a part of them can be made to agree except by using the nouns in different senses, or by taking the verb in

different senses in relation to the different nouns, or by letting the underlying logical relation overrule the grammatical — in Greek a very common figure, but in English quite unusual and ordinarily a violation of the principles of construction and a grave fault in diction. (See CONSTRUCTION; also ZEUGMA, in New STANDARD DICTIONARY.) "The control, as well as the support, which a father exercises over his family support, which as a providence methods with dearn." were, by the dispensation of Providence, withdrawn'; control is properly exercised, but support is not; the control is properly exercises, our support is not, the verb-form were is made plural to accord, not with the grammatical relation of control and support, but with the logical relation underlying as well as regarded as equivalent to and.

equivalent to ana.

zine'ie. 1 zink'ik; 2 zine'ie, not 1 zin'ik; 2 zin'ie.

zo-di'a-cal. 1 zo-dai'a-kal; 2 zo-di'a-cal. not 1 zō'di-ak-al; 2 zō'di-ae-al.

zo''o-log'ic-al. 1 zō'o-log'i-kal; 2 zō'o-lòg'i-cal, not 1

zū'o-log'i-kal; 2 zu'o-lòg'i-cal.

zo-ol'o-gy. 1 zo-ol'o-jı; 2 zo-ol'o-gy, not 1 zū-ol'o-jı; 2 zu-ol'o-gy. These and other words with the same first element are in many instances oddly pronounced 1 zū-el'o-jī; 2 zu-ŏl'o-gy, 1 zū'o-fait; 2 zu'o-fÿt, etc. a mistake that begot Zoo as the abbreviation in England for the Zoological Gardens.



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