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RUSSELL P. SEBOLD
A FRENCH GRAMMAR;
OR,
PLAIN INSTRUCTIONS
FOR THE
LEARNING OF FRENCH.
IN A SERIES OF LETTERS.

BY WILLIAM COBBETT.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENTS.</th>
<th>Paragraph</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Of the utility of learning French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Of the way of going to work and of proceed-</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ing in the learning of French</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Of language and of grammar generally, and</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the different branches, or divisions, of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Etymology generally. The different parts</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of speech, the different sorts of words</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Etymology of Articles</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Etymology of Nouns</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns considered as Proper and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Genders of Nouns</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Numbers of Nouns</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Articles as affecting Nouns 77 to 83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. Etymology of Pronouns</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Pronouns</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive Pronouns</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative Pronouns</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative Pronouns</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminate Pronouns</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII. Etymology of Adjectives</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their Genders</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their Numbers</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their Degrees of Comparison</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX. Etymology of Verbs</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Persons</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Times</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Modes</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Participle</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjugation of the verb &quot;avoir&quot;</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb &quot;avoir&quot; conjugated and explained</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb &quot;er&quot; conjugated and explained</td>
<td>ib.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflected verbs explained</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound times with &quot;er&quot; and &quot;voir&quot;</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal Verbs</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My dear little Son,

1. Before we set about learning any thing, be it what it may, it is right that we ascertain the thing to be such as is likely to be useful to us; and it is but reasonable that the usefulness should, in point of magnitude, bear a just proportion to the expense, whether of money or of time, demanded by the task which we are going to encounter. If I did not think the French language a thing of this character, I certainly should not wish you to learn it. But a very little reflection will convince you, that it is a branch of learning, which, in the present age, stands, in the scale of importance, next after that of our native language.

2. It would be tedious, my dear Richard, to enumerate all the reasons for learning French: but, when I tell you, that the laws of England were, for several centuries, written and administered in French; that some of the present statutes stand in that language; that a great part of the law terms in use at this day, are also French; were I to tell you only this, you would, I hope, see a motive

1*
more than sufficient to induce you to undertake
the learning of this language; especially when you
find that I have done all in my power to render the
undertaking easy and pleasant.

3. There are, however, many other motives of
equal, and some, perhaps, of greater weight. The
French language is the language of all the courts of
Europe. The cause of this is of no consequence:
the fact is all that we have to do with here; and
that is undeniable. Then observe, that, though
each of the great nations of Europe generally in-
sists, that the treaties, to which it is a party, shall be
in its own language, or in Latin; yet, the French
is, in spite of all the efforts that have been made to
prevent it, the universal language of negotiations.
Few, indeed, comparatively speaking, are the per-
sons employed in this way; but, the instances, in
which, for purposes connected with war, or with
foreign commerce, it is necessary to be master of
the French language, are by no means few, or of
little importance.

4. In the carrying on of trade, and in the affairs
of merchants, it is frequently absolutely neces-
sary to be able to speak and to write French. A young
man, whether in trade of wholesale or of retail, and,
especially in the counting-house of a merchant, is
worth a great deal more when he possesses the
French language, than when he does not. To
travel on the continent of Europe without being
able to speak French, is to be, during such travell-
ing, a sort of Deaf and Dumb person. Humilia-
tion and mortification greater than this it is hardly
possible to imagine; and these will be by no means
diminished by the reflection, that we owe them to
our own want of attention and industry.

5. Though many of the French books are trans-
lated into English, the far greater part are not;
and, in every branch of knowledge, great indeed is
the number of those books which it may be useful
to read. But, were there only the pain arising
from the want of a knowledge of French, when we
fall into a company, where we hear one of our own
nation conversing with a Frenchman, this alone
ought to be more than sufficient to urge a young
person on to the study. I remember a young lady,
in Long Island, who had been out on a visit to a
house where one of the company happened to be a
French lady who could not speak English, and
where a young American lady had been interpre-
tress between this foreigner and the rest of the com-
pany; and I shall never forget the manner in which
the first mentioned young lady expressed the sense
of her humiliation: “I never, before,” said she, “in
all my life, felt envy: but, there was Miss —, first
turning to the right and then to the left, and, at
each turn, changing her language; and there sat I
like a post, feeling myself more her inferior than
I can describe.”

6. It is really thus. This talent gives, in such
cases, not only an air of superiority, but also a rea-
sonable and just claim to real superiority; because
it must be manifest to every one, that it is the effect
of attention and of industry, as well as of good nat-
ural capacity of mind. It is not a thing like dancing
or singing, perfection in the former of which is
most likely to arise from an accidental pliancy of
the limbs, and in the latter, from an organization
of the throat and lungs, not less accidental: it is
not a thing of this sort, but a thing, the possession
of which necessarily implies considerable powers
of mind, and a meritorious application of those
powers. Besides these considerations, there is this:
that by learning French well, you will really be-
come more thoroughly acquainted with your own
language. If Dr. Johnson had known the French
language, he could not have scarcely committed
any of those numerous blunders (relating to words
from the French) which are contained in his Dic-
tionary, and of which I will here give you a speci-
men. He has this passage: “RABBIT: a joint
made by paring two pieces of wood, so that they
wrap over one another.” Then, the verb he has
thus: "To rabbet: to pare down two pieces of wood so as to fit one another." The Doctor meant "to make them fit one another." But to our point: The Doctor says, that to rabbet comes from the French verb rabbatre, which means to bate, or abate, to bring down. So, says the Doctor, to rabbet comes from rabbatre; for, the wood is brought down by the carpenter's tool! What! Doctor? to bate, abate, the wood! This is far-fetched indeed. Now, if the Doctor had known French only tolerably well, he would have known that rabot is a carpenter's plane; that raboter is to plane wood with a carpenter's plane; and that boards fitted together by means of the plane, and not by means of the saw, the chisel, or other tools, are boards rabotés, or, in English, raboted. How plain is all this! And how clear it is, that we have here got a piece of nonsense in our language, because Dr. Johnson did not know French!

7. Having now spoken of the motives to the learning of French, I shall, in the next Letter, speak of the way to go to work, and how to proceed in order to accomplish the object. Before, however, I proceed farther, let me explain to you the meaning of the numerical figures which I have used here, from 1 to 7. Each of the portions of writing, distinguished by these figures respectively, is called a paragraph; and, as you, in the course of the letters I am addressing to you, will find yourself frequently directed to look at parts of them, other than the part which you are then reading, you will more quickly find the thing which you want, by being referred to the paragraph, than you would, if you were referred to the page.

8. The hope which I entertain of seeing you write, and of hearing you speak French correctly, is, I am sure, equalled by the desire which you have not to disappoint that hope. My dear little son, I beg you to remember, that to succeed in an undertaking like this requires great assiduity and perseverance; but, remember also, that nothing is justly gained without labour of some sort or other; and, bear constantly in mind, that, in proportion to your increase in knowledge and talent, will be the increase of the satisfaction of your affectionate father,

Kensington, 17th June, 1824.

[Letter II]

OF THE UTILITY

OF LEARNING FRENCH.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

9. It is not sufficient that the thing we seek to gain is useful in its nature; nor is it sufficient, that, in addition to this, we are assiduous and persevering in the pursuit of it: we must go the right way to work, set out and go on in the right path; or our labour, if not wholly lost, will be, in great part, at least, spent in vain.

10. Parents innumerable well know, that young people of good capacity frequently spend year after year in what is called learning French; and that, at the end of the time, they really know very little of the matter. Out of a thousand of those who are usually, at the schools, denominated "French Scholars," there are, perhaps, not twenty who ever become able to write a letter or to hold a conversation in French. How did it happen, then, that I, who had evcry disadvantage to make head against; who began to study French in the woods of North America, in 1791; who crossed the Atlantic ocean twice between that year and 1798; how did it happen, that I, who had never had a master to assist me but one single month in 1792, should, in 1793, write and publish, in the French language, a Grammar for the teaching of French people English; which Grammar, first published at Philadelphia, found its way to France, and has long been, for the
purpose for which it was intended, in general use throughout all the countries of Europe?

11. True, I was very assiduous, very persevering (as I trust you will be), and I had also good natural capacity: but, my firm belief is, that in these respects, I did not exceed any one of thousands upon thousands, who, after years of expense to their parents and of torment to themselves, give up the pursuit in disgust, from perceiving that they have really learnt nothing that is worthy of being called French. Nor is this result at all surprising, when we come to look into the books called "French Grammars," where we find such a mass of confusion, that the wonder is, not that so few persons learn French, but that it is ever learnt by any one at all.

12. I found it necessary to make a sort of Grammar for myself; to write down the principles and rules as I went on; to pick my way along by means of the Dictionary; to get over the difficulties by mere dint of labour. When I afterwards came to teach the English language to French people in Philadelphia, I found that none of the Grammars, then to be had, were of much use to me. I found them so defective, that I wrote down instructions and gave them to my scholars in manuscript. At the end of a few months, this became too troublesome; and these manuscript instructions assumed the shape of a Grammar in print, the copy-right of which I sold to Thomas Bradford, a bookseller of Philadelphia, for a hundred dollars, or, twenty-two pounds, eleven shillings and sixpence; which Grammar, under the title of *Maitre d'Anglois,* is, as I have just observed, now in general use all over Europe.

13. The great fault of all the French Grammars, that I have met with, is that which, as, Mr. Tull tells us, Lord Bacon found in the books on farming and gardening; namely, that they contain no principles: or, in other words, that they give us no reasons for our doing that which they tell us we must do. Indeed, these Grammars are, as far as my observation has gone, little more than masses of *rules of vocabularies,* and of *tables,* things heaped together, apparently, for the express purpose of loading the memory and of creating disgust. These Grammars take the scholar into the subject without any preparation; they give him no clear description, or account, of the thing which he is going to learn; their manner of going from one topic to another, is so abrupt, that all is unconnected in the mind of the scholar; they seldom, or ever, give him any reason for anything that he is instructed to do; they never explain to him that which he does not understand by that which he does understand; and, in short, they are of very little use to either master or scholar.

14. In the Grammar, which I am now writing for you, I shall endeavour to make the undertaking as little wearisome as possible. But, even here, I should observe to you, that a foreign language is a thing not to be learned without labour, and a great deal of labour, too. It is a valuable acquisition; and there must be value given for it. It is a thing to be purchased only with labour, and the greater part of that labour must be performed by the scholar.

15. I have to perform the double task of teaching you Grammar, and of teaching you French. If you knew your own language grammatically, the undertaking would be much easier for me and much easier for you; but, let it be remembered, that, in proportion to the greatness of the difficulty, is the merit which justice awards to success. I have adopted the epistolary form, that is, I write in the form of Letters, for the sake of plainness, and, at the same time, for the sake of obtaining and securing your attention. We are naturally more attentive to that which is addressed to us, than we are to that which reaches our ear or our eye as mere unpointed observation. You do not yet know what it is that grammarians call *impersonal verbs,* but, in giving instructions, the impersonal mode of speaking must be less forcible, as well as less clear than the personal.
"You must take care," is a very different thing from "care must be taken;" or, it has, at any rate, a very different effect upon the reader.

16. The manner in which I propose to proceed in the teaching of you, is this: First, I shall, in Letter III., explain to you what Grammar is, what is the meaning of the word. I shall, then, in Letter IV., teach you what are the different parts of speech, or sorts of words. I shall treat of the nature and use of each of these sorts of words, or parts of speech; and, at every stage, I shall show you, in the plainest manner that I am able, the difference between your own language and the French language; for, this it is that you want to learn; to be able to say in the latter that which you are able to say in the former. That part of Grammar which distinguishes one part of speech from another, which treats of the relationship of words, and which shows how, and under what circumstances, and for what purposes they change their form; this part of Grammar, is called Etymology. When, therefore, I shall, in Letters from V. to XII., inclusive, have gone through the Etymology of all the parts of speech, taking care to keep constantly before you the difference between the French and English languages, I shall, in Letter XIII., give you some Exercises in order to fix firmly in your memory the nature and properties of each of the parts of speech. I shall next go to the Syntax, or the putting of words into sentences. But, before I do this, I shall stop you a little to learn the Genders of Nouns, and the Conjugations of Verbs. To introduce this great mass of matter at an earlier period would cause such great interruptions, that your study of Etymology would be broken into parcels, separated by chasms much too wide. Yet this mass of matter must not be passed over; it must be encountered and mastered before you proceed to the Syntax. This matter will be the subject of Letter XIV.; and, then, from Letter XV. to Letter XXVIII., both inclusive, I shall give you the Syntax; or, as I described it before, that part of Grammar, which teaches us how to put words into sentences. Here also I shall take the parts of speech one by one, from the Article to the Conjunction; and, at the end of my observations and rules relative to each, I shall give you an Exercise; that is to say, a list or sentences, each of which will contain some word, or words, bringing into practice the rules and instructions just given you. These Exercises will consist of English sentences to be put into French; for, as putting French into English, you will do that pretty well by the time that you get to Letter XIII. To put the English into French will be no easy matter; but, then, I shall lead you along so gradually, the sentences will be so short and so simple at first, and from the first exercise to the twentieth (for there will be twenty), I shall make the previous one so effectually smooth the way to its successor, that, I hope, you will find no difficulties that steady application will not quickly overcome. In the framing of these Exercises I have not (as most other grammarians have done) put part of the French under the English. In my Grammar (called Maitres du Francais) I did this in compliance with fashion. But, experience has taught me, that the best way is, to give the English only, to let the scholar put the whole of the French as well as he can, and then, that he may be able to see whether he has made good French or not, to give him a complete translation of each Exercise at the end of the Grammar. This is the method that I shall pursue. I shall avoid Notes, and every other thing calculated to draw off, or to enfeeble, your attention. I shall not tease you with Exceptions beyond what utility demands. I shall not call you off from a rule to read a note of half a page on exceptions relating to words which you might, perhaps, never see in use four times in your life. I shall leave these things to those persons who are fond of curiosities; and shall be content to assist you in the acquiring of that which is useful. I shall, in the giving of my in-
structions, make use of the plainest language; I shall endeavour to express myself in the clearest manner; and shall avoid every thing which shall appear to me likely to bewilder you, or to make you weary. In short, I shall talk to you in the most familiar manner; I shall give you reasons for doing that which I tell you ought to be done; I shall write you Letters that I hope you would not think very dull, though they were formed into a book merely to read through.

17. But, there is the speaking of French. It is something, and a great deal, too, to be able to read French; it is more to be able to translate it into English; it is still more to be able to translate English into French: but, there is still the speaking of French, which is, as to this matter, the great, general, practical, and desired talent. Mind, however, that, in the acquiring of this talent, this great accomplishment, you are got full nine tenths of the way, when you have learned to translate (upon paper) English into French. I mean, of course, to translate well and with facility. When you have carried your acquisition thus far, there remains nothing but the sound, and it is quite surprising how quickly the ear and the tongue do their part of the business. When, however, we reflect, the reasons are plain enough. It is sound that is to be acquired; and where we, take the days through, can possibly write one word, we hear and utter thousands. Still, to learn the sound you must hear it. To acquire a proper pronunciation of French (or of any foreign language) is absolutely impossible without practice; without hearing others speak, and without speaking to those who are able to correct you when you pronounce badly. Sounds admit not of being described upon paper. I shall, under the head of Pronunciation in Letter III, prove to you that it is impossible for any human being to give written rules that can be of any use in teaching you how to pronounce French words. But, though, in order to learn to speak French, you must have the assistance of a teacher, or must live among, or be a good deal among, those who speak that language, still, as I said before, the task is nine tenths performed, when you have acquired all that the Grammar will teach you. But, it is not necessary for you to go through the Grammar before you begin to learn to pronounce; that is to say, if you have a teacher, or any one to instruct you in reading. You may, after you have got well into the grammar, be learning to pronounce words at the same time that you are learning the principles of the language. How you are to proceed in doing this, what you are to read, and other particulars relative to this matter, you will find mentioned in Letter III.

18. The general error of those who attempt to learn French, is, that the moment they have begun to study, they want to get to reading French books, to translating, and to speaking. And this is very natural, because it seems like having actually got possession of part of the thing so anxiously sought after. But, this is going too fast: it is haste but not speed. The best way is to go patiently through the grammar as far as the end of Letter XIII, before you attempt to read or to pronounce, even if you have a teacher. Your manner of proceeding ought to be this: read Letter III ten times over, and then write it twice over. Go on thus to the end of Letter XIII. By the time that you have advanced thus far, which will be in about a month from the time that you begin, you will find that you have learned a great deal. You will begin to see your way through that, which, at the outset, appeared to be utterly impenetrable. You will, therefore, have courage to proceed with the remaining Letters in the same way, reading ten times and writing down twice. But, here, you will have Exercises. These, being merely English sentences for you to translate, need not be read, till you come to translate them. When you have read ten times and copied twice the Letter, for instance, on the Syntax of Articles, you will translate the Exercise in that Letter. Thus you
will proceed to the end. Particular instructions relative to the manner of going on in translating you will find in Letter XVII., just before you begin this part of your labours.

19. After you have gone through the whole of the rules and instructions, and have translated the whole of the Exercises, and have done this well, you will, of course, know how to write French tolerably well. Very easy will it be to learn to speak after this. But if you, too impatient to go thoroughly into the subjects of your grammar, hasten on to reading and to speaking without knowing any thing of the principles of the language, you will, in all probability, never speak French much better than an English footman, or lady's maid, who has been for a while in France. The first and the main thing is the Grammar: that, well learned, the rest is easy; but, that imperfectly learned, the remainder of your way is full of difficulty, and you never arrive at anything approaching towards perfection. There are persons enough able to utter, or to put upon paper, sentences of broken French; to ask people how they do, to talk of the weather, to call for victuals and drink; but, this is not being a French scholar; and, I hope that nothing short of merit the appellation will satisfy you. I shall slur nothing over. I know what were the difficulties the most troublesome to me. I remember the parts of the Grammar which were to me the most abstruse, and which it cost me the most time to be able to understand. These parts, therefore, I shall take particular pains to make plain and easy to you. In short, on my part, no effort shall be wanting; and, let me hope, that none will be wanting on yours.

LETTER III.

OF LANGUAGE AND OF GRAMMAR GENERALLY, AND OF THE DIFFERENT BRANCHES, OR DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

My dear Richard,

20. In pursuance of what I have said in paragraph 15, I am now about to explain to you what Language and Grammar are, in a general sense.

21. Language is a French word as well as an English one. We take it, like a great many other of our words, from the French. Langue, in French, means tongue; and, Language means, if fully stated, the things belonging to the tongue, or the things about which the tongue is employed, which things are words.

22. Grammar is a science, which teaches us how to make use of words in a proper manner; for, without some principle, or rule, in the using of words, we should have no standard whereby to ascertain their meaning. The main principles of Grammar apply to all languages alike; and this you will, in the next Letter, see fully illustrated in my account of the different Parts of Speech, or Sorts of Words.

23. But, before I enter on this matter, I must speak of the different Branches, or Divisions, of Grammar; for, we must approach our subject by degrees, and in a regular manner, and clearly understand what we are talking about, or we go on in vain. Grammar is usually divided into four Branches, which are thus named: Orthography, Prosody, Etymology, and Syntax.

24. ORTHOGRAPHY means spelling, or word-making; and the rules relating to it merely teach us what letters different words are to be composed of. It divides the letters into Vowels and Consonants. This is so very simple a matter, that it will be only necessary to add, under this head, a few remarks as to the difference between the English Alphabet (or set of letters) and that of the
OF GRAMMAR GENERALLY. 

[Letter

French. The French Alphabet has no K and no W. It has all the other of our letters; and it has none that our alphabet has not. But, though there be no K and no W used in the French language, the French use these letters, when they have to write the proper names of persons or places, which contain these letters; as Kingston, or Winchester; because, if they were to put any other letter, or letters, in lieu of the K and W, they, in fact, would not be understood as speaking of the same places. Nevertheless, they do take this liberty in certain cases; for, they call Warsaw Varsovie. They have, then, twenty-four letters in their Alphabet. They are written and printed in the same form that ours are.

B. b. H. h. O. o. U. u.
D. d. J. j. Q. q. X. x.
E. e. L. l. R. r. Y. y.
F. f. M. m. S. s. Z. z.

Of these the α, ε, ι, ο, and υ, are Vowels, and also the y, which the French call the γ Γreek, that is to say, Greek. The other letters are, as with us, Consonants. The letters are written and printed like ours, except in the case of the c, which has sometimes what they call a cedille to it, thus, ç; and then it is sounded like an English s. As to the spelling of words properly, or, putting the right letters into them, there can be no rule given. It is a thing to be acquired by practice only. In case of words, which are derived from other words, the right spelling of the former will arise from a knowledge of the latter; thus, in our language, hairy naturally enough comes from hair; but, what reason can be given, why hair should not be spelled hare, instead of hair? The best, the shortest, and, indeed, the only way of learning to spell all the words of a language correctly, is, to write them many times over. Nothing fixes words in the mind like putting them upon paper. The eye is a much better remembrance than the ear, and the hand is a still better than the eye. For this reason it is that I always recommend a great deal of writing.—But, before I quit this head, I must notice the stops (or points), the marks and the accents; for, these really make part of a language as much as letters do. Some of those which I am going to give an account of here, are used in both the languages; but there are some of them, which you will find, are used in French and not in English.

Points. These are four in number: the comma (,), la virgule; the semicolon (;), le point et la virgule; the colon (:), deux points; the full point (.), le point.

Marks. The mark of interrogation (?) ; that of admiration (!); that of parenthesis ( ); that of quotation (“”). All the other marks, such as, * † ‡ § ¶ , are merely used for the purpose of directing the eye of the reader to some note, or other matter to be referred to by direction of the writer.

The foregoing are common to both languages. Those which follow are not used in English, except the hyphen and the elision; and these are not used by us for purposes at all resembling those for which they are, in numerous cases, used by the French.

Accents and Marks peculiar to the French. The hyphen (-), as in vient-il? (Is he coming?) The elision (‘), as in B, in c’est lui, and in thousands of instances. The cedilla, or cédille, I have mentioned before. It is the tail to the c, thus, (ç). The diaeresis (…) called Tréma, in French; it serves to part two vowels, which, joined together, would form a Diphthong. Then there are the acute accent (é); the grave (è) and the circumflex accents (ê). These last are things of great importance; for des and dês are different words; so are a and à, la and là, ou and où, du and dû. These accents, therefore, must be attended to very carefully.
MUTE LETTERS. The e is called mute in some cases, and so is the h; that is to say, when they are not sounded in speaking the words of which they make a part.

CAPITAL LETTERS. These are used at the beginning of every sentence, set off by a full point; and, at the beginning of all proper names. In some other cases also, according to the taste of the writer. There is no law of grammar regulating this matter. Custom does a good deal, and that which prescribes the use of capitals in writing the names of the days of the week and the names of the months, and in many other cases.

25. PROSODY means neither more nor less than what is expressed by the more common and better understood word, PRONUNCIATION; that is to say, the using of the proper sound, and the employing of the due length of time in the uttering of syllables and words. To lay down principles, or rules, in writing, relative to pronunciation, seems to be a thing absurd upon the very face of it; because no one letter, no combination of letters, has any fixed sound or measure; but varies, in both respects, with a great variety of circumstances. The sounds which some grammarians attempt to describe as being those of the several letters of the French alphabet, are, in fact, by no means perfect, and are only the sounds in certain cases. In other cases they are different. Indeed, it is impossible to write rules that can be of any real use, relative to the sounds of letters. No man can describe, by writing, the different sounds of our th; and when you are told that the word Français is to be pronounced Frawnsey, or nearly so, of what use is it to write you down the sounds of the a, the i, and the e? When you are told, that the word partevient is to be pronounced partair, as nearly as possible to that, what use can there be in giving you the sounds of the o, the i, the e, the n, and the t? Again, perdreaux is pronounced peardro. It is, therefore, worse than a waste of time to attempt to give written rules relative to the pronunciation of individual letters; because such an attempt, while it cannot assist the learner, may, and indeed must, tend to mislead him. Nor has the same combination of letters the same sound in all cases. The variances, in this respect, are numerous. There are nearly a thousand words in the French language, which are very nearly the same in sound, but different in their letters. There are many words, each of which may mean different things; and some of them have one sound in one sense, and another sound in another sense. In short, to speak French in a manner at all resembling that of French people, or, indeed, in a manner to be understood by them, you must learn from the mouth of some one or more, who can speak the language. In default of other assistance, there must be a teacher for this purpose. To understand what you read in French, and, of course, to translate from French into English; to write French words, and to put them properly in sentences, and, of course, to translate from English into French: these you may be able to do without a teacher, though not nearly so speedily as with one. But to speak, free from ludicrous impropriety, without the assistance of the speaking of others, is absolutely impossible. You ought never, until you have been taught to pronounce, or except there be a teacher at your elbow, to attempt to pronounce a French word; for, having pronounced it viciously four or five times, it is hard to get rid of the bad habit. To speak French anything like well, you must be taught to open the mouth much wider than we, English, generally, or, indeed, ever do. The French say of us, that we bite our words; that is to say, that we speak with our upper and lower teeth nearly close to each other. If we do not break ourselves of this, we never speak French even tolerably well. The harshness of our language leads us, in speaking, to slide over great numbers of our words, giving to each only a part, and, sometimes, a very small part, of its full pro-
nunciation. This habit we naturally fall into in reading and in speaking French, unless we be, at the outset, kept constantly on our guard against it; and this sliding over is what the French language will by no means bear. The result of these remarks is, that, though, as far as the understanding of what we read in French, and as far as the writing of French, go, much may be done without any other assistance than that of books; but, that as to speaking with any degree of propriety, it never can be acquired without the aid of the speaking of others. When, however, we come to speak; then we find all the advantages of what we have learned from the grammar; for then we know what words to use and how to place them; which, without the study of Grammar, we can never know. This constitutes the difference between the scholar and his footman, both being of the same age and both having the same opportunities of hearing French spoken. But, if the scholar have begun by pronouncing erroneously; if he have gone on, for even a little while, giving his English sounds to French words, it is ten to one that the footman, though he know not his letters, will, all his life time, pronounce better than the scholar; because he will never have been misled. The age at which we begin to pronounce, is not so much importance as is beginning properly, whenever we do begin. Some imagine that we can never speak French well, unless we begin when very young. This is not the fact; I was twenty-six years old when I began to speak French; and, in less than six months, French people used to take me for a Frenchman. To be sure, they are apt to stretch a point or two on the side of civility; but, I really did speak the language tolerably well at the end of less than six months; and I ascribe this to my not having attempted to pronounce until I had competent assistance. In paragraph 17, I told you that I should, in this place, give you some instructions how to proceed in learning to read French. There will be no necessity for my giving you any matter merely to read, and to learn to pronounce from; for, what can be so good for this purpose as the lists of Articles and of the words of other parts of speech, which words will necessarily be inserted in lists, or tables, of this Grammar? Your first lesson in reading would be the Articles in Letter V. Your next, the Pronouns in Letter VII. The several classes of Pronouns would give you so many lessons in reading; and, observe, these words are short, and they occur in almost every sentence. You would next read, many times over, the verbs avoir and être. You would then read the other verbs. Then the lists of Prepositions, and Conjunctions, in Letters XI. and XII. Then come back to the Nouns and Adjectives, in Letters VI. and VIII. And after this, there will be, at the end of the Grammar, all the twenty Exercises translated into French; and I shall take care that these Exercises contain one, at least, of each class of words of difficult pronunciation.

26. ETYMOLOGY means the pedigree or relationship of words. The word write, for instance, expresses an action which we perform with our hands; but, in some cases, we have to say wrote, in others written, in others writing. Yet it is always the same action that is expressed; and therefore the words, though different as to the letters of which they are composed, spring from the same root and have a relationship to each other. Etymology teaches the principles and rules according to which the spelling of the words is to be varied or altered; it teaches us when we ought to use write, when written, and so on. You will bear in mind, that the general principles of grammar are the same in both languages; but, as to this business of varying the spelling of the words, proceeding from the same root, it is, as you will by-and-by find, much more extensive in French than in English. This word write, for instance, is, in one case, écrire, but, in others, it becomes écris, écrit, écrivons, écrivez,
Écrivent, écrivoit, écrivoit, écricions, écricimez, écritisent; and takes many other forms. The rules of Etymology teach us when we ought to make use of one of these forms, and when of the other. You must, therefore, see, at once, that this Branch of the science is of great importance; and you must always bear in mind that it is impossible to acquire any knowledge of the French language, much beyond that which the capacity of a parrot would reach, without that sort of study upon which you are now entering. Etymology you will, in the next Letter, find dividing itself into several distinct parts. I have here aimed at giving you merely a general description of its nature and use.

27. SYNTAX means sentence-making. Etymology teaches us how to vary the forms of our words, how to make them agree or correspond with each other; it teaches us, for instance, to say he writes and I write, and to avoid saying he write and I writes. But there remains something more than this to enable us to write, or speak, properly; because, not only must we use the proper words, but we must give to each word its proper situation, its proper place in a sentence, or collection of words. Suppose, for instance, I were to say, "there is a principle in this science, from which we must never depart." There would be a doubt, whether it were the principle, or the science, that must be adhered to; but place the words thus: "there is, in this science, a principle, from which we must never depart," and you know that it is the principle to which we have to adhere. Therefore, even in the use of our own language, the rules of Syntax are of great use; but, in the learning of French, they are of indispensable necessity; for, without a tolerably large stock of knowledge with regard to them, we never can arrive at any thing approaching to perfection in the language. The words, though the same in meaning, do not follow the same order, in the two languages. For instance: He has ten white hens. The French of this is, Il a dix poules blanches.

That is to say, word for word, he has ten hens white. And, bad as this sounds, in English, it does not sound worse, than dix blanches poules would in French. I give you this merely as a specimen, and to explain to you the nature of what is called Syntax, for the want of duly studying the principles and rules of which, the French hear so many English speaking broken French, and we hear so many French speaking broken English.

28. I have now spoken to you of Language and of Grammar in general, and described to you the different Branches, or Divisions, of the latter. You will bear in mind, that we have nothing further to do with ORTHOGRAPHY, except that we must always remember what has been said towards the close of Paragraph 24. You will also bear in mind, that you are not to attempt to meddle with PROSODY, or Pronunciation, unless at the stage, and under the circumstances, already fully mentioned. We have now to enter on the study of Etymology, which is, indeed, the most important part of our undertaking. Let me beg of you to proceed steadily on; not to be in haste; not to be impatient; and, if you follow this advice, you will soon have reason to be proud of what you have learned.

LETTER IV.

ETYMOLOGY.

IV. AND OF ITS BRANCHES OR DIVISIONS.

THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH, OR SORTS OF WORDS.

My dear Richard,

29. ETYMOLOGY has been described to you in the foregoing Letter. It treats, as you have seen, of the relationship of words, of which you have seen an example in paragraph 26. Treating, then, of the relationship of words, it first divides the words into several distinct sorts, as we would plants
for a garden, before we began to place them in rows or clumps. You will, by-and-by, see the use of this; but, in the present Letter, I have to describe to you these several different sorts of words, which grammarians call Parts of Speech, and which they name thus:

30. These names are so much alike in both languages, that you will be apt to suppose, that the languages themselves differ, throughout, very little from each other: but, these are words taken from the more ancient into both these modern languages, whence comes the close resemblance in this particular case. You will observe, that, to whatever Part of Speech any English word belong, the French word which has the same meaning belongs also; it is the same sort of word in both languages, just as a tulip is the same sort of flower, whether it grow in a French or in an English garden. Thus, the word tree is, in French, arbre. The word tree is a noun, and the word arbre also.

31. I shall, by-and-by, have to tell you things of this sort; namely, that, in French, you must, in certain cases, place the pronoun before the verb, and not after it, as in English. For instance: John gives you a pen. You must write Jean vous donne une plume: that is: John you gives a pen: and not, Jean donne vous une plume. In short, I shall be continually talking to you about Articles, Nouns, and the rest of these Parts of Speech. My instructions will, indeed, consist of rules relative to how you ought to write and how you ought to place Articles, Nouns, Pronouns, and the rest of the sorts of words. It is, therefore, as you will clearly see, necessary that you know, as soon as possible, how to distinguish one sort of words from another. To enable you to do this, or, rather, to open the matter to you, the remaining paragraphs of the present letter are intended.

32. ARTICLES. In English there are but two, namely, the and a. Before a vowel, or an h mute, a becomes an; but, it is only another shape for the same word. There being, then, only the and a, no further explanation is necessary in order to distinguish our Articles from the other Parts of Speech. With the French, however, the matter is not so easy; for, though they have only two Articles, le and un, these, and particularly the former, frequently change their form; the former unites itself so very oddly with prepositions; and both consist of the same letters of which words of other Parts of Speech consist; so that it is a matter of great importance to distinguish them from those other Parts of Speech. Articles are little words put before other words: as the stick, a horse; in French, le bâton, un cheval.

33. NOUNS. The word noun means name, and nothing more. Every word that stands for, or that speaks to us of, any thing (alive or dead), that has a substance, such as we can see, is a noun: as man, tree, fire. Whence some grammarians call this sort of words substantives. But, there are other nouns: as pride, truth, conscience, thought, misery, distress, pleasure, joy, and the like, which have no substance, and, therefore, substantive is an inadequate appellation. Every word that expresses any thing that has an existence, or being, is a noun; and more complete than this it is impossible to make our definition.

34. PRONOUNS. This word is composed of two Latin words, which mean for and names. So that Pronouns stand for nouns. Thus he is a Pronoun, because we say, John was ill, but, he is now well. So also which is a Pronoun, because we
of being; states in which things are; and therefore they are verbs. Verbs, are, then, words, the use of which is to express the actions, the movements, and the state or manner of being of all creatures, or things, whether animate or inanimate. In paragraph 31, I gave you an instance of the necessity of being able to distinguish one part of speech from another. I said that, I should have to instruct you to put, in certain cases, the pronoun before the verb, and not after it as in English. It was this: Jean vous donne une plume. That is, word for word, John you give a pen. Vous is the pronoun and donne the verb. But, when I lay down a rule like this, it can be of no use to you, unless you know what words are pronouns and what words are verbs. You see, therefore, how necessary it is to know how to distinguish one part of speech from another, and each part from all the rest.

37. ADVERBS are so called because they are added to verbs; but this is not an appropriate description of their use; for they are as frequently otherwise employed. They are, indeed, added to verbs, as, he writes neatly. Writes is the verb, and neatly the adverb. But there are many adverbs which are not added to verbs; but that express, or point out, time, place, and degree. Their business is to express some circumstance in addition to all that is expressed by the Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs; as, He writes a very good hand. We, without the Adverb very, know that he writes, and that he writes a good hand; but the adverb is necessary to inform us, that this goodness is in a high degree.

38. PREPOSITIONS are so called because their position is generally before, or previous to, that of the Nouns to which they apply. They are the little words, in, to, for, from, of, by, with, and several others. The French words, which answer to these and the rest of our Prepositions, are, you will bear in mind, Prepositions in that language also. This is a class of words, few in number, and soon distinguished from all others.
39. **CONJUNCTIONS** have this name given them, because they conjoin, or join together, words or parts of sentences: as *Richard and William write; but they do not ride.* Thus, you see, the word and joins together Richard and William, and, by the means of this *junction,* makes the word *write* apply to them both. The word but connects the two parts of the sentence; and thus does every part of the sentence apply to the two Nouns that are the subject of it.

40. **INTERJECTIONS.** This name arises from two Latin words, which mean, *something thrown between.* The Interjections are, *Oh! Ah! Alas! Poh! and* some others, which are, indeed, not words; they make no part of what we call *language;* they are mere sounds, and ought not to be reckoned a *Part of Speech,* any more than *kissing, hooting, crying, coughing,* or *sneezing* ought to be reckoned such. The French say, for instance, *Bah! where we say, Poh! It is all mere noise,* wholly unworthy of our attention, and has been mentioned by me only for the purpose of expressing my disapprobation of the conduct of those who have considered it a *Part of Speech.*

41. Even the most attentive study of the contents of this Letter will not enable you to know, in all cases, what Part of Speech a word belongs to. To obtain this knowledge in perfection is a work of time, steady pursuit, and patience. Your understanding of what you have now read will, at first be *confused;* and you will, at times, be ready to think, that you shall *never succeed* in your object. But, you must take heart, and remember what I said before, that *nothing valuable* can be honourably gained without *labour of some sort or other. You should also bear in mind, that, in proportion to the greatness of the difficulty of your undertaking is the smallness of the number of those who overcome it.* In war, the maxim is, the greater the danger the greater the glory: in learning it is according to the labour that the meed is apportioned.

42. Let me, before I put an end to this Letter, give you an instance of a sentence, in which you will find words belonging to all the Parts of Speech; thus: *the brown horse and the grey mare which ran swiftly in the field.* The word *the* is an Article; *horse, mare,* and *field* are Nouns; *which* is a Pronoun; *ran* is a Verb; *swiftly* is an Adverb; *in* is a Preposition; and *is* a Conjunction. *In order to try yourself* a little, it is a very good way to take any sentence in a book, and to write down, on a piece of paper, against each word, the part of Speech which *you think* it belongs to; then look for the words one by one, in the Dictionary. You find an *a.* against Articles; *s.* against Nouns, because they are also called Substantives; *adj.* against Adjectives; *pron.* against Pronouns; *v. a.* against Verbs Active; *v. n.* against Verbs Neuter; *adr.* against Adverbs; *prep.* against Prepositions; and *con.* against Conjunctions. These marks are the same in the French as in the English Dictionary, except, that, in the case of Nouns, or substantives, you will, in the French, find besides the *s,* an *m* or an *f;* that is to say, *masculine or feminine;* because, as you will find by-and-by, every French Noun is either masculine or feminine, which makes one of the great differences between that language and ours.

43. One thing more relative to the *Parts of Speech,* you ought here to be informed of; namely, that what one would call the *same word* often belongs to two Parts of Speech. For instance, *I record a deed.* Here *record* is a Verb; but in, *I put the deed upon record,* the same word is a Noun. In truth, however, it is not the same *word:* it is the same assemblage of letters, but not the same word; nor indeed, has it the same sound. In French *le* is sometimes an Article, and, at others, a Pronoun. It is thus with a great number of words in both languages. It is their *meaning,* and not merely the letters of which they are composed, that determines the Part of Speech to which they belong.
ETYMOLOGY OF ARTICLES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

44. Before you enter on this Letter, look again at paragraph 32. You there see, that in our language, we have only two articles, a, and the. The first, sometimes, as you saw, becomes an; but, it is still the same word, the difference in the spelling being merely for the purpose of harmony of sound. This is called the indefinite article, because a noun, when it has this article prefixed to it, only serves to point out the kind of person or thing spoken of, without defining what person or what thing; as, a horse is dead. But, when we say, the horse is dead, we speak of some particular horse known to the person to whom we are speaking. The the is, therefore, called the definite article.

45. The use of our own articles is so well known to ourselves, that it will be unnecessary to enlarge upon that here: my chief business in this place is, to teach you the manner of using the French articles, which are also two in number, un and le, answering to our a and the; but, as you are now going to see, these two French articles assume many forms, and some of these very different from the forms in which you here see them. The first of them is, as with us, called the indefinite article, and the other the definite; and they are used, of course, according to the principle stated in paragraph 44.

46. The indefinite article un, is, then, put before nouns which merely point out the kind of the person or thing spoken of; as, un livre, a book. But, here we begin to see the difference in the two languages; for, every noun in French is either of the masculine or the feminine gender, and the article varies in its form, that is to say, in its spelling, to correspond with the gender of the noun to which it is prefixed. Un is the masculine, and une the feminine, of this indefinite article; so that we must say un livre, a book; but we must say, une plume, a pen, because livre is masculine and plume feminine.

47. This is the only variation of form to which, as an article, this word is liable. But, the same word, or rather the same assemblage of letters, is not always an article. It is sometimes an adjective; that is to say, when it expresses number; answering to our one; for the French say, un, deux, trois, as we say one, two, three; and this is the reason why we hear French people say, one man, and the like, when they should say, a man. Not having learned English grammatically, they confound the article with the adjective. It is the same word, or, rather, the same assemblage of letters, in their language; but it is not the same in ours. Besides this, the un is sometimes a pronoun in like manner as our one is; as, neither the one nor the other. In French, ni l’un ni l’autre. But, here is a further variation to agree with the number as well as with the gender of the nouns. If, in the example just given, we are speaking of livres, books, which are masculine, we say, ni l’un ni l’autre; if of plumes, pens, which are feminine, we say, ni l’une ni l’autre; if of parcels of books, we say, ni les uns ni les autres; and, if of parcels of pens ni les unes ni les autres; while, you will observe, we have, in the use of our one, no variations of this sort, unless, indeed, that we do sometimes say, good ones, bad ones, and the like. I am, here, got out of my subject; for, I am not now to talk of adjectives and pronouns; but the French un, which answers to our article a, being sometimes an adjective and sometimes a pronoun, I was obliged to mention that circumstance here.

48. Though the paragraph, which you have just read, anticipates a little; though it does not, strictly speaking, belong to the etymology of articles, it may serve to prevent you from confounding this indefinite article with the adjective or the pronoun, composed of the same letters. The 46th paragraph
concludes the subject of the indefinite article; and, now we come to the definite article, which, as you have been told, is the, answering to our the.

49. Our definite article is, in all cases, the same. It never changes its form at all. Whatever may be the noun, before which it is placed, it is always composed of the same letters. It is always the. Whereas the French definite article takes, according to circumstances, all the following different forms: le, la, l', les, du, des, de, aux. In the four last forms the word is a compound; it is an article united with the prepositions de, of, and à, to. Thus du means de le, of the, in the singular, des means de les, of the, in the plural; aux means à le, to the, in the singular, and aux mean à les, to the, in the plural. And here you perceive, that, what is expressed by a single word in one language requires two words in the other. This you will find to be frequently the case.

50. However, this is sufficient about the article at present; because, in order clearly to understand the rules relative to the use of it; in order to understand when one of these forms is to be used, and when the other, you must first learn something about the branches, genders, numbers, and cases of nouns; and this you will learn from the next Letter.

LETTER VI.

ETYMOLOGY OF NOUNS.

My dear Richard,

51. In paragraph 33, I have described what a Noun is; that is to say, what are the marks by which you are to distinguish Nouns from words belonging to other Parts of Speech. You must now read that paragraph again; for you are now entering on the Etymology of this Part of Speech; and you have seen, in Paragraph 26 (which you will now read again), that Etymology teaches us the principles and rules, according to which we are to vary the form, or spelling, of words.

52. In a Noun there are to be considered, the Branches, the Genders, the Numbers, and the Cases; and these must all be carefully attended to.

53. THE BRANCHES. Nouns are divided into Proper and Common. The Proper are such as are the names of particular individuals; as Richard, London, England. The Common are the names of all the individuals of a kind; as, Man, City, Country. There are, indeed, many men named Richard, and there is a London and an England in America; but, these names are not applicable to all men, all cities, and all countries. Though many pointers go by the same name, such as Don, yet, this is not a common Noun, like pointer, or dog, the first of which is applicable to all pointers, and the last applicable to all dogs. Such are the two Branches of Nouns; and this, simple as it appears, is a matter for you to attend to; because you will find, by-and-by, that the manner of using the other words, which are employed with Nouns, will depend upon whether the Nouns themselves be proper or common; and this is the case to a much greater extent in French than it is in English. Proper Nouns are always, in all languages, made to begin, whether in manuscript or in print, with a capital letter; as in this sentence: Richard knows several of the men who live in most of our cities, but he knows only Thomas in that of Bristol. We do, indeed, employ capital letters in some other cases, of which I shall say more in another place; but we always employ them at the beginning of proper nouns.

54. THE GENDERS. Here we come to that which forms one of the great differences in the two languages. In our language, the Nouns, or names, of males are masculine; those of females are feminine; and those of inanimate things, or of creatures,
the sex of which we do not know, are neuter. Thus, in speaking of a man, we say he; of a woman she; of a house, it. In speaking of living creatures, the sex of which we do not know, we use the neuter gender; for, though we call a cock a he and a hen a she, we call a fox an it. In speaking of a child, we say it; but this is only when we do not know whether the child be a male or a female. We do, indeed, in a sort of figurative way, sometimes call irrational animals he: for instance, when we are speaking of birds or beasts, as a race, and when we use the singular number instead of the plural; as, the lark sings well; the horse is an useful animal; that is to say, larks sing well, horses are useful animals. Now, if we have, in this case, to use the pronoun, we very frequently say, he (the lark) sings well; he (the horse) is an useful animal. Some few birds and beasts and insects, we, when we speak thus figuratively, call shes. But, neither being strictly grammatical, there can be no rule about the matter. We generally call the owl a she. This is all mere accident; and he would be as proper; because neither is proper, strictly speaking.

55. How different the French language is to this matter! In French every Noun is of the masculine or of the feminine, whether it be the name of a living creature or not. The names of living creatures that are males are, indeed, of the masculine gender, and those that are the names of females are of the feminine gender; but the names of all other things are either masculine or feminine. Panier (basket), for instance, is masculine; and table (table) feminine. This would be nothing, if it were merely calling them masculine and feminine. But, the articles, the adjectives, and the pronouns must vary their form, or spelling, to agree with the genders of the nouns. We say the basket, the table; but the French say, le panier, la table. We say the round basket, the round table; but they must say le panier rond, and la table ronde. We say, speaking of a basket, it is round, and we say the same of a table; but they say, speaking of a basket, il est rond, and, speaking of a table, elle est ronde.

56. Thus, you see, it is absolutely necessary to know what gender a noun is of before you use it. If I am speaking of wine, I must call it he (il); but if I am speaking of beer, I must call it she (elle). Now, then, how are we, when we are about to use a noun, to know whether it be masculine or feminine? How are we to come at this knowledge? In the Dictionary, as I observed in paragraph 42, you will find, against every Noun, either s. m. or s. f. The former means Substantive (or Noun) masculine, and the latter Substantive (or Noun) feminine. And this, after all that Grammarians can do; after all the rules that they can give, is the only sure way of learning (from books) the Gender of the French Nouns. Monsieur Restaup, in his "General Principles of French Grammar," makes the scholar put this question to the Master: "How are we to know of what gender nouns are?" The answer of the Master is this: "The nouns before which we can put le, or un, are masculine, and the nouns before which we can put la or une, are feminine; as, le livre, un livre; la plume, une plume." This is very good for those who already know the cases which demand those different Articles respectively; but Monsieur Restaup does not tell others how they are to know it, which was the very thing that was wanted. Monsieur Restaup's rule for knowing the gender of Nouns is excellent for those who know the gender of Nouns, and quite useless to every body else. But, Monsieur Restaup was writing a Grammar of the French Language for the use of French people, who had, from their infancy, heard le put before some words, and the la before others. It is a very different matter when the learner is of another nation.

57. Are there any rules, then, by which we, English people, can know the gender of French nouns? There are; but, so numerous are those rules, and so numerous the exceptions, that it is impossible
for them to be of any use at all to the learner. The rules are ten or twelve in number; and the exceptions are many hundreds. The way which these rules point out for you to know the gender of a noun, is, by looking at the termination, or ending of it. Thus, for instance, one rule says, that nouns ending in ion are of the feminine gender; but, there are from twenty to thirty exceptions to this one rule; and, while you must say la nation, you must say le scorpion. There are more than three score different terminations, if you go back to the fourth letter from the end of the word. So that there might be three score rules, and even these must have, in the whole, many scores of exceptions. To show the folly of all attempts to reduce this matter to rule, we have only to know, that there are more than a hundred nouns which are masculine in one sense, and feminine in another sense. And, after all this, there come the numerous nouns ending in an e mute, or not sound. Of this description of nouns there are, perhaps many more than a thousand, and there are about as many of them of one gender as of the other. What, then, can Monsieur ne Levisac mean by the following words, in his Grammar? "The gender of nouns, in inanimate objects, is generally expressed by their terminations; thus, final e mute is the distinctive mark of the feminine gender, and every other final letter is the sign of the masculine. This would be an excellent rule, were it universal, but this is far from being the case." Far indeed! For, in the first place, there are as many masculines as feminines with a final e mute. How, then, can the final e mute be the distinctive mark of the feminine gender? Then, of the nouns which end in evr, ion, and in some other letters, the greater part are feminines. How, then, can every final letter other than e mute be the sign of the masculine gender?  

58. After this Monsieur de Levisac proceeds to lay down what he calls "concise rules" for ascertaining the gender. These "concise rules" occupy eight pages of print, and present a mass of perplexity, to unravel which would demand more time than would be required to write down all the nouns in the Dictionary with an Article to each and to get the whole by heart; and after all these eight pages of "concise rules" Mons. de Levisac is compelled to leave all the nouns in final e mute to take their chance! Monsieur Grumard has twenty-four rules, each with exceptions, and some with numerous exceptions; and, after all, he, also, leaves the nouns in final e mute nearly to take their chance. Monsieur Palairret, after giving five rules with their exceptions, comes to his sixth rule, which is, that nouns in final e mute are feminine, "except the following:" and then comes a list of about five hundred nouns, and even to these are to be added many which he says he has omitted "for shortness." Monsieur Porny, after giving nine rules with their exceptions, says that the "surest way is to refer to the Dictionary," and yet he has, in a Note, this strange observation: "This advice is not given on a pretence of the impossibility of reducing the gender of our Nouns to rules, as a certain Grammarian asserts; but on account that there can be no rules drawn, on this intricate subject; but what must be accompanied with many exceptions, and the whole, of course, would, perhaps, prove more perplexing, to beginners, than instructive." Passing over the bad English of Monsieur Porny, I agree with him that the attempt to reduce the gender of the French Nouns to rules would be more perplexing than instructive; and I so well remember, that the perplexity which I experienced from reading rules on this subject gave me such disgust, and was so near driving me away from the study of the language, that I shall take good care not to expose you to the effects of reading such rules.  

39. Monsieur Porny calls this an intricate subject. It is by no means intricate, any more than would be the task of separating the grains of wheat from those of barley when mixed together in a sack.
It is a matter of mere labour with some memory, and requires no reflection, no reasoning, as in the case of distinguishing the Parts of Speech from each other. The subject is not, therefore, intricate; and though it requires labour, this is rendered weary and disgusting only by the vain attempts to subject it to rules.

60. You are not to encounter the whole of this labour yet; but, I shall now give you some instructions how to proceed to know the gender of nouns, which, as you have already been informed, is a thing of indispensible necessity to the learning of French.

61. In the first place, all nouns that are masculine in English are masculine in French, and it is the same with the feminines; that is to say, the names of all males are of the first, and the names of all females of the last. But if, as is observed in paragraph 54, the Noun relate to a living creature and do not express the sex, then the Noun, in French, is masculine or feminine, as it may happen. Thus, corbeau (raven) is masculine, and perdrix (partridge) is feminine; for, these do not express the sex, but merely the kind. When the French Noun expresses the sex, as coq (cock), or poule (hen), it is masculine or feminine, as in our language. So far the French language follows the order of nature; but, it has no neuter gender. It makes every thing either a male or a female, as was explained in paragraph 55.

62. To the rule, just given, and according to which the names of all males are of the masculine gender and those of all females of the feminine gender, there are a few seeming exceptions that I must notice, such as sentinelle, a sentinel, Patrouille, the patrol, Garde, a guard of soldiers, Majesté, majesty, Saint Michel, the feast of St. Michael. But, in fact, it is not the men, but their office or occupation, and the feast of the Saint, that these French words, which are feminine, express.

63. I have one more remark to make before I come to my instructions how to proceed to know the genders of other nouns. Some words are of both genders; that is to say, they are sometimes of one and sometimes of the other. They, like some words in English, sometimes mean one thing and sometimes another. We, for instance, have jack, the name of a fish, and jack to roast with. The French have livre, a book, and livre, a pound; and, with them, the first of these is masculine, and the other feminine; and, accordingly, we must say, le livre, in the first case, and la livre in the last. They have many of these words of double meaning, but, the genders of these as well as of all the rest will soon be learned by the method that I am now going to point out, by telling you what I myself did in order to learn the genders.

64. I made a paper-book, in the octavo form, and divided each page into three columns, by lines drawn down the page. Then I took the Dictionary, and wrote down all the Nouns in it. When I had filled the first column, I began the next, and proceeded thus, till I had written down all the Nouns in the Dictionary. The Dictionary told me what gender each noun was of; and I prefixed to it an Article, either indefinite or definite, corresponding with that gender. It took me about ten days to do this; and I had wasted weeks on the rules about genders without being able to make top or tail of the matter. When I had once written every Noun with its Article, I had done a good deal. I then looked at this book of my own making forty or fifty times over; so that, in a few days, my eye, when I was translating from English into French, told me almost instantly, whether I was right or wrong as to the gender. If I had had a master to read to, and had read my book to him, the ear, as well as the eye, would have assisted me; but, even without such aid, I found, in a short time, very little difficulty with regard to the gender, which presents, beyond all comparison, the most laborious task that we have to perform in learning the French language.

VI.] OF NOUNS. 41

65. But, as I observed just now, you are not yet to
ETYMOLgy[Letter VI.

enter on this part of your undertaking. This practical part will come by-and-by; and then I shall have again to give you some instructions on the subject. I have here been explaining to you the nature of the genders, and showing you how the French language differs from ours in respect to them. I, therefore, now quit the genders, and go to the Numbers.

66. NUMBERS. We may have to speak of persons and things that are collected together; that is to say, when there is more of them than one to be spoken of. The Noun must, then, have two Numbers, one to be used when we are speaking of a single person or thing, and the other, when we are speaking of more than one. The Noun has two Numbers accordingly; the one called the singular and the other the plural. This latter word means belonging to more. The singular belongs to one, the plural to more than one.

67. The next thing to be considered is, how the plural Noun is designated so as to be distinguished from the singular. This is generally done, in English, by adding an s to the singular; as day, days. And the very same is the general rule in French; as chien, chiens. But, in both languages, there are some exceptions to this general rule. The exceptions are not very numerous; and may, with proper industry, be soon pretty well fixed in the mind. In English, when the singular Noun ends in ch, sh, s, or x, there requires es to be added to form the plural, as church, churches. A singular ending in y changes the y into ies to form the plural; as quality, qualities; but, if a vowel immediately precede the y, you only add an s; as day, days. Singulaters ending in f generally change the f into ves to make the plural. Some few Nouns have their plural in n; as oxen. Some few Nouns have no singular number, and some have no plural; as, tongues and gold. Nouns expressing moral qualities and feelings have generally no plural; as honesty, meekness. Some few Nouns form their plural by changing several of the letters of which the singular is composed; as mouse, mice; goose, geese. And a few are the same words in both numbers, as deer and sheep.

68. Such is the case with regard to our English Nouns; and this is much about the case with the French Nouns. But, let me observe here, that the irregularity in one language is not found, except by mere chance, in the same word as in the other language. There are Five Rules for forming the plurals of French Nouns; the first is the general rule; the rest form exceptions to it.

Rule 1. The plural is formed by adding an s to the singular; as chien, dog, chiens, dogs. This is the general rule.

Rule 2. Nouns ending in s, or x, are the same in both numbers; as un fils, a son; deux fils, two sons; une noix, a nut; trois noix, three nuts.

Rule 3. Nouns ending in nt drop the t and take the s; as un engagement, one engagement; quatre engagements, four engagements. But, observe, if the word have but one syllable, the t is retained; as, une dent, one tooth, cinq dents, five teeth. Yet there are cent, hundred, and tout, the whole, which follow the rule.

Rule 4. Nouns ending in au, eau, eu, ieu, ou, form their plurals by taking an x, instead of an s; as, un chapeau, a hat, deux chapeaux, two hats; un chou, a cabbage, deux choux, two cabbages. But, there are these exceptions with regard to Nouns ending in ou; namely:

cou, neck.          | fou, fool.
trou, hole.        | matou, a be cat.
clo, nail.         | hibou, owl.
flic, pickpocket. | loup garou, a ferocious man.
foom, haller.

These follow the general rule, and make in their plurals, cows, trous, clous, and so on.

Rule 5. Nouns ending in al and all change these letters into aux to form their plural; as, un mal, an evil, plusieurs muns, many evils; un
travail, a work; *plusieurs travaux*, many works. But, there are these exceptions as to Nouns ending in *-al*: *bal*, ball (or dance); *pal*, pale in heraldry; *col*, callous skin; *carnaval*, carnival; *regal*, regale; all which follow the general rule, and take simply an *s* for the formation of the plural, as *un bal*, a ball; *trois bal*s, three balls; and so on. The following nouns, ending in *-al*, follow the general rule, and form their plurals by adding an *s* to the singulars:

| Attireil | Splendid train. | Gouvernail | Helm. |
| Détail | Detail. | Portail | Portal. |
| Évantaill | Fan. | Serail | Seraglio. |

Besides these rules, with their exceptions, it is to be observed that there are several nouns which have no plural, and several which have no singular; as *bonheur*, happiness, and *hardes*, clothes. The names of different sorts of *grain*, of *herbs*, of *flesh*, and of *metals*, have seldom any plurals in either language; and the things which nature, or art, have made double, or in inseparable numbers, can seldom take nouns in the singular form. Then, there are some nouns so *irregular* as not to admit of being reduced to any thing like rule; as, *œil*, *œyes*, *œye*s.

69. It would be useless to give lists of these here, because such lists could only tend to load the memory. The above rules are quite sufficient for all purposes, connected with the formation of the plural of nouns. They are clear and short, and will, if written down by you several times, not fail to be a competent guide. You will observe that it is unnecessary to swell out a book of this kind with matters that are fully explained in the Dictionary. If, for instance, you want to know what *œye* is in French, the Dictionary says *œil*; and, lest you should think, that the plural is formed by adding an *s* to the singular, the Dictionary tells you that the plural of *œil* is *œye*s. This is the true way of learning, with respect to numbers and genders, all that cannot be reduced to short and certain rule. I must make a remark here relative to the manner of *writing* the above tables. The rules of grammar require, that there should be a capital letter to begin the word, which comes next after a full point. I have not observed this rule in the tables and configurations, because it would have been, in some cases, inconvenient in point of space.

70. CASES. The word case, as used in teaching grammar, means *state*, *situation*, or *position*. A noun may be, at different times, in different *states*, or *situations*, with regard to other nouns in the same sentence. For instance, a noun may be the name of a man who *strikes* a horse, or of one who *possesses* a horse, or of one whom a horse *kicks*. These different situations or states, are called *cases*. You will presently see the necessity of this division of the situations of nouns into *cases*; for, you will find, that *articles* and some other words, used along with the nouns, *vary their form* to agree with the different cases of the nouns. Therefore, this is a matter of great importance, and requires great care and attention.

71. In the Latin language each noun has several different *endings* in order to denote the different cases in which it may be... In our language there is but one of the cases of nouns which is expressed, or denoted, by a change in the ending of the noun. In the French, there is no such change to denote the case; and this you will see explained presently.

72. There are three cases: the *Nomina­tive*, the *Pos­sessive*, and the *Object­ive*. The word *nominative* means *naming*; the word *possessive* means relating to possession; the word *objective* means relating to objects.

73. A noun is in the *Nomina­tive* case, when it names, or points out, a person or thing, which does something or is something; as, Richard *strikes*, Richard is *good*. And, observe, it is the same in *French*; as, Richard *frappe*, Richard *est bon*.

74. A noun is in the *Possessive* case, when it de-
notes a person or thing which possesses some other person or thing, or when there is one of the persons or things belonging to the other; as Richard's hat, the mountain's top, the nation's fleet. And, here you see that change in the ending of our English nouns, spoken of in paragraph 71. But, observe, this change is not absolutely necessary. We may always do without it if we please; for, the hat of Richard is the same thing as Richard's hat. In French there is no such change: there we say, le chapeau de Richard, le haut de la montagne, la flotte de la nation.

75. A noun is in the Objective case, when the person or thing that it expresses, or denotes, is the object, or end, of some act or of some movement, as, Richard strikes Peter; Richard gives a blow to Peter; Richard goes after Peter; falsehood leads to mischief; idleness is the nurse of vice. Here you see, that all these nouns in the objective case, that is to say Peter, mischief and vice, are the object, the end, or the effect, of something done or felt by some other person, or thing, which is in the nominative case.

76. It would be useless to talk about these cases, seeing that the form or spelling of the noun is the same in all the cases; but, when we come to the pronouns and verbs, you will soon find the necessity of attending very carefully to the cases of the nouns; that is to say, when we come to use the nouns along with the pronouns and the verbs; and this is, as you will find, more strikingly true in French than in English. But, before we come to them we have to speak of the use of the definite article, the treating of which was, in paragraph 50, put off until we should come to the place where we now are.

77. Read Letter V, all through again, carefully, and then proceed with me. You see our definite Article, the, never changes its form, but that the French Article, le, changes its form many times; and, as we have now spoken of the branches, genders, numbers and cases of Nouns, you will the better understand me as I describe the mode of varying

the form of the Article; for in French, the Article varies its form to agree with these various circumstances in the noun. Sometimes the French article is used before proper names, and sometimes not. We say France is a great kingdom; fire burns. But, they say La France est un grand royaume; le feu brûle. We say, speaking of mankind, Men; they say, L'homme. This, however, will be fully explained by-and-by, and especially when we come to the Syntax, where we shall see how the article is to be used in sentences; at present I have only to show you how it varies its form to agree with the nouns before which it is placed.

78. The article must agree with the noun in gender. You have been told, in paragraph 55, that panier (basket) is masculine, and that table (table) is feminine. Now, then, of these two nouns the first takes the masculine article le, and the second the feminine article la. But this, you will observe, is only in the singular number; for, if the number be plural, the article is les, whether the noun be masculine or feminine. This is not, however, always the case; for if the noun begin with a vowel, or with an h mute (not sounded), the e, or the a, is omitted in the article, a mark of Elision is put over the place of the e, or the a, and the p is put before singular nouns of both genders; as Oreiller, the pillow, which is masculine; and Pâme, the soul, which is feminine. These four nouns take the Article as follows:

le panier, the basket.
la table, the table.
le oreiller, the pillow.
le pâme, the soul.

les paniers, the baskets.
les tables, the tables.
les oreillers, the pillows.
les âmes, the souls.

The h mute, in this respect, like the vowels, L'heure (hour), which is feminine, and L'homme (honour), which is masculine, both take the Article in the same form; but, if the h be not mute, that is to say, if it be sounded in speaking, you must put the le or the la agreeably to the gender; as le hibou (the owl) and la hache (the axe). But observe,
that, in all instances, the article for the plural is *les*.

79. We are now going to see how this definite French article *unit* itself with the little words *de* (of) and *à* (to). In paragraph 49 I have called it, when thus used, a *compound*; *de* and *à* are *prepositions*, as you have seen in paragraph 38, which you will now look at again. *De* sometimes means *from*, and *à* sometimes has a meaning different from that of *to*; but, used before nouns, they generally answer to our *of* and *to*. In speaking of a basket, instead of saying *de* *le* panier, we must say, *du* panier; thus, this one word *du* answers to our two words, *of the*. But, if we are using a noun of the feminine gender, we must not say *du*, but *de la*. Then, again, if the noun begin with a vowel, or an *h* mute, it must, whether it be of the masculine or of the feminine gender, have the *de P*; and in every instance, the plural noun takes *des* for *of the*. Let us here take the same four nouns that we took in the last paragraphs.

| du panier, of the basket. | des paniers, of the baskets. |
| de la table, of the table. | des tables, of the tables. |
| de l'oreiller, of the pillow. | des oreillers, of the pillows. |
| de l'âme, of the soul. | des âmes, of the souls. |

What was said in the last paragraph, about the *h* mute, applies here also; and we, therefore, say, *de l'heure, de l'homm*e, *du hibou*, and *de la hache*.

80. In like manner the French Article *unit* itself with the preposition *à* (to). In speaking of a basket instead of saying *à le* panier, we must say *au* panier; that is to say, *to the* basket. But, if our noun be of the feminine gender, we must use the two words; we must not say *au*, but *à la*. Then, as in the case of *du* comes the same rule about the *h* mute; and, in the plural number, be the gender as it may, *aux* is the word that answers to our *to the*. Therefore, the four nouns which we have already had twice before us, will again come before us, thus:

| *au* panier, to the basket. | *aux* paniers, to the baskets. |
| *à la* table, to the table. | *aux* tables, to the tables. |
| *à l'oreiller*, to the pillow. | *aux* oreillers, to the pillows. |
| *à l'âme*, to the soul. | *aux* âmes, to the souls. |

Bear in mind what was said, at the close of the last paragraph, about the *h* mute and the *h* sounded; and then you will perceive, that we must say, *à l'heure, à l'homm*e, *au hibou, à la hache*.

81. Now, if you pay strict attention to the three last paragraphs; if you read them over in the manner that I have directed, and write them down on paper, you will soon see no difficulty in the matter, though the French Article is applied to the Nouns in so many forms, while ours always retains the same form; and though in some of the instances above given, the French say in one word what we say in *two*. Let me go, here, a little out of my way, in order to inform you, that you will find the like of this to a great extent by-and-by. We say, to *write, to read, and the like*; but they say, *écrire, lire*. We say, *you will write*; but they say, *vous écrivez*; *making use of two words where we make use of three*. The *reason of this* will appear very clearly to you by-and-by; but the thing itself I have just mentioned here, to guard you against expecting to find the two languages answering each other word for word.

82. But, we have not yet done with the use of the Article with nouns. *As far as relates to common nouns*, taken in a *definite sense*; that is to say, when we are speaking of particular persons or things by names common to all of the kind, the above rules make all clear enough. But, there are three other views to take of the use of the Article with nouns; *first, when the noun is the name of persons or things, of whom or of which there is but one in the universe, or when it is the name of a species or sort; second, when the noun is a proper name; third, when the noun means a *part*, or *parcel*, or *quantity* of any thing*. In all these respects, the use of the French articles differs greatly from that of the English; and this will be seen in the three following paragraphs, to which I must beg you to pay strict attention.

83. When there is but one of the kind in the
French always use it; as le sucre est doux. We, as in the case of the apples, just mentioned, sometimes use the article before these nouns expressing masses; but the French always do it. It is the same with regard to the nouns expressing the feelings and qualities of the mind, the virtues, the vices, and so forth. We say, for instance, friendship, shame, anger; they say, l'amitié, la honte, la colère.

84. Next, as to proper names. You have seen in paragraph 53, what proper names or nouns are. Just read that paragraph over once more, before you go on further with this. Now, then, observe; we do not use articles before proper names of human beings, nor before proper names given to animals of any sort. We sometimes make use of a sort of poetic licence, and say the Swifts, or the Rackets; meaning men of the stamp of those celebrated writers; and, in the same sort of way, we say, the Switz, or a Racket. The French do the same; but, this is a mere licence, and has nothing to do with Grammar. But, the French use the article with the proper names of countries, and in many other instances, when we do not; as you will find more fully explained, when you come to the Syntax of Articles.

85. We now come to the noun, when used to express a part, a parcel, or a quantity of persons, or things; and here the difference between the two languages is very great. We, generally, in these cases, make use of the word some; as, give me some wine; give me some beer; give me some apples. But the French know nothing at all of the word some, used in this sense. Their word quelquе answers to our some; but, they do not use it in the manner here spoken of. They use the article, united, as we have above seen it, with the preposition de (of), according to the gender and number of the noun; thus:

Give me some wine, 
Donnez-moi du vin.
Give me some beer, 
Donnez-moi de la bière.
Give me some apples, 
Donnez-moi des pommes.
That is to say, give me a **part or quantity of the** wine, and so on. But, observe, when there is an adjective that comes before the noun, the article is left out, and the preposition de (of) only is used; as,

- Give me some good wine, *Donnez-moi de bon vin*.
- Give me some good beer, *Donnez-moi de bonne bière*.
- Give me some good apples, *Donnez-moi des pommes mûres*.

The reason is, you see, the adjective changes to agree with the noun in gender and number; and, therefore, the article is not wanted. Here we have, give me of good wine; and so on, and not of the as in the former cases. But, observe again, if the adjective come after the noun; then the article must be used; as,

- Give me some red wine, *Donnez-moi du vin rouge*.
- Give me some strong beer, *Donnez-moi de la bière forte*.
- Give me some ripe apples, *Donnez-moi des pommes mûres*.

That is to say, word for word: give me of the wine red; give me of the beer strong; give me of the apples ripe. And, strange as this seems to our ears, a Frenchman would not understand you if you were to say, *Donnez-moi quelque rouge vin*. Nay, if you were to say rouge vin, forte bière, and mûres pommes, he would wonder what you meant. Yet, this is what you naturally would say, unless you were taught the principles and rules of Grammar.

86. I have now gone through the Etymology of the Noun. I have considered it in its Branches, its Genders, its Numbers and its Cases; and I have, towards the close of this Letter, given an explanation of the use of the Article, which I could not so well give, until I had laid before you an account of the Noun. I shall, in the next letter, proceed to the Etymology of the Pronoun; but, before you enter on that, I beg you to read once more, very attentively, all the foregoing Letters.

**My dear Richard,**

87. In paragraph 34, I described to you, in general terms, the nature and use of Pronouns. We are now going to treat of the Etymology of this sort of words: that is to say, we are going to see how they vary their forms to suit themselves to the various circumstances in which they may be wanted to be used; and this variation of form we shall find much more extensive in the French than in the English Pronouns.

88. There are five Classes of Pronouns: the **Personal**; the Possessive; the Relative; the Demonstrative; and the Indeterminate. For you, in this early stage of your study, to be able to distinguish these Classes one from the other, is impossible. You will be able to do this by-and-by; but, it is necessary for me to make the division into Classes here; because I shall have, almost directly, to speak of Pronouns under these different denominations.

89. **PERSONAL PRONOUNS** are those which take the place of nouns. This office is, indeed, performed by all Pronouns, and hence comes their name. But, the other pronouns do not supply the place of nouns in the same way, and in a manner so complete. There are Three Persons: for instance, *I am writing to you about him.* You see, then, that the pronoun which represents the person that speaks is in the **first** person; that which stands in the place of the name of the person who is spoken to, is in the **second** person; and that which stands in the place of the name of the person spoken of, is in the **third** person. This circumstance of person is a matter to be strictly attended to: because, as you will by-and-by see, the verbs vary their endings to correspond with the person of the pronoun.
90. Pronouns of the First and Second Person vary their form to express number, and those of the Third Person to express gender also. And here we come to a comparison between the English and the French in this respect.

Thus, you see, as was explained in paragraphs 54 and 55, the French have no neuter gender. All, with them, is male or female; so that they have no word to answer to our it; nor have they any use for such a word. In speaking of a man, we say, he is; of a stick, it is: but, they have it est, in both cases. Besides this, you see, that, in the third person plural, we have only our they, whether we speak of males, females, or neuters. But they have a change in their pronoun to agree with the gender of the nouns that the pronouns represent. Whether we speak of males or of females, or of neuters, we say they are, but the French, in speaking of males, say ils sont, and of females, elles sont.

91. Besides the Number and Gender, there is the Case to be considered in these personal pronouns. In paragraphs, from 72 to 77, inclusive, I explained the nature of the cases; and I there apprized you, that, when you came to the pronoun, you would find, that it had different endings, or, rather, that it assumed different forms, to accord with the different cases: as, I, me, he, him; and so on. The following table will exhibit the difference between the English and the French, in this respect; but, there will still remain much to be explained.

Before we go to the Plural Number, we must pay a little attention to this table. You have been told about the numbers and genders before; but here you see new changes to designate the cases, and you see, that these changes are not nearly so frequent in English as in French. You see, in the objective case, me and moi for our me; you see le and lui for our him; you see la and lui for our her. Now, sometimes the one of these is used and sometimes the other. When the one ought to be used, and when the other, the Syntax of Pronouns will teach you; but, let me just give you an example here. Donnez-moi le bâton que Jean me donna hier. That is, give me the stick that John gave me yesterday. The Syntax will teach you why it ought to be moi in one place and me in the other. You see le and la in this table, answering to our him and her; and this may puzzle you, because you have seen so much of the le and la as Articles. But I observed to you before, in paragraph 48, that words frequently belonged to two parts of speech; or, rather, that, though containing the same letters, they were, in different situations, different words.

Example: Envoyez ici le messager que je le recommande. That is, send hither the messenger that I may reward him. Again: Prenez la jument et mettez-la dans la basse-cour. Take the mare and put her in the yard. Here the word la comes three times: twice it is an article, answering to our the, and once a pronoun, answering to our her. For some time, you will think that this is very strange, and that this French is an odd sort of language. The French think just the same of ours, till they understand it; and, you will find, by-and-by, that it is all precisely as it ought to be, and that it would be odd indeed, if it were any thing other than that which it is. We now come to the plural number.

VII.] OF PRONOUNS. 55
Here seems to be a pretty confusion; for here is our *they* sometimes answered by *ils*, then by *eux*, and both in the masculine. Then our *them* is sometimes *les* and sometimes *leur*, in both genders; and then, it is *eux* in one gender, and *elles* in the other. Here, too, we see the plural article *les*, answering to our *them*. But, all this, puzzling as it is to you at present, will become perfectly plain, by-and-by. You will be told, for instance, that, when the verb signifies communication from one person or thing to another, it takes *leur*, and that, when it signifies something done to an object, it takes *les*, or *eux* or *elles*, as the case may be. Speaking of cattle, we should say mettez-*les* dans la basse-cour et donnez *leur* du foin. *Put them* in the yard and give them some hay. That is to say, give to *them* some hay.

92. Once more let me remind you, that you must not be at all surprised at what appears to you to be a strange placing of the French words. You must get this surprise out of your mind, as soon as possible, and learn to think, that it is *right*, that one language should differ thus from another. Remember also what I have said about the same letters not always making the same word. For instance, the *leur* that you see here means to *them*; but, it means, in other cases, *their*. In the first instance, it is a personal pronoun; in the latter, a possessive pronoun. Pay attention to this, or it will cause you to waste your time.

93. Before I go to the next class of Pronouns, let me observe, that the second person singular, *tu*, *toi*, *te*, answering to our *thou* and *thee*, are not used in French much more than our *thou* and *thee* are in English. Something more they are indeed; for the French *thou* little children and also very low people. They do it, too, when upon terms of very great familiarity. But, generally speaking, they, like us, use the second person plural, instead of the second person singular; and, as we say *you* instead of *thou*, they say *vous* instead of *tu*. The same may be observed as to *thou* and *thine*, of which you will see more presently.

### Table: Possessive Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>Person</em></th>
<th><em>Singular Person</em></th>
<th><em>Plural Person</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st.</td>
<td><em>my</em>, <em>mon</em>, <em>ma</em></td>
<td>our, notre, nos.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2d.</td>
<td><em>thy</em>, <em>ton</em>, <em>ta</em></td>
<td>your, votre, vos.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Masculine</td>
<td><em>his</em>, <em>son</em>, <em>sa</em>, <em>ses</em></td>
<td>their, leurs, leurs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td><em>hers</em>, <em>son</em>, <em>sa</em>, <em>ses</em></td>
<td>their, leurs, leurs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuter</td>
<td><em>its</em></td>
<td>their, leurs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here you see a great many changes of the French pronoun; and you see, that our one word *my*, for instance, has three words by either of which it may be answered. But, observe, our possessive pronouns agree in number and gender (where they meddle with gender) with the noun which is the possessor; whereas the French possessive pronoun pays no attention to the possessor, but agrees in number and gender with the persons or things possessed. Thus, while we say, in English, my father, my mother, my brothers, my sisters; the French say, *mon* père, *ma* mère, *mes* frères, *mes* sœurs. If we have to speak of a Master's maid-servant and of a Mistress's man-servant, we must say, *his maid* and *her man*. But, the French must say, *sa* servante and *son* domestique. So that, you will remember, the gender, as stated in the above table, applies to the English only. The French possessive pronoun forms itself by a rule wholly different from ours. It agrees in number and gender with the person or thing that is possessed, and not that is the possessor. But, you will further observe, that, in the plural number of things possessed, the French possessive pronouns take no notice of gender. I say, *mes* mains, *my* hands, and *mes* bras, *my* arms, though the first is feminine and the last masculine. Neither, you see, is gender taken any notice of in the plural persons, though the things possessed be in the singular. I must say, *mon* chien, *my* dog,
ma poule, my hen; but, I must say, notre chien and notre poule. The same remark applies to votre and leur, your and their.

95. But, there are some of these possessive pronouns, which stand without the noun. They refer immediately to it indeed; but they do not go directly before it, like the others. Such as mine and yours; as, whose pen is that? It is mine. Thus, the pronoun, though it directly refers to the noun, and denotes possession, does not come directly before it. These, in French, take the article; and, in the above case, in answer to the question about the pen, I must answer, la mienne; and not call it simply mine. As the pronouns must take the article, the article must agree with them, in number and gender, as with the nouns, as before shown in the Etymology of nouns. These pronouns themselves vary their form to express both number and gender in the three persons singular, and to express number in the three persons plural; as follows:

**SINGULAR POSSESSION.**

Masculine. Feminine.

mine, le mien, la mienne, les miens, les miennes,
thine, le tien, la tienne, les tiens, les tiennes,
his, le sien, la sienne, les siens, les sennes,
hers, le sien, la sienne, les siens, les sennes,
ours, le vôtre, la vôtre, les vôtres, les vôtres,
yours, le vôtre, la vôtre, les vôtres, les vôtres,
thiers, le leur, la leur, les leurs, les leurs.

The Article is applied to these exactly as to nouns, and according to the instructions in paragraphs from 78 to 83 inclusive. Thus we say, du mien, de la mienne, des miens, des miennes, au mien, à la mienne, aux miens and aux miennes; and so on, throughout the whole of these pronouns, precisely as in the case of nouns, so amply explained in the paragraphs just referred to. Once more, before I quit these possessive pronouns, let me again remind you, that whenever they express gender, it is the gender of the thing possessed; and not the gender of the possessor.

96. RELATIVE PRONOUNS. The following pronouns are called relative, because they, gene-

rally relate to the nouns which have gone before in the sentence. Indeed all pronouns relate to nouns. But, it is useful to put them in classes, and, therefore, this appellation is given to these pronouns which follow. The Relatives, in English, are who, which, that, and what, in some cases. Who becomes whose and whom; the other three do not change their form. The French Relatives are qui, lequel, quoi; and some others that I shall mention presently. We, in some cases, use who and that indifferently for persons and things. Which we apply only to things. These relative Pronouns of the two languages answer to each other thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>who, qui</td>
<td>whom, qui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that, que,</td>
<td>whose, que, dont</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which, que, lequel</td>
<td>what, quoi, quel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is not the place for me to go into a detail of the cases, when one of these is to be used, and when the other. That will be done when I come to the Syntax of Pronouns, after I shall have gone through the Etymology of Verbs; for we must speak of these, when we are giving instructions for the proper use of the pronouns. It seems, at first sight, that there must be great difficulty here. But you will find that all these difficulties gradually disappear; and, at last, you will wonder that they ever appeared to be difficulties.

97. None of the above pronouns, except quel and lequel, change their form to express number and gender. These two do it thus:

**MASCULINE.**

quel, quels.

**FEMININE.**

quelle, quelles.

The former does not take the article. It merely takes the preposition. But the latter takes the article, and joins it to itself.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>de quel, de quels</td>
<td>de quelle, de quelles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à quel, à quels</td>
<td>à quelle, à quelles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duquel, desquels</td>
<td>de laquelle, desquelles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auquel, auxquels</td>
<td>à laquelle, auxquelles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
98. **DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS** are those which point out persons or things in contradistinction to others. Ours are *this, these, that, those, and, sometimes what: as, *this* is the man whom I wanted to see; *those* are the books which I wish you to read. The French have one pronoun of this sort, from which all the rest appear to come; and that is, *ce*, which, according to circumstances, means, *this* or *that*. It becomes *cet* before a singular noun masculine, beginning with a *vowel* or an *h* mute; *cette* before all feminine nouns in the singular; and *ces* before all plural nouns of both genders. But, besides this, several other pronouns grow out of this one, and assume a great variety of forms to fit themselves for various situations and circumstances. The following table presents all these variations.

### SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>ce</em> or <em>cet</em></td>
<td><em>cette</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>celui</em></td>
<td><em>celle</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>celui-ci</em></td>
<td><em>celle-ci</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>ces</em></td>
<td><em>cettes</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ceux</em></td>
<td><em>celles</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ceux-ci</em></td>
<td><em>celles-ci</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides these, there are *ceci* and *cela*; *ce* is sometimes put before *qui* and *que*, making *this* that; as, *ce que* vous dites; *this* that you say; or, as we should express it, that which you say. All these pronouns take the preposition *de* and *à* before them occasionally; but, *not* the article. Observe, I beg you, the little words, *ci* and *là* (the latter with an accent to distinguish it from the article.) These you see, are added to some of these pronouns. *Ci* means *here, and là* means there. So that, taken literally, *celui-ci* means *this* here, and *celui-là* means *this* there. There is, in fact, precisely this same meaning in *ceci* and *cela*; only the two former admit of variation to answer the purposes of number and gender, and the two latter do not.

99. **INDETERMINATE PRONOUNS** make the last class of words of this Part of Speech, and, with my remarks on them, I shall conclude my Letter on the Etymology of Pronouns. Amongst the most important of the Indeterminate Pronouns are *le, en, y, on, and se*. These are words of great use in French; and properly speaking, we have, in English, nothing that answers to some of them. We sometimes, indeed, say, *one* is pleased, *one* hears, *one* thinks, and the like; but this is not the French *on*, nor is it congenial to our language. And, then, when we say *one's-self*, it is seldom in the way that the French use their *se*; besides the *se* becomes *soi*, in many cases, and is a most prevalent and efficient word in the French language. Therefore I must not attempt to give you the English of these words here; but, request you to bear them in mind as things to be explained in the Syntax of Pronouns. I shall now give you a list of all the Indeterminate Pronouns and, you will see, that, though there are no variations in the form of the English pronouns of this class, it is far otherwise with those of the French. Some, indeed, you will find without variations of form; but the greater part vary their form to express gender as well as number.
My dear Richard,

101. Turn to paragraph 35; for, there you will find my description of this part of speech. Having read that paragraph, you will now learn the difference between our Adjectives and those of the French, and this difference you will find to be great indeed. Our adjective is, in all its different situations, the same in form; that is, composed of the same letters, except where its form is changed to express degrees in the qualities, the properties, or the dimensions, of the nouns to which it is applied: as, a great man, a greater man, the greatest man. This is all that our adjectives change their form to accomplish. Sometimes we mark these degrees of comparison by the help of the words more and most; and we can always do it if we like: as a great man, a more great man, the most great man. This is not done generally, when our adjectives are words of one or two syllables; but, it is when they are longer words: as a deplorable event, a more deplorable event, or a most deplorable event. In this respect, the French language is still more simple than ours; for, it, almost always, marks the degrees of comparison in this way: as, un grand homme (a great man), un plus grand homme, le plus grand homme. There are a few words of very common use with regard to which this rule is not followed; but, what I have to say further about the degrees of comparison, I must put off, till I have spoken of the genders and numbers of Adjectives.

102. In paragraph 55, I opened this subject; and you will do well to read that paragraph again, together with the two following ones. Indeed, it is necessary to read them, as they belong to what I am now writing. Thus, you see that, while our adjectives have no changes of form, except to express the
degrees of comparison, no French adjective can be used with propriety (except by mere accident) unless we know how to change its form to make it agree in gender and number with the noun to which it relates. Here is another, and a very great matter, wholly unknown to our language. Our word "white," for instance, is always "white," whether applied to paper, to skin, or to one paper or two papers, or one skin or two skins. Not so the French word; that is, "papier blanc, peau blanche, papiers blanches, peaux blanches." Now, then, let us see, what assistance we can get from rules, to enable us to perform this very important part of the business of speaking and writing French. For, mind, errors in this are essential. It will seem strange to you, but, it is a fact, that, if you were to say, "papier blanche," or "peau blanche, a Frenchman would scarcely understand you. Odd as it appears to us, that the Article, the Pronoun, and the Adjective must all agree in gender with the noun; useless as this appears to us, it must take place in French, or the words that you would utter would be more broken and ridiculous gibberish than ever a Frenchman uttered when only just beginning to make an attempt to speak English.

103. It being, then, absolutely necessary that we know how to vary the adjectives, so as to make them agree in gender and number with their nouns, let me now speak to you of the rules for this purpose, beginning with those which relate to the genders.

104. This is by no means so difficult a matter as the gender of nouns. In the case of the adjectives, we get at something worthy of being called rule; whereas, in that of the nouns, we only tease and torment ourselves, and add greatly to our toil, by endeavours to find out rules to ease us of our labour. The Adjective, in its primitive state, as, "grand (great)" is always applicable to the noun of the masculine gender and singular number. What we want to know, therefore, is, how to change its form so as to make it of the feminine gender. By looking into the Dic-
vowels, or by e, the adjectives ending in e follow the general rule, and simply take an e mute in addition; as, fuitil, futille. One exception there is, however, in gentil, which makes gentille.

SEVENTH RULE. Adjectives ending in y, with e or o before it, generally add te; as net, nette. But, this is not without exception; for, secret becomes secrète, which is the case with some others.

EIGHTH RULE. Adjectives ending in ear or eur, change them into euse; as, moqueur (sneering), moqueuse; religieux (religious), religieuse. But, of the adjectives ending in eur, the following are exceptions to this rule, and follow the second rule; that is to say, add an e.

antior, anterior, antérieur, antérieure.
posterior, posterior, postérieur, postérieure.
citerior, citétrieur, citétrieure.
interior, intérieur, intérieure.
exterior, extérieur, extérieure.
major, majeur, majeure.
major, minic, minicre.
superior, superieur, superieure.
inferior, inférieur, inférieure.
better, meilleur, meilleure.

The following can be brought under no rule. They are few in number; they are words of very common use, and their manner of forming their feminines, may be quickly learned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>soft,</td>
<td>mou,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foolish,</td>
<td>fou,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fine,</td>
<td>beau,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new,</td>
<td>nouveau,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false,</td>
<td>faux,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long,</td>
<td>longue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweet,</td>
<td>doux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reddish,</td>
<td>roux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fresh,</td>
<td>frais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benignant,</td>
<td>benin,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malignant,</td>
<td>malin,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jealous,</td>
<td>jaloux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green,</td>
<td>verd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is to be observed, that beau was formerly writ-

ten bel; and we now say, bel homme, bel esprit; and bel et bon (handsome and good), is a common phrase. Nouveau was formerly written nouvè; and, there may be a case or two in which it is still used in this form. But these are trifling, and, indeed, almost insignificant exceptions. And to make exceptions, unless they be of importace, is to cause a great waste of time.

106. If these rules be properly attended to, there can be few mistakes as to the gender of adjectives, which, you will bear in mind, depends, in all cases, upon the gender of the nouns to which they belong.

107. As to the Numerals, adjectives form their plurals from their singulars in the same manner that nouns do, and that manner is described fully in paragraph 68, to which you must now go back.

Read that whole paragraph again very carefully, and apply to the adjectives what you there find in the five rules relating to the numbers of nouns. The adjective is to agree with its noun in number; as, un grand homme, a great man; deux grands hommes, two great men. Having, then, the number of the noun, you use the singular, or the plural, of the adjective accordingly; and, again I observe, you are to form the plural from the singular according to the five rules in paragraph 68, which apply to adjectives as well as to nouns, and which, therefore, it is wholly unnecessary to repeat here.

108. There are about twenty adjectives ending in al, which, like some nouns, have no plural number, except in a particular instance or two; but, a detail of these is unnecessary here; because the manner of using them will be amply taught, by-and-by, in the course of the Exercises. This is one of those matters on which a great deal of time might be employed with great ingenuity, but with very little profit.

109. There now remains to be noticed the manner of forming the degrees of comparison, mentioned before in paragraph 101. It was there observed, that the French, instead of changing, so frequently,
as we do, the endings of the adjectives to denote degrees in the qualities and properties of dimensions of the nouns, make use almost always, as we do sometimes, of plus and le plus, answering to our more and the most. Suppose we are speaking of a pretty garden, the degrees would be formed thus:

- pretty, prettier, prettiest
- joli, plus joli, le plus joli

This is almost the invariable rule in French. But, observe that the le becomes l'a if the noun be a feminine; so that, if, with this same adjective, we were speaking of a flower, which is feminine, the words must stand thus:

- pretty, prettier, prettiest
- joli, plus joli, le plus joli.

110. There needs nothing further to be said on a matter so plain. But, there are a few French adjectives, which are irregular in this respect. We have, in our language, a few such; as good, which does not make gooder and goodest, but better and best. We have besides, bad, little, much, which are also irregular. The French have only four adjectives of this description; and these answer, in point of meaning, to the first three of ours. They are, bon, good; mauvais, bad; méchant, wicked; and petit, little. Their degrees are formed thus:

- bon, meilleur, le meilleur, the best.
- good, better, the best.
- mauvais, pire, le pire, the worst.
- bad, worse, the worst.
- méchant, pire, le pire, the worst.
- wicked, wickeder, wickedest.
- petit, moindre, le moindre, the least.
- little, less.

Observe, however, that all these, except the first, frequently form their degrees by the aid of plus and le plus. Plus mauvais, plus méchant, and plus petit, are proper enough; and even plus bon is not absolutely bad French. Still, the above is the usual mode of forming the degrees of these adjectives, which form the only exceptions to the general rule.

111. There are, as you will see by-and-by, some of the Adverbs, which have degrees of comparison; but, that is a trifling matter; and, at any rate, it does not belong to that part of speech, the Etymology of which has been the subject of this Letter. There is much to attend to in placing the adjective; for, it must sometimes come before, and sometimes after the noun. But, this is matter for the Syntax of Adjectives. The great thing belonging to adjectives, is, the gender. The number must be attended to also; but we are most apt to commit mistakes in regard to the genders. We, English, are very apt to look upon these genders of adjectives as being useless. This is, as you will find, a great error. They not only give to the language a pleasing variety of sound; but, in many cases, they tend to prevent sentences from being equivocal.

**LETTER IX.**

**ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.**

My dear Richard,

112. In paragraph 38, I explained to you what sort of words Verbs are. You must now read that paragraph again with great attention. Having done that, you will enter on an inquiry into the variations of form, to which words of this sort are liable; and you will find, that, in French, these variations are upwards of thirty in number, while in English, they are only four. The verb to kill, for instance, becomes, killest, kills, killed, or killing. This verb can take no other than one of these forms; but, the French verb, tuer, which answers to our verb kill, does, as you will see by-and-by, assume more than thirty different forms; that is to say, is composed, under so many different circumstances, of different letters.

113. Now, the Etymology of verbs teaches us when one of these forms is to be used, and when
another; and this, there being so many different forms, must evidently be a matter of great importance. In order to know what form the verb is to be in; that is to say, what letters it is to be composed of, we must first learn something about the different circumstances in which verbs may be placed; because, as I have just observed, the verb changes its form to accommodate itself to those different circumstances. These circumstances are, **Person, Time, and Mode.** Verbs are distinguished as active or neuter; but, that is another matter, and is to be treated of further on. At present we have to do with the three circumstances just mentioned; because on them depend all the changes in the form of the verb.

114. As to **PERSON,** you have, in the last Letter but one, had the distinction about the persons fully explained to you; but you will do well now to read paragraphs 89 and 90 again. I am to speak of the Modes by-and-by; but, I must here anticipate a little. There are four modes: the **Infinitive,** the **Indicative,** the Subjunctive, and the **Imperative.** The distinctions will appear more clearly hereafter; but, it is necessary to say here, that the **Infinitive Mode** exhibits the verb in its primitive and unrestricted sense; as, to kill. In this Mode it is a sort of Noun in point of grammar; as, to kill a man unlawfully is murder; to kill geese gives us feathers. This is called the **Infinitive Mode,** because when used in this Mode, or manner, the verb is in its large and general sense, and not confined to person or time. But, that which induces me to introduce this matter here, is, to show you, before we enter into a comparison of the two languages with respect to verbs, the difference between an **English** and a **French** verb in this their primitive, or original form. Our verb, in this state, has the word to always with it and belonging to it. The French verb has no such thing. It is complete in itself; and, accordingly, **tuer means to kill.** Bearing this in mind we will now proceed to consider the circumstance of Pers-

**ETYMOLOGY**

gion. The verb must agree in person with the noun or pronoun. For instance, I say, I kill; but, I must say, thou killest, and he kills. Then if I am speaking of the act of a number of persons, I must not say, they kill, but they kill. However, in our language, the changes in the form of the verb are, as was before observed, few, while, in the French, they are numerous; and I will now give you a specimen of the great difference of the two languages in this respect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>French</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tue,</td>
<td>I kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu tues,</td>
<td>thou killest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il tue,</td>
<td>he kills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous tuons,</td>
<td>we kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous tuez,</td>
<td>you kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils ment,</td>
<td>they kill</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here you see, there are only three different forms of the **English** verb, while there are **five of the French;** and these differing, too, very widely from each other.

115. **TIME** is the next circumstance; for an action, or a state of being, may be spoken of as in the present, the past, or the future, time; as: I kill, I killed, I shall kill. The verb changes its form, therefore, to suit itself to this circumstance of time; but, its changes in French are very different from the changes in English. In English we generally add ed to the present time of the verb, in order to make the past time; as: I kill, which makes, I killed. I must stop here to remark, that we, as well as the French, have some irregular verbs, and that these do not form their past times in the same way; as: write, which makes wrote. But this is a matter to be treated of further on. At present we must confine ourselves to an explanation of the difference in the manner in which the two languages make the changes in their verbs, in order to denote the circumstance of time; that is to say, in order to tell us, whether the action spoken of be done in the present, was done at a past, or is to be done at a future, time. We have seen, that in English, we simply add ed to the present, in order to form the past time; as: kill becomes killed. Let us now see the difference.
Thus, you see, the difference is great indeed; and you will, of course, see, that this circumstance of time is of great importance. But, far is this from being all with regard to the past time; for the French have two past times. That which I have exhibited is called the past imperfect; the other, which you will see a specimen of presently, is called the past perfect. When one of these is to be used, and when the other, will be explained when we come to the Syntax of Verbs, which we shall in Letter XXIII; but they must be both noticed here; for one of them is as often used as the other, and they must by no means be confounded with each other. In some cases I must translate, I killed by je tuois; but in other cases, I must translate it by je tuai; and I must go through all the persons in the following manner.

je tuais, I killed, nous tuions, we killed,
tu tuais, thou killedst, vous tuiez, you killed,
il tuais, he killed, ils tuatent, they killed.

Then, as to the future time, we, in English, have the little words, will and shall, which we put before the verb to express the future meaning; but, the French have no such little words: mind that, I beg you. They express the future meaning by a change in the ending of the verb itself; and this constitutes one of the great differences in the two languages. Our words will and shall, not only express future time, but convey also a meaning as to intention and obligation. The French have no different endings of their verbs to express these, which, in their language, are to be gathered from the tenor of the whole sentence. They have complete verbs which express will, power, and duty, and that supply the place of our will, can, shall, should, might, and the rest. Letter XXIV, will contain an account of these. In exhibiting the difference between the languages in this respect, I shall take the word will though you will understand, that I might, for this purpose, take shall with equal propriety.

je tuera, I will kill, nous tuurons, we will kill,
tu tuera, thou will kill, vous tuerez, you will kill,
il tuera, he will kill, ils tuent, they will kill.

Great as these changes in the form of the verb are, there are others and still greater changes; but you have now seen a sufficient specimen of those which arise out of the circumstances of person and of time.

116. MODE generally means manner; and, in grammar, it has the same meaning. At the beginning of paragraph 114, I have spoken of the Infinitive Mode. I have now to speak of the three other Modes: the Indicative, the Subjunctive, and the Imperative, the two former of which must be carefully distinguished from each other; because the verb, in its several times, changes its form to suit itself to this circumstance of Mode. The Imperative Mode you will find to be a matter of little difficulty; but, when you ought to use the Indicative, and when the Subjunctive, form, you will find to be a matter of great importance. You will, therefore, give your best attention to what I am now about to say. We sometimes speak of an action in a declaratory manner; that is to say, we indicate, or declare, or, in other words, merely say, that the action is taking place, or that it has taken, or will take, place. But, at other times we speak of it in a conditional manner. In these latter cases there is always something subjunctive, in the way of condition or consequence. There is some subjunctive, or subjunctive, circumstance. When, therefore, a verb is used in the first of these manners, it is in the Indicative Mode; and, when in the second, it is in the Subjunctive Mode. These names and distinctions would be useless, if it were not that the form of the verb changes in order to agree with the Modes. For instance, I say, he kills. This simply indicates that he does the act. But, I must say, he kill, if I have a condition or consequence to subjoin: as, though he kill a sheep he cannot sell it. Thus, you see in the one case
is kills, and in the other case kill, though the person and the number of the pronoun be the same in both cases. In our language, however, there is but little variation in the verb itself to express this change in the Modes. We express the greater part of the changes by the means of the little words, may, might, could, would, or should. The French have no such words; and, in all these cases of a subjunctive nature, they express themselves in a manner wholly different from ours, as you will see by-and-by, when you come to the Syntax of Verbs. The Verb in the Indicative Mode is as it has been exhibited in the two preceding paragraphs, showing the present, past, and future of the verb to kill. In the Subjunctive there is no future, properly so called; but, a present time and two past times. The present of the Subjunctive is in the three persons singular, and in the third person plural, the same precisely as the present of the Indicative, in the verb tuer. But this is not the case with some other verbs, as you will see by-and-by. The present of the Subjunctive is, therefore, as follows:

Before every phrase of this sort, in this mode of the verb, there is, in French, que, answering to our that; and, in most cases, there is the that in English, either expressed or understood; but, I omit the que here; because I am here merely showing you how the verb changes its form. The next change, or, rather, set of changes, that it takes, is to express the past time of the Subjunctive. I shall take the word should to put before the English verb; but would or could, might do as well for this mere purpose of exhibiting the changes in the form of the French verb.

Now, this is not, strictly speaking, a past time either in French or in English; nor is that which I am now going to exhibit. But, it is necessary to give

them names; and, therefore, the above is called the past imperfect of the Subjunctive Mode, and the following is called the past perfect of the Subjunctive Mode; and this is in imitation of the names rather than of the things, used in the Indicative Mode. This past perfect, then, is as follows:

But you must take care to remember, that it is not always, that these English phrases are translated by these French phrases. It frequently happens, that, where the Indicative Mode is used in one language, the Subjunctive is used in the other. These matters will be explained, when we come to the Syntax. What I am doing here is merely teaching you the changes in the form of the verbs. Of the Modes, then there remains only the Imperative. It is called Imperative, because it is used in commanding; but, it is also used in calling to or invoking. It is, in fact, in English, nothing more than the present of the Indicative, accompanied with some words expressing a command, a wish, or a prayer, or the like. In the verb tuer it causes no change at all in the form of the verb, except in the second person singular; but, this is not the case with regard to some other verbs. The first person singular has no place here; because no person commands, or calls to, himself.

When we are speaking directly to another or to others, in the second person, either singular or plural, we have only to name the act that they are to do at our request or command; and, therefore, if we want them to kill, we simply say, kill. But, when there are others to partake with us in the act, or, where the parties who are to act are third parties, we make use of let. The French you see, in the first of these cases, simply use the word describing the act; as tuons, which means kill we, or let us
kill. And in the third person, whether singular or plural, they make use of que; that is to say, that. Literally, that he kill, that they kill. The que'it and que'ils are written with the elision, according to the rule which you found in paragraph 24. It must not be que it, because it begins with a vowel. This is, then, that he kill. And, if you examine closely, you will find our own phrase to be precisely the same. For, what do we mean, by let him kill? We may, in some cases mean, indeed, to give him leave to do it; but, in general, this is not what we mean. Our meaning, when we make use of such phrases, generally is, let things be so that he kill, or perform the act of killing. The French simply say, that he kill.

117. I have now gone through the circumstances of Person, Time, and Mode. But, the verb assumes two other forms, called the Participles. We have the same in English: as, killing, killed. They are called participles, because they partake of the nature of adjectives and of verbs. Of verbs they are a part; and yet they are frequently adjectives: as I am killing a sheep; it is a killing disease. In the first of these instances killing is a verb; in the last an adjective. This is called the active participle. Killed, which is, with us, generally spelled like the past time of the verb, is called the passive participle. I killed a sheep; there is a killed sheep. In the first of these instances it is a verb; in the last an adjective. You will see that the French passive participle is not the same in form as the past time of the verb.

118. Let me now lay before you a complete Conjugation of these two verbs, to kill, and tuer. To conjugate means, in its usual acceptation, to join together; and, as used by grammarians, it means, to bring together, and to place under one view, all the variations in the form of a verb, beginning with the Infinitive Mode, and ending with the Participle. These two verbs, then, I will now place before you, in all their persons, times, and modes. But, before I give you the conjugation of a verb, let me observe that there are two ways of writing the past imperfect times, of the French verbs. You see, in the conjugation opposite, tuois, tuoit, tuoient; and, again, tuerois, tueroit, tueront. Voltaire wrote tuis, instead of tuois; and so on in the other parts of the verb, where o comes before i. He has had, and has, many followers; but, as the Dictionary of the French Academy adheres to the oi, and, as I find the greater part of standard French Books adhering to the same orthography, I adhere to it. Observe, that there ought to be que before the pronouns in the present and past perfect times, especially, of the subjunctive mode: as: que je tue, que je tuasse, and so on; but I leave out the que for want of room in the width of the page.

### INFINITIVE MODE.

Tuer, | To Kill.

### INDICATIVE MODE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Time.</th>
<th>Indicative Mode.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tue,</td>
<td>I kill,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu tues,</td>
<td>thou killest,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il tue,</td>
<td>he kills,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous tuons,</td>
<td>we kill,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous tuez,</td>
<td>you kill,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils tuent.</td>
<td>they kill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Imperfect Time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tuois,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu tuois,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il tuoit,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous tuiros,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous tuiez,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils tuiroient.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Perfect Time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tuois,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu tuas,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il tua,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous tâmes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous tâtes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils turent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tuerai,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu tuerez,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il tuera,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous tueront,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous tuerez,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils tueroient.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tue,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu tuez,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il tue,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous tuions,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous tuiez,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils tuent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7**
119. Thus have you this French verb completely before you. You will observe, that I have, all through taken no notice of genders; but you will conclude, of course, that as whether it be he, she or it, the verb is the same in English, so it is in French, whether it be il or elle. I have therefore thought it unnecessary to put the she or the it, or the elle, in any of these tables. You will also observe, that the French phrases in the Subjunctive would, in part at least, require the que before them; but the object here has been to bring you acquainted merely with the changes in the form of the French verb. According to the rules of grammar every complete sentence begins with a capital letter. I have not observed this rule in the Examples, Tables, and Conjugations; because it would encumber the page, and, in some cases, not leave room for placing the words in a neat and clear manner.

120. This table of conjugation should be well considered by you before you go any further. You will, at first think, that all these endings of the French verb, or rather, all these various forms, make a difficulty never to be overcome. But, a little time will, if you be attentive and industrious, make all this difficulty disappear. You will remark, that the end of the verb consists of er; and that all the changes consist of letters put in the place of, or added to, the er. Now, it is the same in other verbs. For instance, gronder (to scold) becomes je gronde, je grondis, je grondai, je grondreri, je gronde, je gronderos, je grondess. So that, when you become perfectly well acquainted with the changes in the verb tuer, you will of yourself be able to make all the changes in other verbs; and you will be surprised how readily you will do this in a very short time. Parler (to speak) will no sooner meet your eye, than you will know that you must say, je parle, je parfois, je parla, je parlerai, je parle, je parlois, and so on.

121. This, however, would be too easy. Every person would learn French, if the difficulties were no greater than this. All the French verbs do not end in er; and those that do not, are not conjugated in this way; that is to say, they do not vary their forms in the way that the verb tuer varies its form. But, observe, the whole number of French verbs do not exceed three thousand, or thereabouts; and, of these, about two thousand seven hundred end in er; so that the rest are not very numerous. This rest, however, are, for the far greater part, reducible to rule. They are formed into nine other classes, which are called Conjugations, and which, together with the verbs ending in er, make ten conjugations in the whole. There is one class which end in ir, and this class contains about a hundred and ninety-eight verbs, all conjugated in the same way. So that, if we were to make but two regular Conjugations, there would remain but about a hundred verbs not included in these two. These hundred would, of course, have no rule, and would be to be learned separately. If we make ten Conjugations, we reduce the irregular ones to about forty; and I shall make ten Conjugations, because the verbs are so considered in Boyer’s Dictionary, which is the dictionary in general use. You will perceive, however, that this is merely arbitrary; we make two or ten, just as we please. It is a mere classification of
the verbs, for the sake of more easily learning how
to make the changes in their form.

122. Then, after we have made the ten classes, or
Conjugations, there remain about forty verbs, which
do not come into either of those classes, and these
are called irregular verbs. In English we call
those of our verbs regular, which end their past
time, and their passive participle in ed; as in the
case of to kill, which becomes killed. Those which
do not end their past time and their passive partici-
ple thus, we call irregular. For instance, to write
is irregular; because I cannot say written; but must
say, wrote, and written. We have, in English,
about a hundred and forty of these irregular verbs;
but, then, we have but one Conjugation of regular
verbs, while, in French, we make ten. Yet, this
will be found to be a matter by no means full of
difficulty. When we have gone through the prin-
ciples and rules of Etymology, you will find, in Let-
ter XIV., all these irregular verbs brought together
under one head, or into one Task, and also an ac-
count of the ten Conjugations, and a method pointed
out for learning the whole. I avoid introducing
this detail here, because it would too much inter-
rupt your progress, and carry your mind too far
away from what has already been engaged in.
My business here has been to show you the prin-
ciples upon which the French verbs vary their forms;
and, for this purpose, one verb is better than many.
I, therefore, leave all the details relating to the se-
veral Conjugations, and to the Irregular Verbs, to
be treated of in another place, where you will find
them in due time.

123. But, there are two verbs, into all the parti-
culars relating to which I must go here; because,
there is no other verb that can be used in all its ca-
pacities without one of these two being used with
it. These two are avoir (to have) and être (to be).
These, in French, as well as in English, are called
Auxiliary Verbs. The word auxiliary means help-
ing, or helper; as an auxiliary army is an army
that comes to the help, or assistance, of another
army. These verbs are so called because they help
other verbs to express that which they otherwise
would not express. Suppose the subject we are
talking about to be my killing a sheep, or any thing
else; and that I want to tell you, that the act is
ended, that I have closed the work; I cannot easily,
if at all, tell you this without the help of the verb to
have. To say I kill, or killed, or will kill, a sheep:
either of these will answer my purpose. No: I
must call in the help of the verb to have, and say,
I have killed a sheep. So, in the past time, it would
be, I had killed a sheep. It is precisely the same
in French.

j'ai tué un mouton, I have killed a sheep,
j'avais tué un mouton, I had killed a sheep.

Now, observe, the verb to have, besides being a
helper, is, sometimes, a verb of itself, a principal
in the sentence, and signifies possession; as, I have
a sheep; that is to say, I possess a sheep. It is, as
a principal, a verb of great use in both languages;
and in French, I think, more than in English. The
French say, sometimes, son avoir, meaning a per-
son's possessions. That is to say, his or her to have.
Odd as this sounds to us, we ourselves say, a man's
having, though the word is rather out of use. In
stead of saying his having is great, the French
say, his to have is great. This you will by-and-by
find to be a turn of the French idiom. In such cases
we mostly make use of the active participle, and
they of the infinitive of the verb; as, killing a man
is a great crime. They say, not montant, but, tuent
un homme est un grand crime. One of our weights
is called Acorduipoi. This is all French, avoir (to
have) du (of the) poids (weight); that is to say
(because we leave out the du), to have weight; or,
in other words, to have enough of it; and this is,
accordingly, our heaviest weight. I was consider-
ing avoir as an auxiliary; but this digression ap-
ppeared necessary, in order to show you the prin-
ciple out of which has arisen the use of this verb
along with other verbs. The idea of Possession always adheres to the verb *avoir*: for, when I say, I have killed a sheep, I, in fact, say that the act is mine: I am the owner of the act; I have it.

124. The verb *être* (to be) expresses existence, and always carries that idea along with it. To be ill, to be rich, mean to *exist* in illness, or in riches. This verb must have the help of *to have* in its compound times, of which I shall speak presently; but, in French, it is, along with verbs used in a certain way, employed as an auxiliary instead of *to have*, which is never the case in English; but, of this I shall have to speak fully in a few minutes.

125. Let me now lay before you these two verbs, completely conjugated, in the same manner that you have seen *Tuier* in paragraph 118. But, let me first observe, that you must look again attentively at what I have, in paragraph 118, said about the *que*, which ought to be placed before the pronouns in the conjugation of the *present* and of the *past perfect* of the subjunctive mode; as: *j'ai* ought to be *que j'ai*. I have, as I said before, omitted the *que* for want of room in the page. Once more, before I give you the conjugation of *avoir*, let me press upon you the necessity of becoming, as soon as possible, perfectly well acquainted with this verb. You will remember, that the compound times of other verbs are formed with its help; and, that even the compound of *être* cannot be formed without the help of *avoir*. It is, therefore, a word of very great importance, and it merits your best attention. Write it down, in all its forms, very often, and, if you have a teacher, or any one to hear you read, read it over many, many times.

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>avoir</em></th>
<th><em>To Have</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Time</th>
<th>Indicative Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>j'ai</em></td>
<td>I have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>tu as</em></td>
<td>thou hast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>il a</em></td>
<td>he has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>nous avons</em></td>
<td>we have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vous avez</em></td>
<td>you have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ils ont</em></td>
<td>they have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Time</th>
<th>Subjunctive Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>j'ai</em></td>
<td>I may have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>tu aies</em></td>
<td>thou mayest have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>il ait</em></td>
<td>he may have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>nous ayons</em></td>
<td>we may have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vous ayez</em></td>
<td>you may have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ils aient</em></td>
<td>they may have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Imperative Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>avons</em></td>
<td>let us have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ayons</em></td>
<td>let him have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>avez</em></td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ayent</em></td>
<td>let them have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>ayant</em></td>
<td>having</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eau</em></td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What was said in paragraph 119, about the *she* and *it* in English, and about the *elle* or *elles* in French, and also about using the *que* in the Subjunctive Mode applies in the case of these auxiliary verbs as well as in that of all others. Read, therefore, that paragraph again, before you go on any further.

Having well considered all about the verb *avoir*; having marked well all its changes of form, you
next come to the verb être. But, just observe, that there are two ways of spelling, aie and aies. Some write aye, ayes, instead of the former. It is of little consequence which spelling we make use of. The same you will see taking place in être. Some write, in a part of that verb, sounent, and others, sayent. I mention it, lest it should be a stumbling-block to you; but, it is, otherwise, a matter of no consequence. The verb avoir ought to be, in all its parts, at your fingers' ends, before you proceed further. You ought to write it many times over; and, if you have a teacher, or any one to read to, it will be good to read it with its pronouns, fifty times over. The best way is, to become very familiar with it before you go to être, so that they may not get confounded in your mind. You have been told that the compound times of verbs are formed by the help of avoir; but, you will, by-and-by find, that some verbs take être to help in the forming of their compound times. The French say, je suis tombé, I am fallen; and not j'ai tombé, I have fallen. You will soon see something about reflected verbs; and then you will see how frequent and how great the use of this verb être, and how necessary it is that you should have a perfect knowledge of it as soon as possible.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Être | To Be

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.
- je suis, I am
- tu es, thou art
- il est, he is
- nous sommes, we are
- vous êtes, you are
- ils sont, they are

Past Time.
- je fus, I was
- tu fus, thou wast
- il fut, he was
- nous fûmes, we were
- vous fûtes, you were
- ils furent, they were

Past Imperfect Time.
- je dois, I ought
- tu dois, thou shalt
- il doit, he must
- nous devons, we must
- vous devez, you must
- ils doivent, they must

Past Perfect Time.
- je fus, I was
- tu fus, thou wast
- il fut, he was
- nous fûmes, we were
- vous fûtes, you were
- ils furent, they were

Future Time.
- je serai, I shall be
- tu seras, thou shalt be
- il sera, he shall be
- nous serons, we shall be
- vous serez, you shall be
- ils seront, they shall be

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.
- je sois, I may be
- tu sois, thou mayst be
- il soit, he may be
- nous soyons, we may be
- vous soyez, you may be
- ils soient, they may be

Past Imperfect Time.
- je serois, I should be
- tu serois, thou shouldst be
- il seroit, he should be
- nous serions, we should be
- vous seriez, you should be
- ils seraient, they should be

Past Perfect Time.
- je fusse, I might be
- tu fusses, thou mightest be
- il fût, he might be
- nous fussions, we might be
- vous fussiez, you might be
- ils fussent, they might be

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- sois, let us be
- soyez, let you be
- serons, let we be

PARTICULAR.

- sois, let us be
- soyez, let you be
- serons, let we be

126. Here, then, you have these two important verbs in all their various forms. Great indeed is the change from être to fussions; but, it is still the same word. Our to be becomes was and were; but yet these are still the same word, only under different forms; and, as we know very well when to use one of these forms, and when the other, so you will, in a short time, with due diligence, know when you are to use one of the French forms and when the other.

127. I have now to call your attention to the Compound Times of Verbs, and to verbs when they are called Reflected; because it is here that you will see the use of avoir and être as auxiliaries. The compound times are so called because they are expressed by two verbs instead of one; as I have killed; I had killed; and so on. But, in fact, there is
nothing more in this, than that the verb to have is put before the passive participle of the principal verb: so that these compound times, as they are called, are nothing more than the simple times of the verb to have, going before the passive participle of some other verb; thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{j'ais tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I have killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'avais tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I had killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'aurais tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I may have killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'ai tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I have killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'avais tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I had killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'aurais tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I should have killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'aurai tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I will have killed a sheep,} \\
\text{j'aurais tué un mouton,} & \quad \text{I might have killed a sheep,}
\end{align*}
\]

You see, it is always tué; that is to say, the passive participle of the verb tuer. The change is only in the auxiliary; and this is all that need be said about the compound times, except that we have now to notice how the Reflected verbs are used, and how the auxiliaries are employed in relation to them.

128. A Reflected Verb is one which expresses an action that is confined to the actor; and, in this respect, the two languages differ materially. But, before I say more of this matter, I must speak of verbs as active and neuter. A verb is called active when it expresses an action of one person or thing which passes to another person or thing; as: the hawk kills the sparrow. A verb is called neuter, either when there is no action; as, the hawk moults (or lets fall out its feathers), or when there is an action which does not pass to any object; as: the hawk flutters. It is the same in French; that is to say, the first of these verbs is active in French, and the two last neuter, in one language as well as in the other; and the translation into English would stand thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{le faucon tue le moineau,} & \quad \text{the hawk kills the sparrow,} \\
\text{le faucon mante,} & \quad \text{the hawk moults,} \\
\text{le faucon volé,} & \quad \text{the hawk flutters.}
\end{align*}
\]

Thus, you see, in the first instance, there is an action, and it passes from the hawk to the sparrow. In the second, there is no action on the part of the hawk; for his feathers merely come out without his doing any thing. In the third there is an action, and of the hawk himself too; but it does not pass to any thing else. This distinction, therefore, between active and neuter verbs is very clear; and it is of some importance, because the use of other words in the sentence must depend, sometimes, on whether the verb be active or neuter. But, mind, there is no change in the form of the verb to express the active, or the neutral, character of it.

129. Thus far, there is, as to this matter, no difference in the two languages; but, many of the verbs, which are merely neuter in English, are reflected in French; and, if reflected, they must be used with a double pronoun, or with a noun and a pronoun; whereas, if not reflected, they are used in the usual way. Thus, the hawk perches on the tree. Here we, in English, have the verb used in the common way, just as the hawk kills, the hawk moults, the hawk flutters. But, this to perch, being a reflected verb, it must have, in the French, the pronoun as well as the noun; thus: le faucon se perche sur l'arbre; or, if the pronoun be used instead of hawk, it must be il se perche sur l'arbre; that is to say, word for word, he himself perches upon the tree. We may, in English, say, he perches himself upon the tree; but this we do not frequently do. There are some few cases in English where it is necessary for us to use the self; as, I hurt myself; but, in French, there are great numbers of verbs that must be thus used; and, in the Dictionary, you will find them with se always before them; thus, Se Percher, To Perch. Any active verb may be, and, indeed, must be, used in the same way as a reflected verb, if the action be done to the actor. Thus, to kill may be used in this manner; as the hawk kills himself; le faucon se tué. When we use the myself, thyself, himself, and so on, the French verb is sure to be reflected; but, it is reflected, in many cases, where we do not use the self.

130. Having explained the reasons upon which
this distinction is founded, let us now see how a reflected verb is conjugated; how it is used with the double pronoun; and let us, for this purpose, take the verb to perch.

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

Se Percher, | To Perch.

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je me perche,</td>
<td>1 perch,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu te perches,</td>
<td>thou percheth,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il se perche,</td>
<td>he perches,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous nous percheons,</td>
<td>we perch,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous vous perchez,</td>
<td>you perch,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils se perchent,</td>
<td>they perch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We need not carry the conjugation any farther; because the verb goes on changing its form, just like tuer in paragraph 118; and the only difference is, that here there are two pronouns, while in the case of the active verb tuer, there was only one. But, if tuer, or any other active verb, express an action done to, or confined to, the actor; then it must be treated as a reflected verb. So that, if I am talking of persons killing themselves, I must say,

je me tue,

tu te tues,

il se tue,

nous nous tuons,

vous vous tuez,

ils se tuent;

and so on throughout the whole of the verb. In paragraph 99, you have seen Se placed amongst the Indeterminate Pronouns. It is indeterminate because it points out neither gender nor number. It means self or selace; and it is applicable to the third person of both numbers and both genders; for, whether we be speaking of males or females, of one, or more, the se never changes its form: thus, il se perche, he perches; elle se perche, she perches; ils se perchent, they perch; elles se perchent, they perch. The above phrases, word for word, would stand in English thus:

je me tue,

I me kill,

je me suis tue,

I have killed myself.

j'aurai tué un mouton,

I shall have killed a sheep.
Thus, you see, all through, it is the verb être, in place of the verb avoir, which in the imperfect tense is used in the reflected sense. I have taken here only the first person singular, which is all that is necessary, because the other persons go on in the same way; as, nous avons tué un mouton; nous nous sommes tués; and so on. But in the Imperfect Mode there is a further change; thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je tué un mouton</th>
<th>tué-toi</th>
<th>tué-nous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j'ai tué un mouton</td>
<td>tué-toi</td>
<td>tués-nous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je tue un mouton</td>
<td>tué-toi</td>
<td>tués-nous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j'aurais tué un mouton</td>
<td>tué-toi</td>
<td>tués-nous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je serais tué</td>
<td>tué-toi</td>
<td>tués-nous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j'eusse tué</td>
<td>tué-toi</td>
<td>tués-nous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je fusse tué</td>
<td>tué-toi</td>
<td>tués-nous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The infinitive is S'être tué: the active participle, S'étant tué.

I will give you some of the above phrases word for word as nearly as possible; and, strange as they appear at first, you will, at last, find them natural enough. As far as the verb avoir goes we think all natural; but, when we come to the verb être, we think all out of place.

Je me suis tué, I am killed,
je m'étais tué, I was killed,
je me serais tué, I should be killed,
tue-toi, kill thyself,
qu'il tue, kill him,
tués-nous, kill us,
tuez un mouton, kill a sheep,
qu'ils tuent un mouton, kill yourselves,
qu'ils se tuent, kill themselves.

This appears monstrous; but, consider it well, and you will find, that the me in the French means, in this case, myself as the doer of the deed; and that the fair and full meaning, in English, is I, of myself.

or by my own act, am killed, was killed, shall be killed, and so on. Then, as tué, in the imperative, means, kill thou, tué-toi is kill thou thee, which is no more than kill thyself. And, if we find it a fault in the French language, that it requires kill we us, instead of, let us kill ourselves, the French will tell us that the fault is in our mode of expression, and not in theirs. Je me sui-tué is, in good English, I have killed myself. Word for word, this would be, in French, j'ai tué moi-même; but this would be bad French: or rather, it would be no French at all, any more than I am killed, is English.

133. I have before observed, that the Reflected Verbs are denoted, in the Dictionary, by Se being put before them. I have also observed, that any active verb, expressing an action done to the actor, or confined to the actor, may, as in the case of tuer, become a reflected verb. But, besides these, there are several neuter verbs, which must be conjugated with être, and not with avoir; though this is not the case with neutral verbs in general. Let us take our hawks again in the way of illustration. Tuer is an active verb as we will here use it. Se Percher (to perch) is a reflected verb. But Jucher (to roost) is a neuter verb. Now, then, speaking of a hawk, we say,

Il a tué un moineau,
Il s'est perché sur l'arbre,
Il a perché sur l'arbre,
Il a rossé sur l'arbre,

The distinction here, though very nice, is very clear, and must, if you attend to it, explain the whole matter of reflected verbs. To percher on a tree includes an act which the hawk does with regard to himself; but, the roosting is totally void of all action. It is an inactive, a neutral state of being; and, therefore, the verb which describes that state, is called a neuter verb, and is, in its compound times, conjugated with avoir, and not with être.

134. There are, however, some few neuter verbs, which are conjugated with être and not with avoir; but, you will find a list of these when you come to...
the Syntax on the Times of verbs. **Sortir** (to go out) is, for instance, one of these neuter verbs; as: *je suis sorti*, I have gone out; and not *j'ai sorti*, I have gone out. However, I put off, for the present, this list and the details on the subject, in order to avoid as much as possible giving interruption to this series of principles and rules, which ought to have a constant connection in your mind as you proceed.

135. There is one thing more belonging to reflected verbs; and that is, they have sometimes *entre* used with them. *Entre* means, literally, between, or amongst; as, *entre nous* (between ourselves) when there are two of us only. Where there are more, we say, in English, amongst ourselves; but the French say, *entre vous*, whether there be two or more than two. This *entre* is a preposition which generally means between or amongst: *entre deux*, between two; *entre trois*, amongst three. Now, this preposition is used frequently with reflected verbs; and to make, in some sort, a part of the verbs themselves; as, *S'entre tuer*, to kill one another. This is when there are two parties acting, and acting with reciprocity, on each other. In speaking of two men, we say, *ils s'entre-tuent*, they kill one another. When *entre* is thus used, it makes no difference at all in the manner of conjugating the verb. The *entre* is prefixed to the verb, and that is all; as:

- *nous nous entre-tuons*, we kill one another,
- *nous nous entre-tuions*, we killed one another,
- *ils s'entre-tuent*, they kill one another,
- *ils s'entre-tuient*, they killed one another.

Then in the compound times, where we make use of *to have*, they make use of *to be*; as:

- *nous nous sommes entre-tués*, we have killed one another,
- *nous nous étions entre-tués*, we had killed one another,
- *ils s'ont entre-tués*, they have killed one another,
- *ils s'ont entre-tuient*, they had killed one another.

And in this way goes on the conjugation of any and every verb with *entre*. Sometimes, the same thing is expressed in another way: as *ils se tuent* the block of text continues...
frequently answers the purpose. But *must* is our great word in these cases; and here the turn of the two languages is wholly different. This difference requires the greatest attention; but this will be fully explained in the *Syntax*, my business here being to show how the French verbs change their forms, and to explain to you the reasons for those changes. Let me, however, just give you an example or two with *must*, and let us adhere to our verb *Tuier*.

*il faut que je teus hier*, I must kill to-day,
*il falloit que je tusse hier*, I must kill yesterday,
*il faudra que je teus demain*, I must kill to-morrow.

We, in some cases, say very properly, *I must* kill yesterday, or not at all. So that here we have *must* all through. We do, indeed, say, *I was obliged* to kill yesterday; or, *I was compelled, or forced*; but we can say *must* in this case as well as in the present and the future. These three French phrases, literally translated, are as follows:

*il faut que je teus hier*, it is necessary that I may kill to-day,
*il falloit que je tusse hier*, it was necessary that I might kill yesterday,
*il faudra que je teus demain*, it is necessary that I may kill to-morrow.

So that, you see, there is no single word in French that answers to our *must*. The same meaning is expressed, but it is expressed in another manner. You will observe, that this verb, *il faut*, forms its compound times like another verb; as, *il a fallu*; it has been necessary.

140. There are several other verbs which, for the reason before mentioned, are usually called *impersonal*; such as *pleuvoir* (to rain), *geler* (to freeze), *tonner* (to thunder). But there is no difficulty belonging to these; for, the French say, *il gèle*, *il tomne*, just as we say, it freezes, it thunders. As to *rain*, indeed, they generally say, *il tombe de la pluie*, it falls of the rain, or, in good English, *rain is falling*. But these are matters that properly belong to the *Syntax*. *Il faut*, which means, *it makes*, is one
of the impersonals; but, it is also part of the verb faire (to make), and will be found fully conjugated in its proper place. As impersonal, however, it goes through all the Modes and Times; and, it is in such common use, and this use is so strongly characteristic of the difference between the two languages, that I must give you an example here. Speaking of the weather, the French say,

if fait beau,
if fr.oit beau,
if fit beau,
if fer beau.

We, in English, do not say, makes, made, and will make; we say, is, was, will be. But, we are not to find fault with the French on this account. If examined closely, their mode of expression is just as reasonable as ours. At any rate, they do and will say, il fait beau; and, it is for us to learn to say it, too.

141. Thus I put an end to my letter on the Etymology of Verbs. It is full of matter requiring great attention. You will have observed, that its principal object is, to teach you how to make the several changes in the forms of the verbs, according to the several circumstances of person, number, time and mode. You will, by-and-by, when I have gone through the Etymology of the Adverbs, Prepositions and Conjunctions, find the Conjuctions of the verbs at full length and with all the details. But, before you proceed even to the Etymology of Adverbs, I wish you to become very perfect in your knowledge of the contents of this letter. Write the verb Tuer down, in all its Modes, Times, Numbers, and Persons, till it becomes as familiar to you as your fingers are. Do the same with regard to the verbs avoir and être; for, one or the other of them appears in almost every sentence that you see in any book. To fix a thing in your memory, there is nothing like making it with your hand. A perfect familiarity with Tuer will make you master of the changes belonging to about eight-ninths of the whole of the French verbs; and a similar fa-

miliarity with avoir and être will go far towards removing every difficulty with regard to the verbs. Let me, therefore, beg of you to secure this important point before you proceed any further.

LETTER X.

ETYMOLOGY OF ADVERBS.

My dear Richard,

142. In paragraph 37, I explained to you why the words belonging to this part of speech are called Adverbs. You will, of course, now read that paragraph again. Having read it, you will want nothing more to inform you of the nature and use of the words of this part of Speech.

143. Adverbs undergo no changes of form, like the parts of speech which we have heretofore had to do with. Therefore this sort of words will not detain us long. The main part of our English Adverbs end in ly; as, happily, shortly. They are formed, in most cases, from adjectives, as in these two instances, from happy and short. It is nearly the same in the French, except that, instead of ly, they add ment; as heureusement (happily), courtement (shortly); from heureuse (happy), and courte (short.)

144. The Syntax will teach us how to place and employ Adverbs in sentences: here we have only to ascertain how the Adverbs themselves are formed, and what connexion they have with other words. And, as to this matter, there are a few observations to make:

Finer. The general rule is, to add ment to the adjective to make it an adverb; as, brave, bravement; but, if the adjective end in é (with an accent, mind), or in é ou, it is to the musc-tine of the adjective that the ment is added. Adjectives ending in a mute are, as you have before seen, for both genders; and the ment is merely added to them to form the adverb.
When the adjective ends in a *consonant*, the adverb is formed by adding *ment* to the *feminine* of it. The following five words will suffice in the way of example. I shall give the English of the Adverb only.

### ADJECTIVES | ADVERBS
---|---
Masc. | Fem.
Aisé, | aisément, easily,
joli, | joliment, prettily,
goulu, | gouluement, gluttonously,
vite, | viment, quickly,
dur, | durément, hardly,

This taking the feminine, and not the masculine, of the adjective, whereon to form the adverb, is particularly to be observed in those cases where the masculine differs widely in form from the feminine; as *franc, franche*; *doux, douce*; *heureux, heureuse*; for, here it must be, not *francement*, but, *franchement*, *doucement*, *heureusement*. To the above rule there are, however, a few exceptions. The following adjectives, though ending with a *consonant* or with *u*, take an *é* or an *â* before the *ment*.

### ADJECTIVES | ADVERBS
---|---
Express, | expressément, expressly,
précis, | précisément, precisely,
commun, | communément, commonly,
obscour, | obscurément, obscurely,
profond, | profondément, deeply,
gegentil, | gentiment, genteelly,
epérdu, | éperdument, desperately,
ingénue, | ingénûment, ingeniously,
dû, | dûment, duly,
assié, | assidûment, assiduously.

A further exception is, that the following adjectives, though ending in *e* mute, do not, like *vite*, which becomes *vivement*, keep the *e* mute in forming the adverb; but change the *e* mute into an *é* acute.

### ADJECTIVES | ADVERBS
---|---
Aveugle, | aveuglément, blindly,
commode, | commodément, commodously,
conforme, | conformément, conformably,
énorme, | énormément, enormously.

The words derived from any of these, follow the same rule, *incommodément*, which is derived from *incommode*, and that from *commode*. For *unpunished*, or, with *impunity*, the French have *impunément*, though the adjective is, *impuni*.

Second. When the adjectives end in *ant* and *ent*, they form the adverbs by changing the *ant* into *amment* and the *ent* into *ément*; as, *independent*, (independent), *indépendamment* (independently), *prudent* (prudent), *prudemment* (prudently). To this rule there are two exceptions. *Lent* (slow) makes *lentement*, and *présent* (present) makes *présentement*.

145. As to the other adverbs, I mean such as are not derived from, or made out of adjectives, they are words of themselves, and, like other words, are to be sought for in the Dictionary. There are, perhaps, a hundred of them. For inserting a list of them there can be no reason which would not be a reason for inserting the whole of the nouns and adjectives and of all the other parts of speech. We ought to do nothing without a reason, and to swell the bulk of a book, less, perhaps, than almost any other thing. An adverb is a word that *never changes its form* on account of person, number, gender, time, or any other circumstance. It is always composed of the same letters; and, therefore, there need not be much time employed upon explanations relative to this Part of Speech. The French adverbs differ widely from ours; they are used in a manner very different from that in which ours are used; but, they cannot all be put into the head at once: they and their several uses must be learned by translating, by writing, by speaking, by reading them in books, as they occur, and not by attempting to know them all at once by arranging them and reading them in lists.

146. There are Adverbs of *time*, *place*, *order*, *quality*, and of *manner*; but, any classification of them would be useless, because they undergo no changes. There are *Nouns* of *time*, *place*, *order*,
and the rest; but we do not class them as such, because they undergo no changes to suit these various circumstances. The negatives are of this part of speech; and the use of them is a great matter; but, they never change their form; they cannot be used without other words; and, in fact, all relating to them is to be learned, when we come to employ them in sentences. The manner of using negatives is a great matter, and it will be treated of in a separate Letter. A whole Letter (XX.) will be devoted to negative and interrogative sentences.

147. The French, like the English, have two or three Adverbs that may be said to have degrees of comparison. We have, in English, well, which becomes better, and best. The French have bien (well), mieux (better), le mieux (the best). They have also mal (badly), pis (worse), le pis (the worst). They have peu (little or few), moins (less), le moins (the least). We have often, which becomes oftener, and oftentimes. But they say, souvent, plus souvent, le plus souvent. These irregularities are, however, very few in number; and, as they are confined to words which frequently occur in almost every page of every book, and in every conversation of any considerable length, they very soon cease to present any thing like a difficulty to the learner.

148. It may be necessary to observe here, that an adverb sometimes consists of more than one word. It is then called a compound adverb. We have the same thing in English; but it may be useful to explain the matter. Lately, for instance, is a simple adverb; but little-by-little, is a compound. In French it is much about the same. For lately, they have dernièrement, and for little-by-little they have petit-à-petit; that is to say, word for word, little-to-little; which, odd as it sounds, has a sense in it more evident than is the sense in our adverb. Sometimes, however, the French adverb is a compound when ours is not: as, tout-à-coup, which means suddenly, and, word for word, all-at-a-stroke, or at a hit. And, indeed, we sometimes say, all-of-a-sudden, instead

X.] OF ADVERBS. 101

of suddenly. Sometimes ours is a compound, when the French is not: as, now-a-days, which they express by aujourd'hui. Thus, you see, there are, in many cases, several words that go to the making up of one adverb. In our now-a-days, for instance, there is the Adverb, now; then there is the a (meaning in this case at); then there is the Noun, days. You will bear this in mind. Though there are several words, and of different parts of speech too, they make but one adverb.

149. Sometimes, both in French and in English, the words that are used to make a compound adverb are connected by a hyphen or hyphens: as, now-a-days and tout-à-l'heure. But, this is not always the case. For instance, avec le temps, and in time, which latter expresses the meaning of the former, are compound adverbs, and yet we do not connect by hyphens the words that compose them. In the mean while is really no more than a compound adverb, and yet we do not use the hyphens in writing it. This adverb is translated into French by the single word cependant. And it is, if we look into the matter, curious to observe, how fully this one word contains the meaning of our four words. It is ce and pendant; that is to say, this and during; that is to say, during this; that is to say, in the mean or middle, while, or time.

150. There are some Adjectives which are used as Adverbs; and this is the case in both languages: As, parier bas, to speak low. That is to say, in a low voice. This, is not frequently the case; and, perhaps, we use this way of speaking, when we ought not. We often use the word bad, when we ought to use badly. The French say voir double (to see double), and so do we; but, strictly speaking, this double is not an adverb so much as it is an adjective and a noun; for it means double things. However, there are not many words used in this way; and you will soon become acquainted with them all.

151. The proper placing of the Adverb is an important matter; but, this will be fully treated of,
when we come to the Syntax of this part of speech. I cannot, however, conclude this Letter, without observing to you, that words which, in some cases, are adverbs, are, in other cases, not adverbs. For instance, the inside, when thus written is a noun, though inside is, in some cases, an adverb. It is the same with the French, who say, le dedans (the inside), le dehors (the outside), and so on, just as we do. This circumstance was noticed in paragraphs 42 and 43, which you ought to look at again.

LETTER XI.

ETYMOLOGY OF PREPOSITIONS.

My dear Richard,

152. In paragraph 35, I explained to you why words of this sort were called prepositions. The chief use of the words of this part of speech is, to express the different relations and connections which Nouns have with each other, or, in which Nouns stand with regard to each other: the hawk sits upon the tree, the hawk flies to the tree, the hawk flies down from the tree, the hawk flies over the tree.

153. Prepositions never change their form; so that there are none of those difficulties attending them which we find in the Articles, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Verbs, which change their forms so many times. For instance, sur (upon) is always sur, whether it be before a noun masculine, or a noun feminine, or before a singular or a plural.

Let me here, however, make a remark or two with regard to à and de. The first of these answers to our to, and the last to our of. Each has different meanings under different circumstances; but, generally speaking, our to and of are translated by these words: as: I send ten of my sheep to the farm. J'envoi dix de mes moutons à la ferme. But, I have here to call your recollection to what was said in paragraphs 79 to 86, and to beg of you to read, before you go any further, the whole of those eight paragraphs carefully through. You will, doubtless, have done this already; but, you must now do it again.

154. Here you see, then, that à and de are, in French, sometimes united with the definite article. This, however, is the case with regard to no other of the prepositions. To be sure, the article, thus united with these prepositions is a thing of most extensive use in the language. Scarcely a sentence can you write without using it in some one or other of its forms; but, this is, in fact, an advantage in the learning of its use. The de becomes d when it is immediately followed by a word beginning with a vowel or with an h mute; but this is, in fact, no change in the form of the word. It is merely an abbreviation, made for the purpose of obtaining fullness of sound.

155. In this part of speech as well as in the Adverbs there are sometimes more than one word; that is to say, one preposition contains more than one word: as, vis-à-vis, which, in English, is over-against. But, sometimes, the Preposition, like the Adverb, is simple in one of the languages and compound in the other. For instance: par dehors (under); selon (according to). The same word is, as was before observed, sometimes of one part of speech and sometimes of another; and this is very frequently the case with these parts of speech, which have no variation in the forms of the words. But, this is a matter of little consequence: you will soon learn to distinguish one part of speech from the other. I hope, indeed, that you have nearly done this already.

156. One of the chief things belonging to Prepositions is that which is called their governing. They are said to govern nouns and pronouns; that is to say, to cause them to be in the objective case. You must now look back to paragraphs 72 to 76. Then go to paragraph 91. Read these all carefully over again now; and, when you have done that you will...
find, that the Prepositions govern, in certain cases, the nouns and pronouns.

157. The main thing of all, however, to be observed, under this head, is the different application of the prepositions in the two languages. To, as we have seen, is generally expressed in French by à. But, when this à is used with the verb to think (penser), for instance, it is not expressed in English by to. For example, the French say, je pense à ma santé; that is to say, word for word, I think to my health. But we say, I think of my health. Now, if you reflect a little here, you will find, that this French phrase is by no means unreasonable; for, it is, in its fulness, this: I apply my thinking to my health. And our English phrase means, I think, or use my thinking faculties about things, concerning my health, or of, or belonging to my health. The meaning, when you come to examine the thing well, is the same; the mode of expression only is different; but this difference must be very carefully attended to; for, though, I think of my health is good English, je pense de ma santé is not French at all, any more than I think to my health is English.

158. It is the same with regard to the use of many other Prepositions. For example, we say, I play on the flute; but the French say, je joue de la flûte; that is to say, I play of the flute. We say, to enjoy a thing: the French say, jouir d’une chose; that is, to enjoy of a thing. We say, near a thing, or near to: they say, près d’une chose; that is, near of a thing. Près de la ville, near to the town. Près de dix mois; nearly, or near to, ten months. Near of ten months seems to be nonsense; but, it is not; it means near to the number of ten months; or, near to the quantity of time that makes up ten months. The meaning, when you come closely to examine into the matter, is the same in both languages: the manner of expressing that meaning is very different; and this difference must be strictly attended to.

159. In this respect the Preposition is, in the learning of French, an important part of speech; because, though it never changes its form it is used in a manner so very different, in many cases, from that in which it is used in English. The Syntax will show more fully this difference, which, as I have just said, is a very important matter.

160. Prepositions are not, like Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs, a very numerous class of words. I shall, therefore, give a list of the greater part of them here, divided into two parts. There are some of the Prepositions which are directly followed by the Noun or Pronoun; and others which must have the preposition de before the next Noun or Pronoun. I shall divide them according to this difference in the manner of using them. I shall also give the English of each phrase. Observe, that the French de answers to our from as well as of. Observe also, that, when I say, that the following prepositions are immediately followed by the noun or pronoun that they govern, I do not mean to shut out the Article, for it, in fact, makes a part of the noun. Nor do I mean to exclude the possessive pronoun. Il est à la foire; il est dans sa chambre. You must never forget, that the same assemblage of letters may, in some cases, be a preposition, and, at other times, may not be a preposition. Indeed, this has been pointed out to you so many times, that the doing of it here may seem to be useless; but, it is a thing that you cannot be too well acquainted with.

List of Prepositions, which are immediately followed by the Noun or Pronoun to which they apply.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>English Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>à</td>
<td>at or to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>après</td>
<td>after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à travers</td>
<td>through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attendu</td>
<td>considering, on account of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avant</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avec</td>
<td>with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autres</td>
<td>at or to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comme</td>
<td>like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concernant</td>
<td>about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contre</td>
<td>against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dans</td>
<td>in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de</td>
<td>of or from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-dessus</td>
<td>from above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-dessous</td>
<td>from under</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-puis</td>
<td>since</td>
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<tr>
<td>derrière</td>
<td>behind</td>
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<tr>
<td>dès</td>
<td>from</td>
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<tr>
<td>devant</td>
<td>before</td>
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<tr>
<td>durant</td>
<td>during</td>
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<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>entre</td>
<td>between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>envers</td>
<td>to or towards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>environ</td>
<td>about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excepté</td>
<td>excepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hormis</td>
<td>but, or excepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hors</td>
<td>in spite of</td>
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<tr>
<td>moyennant</td>
<td>for, by means of</td>
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<tr>
<td>nonobstant</td>
<td>notwithstanding</td>
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<tr>
<td>outre</td>
<td>besides</td>
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<tr>
<td>par</td>
<td>by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>par-dessus</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>par-dessous</td>
<td>under or below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>par-dec</td>
<td>on this side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>par-delh</td>
<td>on that side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parmi</td>
<td>during</td>
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<tr>
<td>pendant</td>
<td>for</td>
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<td>pour</td>
<td>without</td>
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<td>sans</td>
<td>save</td>
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<tr>
<td>sauf</td>
<td>according to</td>
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<tr>
<td>selon</td>
<td>under</td>
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<tr>
<td>suivant</td>
<td>according to</td>
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<td>sur</td>
<td>upon</td>
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<tr>
<td>touchant</td>
<td>touching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vers</td>
<td>towards, about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vu</td>
<td>seeing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**List of Prepositions which must have the Preposition de immediately after them, or that Preposition united with the Article, when it becomes de or des.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>à cause</td>
<td>because of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à couvert</td>
<td>sheltered from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-dec</td>
<td>on the side of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-delh</td>
<td>on the other side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-dessus</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-dessous</td>
<td>below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-devant</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-derrière</td>
<td>behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à côté</td>
<td>by, beside</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides the above, there are three or four that require à before the succeeding Noun or Pronoun. These are jusque (as far as) which is written jusqué because the à follows: as jusqué à la rivière, as far as the river. Par rapport à sa maison: with respect to his house. Quant à son argent: as for his money.

106. Before you go further, it will be well for you to read over several times these lists of Prepositions. Copy them, that is to say, write them down, many times over; so that you may not only them again as soon as they meet your eye; but that you may be able to write them correctly, with all their hyphens, elisions and accents; for these are of as much importance as are the letters of
which the words are composed. Let it be your constant habit to write in a plain hand. The best hand-writing is that which is the easiest to read; that which can be the most easily read by the greatest number of persons. Take care to put all the marks and accents; for, though Frenchmen, when they write, seldom do it, they ought to do it; and, in your case, the omission would, and must, retard your learning; for, the omission really makes, in many cases, nonsense of the whole thing that you are writing. Des is from the time, and Des is of the, or some. Then again, a is has, and a is to. The la is the, and the la is there. This is sufficient to show how necessary it is not to omit accents, besides, all writing ought to be correct in all its parts; and, as there is, in this case, nothing but more attention required of you, not to do the thing properly would argue that sort of disposition, which, I am sure, will never be discovered in my dear Richard. If you have a teacher, these lists are excellent things as reading lessons. They contain words that are seen in every sentence, and that you cannot open your mouth without using. But, whether you have a teacher or not, write these lists down several times over.

LETTER XII. OF CONJUNCTIONS.

My dear Richard,

163. The reason why words of this part of speech are called Conjunctions has been given you in paragraph 39. They connect, or conjoin, or join together, words and sentences. They, like adverbs and prepositions, never change their form; and, are, therefore, not attended with any particular difficulty.

163. Some of them are called copulative and others disjunctive; the former couple nouns and pronouns together in sense as well as in place; as: the field and the house are sold. The others disjoi them in the sense; as: the field is sold, but the house is not. There is, perhaps, no great practical utility in this distinction; but, it being a distinction usually made, I have just noticed it. Some teachers of grammar divide Conjunctions into six or seven classes; but, this is of no use; and, therefore, I avoid it.

164. A thing much more useful than this is, to observe, that the same word is sometimes a Conjunction, sometimes an Adverb, and sometimes a Preposition. It is the sense in which the word is used that determines the part of speech to which it belongs. Some of the Conjunctions are simple; as: comme (as), and some compound; as: au lieu de (instead of). A phrase of considerable length is frequently no more than one Conjunction; as: posez le cas que, which may be translated into English by the single word suppose. Posez is to lay down. So that the whole of the phrase means this: lay down the case that. We, for instance, say, in English, suppose that the enemy declare war. The French say, posez le cas que l'ennemi déclare la guerre. But they can say, as well as we, supposez que. And we can say, as well as they, suppose the case that.

165. When a Conjunction, an Adverb, or a Preposition consists of several words, you must take care how you give to each of the words the meaning which it would have in its distinct state. They sometimes have this meaning, but they more frequently have not. For instance, we have, in English, this Conjunction, as well as; and we use it thus; I was drunk as well as you. But, what is there well here? Here is something very bad, but nothing at all well. We know, that these three words, taken together, mean, in like manner with, or, in like degree with. But, when we find, in French, aussi bien que, we are apt to give to each word its
separate meaning, and then they are, also well that, which is not their meaning. They mean the same as our as well as.

166. I shall now insert the principal part of the Conjunctions in alphabetical order, with the English against each.

à cause que, because, because of.
à cause de, on condition that.
à condition que, to speak the truth.
afin que, to the end that.
afin de, in order to.
aussi, thus, therefore accordingly.
aussi que, like, likewise.
après que, hardly, scarcely.
après de, after.
après tout, after all, upon the whole.
apropos, by the by.
a propos, wherefore, or to what end.
à moins que, or de, unless.
à la vérité, indeed, in truth.
attendu que, whereas, seeing that.
aussi, also.
aussi bien que, as well as.
an lieu de, instead of.
antant que, as much as.
au rest, as for the rest.
aussitôt que, as soon as.
avant que, before.

comme, parce que,

It being understood that.
It is.
It is far from, so far from.
It is for.
It is the case.
It it is the case.

as, whereas.

as though.

as, as if, as though.
167. Conjunctions govern modes of verbs: that is to say, some conjunctions have one mode after them, and some another mode; but, the full explanation of this matter must be left till I come to Letter XXVII., in which I shall treat of the Syntax of Conjunctions. The above list contains the far greater part of the Conjunctions. You will observe that, many of these words are, as I observed before, sometimes Prepositions and sometimes Adverbs. The words of these two last parts of speech are few in number, compared with the others, the Articles and Pronouns excepted; and, therefore, they may be all written down many times over without much labour. You will observe, that these are words incessantly recurring; that there can hardly ever be a sentence without one or more of them in it; and that the sooner you become acquainted with them all, the better. As I observed, in the case of the Prepositions, take care, in writing the words, to put all the hyphens, elisions, and accents.

LETTER XIII.

ON PARSING.

My dear Richard,

168. You have now gone through the whole of the Etymology. The object of this part of the Grammar has been to teach you to distinguish one sort of words, or part of speech, from each of the others; and also to teach you how to make the several changes in the spelling of the words. The Syntax, when you come to it, will teach you how to choose your words in the making of sentences, and also how to place them. As yet you cannot know how to write French correctly; how to make a French sentence; but, before you go any further, I shall give you an Exercise in Parsing, which will lead you to reconsider what you have learned.

169. To Parse, is to put into parts. It comes from the Latin word parsem, which means part. There is a French word, parsemer, which means, to scatter, or put asunder. And this word, to parse, is used by grammarians to denominate the act of taking the words of a sentence, one by one, and writing against each, the part of speech that it belongs to. Thus:

I write a letter to you. I is a personal pronoun; write is a verb; a is an article; letter is a noun; to is a preposition; you is a personal pronoun.
The same sentence in French would be, Je vous écris une lettre. The je and vous are personal pronouns; écris is a verb; une is an article; lettre is a noun; and, you see, there is no preposition; for, in this case, vous means to you. We can say the same thing without the preposition: as, I write you a letter. But we cannot say, I you write a letter. These latter remarks do not, however, belong to the subject immediately before us, though they may serve to make an opening and to smooth the way to the Syntax. Before you go any further, look again at paragraph 42, and attend well to what you find there. As you proceed in this work of parsing, I beg you to try yourself in the manner pointed out in paragraph 42.

170. I shall now give you a series of sentences to parse. They will be of very simple construction. I shall give the French as well as the English of each sentence. The first sentence I shall parse myself; and you will proceed with the rest, and go patiently through the whole of the sentences, taking word by word, writing them down, and writing against them in the manner that you will find in the example that I am about to give you. You have been told before, that you are never to expect, that a phrase, however short it may be, is to be translated from one language into the other, word for word. you will now see that this is the case. I shall mark these little exercises, A, B, C, and so on; in order, that I may easily refer you to them, if necessary. When you have gone through one of these little Exercises, you ought, where you have any doubt, to look at the Dictionary. It will tell you, whether you have done the Exercise properly. But look well at each word before you write against it. Consider well its meaning and the function it performs in this particular case. One Exercise done with care is worth a thousand done carelessly.
171. If you examine well the words of these two little pieces of writing, the examination will show you a great deal as to the difference in the two languages. Look at the closing parts for instance.

The French say, il fait mieux; that is, he does it better; but we say, it does it better. The Canary-Bird is a be in French, and an it in English; and, you see, the French put the words in an order very different from that which we employ.

172. Now proceed in the same way with the little pieces of French and English which follow here. They have been selected for their clearness and simplicity. The English and French both are given, in order that you may compare the one with the other. The translation is not elegant, but as literal as it could be made without making the English a sort of broken English. Instead of saying, “the Canary-bird is, after the Nightingale, the bird which sings the best, and which has the strongest voice;” instead of this, it might have been thus: “Except the Nightingale, the Canary is the best singing-bird, and has the strongest voice.” This would have been rather better English; but, in order to make the matter as little difficult as possible for you, the translation has been made, as nearly as I could well make it, word for word; but, yet, you see, it is not word for word, even in this simple instance.

173. The way to proceed with the following sentences is precisely that which has been just pointed out in paragraph 170. And, let me beg of you not to alter this business over, but go patiently through it, writing down, in a plain hand, all the sentences, English as well as French; and, when you have parsed one of the sentences, examine it by the Dictionary, to see whether what you have done be correctly done. Paragraphs 42 and 43 contain matter, which you should now have fresh in your mind. Read, therefore, those two paragraphs again very attentively, and, while you are at your work of parsing, act according to what is stated in those paragraphs; for, unless you attend to that, your parsing cannot be correct, and you will not profit, in the degree that you ought to profit, from your labour.

B. C'est du nom Latin, Lucintola, qu'on a formé le nom de Rossignol. Cette étymologie est beaucoup meilleure que toutes celles données sur le nom de cette oiseau.

C. Le moineau est un oiseau très commun; il pêse un peu plus d'une once; il a six pouces de longueur depuis la pointe du bec jusqu'au bout de la queue.

D. Le chardonneret est un petit oiseau, qui a le bec de figure conique, blanc. Il est plus petit que le moineau; le sommet de sa tête est noir; ses mâchoires sont blanches de même que le dessous de sa tête.

E. Le chant de l'alouette est très divertissant; il est varié; les hémoleons et les bésarres s'y distinguent très-bien.

F. Le pinçon est un oiseau un peu plus petit qu'un moineau; sa queue est assez longue; sa tête a la poitrine roussière; le bec plombé, la tête blanchâtre; la partie postérieure du dos d'un condrévert, et l'antérieure grisâtre; le liseré myrme de la queue est jaune; il est de couleur marron-clair.

It is from the Latin name, Lucintola, that we have formed the word Rossignol. This etymology is much better than all those given on the name of this bird.

The sparrow is a very common bird; it weighs a little more than an ounce, it is six inches long from the point of the beak to the tip of the tail.

The goldfinch is a small bird, which has the beak of a conical shape, and whitish. It is smaller than the sparrow; the top of its head is black, its gills are white, the same as the back of its head.

The singing of the lark is very diverting; it is varied; the B flat and the B sharp are distinguished in it very easily.

The chaffinch is a bird a little smaller than a sparrow; its tail is pretty long; the male has a reddish breast; the beak lead-coloured, the head whitish; the hinder part of the back of a greenish-colour, and the forepart grey; round the eyes,
tour des yeux, la gorge, la poitrine et les côtes tannés ; le cou, cent de la même couleur, rougeâtre ; les ailes noires, avec une triple tache blanche.

G. Les champs cultivés ont, comme les jardins, leurs fruits particuliers à chaque saison de l'année.

H. Les abeilles, ou manches à miel, sont d'un grand profit à la maison, par le miel, la cire et les essaims qu'elles donnent ; elles ne coûtent rien à nourrir, et ne demandent que quelques soins.

I. Le ver à soie, l'une des plus riches et des plus surprenantes productions de la nature, n'offre pas moins que les abeilles, de Puttile, de l'agréable, et même du merveilleux.

J. Le Pavo, aussi fort comme à cause de la beauté de sa queue, magnifiquement parcée de différentes couleurs et qui semble représenter de grands yeux.

K. Les pigeons communs sont, ou foutards ou domestiques ; ces derniers ne quittent presque pas la maison, mais les autres vont chercher leur vie au loin, les uns et les autres se perchoient sur les arbres, et portent à la manière du pigeon lamant, qui luit les bois.

L. Pour réussir à dorer des poulets, il faut savoir les choisir.

M. Le race, venue des Indes, est d'un grand profit, parce qu'elle multiplie beaucoup, aisément et souvent.

N. Les plumes des oies, leur chair, leur graisse et leurs œufs, dont elles font par an trois pontes très-abondantes, le throat, the breast and sides tan-coloured; the neck with a circle of the same colour, reddish; the wings black, with three white spots.

The open fields have, like the gardens, their particular fruits at each season of the year.

Bees are of great use in a house; on account of the honey, the wax, and the swarms that they produce; they cost nothing to keep, and want nothing but a little care.

The silk-worm, one of the most rich and most surprising productions of nature, offers, not less than bees, that which is useful, agreeable, and even wonderful.

The peacock, a bird well known on account of the beauty of his tail, magnificently adorned with different colours, which seem to represent great eyes.

Common pigeons are either wild or tame, the last scarcely quit the house, but the others seek their living at a distance; neither the one nor the other perch on trees, and they differ in that from the wood-pigeon which lives in the woods.

To succeed in raising fowls, we must know how to choose the breeders.

The races that come from India (turkeys) are very profitable, because they multiply much, easily and often.

The feathers of geese, their flesh, their greese, and their eggs, of which they have yearly three very abundant

layings, yield a great deal of profit, and the more, as they live a long time; they are sufficiently vigilant, to serve as a sure guard in the night; at the smallest noise they wake and give loud cries which warm.

Tame drakes, ducks, and ducklings. These three words designate the father, the mother and the young one; the male is bigger than the female, and is distinguished besides by his neck which is of a gilded and changeable green; he has some feathers in the tail curled back towards his head.

The hog is a filthy animal, a glutton, and one that makes destruction wherever he goes; but he is one of those which yield the most profit, because a sow farrows twice a year, and has, each time, from ten to fifteen pigs. This hog succeeds in all countries, and is very much in use.

The meal of all grains, extracted by a sufficient quantity of water, and left to itself at the proper degree of heat for spiritious fermentation, naturally undergoes the fermentation and is metamorphosed into real spiritious liquor.

As ordinary food, as an ingredient, as a remedy, milk in an article of great value.

Gardening unites all the operations of agriculture, but in a way more compact and much more pleasing; for it requires knowledge at once minute and very extensive.

The exercise of hunting can-
ne peut être, comme tout autre, que favorable à la santé; c'est l'exercice le plus sain pour le
 corps, et le repos le plus agréable pour l'esprit.

U. La pêche est un agréable passe-temps qu'on peut prendre
dans la campagne; elle est divertissante, utile et d'une
pratique facile pour peu qu'on ait de patience.

V. Les petites chasses qui se font à peu de frais et sans
peine dans les différentes saisons de l'année, et sur tout
pendant l'automne et l'hiver, sont très-amusantes.

W. Le cheval est celui de tous les animaux qui, avec
une grande taille, a le plus d'élégance et de proportion
dans les parties du corps. C'est le plus nécessaire, le
plus noble de tous les animaux domestiques.

X. L'âne est d'un tempérament melancholique, patient
et laborieux, mais fort obstiné; il porte des fardeaux considérables
pour sa grosseur; il tire à la charrette, et à la charrue
dans les terres légères; il vit de peu, et ne coûte presque rien à nourrir.

Y. Les bêtes à laine sont les
bestiaux qui font le plus de profit par leur fourrure, leur
toison, leur chair, leur lait,
leur graisse, leurs peaux, leur
fumier même. Un troupeau
est l'âme d'une ferme.

Z. Le bœuf est le plus estimé,
d'entre les bêtes à cornes; il
coute peu d'entretien, et rend
beaucoup de profit; il est bon
au trait et à la charue, peu
sujet aux maladies, et aisé à
not but be, like every other, favorable to health; it is the
exercise the most healthy for
the body, and the relaxation
the most agreeable for the
mind.

Fishing is an agreeable pas-
time that you may have in
the country; it is diverting,
useful and easy to do, if you
have but a little patience.

The smaller sports, which
are followed at little expense
and without trouble in the
different seasons of the year,
and particularly in the autumn
and in the winter, are very
amazing.

The horse is, of all animals,
that which, with a large frame,
has the most elegance and
proportion in the parts of the
body. It is the most neces-
sary, the most noble, of all
domestic animals.

The ass is of a gloomy tem-
per, patient and laborious, but
very obstinate; he carries
large burdens for his size; he
draws the cart, and the plough
in light lands; he lives upon
little, and costs scarcely any
thing to keep.

Sheep are the animals,
that yield the greatest profit
from their flock, their
fleece, their flesh, their milk,
their fat, their skins, even their
bones. A flock is the soul of a
farm.

The ox is the most valuable
amongst horned animals; he
costs little, and yields a great
deal of profit; he is good for
draught and for the plough,
little subject to maladies and

...
of all the sorts of words, or parts of speech, we come to a proper place for introducing these details; for, though they are matters for the memory only, they ought to be pretty well secured before we go further in advance. When we have secured them, we shall enter upon the Syntax; and shall find it, I trust, a matter of pleasure rather than of toil.

175. Our first Task is, then, the ascertaining of the genders of nouns. Now read paragraphs from 54 to 65, both inclusive, carefully through. When you have done that, look attentively at paragraph 64 once more; for I am now going to give you a specimen of my way of going to work as I have described it in this last-mentioned paragraph. I shall begin with letter A of the Dictionary; that is to say, with the beginning. I shall, in giving you this specimen, take some nouns that begin with that Letter. Then take some that begin with B; and so on, till I have gone through the alphabet.

176. The Task is, simply that of writing down, in alphabetical order, a little blank-book, all the nouns in the language; and just putting le or la before each, according to the gender. In the Dictionary you will find against each noun s. m. or s. f. that is to say, substantive (or noun) masculine; or, substantive (or noun) feminine. And, when you write the nouns in your book, you will put before each the le or the la according as you find the noun to be a masculine, or a feminine.

177. But, you cannot go through the whole of the Dictionary precisely in this way; for, if the noun begin with a vowel, or with an h mute, the definite article for both genders is l'. Therefore, in these cases; that is to say, as to the nouns beginning with a, e., i., o., u., and h mute, you must use the indefinite article, un or une.

178. Then again, there are some nouns, which begin with a vowel, and which have neither plural nor singular: as argent. We cannot say, un argent. So that, in such a case as this, the best way will be to put the adjective good (bon or bonne) before the noun; and that will very plainly mark the gender.

179. There are, besides, some few nouns that are plural and never singular: as, vivres, victuals. Now, the plural definite article, les, is for both genders. In such cases also you must put the adjective, as in the case of argent: and, thus, you will, of course, write: de bon argent, de bons vivres; but, when you have to write down water and snuffers, you will write, de bon eau, and de bonnes mouchettes.

180. I have not put the English opposite the French. It is of no use in this case. It can only add to the labour, and thereby cause a loss of time. The object is to get the genders of the nouns well fixed in your memory; and, for the doing of this, there is nothing like the writing of the thing down. But, let me now give the little specimen that I have been talking of; and, when I have done that, I have another remark, or two to make on the subject.

A. | D. | G. | C.
---|----|----|----
un aume: an elder tree. | de bon bœuf. | la capote. | la caque.
une aume: an ell. | le bœuf. | le contem. |
le dam. | de bonne eau. | la caque. |
le damas. | une fête. |
la danse. | un ébouillage. |
le genre. | de bonnes hardes. |
la gazette. | la hache. |
le golfe. | le haricot. |

J. | L. | M. | N. | O. | P. | Q. | R. | S.
---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----
le jeanesse. | le livre: the book. | le mot. | un œil. | la pomme. |
le jeune. | la livre: the pound. | le magasin. | un œuf. | la poire. |
le jen. | d'êtres humains. | de bons mâts. | une oye. | le puits. |
le main. | | |
le magasin. | | |
la naissance. | | |
la naissance. | | |
la noyau. | | |
le quiche. | le renard. | la source. | le sango. |
le quiver. | la récompense. | le sourcil. |
la quivre. | la récole. | | |
be written down, in this way, in six days. But, when I had written the whole down upon paper of the common size, I copied them into a little book, made of very thin paper, three inches long, and two wide. I divided the pages of this book each into two columns, and each column had about thirty nouns. This little book was always about me. It went into my pocket book, and did not, perhaps, weigh the twentieth part of an ounce. Sitting, walking, riding; whatever my situation, I could always refer to my little book in a moment. This method is, therefore, the one that I beg you to pursue. Once more let me remind you of the necessity of writing down the words correctly. You must not omit any of the accents; for they, as you have seen before, are, in some cases, of as much importance as the letters. Write in a plain hand. Writing may be neat and plain, though very small, which yours must be when you come to put the nouns into the little book before mentioned.

184. Having performed this task, which may possibly require ten days to do it well, and to make your little book in a very neat manner, you will proceed to the next task; but, before you do this, spend two days in reading through all the foregoing thirteen letters; because, by the end of the ten days, which the list of nouns will demand, it will be necessary to bring your mind back to the previous part of the grammar. Having read carefully through the whole of the grammar up to this place, having taken this review of your labours, you will proceed to the next task, which is by no means less necessary, but is much less laborious.

185. The conjugation of regular verbs forms the subject of the second task. In paragraph 118, I have explained the meaning of the word conjugation, and have given you the conjugation of an English verb and of a French verb. In paragraphs 120 and 121, I have spoken of the ten conjugations of French verbs, and, in paragraph 122, I have

11
spoke of the Irregular Verbs. Read all these paragraphs carefully through now. Pay great attention to all that they contain; and, when you have gone through them in this careful manner, you will be ready to enter on the ten conjugations.

186. If I had to make a Dictionary, I would make but two conjugations; but I must take the Dictionary as I find it. It is, however, a matter of little consequence, so that we attend to what we are about. The French verbs are, as was observed in paragraph 121, considered as divided into ten conjugations. These are denoted in the Dictionary by the figures, 1, 2, 3, and so on to 10. You have seen, that a French verb takes more than thirty different forms. These forms are different according to the different conjugations. You have seen that Tuer (to kill) becomes tue, tuons, tuez, tuent. But, Agir (to act) becomes, in some cases, agis, agisses, agissent. The changes in this last verb are very different from those in the former verb. These two verbs are said to belong to different conjugations, because the changes in one of them are different from the changes in the other; and, if you look into the Dictionary you will find the figure 1 after Tuer and the figure 2 after Agir; because the former verb is of the first and the latter of the second conjugation.

187. You will now be ready to ask, what are the marks which designate the conjugations; that is to say, what is it that makes us say, that this verb belongs to such a conjugation, and that verb belongs to such other conjugation? The designating marks are the endings of the verbs. And the method adopted has been this: to call the verbs ending in er verbs of the first conjugation, those in ir of the second, in tir of the third, in enir of the fourth, in evoir of the fifth, in aivre of the sixth, in indre of the seventh, in oindre of the eighth, in tire of the ninth, in dre of the tenth.

188. But, you may say, what is the use of all this classifying? Oh! a great deal of use, as I will now show you. Suppose you have to translate this phrase: You kill a sheep. You write: vous tuez un mouton. Then this phrase: you act well. You, if you paid no attention to conjugation, would write, vous agiz bien. But, knowing by its ending, that agir is of the second conjugation, and, having learned the manner of making the changes in the verbs of that conjugation, you would write, not aqiz, but agissez.

189. What you have now to do, then, is to learn the manner of making the changes in the verbs of all these ten conjugations. In order to teach you this, I shall take one verb of each of the ten conjugations, and conjugate it all through; that is to say, exhibit it in all its forms, from that of the Infinite Mode to that of the Participle, in the same manner that I have exhibited the verb Tuer, in paragraph 118. The verbs which I shall take for this purpose are the following:

1. Tuer, to kill.
2. Agir, to act.
3. Mener, to lead.
4. Voutr, to come.
5. Devoir, to owe.
6. Faire, to make, or do.
7. Joindre, to join.
8. Croître, to grow.
9. Cuir, to cook.
10. Vendra, to sell.

Here is one verb of each of the ten conjugations; and, if you were to look out these verbs in the Dictionary, you would find a figure against each agreeing with what you see here. Bear in mind, then, that the verbs of the first conjugation end in er, those of the second in ir, of the third in tir, the fourth in enir, the fifth evoir, the sixth aivre, the seventh oindre, the eighth oître, the ninth tire, and the tenth andre and ondre.

190. There will be some remarks to make upon each conjugation, and, in order that all may be as plain as possible, I shall make one page contain the remarks on each conjugation, and shall exhibit a verb regularly conjugated on the opposite page; so that, when you turn over the leaf, you will come to a fresh conjugation.
191. FIRST CONJUGATION. Paragraphs 121 and 122 have explained to you what Irregular Verbs are; and you are to observe, that there are some of those of each Conjugation. But, besides these irregulars, there are some little irregularities in several of the verbs of this first conjugation.

1. When there is a g immediately before the er, the e is not dropped in those parts of the verb which require an o or an a to come after the g. In Nager (to swim), for instance, we should, if we followed the general rule, say, je nageais; but, this would introduce the hard sound of gois: we, therefore, say, je nageais. And, in the active participle, we say, nagant; and not nagant.—2. When a question is asked, and the verb is immediately followed by the pronoun je, the e is changed into an è: as tué-je? Kill I?—3. Verbs which end in uyer, over, ayer, and eyer, are, by some writers, made to change the y into i, in those parts of the verb where the y comes immediately before an e mute; and, therefore, instead of je paye (I pay), such writers use, je paie. The verb envoyer (to send) makes enverrai, in the future, and enverrois, in the past of the subjunctive.—4. The verbs appeler (to call) and jeter (to throw) double the l and the t in those parts of the verb which take an e mute immediately after the l and t: as, j’appelle, and not j’appèle; je jette, and not je jete. This is the case in a very few other instances.—5. When the verb ends in cer, the c must have a cedille placed under it, when it is immediately followed by an a or an o: as: tracer (to trace), je traçais, il traçà. These irregularities amount to very little; and all the verbs in er are to be considered as regular, except Aller and Puer.—6. In the part of the verb which ends with a vowel, and which, when a question is asked, is followed by il or elle, there must be a ñ put between the verb and the il or elle, with a double hyphen; thus: tue-t-il? does he kill? tue-t-elle? did she kill? This is merely for the sake of the sound, which, without the ñ, would be very disagreeable.
192. SECOND CONJUGATION. The Verbs of this conjugation end (in their infinitive mode) in *ir*. There are, however, two other conjugations which end in *ir*; namely, the third and fourth, as you have seen in paragraph 189. But, these two end in *tuir* and *ceuir*. Of the second conjugation, the verb on the opposite page is one. There are about 200 verbs of this second conjugation.—I have before observed, that, in conjugating the verbs, I purposely leave out the compound times, because they present no additional change in the form of the verb: they merely present you with a conjugation of the verbs *avoir* and *être* with the passive participle after them.

In the Subjunctive Mode, a *que* is understood, always; as, *que j'agisse*, that I may act; but the *que* is left out, in the conjugations, in order to avoid encumbering the page. The two languages differ so very widely in the cases where these *may* and *might* and *should* or *woul*ds come in, that it is impossible to translate literally. This matter will be fully explained in Letter XXIV, where I shall show how the French supply the place of these little words.

It may be useful to add a word or two here about the participles. The active participle, as *tuan*, *agissant*, never changes its form; but the passive participle does change its form, in some cases. *Tué*, for instance, is the passive participle of the verb *Tuir*; but, this participle is sometimes *tue* at others, *tues*, at others, *tue*, and at others, *tues*. When the passive participle ought to change its form, and when it ought not, is not to be learned by us without great attention. This matter, which is of the first importance, I shall treat of fully in the Syntax of Verbs, in Letter XXIII. The changes in the form of the passive participle are not given in the conjugations; because the participle is not always subject to change. The changes depend upon the construction of the sentence in which the participle is used; and you have not yet come to the construction of sentences.
193. THIRD CONJUGATION. These are verbs in *tir*, though it ought to be observed, that there are some of the verbs of the second conjugation which end in *tir*. However, this can produce no mistake, because I shall here subjoin a list of all the verbs of this conjugation.—There are THIRTEEN of them; and they are as follows:

Consenti, to consent.  
Démenti, to give the lie.  
Desservi, to clear the table.  
Ment, to lie.  
Mentri, to lie.  
Parti, to set out.  
Presensenti, to force.  
Repardr, to set out again.

You will see, that several of these verbs are derived from others of them: as *repartir* comes from *partir*. I have, however, placed them here in alphabetical order.—I must also observe, that the English is not, in these cases, always a full translation of the French. *Sentir*, for instance, means, sometimes, to smell; and *repartir* means to reply, as well as to set out again.—But, these matters you will soon become well acquainted with by those frequent references to the Dictionary, which will be required, when you come to translate. At present you have more to do with the forms of words, and with the changes in those forms, than with the various meanings of words.—Paragraph 192 should be read with attention. The observations which it contains, relative to the manner of using the *will, shall*, and so forth, apply to all the conjugations; and I will here add another observation equally applicable to all of them; namely, that I made little use of *points* in the tables of conjugation; because we have not, in fact, *sentences*, here, but merely *lists* of words. Small letters have, at the beginning of words, been used as much as possible, instead of capitals, in order to save room.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Mode</th>
<th>Indicative Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je mone</td>
<td>I lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu mone</td>
<td>thou liest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il mone</td>
<td>he lies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous ments</td>
<td>we lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous mentes</td>
<td>you lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je ment</td>
<td>I lied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu ment</td>
<td>thou liest</td>
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<tr>
<td>il ment</td>
<td>he lied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous ments</td>
<td>we lied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous mentes</td>
<td>you lied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je ments</td>
<td>I shall lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>tu ments</td>
<td>thou shalt lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il ments</td>
<td>he shall lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous ments</td>
<td>we shall lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous mentes</td>
<td>you shall lie</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>je mentsis</td>
<td>I might lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>tu mentsis</td>
<td>thou mightest lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>il mentsis</td>
<td>he might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mentsis</td>
<td>we might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous mentsises</td>
<td>you might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils mentsissent</td>
<td>they might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je mentissa</td>
<td>I may lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu mentissa</td>
<td>thou mayest lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il mentissa</td>
<td>he may lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mentissins</td>
<td>we may lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>vous mentissiez</td>
<td>you may lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>ils mentississent</td>
<td>they may lie</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Subjunctive Mode.</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>je mente</td>
<td>I may lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu mente</td>
<td>thou mayest lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il mente</td>
<td>he may lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>nous menteres</td>
<td>we may lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous menteres</td>
<td>you may lie</td>
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<tr>
<td>ils menterent</td>
<td>they may lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je mentrirez</td>
<td>I should lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu mentrirez</td>
<td>thou shouldest lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il mentrirez</td>
<td>he should lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mentrirez</td>
<td>we should lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous mentrirez</td>
<td>you should lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils mentrixent</td>
<td>they should lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je mentsis</td>
<td>I might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu mentsis</td>
<td>thou mightest lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il mentsis</td>
<td>he might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mentsis</td>
<td>we might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous mentsis</td>
<td>you might lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils mentsissent</td>
<td>they might lie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative Mode.**

| je ment    | to lie |
| tu ment    | let him lie |
| nous menteres | let us lie |
| vous menteres | let them lie |

**Participle.**

mentant lying  menti lied
194. FOURTH CONJUGATION. The verbs of this conjugation end in *en*; as you see in the case of *VENIR*—There are twenty-four of them, as follows:

- *S'abstenir*, to abstain.
- *Apartenir*, to belong.
- *Contenir*, to contain.
- *Contravénir*, to contravene.
- *Convenir*, to agree to.
- *Détenir*, to detain.
- *Devénir*, to become.
- *Dissouvenir*, to dissent from.
- *Entrevénir*, to keep up.
- *Intervénir*, to intervene.
- *Maintenir*, to maintain.
- *Obtenir*, to obtain.

Here are, in fact, but two original verbs, all the other twenty-two being partly made out of them; and, it is curious enough, that these two should be the two last upon the list. Every one of these verbs expresses something about *holding* or *coming*. *Abstenir* is to *back hold*, or *hold back*. *Aparvenir* is to *apart hold*, or *hold apart*, or, rather, to *be apart*. *Maintenir* is to *hand hold*, or, *hold fast*, or *firmly*. *Intervenir* is to come *between*. *Parvenir* is to come *by*, or *at*. *Prevenir* is to come *before*. This is, too, the meaning of our word, *prevent*; and hence in one of the prayers of the Liturgy, we say, "*prevent* us, O Lord, in all our doing." That is to say, *come before us*, or *lead*, or *guide* us. I observed, in paragraph 193, that some of the verbs, in all these lists, had other meanings besides those expressed by the English words put against them. Such is remarkably the case of this verb *prévenir*, which means (besides to *prevent*) *apprize*, *to anticipate*, to *be beforehand with*. Bear this in mind; for it will be of great use to you, when you come to translate.

---

**FOURTH CONJUGATION**

- **Perfect Time.**
  - *je viens*
  - *tu viens*
  - *il vient*
  - *nous venons*
  - *vous venez*
  - *ils viennent*

- **Past Imperfect Time.**
  - *je venais*
  - *tu venais*
  - *il venait*
  - *nous venions*
  - *vous veniez*
  - *ils venaient*

- **Future Time.**
  - *je viendrai*
  - *tu viendras*
  - *il viendra*
  - *nous viendrons*
  - *vous viendrez*
  - *ils viendront*

- **Present Time.**
  - *je viens*
  - *tu viens*
  - *il vient*
  - *nous venons*
  - *vous venez*
  - *ils viennent*

- **Indicative Mode.**
  - To come.
  - I come.
  - thou comest.
  - he comes.
  - we come.
  - you come.
  - they come.

- **Subjunctive Mode.**
  - I may come.
  - thou mayest come.
  - he may come.
  - we may come.
  - you may come.
  - they may come.

- **Imperative Mode.**
  - *viens*
  - qu'il vienne
  - let him come.
  - *venez*
  - qu'ils viennent
  - let them come.
195. FIFTH CONJUGATION. This consists of verbs ending in *evoir*. There are but six of them. It was hardly worth while to make a conjugation of these; but, it has been done in the Dictionary which is the most in use, and therefore I do it here. These six verbs are:

*APERCEVOIR*, to perceive.

*CONCEVOIR*, to conceive.

*DEVROIR*, to owe.

There is the verb *decyroir*; but it is no longer in use.—*Devroir*, the verb conjugated on the opposite page, is a verb of great use. It answers, in many cases, to our *ought*, and in other cases, to our *should*. Our *ought* is, in fact, a part of the verb *to owe*, and is become *ought* by corruption. For instance: "I *ought* to write to you," means, that "I *owe* the performance of the act of writing to you." The French phrase would be "*Je dois* vous *écrire*," which is, "I *owe* to you to write."

However, you will find more as to this matter, when you get into the Syntax.—Let me, as I have room in this place, remind you again of the great advantage of writing in a plain hand. You will write these conjugations down, as before directed; but if you write in a slovenly hand, you will not place the matter so safely in your memory as if you wrote in a plain and neat hand. In short, the best manner of doing a thing is, in the end, also the least troublesome and the quickest.
196. SIXTH CONJUGATION. These are the verbs ending in aire; and, there are seven of them as follows:

Contrefaire, to counterfeit.
Défaire, to undo.
Faire, to do, or to make.
Refaire, to do again.

You will see at once, that this is, in reality, all one original verb; for, every one of these verbs expresses something about doing. To counterfeit is against to do; and satisfy is enough to do, or enough doing. Doctor Johnson, in his Dictionary, says, that our satisfy comes from the Latin word satisfacio; but why, Doctor? Is not our word much more like satisfaire? Is not the by manifestly fait, or faites? And, a great number of our words come, in part, from this root: as feat, feasible. The country people in Hampshire commonly say, it does not pay; meaning, it does not do, it does not go on well. Many of our words, ending in fait, come, in part, from this French word faire; and many others which end in ait or eit. Our word surface is, indeed, French, if the e were exchanged for an a. Sur is over, and fait (fait) is done.—But faire is, sometimes, to make; we have two verbs here to the one French verb; and, as our two verbs are words of great use, so is this French verb faire, as you will see by-and-by. Therefore, take particular pains in learning to conjugate it.
197. SEVENTH CONJUGATION. These are verbs that end in *aindre, eindre, or oindre*. The difference in the ending of these makes no difference in the manner of conjugating them. But, before I speak further of this, let me give you a list of the verbs of this conjugation, of which there are only fifteen, as follows:

- Astréindre, to bind.
- Atteindre, to reach.
- Contraire, to constrain.
- Craindre, to fear.
- Enceindre, to surround.
- Enjoindre, to enjoin.
- Eteindre, to extinguish.
- Feindre, to feign.
- Joindre, to join.
- Peindre, to paint.
- Plaindre, to pity.
- Reindre, to surround.
- Se Plaindre, to complaining.
- Tendre, to bind.
- Tendre, to ensnare.

There are three or four other verbs of these terminations; but they are out of use, and therefore I will take no further notice of them. Here are three different endings, if you go back to the sixth letter from the end; but the changes of all three being the same, these verbs are all put into one conjugation. You see what the changes are in *joindre*. Now, suppose you have to conjugate *craindre*. Je *crains*, je *craignoïs*, je *cragne*, je *craindrai*, and so forth. And, if you take *feindre*, you say, je *feins*, je *feignois*, je *feignis*, je *feintraï*. All this becomes familiar in a very short time; and especially if you write the conjugations down over and over again, and in a neat and plain hand.
198. EIGHTH CONJUGATION. The verbs of this conjugation end in *être*. They are nine in number, as follows:

- **Acroîtratre**, to accrue.
- **Connoîitre**, to know.
- **Croîitre**, to grow.
- **Décroîitre**, to get less.
- **Disparoîitre**, to disappear.

There are two or three **law-terms**, which I do not notice here. They are of no use, and can only serve to load the memory uselessly. Observe, that in some books, these words have not a circumflex accent (•) over the *i*, but merely a single dot, as in other cases. It is, perhaps, of very little consequence; but I mention it, that you may be prepared for such a case. Many French words formerly had an *s* where they now have none. For instance, people used to write, *maitre, estre*, instead of *maître* and *être*; and the *•* is put to signify the omission of the *s*. It is the same with *croître*, which used to be written *croître*.

---

**REGULAR VERBS.**

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

- **Croître**
- **To Grow.**

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Present Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Future Time.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je croîs</td>
<td>je croissois</td>
<td>je crus</td>
<td>je croîtra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu croîs</td>
<td>tu croissois</td>
<td>tu crus</td>
<td>tu croît</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il croîs</td>
<td>il croissois</td>
<td>il crûmes</td>
<td>il croîtrai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous croîsons</td>
<td>nous croissois</td>
<td>nous crûmes</td>
<td>nous croîtrons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous croîsesz</td>
<td>vous croissois</td>
<td>vous crûses</td>
<td>vous croîtriez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils croîssent</td>
<td>ils croîssois</td>
<td>ils crûment</td>
<td>ils croîtront</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Present Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je croîsé</td>
<td>je croîrots</td>
<td>je crusseen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu croîses</td>
<td>tu croîroits</td>
<td>tu crusseen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il croîsses</td>
<td>il croîroits</td>
<td>il crusseen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous croîsions</td>
<td>nous croîroits</td>
<td>nous crusseen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous croîssiez</td>
<td>vous croîroits</td>
<td>vous crusseen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils croîssent</td>
<td>ils croîroits</td>
<td>ils crusseen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>croîs</strong></th>
<th><strong>croîses</strong></th>
<th><strong>croîssez</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>let him grow</td>
<td>let us grow</td>
<td>let them grow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICLES.**

- *croîsant* growing
- *cru* grown.
199. NINTH CONJUGATION. This conjugation consists of the verbs that end in *uire*, which are eighteen in number, some of them having a little of irregularity, which will be noticed when I have given you the list.

Conduire, to conduct.
Constructre, to construct.
Cuire, to cook.
Déconduire, to deduce.
Enduire, to plaster over.
Introire, to introduce.
Instruire, to instruct.

Luire, Reluire, and Nuire, are irregular in their passive participles, where they drop the *t*; and, instead of *lut*, *relut*, and *nut*, they make *lut*, *relut*, and *nut*. The passive participle is called by some, the past participle; and the active participle is, by those persons, called the present participle. But, "I was walking" is certainly not present. One of these participles always expresses action, and the other does not; therefore I use the words active and passive, as applied to these participles respectively.

REGULAR VERBS.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Cuire | To Cook.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cuise | I cook
tu cuises | thou cookest
il cuist | he cooks
nous cuisons | we cook
vos cuisez | you cook
ils cuissent | they cook

Past Imperfect Time.

je cuisis | I cooked
tu cuisiss | thou cookedst
il cuissit | he cooked
nous cuisissons | we cooked
vos cuissiez | you cooked
ils cuissent | they cooked

Past Perfect Time.

je cuiris | I cooked
tu cuiris | thou cookedst
il cuirit | he cooked
nous cuisirons | we cooked
vos cuiriez | you cooked
ils cuirissent | they cooked

Future Time.

je cuisis | I shall cook
tu cuisies | thou shalt cook
il cuisit | he shall cook
nous cuisions | we shall cook
vos cuisez | you shall cook
ils cuissent | they shall cook

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cuise | I may cook
tu cuises | thou mayest cook
il cuise | he may cook
nous cuisions | we may cook
vos cuisez | you may cook
ils cuissent | they may cook

Past Imperfect Time.

je cuiris | I should cook
tu cuiris | thou shouldest cook
il cuirit | he should cook
nous cuisirons | we should cook
vos cuiriez | you should cook
ils cuisissent | they should cook

Past Perfect Time.

je cuisses | I might cook
tu cuissez | thou mightest cook
il cuisse | he might cook
nous cuisssions | we might cook
vos cuissez | you might cook
ils cuisssent | they might cook

IMPERATIVE MODE.

cuis | let us cook
qu'il cuise | let him cook
vos cuisiez | let you cook
ils cuisissent | let them cook

PARTICIPLES.

cuisant | cooking

13

cuis | cooked.
200. TENTH CONJUGATION. These are verbs, which end in *endre* and *ondre*. There are twenty-three of them, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attendre, to wait for.</th>
<th>Tendre, to twist.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Condendre, to condescend.</td>
<td>Tondre, to hang.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correspondre, to correspond.</td>
<td>Vendre, to sell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descendre, to descend.</td>
<td>Vendit, to sell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extendre, to extend.</td>
<td>Vendrois, you sell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fendre, to split.</td>
<td>Vendroient, they sell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mordre, to bite.</td>
<td>Vendroissent, they sold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meromondre, to give cold to.</td>
<td>Vendroit, to sell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pendre, to hang.</td>
<td>Vendroissent, they sold.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The remarks made in paragraph 197, relative to the effect of the three different endings of the verbs of the seventh conjugation, apply to this conjugation. If it were *vendras* instead of *vendre*, I should say, *je tondes, je tondois*, and so on; and, in the participles, I should say, *tendant* and *tondu*, instead of *vendant* and *vendu*. So it is, of course, in the other cases; and, knowing how to conjugate one verb of any conjugation, you know how to conjugate, or make the changes in, all the other verbs, of that conjugation.—But there are three verbs which are deemed to be of this conjugation, and which end in *ndre: perdre, mordre, tendre*. They are conjugated in the same manner as *vendre*. They are, therefore, inserted in the above list.

XIV.] IRREGULAR VERBS. 151
defective parts will be pointed out, except *rois*; but, the sooner you are awereon plural of the stance the better. I shall now *mode, disiez* instead *gularis*, with those verbs that *maudire* takes the
This list you will first read. Here are other letters coming in the conjugations. "End, *je maudis* and *vous vendrez* ".. 214.

### Past

- **Imperfect Time.**
  - je vendais
  - tu vendais
  - il vendait
  - nous vendions
  - vous vendiez
  - ils vendaient

- **Perfect Time.**
  - je vendis
  - tu vendis
  - il vendit
  - nous vendîmes
  - vous vendîtes
  - ils vendirent

### Future

- **Imperfect Time.**
  - je vendrois
  - tu vendrois
  - il vendroit
  - nous vendrois
  - vous vendriez
  - ils vendroient

- **Perfect Time.**
  - je vendrais
  - tu vendrais
  - il vendrait
  - nous vendrions
  - vous vendriez
  - ils vendrîrent

### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

- **Present Time.**
  - je vende
  - tu vendez
  - il vendez
  - nous vendons
  - vous vendez
  - ils vendent

- **Past Time.**
  - je vendis
  - tu vendis
  - il vendit
  - nous vendîmes
  - vous vendîtes
  - ils vendirent

### IMPERATIVE MODE.

- vendez
- qu'il vende
- vendez
- vendez
- vendez
- vendez

### PARTICIPLES.

- vendant
- vendu
- vendant
- vendu
- vendant
- vendu

- vendant
- vendu
- vendant
- vendu
- vendant
- vendu
200. TENTH. — *rebuttre*, are all conjugated like which end in *en dre* — all, indeed, belong to that word.

You see here how different is the manner of making the changes in *aller* from that of making them in *tuer*. Indeed you see, in some of the persons, not one letter of the word *aller* left, as in *vais* and * vont*. Therefore seeing the changes in it are not made in the same way that they are in *tuer*, which is a regular verb, *aller* is called an Irregular verb. As I observed to you before, there are some of these of every one of the conjugations; but I shall now give a list of the whole of the Irregulars, placed in alphabetical order. Afterwards I shall conjugate them fully; but, first of all, I shall give a list of them. There are, however, a few other remarks to make in the way of preface to these irregulars. There are, as you will see, thirty-nine irregulars in the list; but, many of them have others derived from them; *écrire*, to write; *souscrire*, to subscribe (or *underwrite*); and, so on. Then, there are some, even in the alphabetical list of Irregulars, which are defective; that is to say, which are not used except in some parts of them; that is, in part of the modes, or part of the times. These
METTRE: To Put.—This is a verb of great use. The following eleven, all proceeding from it are conjugated in the same way: admettre, commettre, démettre, s'entremettre, permettre, promettre, remettre, soumettre, transmettre. See Paragraph 219.

VOULOIR: To be willing.—This verb, like pouvoir, is of vast importance in the French language. It is used very frequently where our will occurs. It answers also to our verb to wish. See Paragraph 240.

Thus ends the list of Irregular Verbs. There remain a few defects, just to notice, but not to dwell long upon. Braire, firir, bruire, fuilir, clôrre, éclôrre, ësser, tisêre, têitre. These are all verbs; but too defective to merit any attempt at conjugating them. They become a sort of adjective. At any rate, when they occur, which is very seldom, the Dictionary will explain their meaning. Now follow, in Alphabetical order, the full conjugations of the Irregulars according to the above list. I look upon the conjugation of each of the verbs as forming a paragraph, and I number the conjugations accordingly. Mind, there is, according to different authors, some little difference in the manner of writing some of the times of some of the verbs. Venir, for example, some write vinse instead of vinse, in the past perfect of the subjunctive. Again, in courir, some write coune, and others conus.

But, these are, in fact, of no more consequence than is our writing of public with or without a k.
### Imperative Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Batre</th>
<th>To Beat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je bate</td>
<td>I beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu bate</td>
<td>thou beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il bate</td>
<td>he beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous battez</td>
<td>we beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous battez</td>
<td>you beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils battent</td>
<td>they beat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Time.</th>
<th>I may beat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je battez</td>
<td>I may beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu battez</td>
<td>thou mayest beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il battez</td>
<td>he may beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous battezz</td>
<td>we may beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous battezz</td>
<td>you may beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils battezzent</td>
<td>they may beat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imparfait Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Time.</th>
<th>I beat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je battis</td>
<td>I beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu battis</td>
<td>thou beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il battit</td>
<td>he beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous battions</td>
<td>we beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous battiez</td>
<td>you beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils battient</td>
<td>they beat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Time.</th>
<th>I shall beat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je battrai</td>
<td>I shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu battras</td>
<td>thou shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il battrit</td>
<td>he shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous battrions</td>
<td>we shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous battriez</td>
<td>you shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils battrient</td>
<td>they shall beat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Modern Imparfait Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passé Composé</th>
<th>I beat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je battis</td>
<td>I beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu battis</td>
<td>thou beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il battit</td>
<td>he beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous battis</td>
<td>we beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous battiez</td>
<td>you beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils battit</td>
<td>they beat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Modern Perfect Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Futur</th>
<th>I shall beat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je battrais</td>
<td>I shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu battras</td>
<td>thou shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il battrait</td>
<td>he shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous battrions</td>
<td>we shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous battriez</td>
<td>you shall beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils battrissent</td>
<td>they shall beat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### Infinitive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Batre</th>
<th>To Drink</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je bois</td>
<td>I drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu bois</td>
<td>thou drinkest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il boit</td>
<td>he drinks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous buvons</td>
<td>we drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous buvez</td>
<td>you drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils boivent</td>
<td>they drink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Modern Infinitive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passé</th>
<th>I have drunk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je buvai</td>
<td>I have drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu buvais</td>
<td>thou hast drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il buvait</td>
<td>he has drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous buvions</td>
<td>we have drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous buviez</td>
<td>you have drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils boivent</td>
<td>they have drunk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Modern Perfect Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Futur</th>
<th>I shall drink</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je boirai</td>
<td>I shall drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu boiras</td>
<td>thou shall drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il boira</td>
<td>he shall drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous boirions</td>
<td>we shall drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous boiriez</td>
<td>you shall drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils boiront</td>
<td>they shall drink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>battu</td>
<td>battant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bois</td>
<td>boissant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### IRREGULAR VERBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boire</th>
<th>To Drink</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je bois</td>
<td>I drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu bois</td>
<td>thou drinkest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il boit</td>
<td>he drinks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous buvons</td>
<td>we drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous buvez</td>
<td>you drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils boivent</td>
<td>they drink</td>
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</table>

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### The Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>206</td>
<td>Patrick I.</td>
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### The Tasks

#### Infinitive Mode

<table>
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<th>Past Perfect</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu</td>
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<tr>
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#### Indicative Mode

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#### Subjunctive Mode

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#### Imperative Mode

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<td>leur bouillent</td>
<td>leur bouilleront</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Participles

- Bouillant
- Bouiling
- Bouill
- Bouilled
### THE TASKS.

**INFinitive Mode.**

**Convaincre** To Convaince.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Future Time.</strong></th>
</tr>
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<td>ils convainquit</td>
<td>ils convainquit</td>
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<td>ils convainquent</td>
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**Subjunctive Mode.**

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<td>vous convainquez</td>
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<td>ils convainquant</td>
<td>ils convainquant</td>
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<td>ils convainquant</td>
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<td>ils convainquent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils convainquissent</td>
<td>ils convainquent</td>
<td>ils convainquent</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative Mode.**

- convaincons
- convaincements
- convainces
- convainque
- qu'il convainque
- let us convaince

**Participle.**

- convainquant
- convincing
- convinced

---

**IRREGULAR Verbs.**

**To Sew.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Imperfect Mode.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Perfect Mode.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Subjunctive Mode.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Imperative Mode.</strong></th>
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<tbody>
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<td>je cousais</td>
<td>nous cousions</td>
<td>il cousit</td>
<td>nous cousirent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu cousais</td>
<td>vous cousiez</td>
<td>vous cousiez</td>
<td>vous cousiez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il cousit</td>
<td>ils cousissent</td>
<td>ils cousissent</td>
<td>ils cousissent</td>
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<tr>
<td>nous cousions</td>
<td>nous cousions</td>
<td>nous cousons</td>
<td>nous cousirent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous cousiez</td>
<td>ils cousent</td>
<td>vous cousiez</td>
<td>vous cousirez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils cousent</td>
<td>il cousit</td>
<td>ils cousent</td>
<td>ils cousirent</td>
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<td>ils cousent</td>
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<td>ils cousirent</td>
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<td>ils cousent</td>
<td>ils cousirent</td>
<td>ils cousirent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participle.**

- cousant
- cousant
- cousant
- cousant
THE TASKS.

211 Paragraph.] INFinitive MODE.

Courir  To Run

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cours  I run

tu cours  thou run

il court  he runs

nous courrons  you run

vous courrez  they run

ils courrent  they run

Past Imperfect Time.

je courrois  I ran

tu courrois  thou ranest

il courrait  he ran

nous courrois  you ran

vous courroiez  they ran

ils courroient  they ran

Past Perfect Time.

je courrut  I should run

tu courrut  thou shouldst run

il courût  he should run

nous courrut  you should run

vous courru  you should run

ils coururent  they should run

Future Time.

je courrai  I shall run

tu courras  thou shalt run

il courra  he shall run

nous courrions  you shall run

vous courriez  they shall run

ils courront  they shall run

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je croye  I may believe

tu croyes  thou mayest believe

il croyoit  he may believe

nous croyons  you may believe

vous croyiez  they may believe

ils croyent  they may believe

Past Imperfect Time.

je croirai  I should believe

tu croiras  thou shouldst believe

il croirait  he should believe

nous croirions  you should believe

vous croiriez  they should believe

ils croirent  they should believe

Past Perfect Time.

je crusse  I might believe

tu crussiez  thou mightest believe

il croissa  he might believe

nous croissions  you might believe

vous croissiez  they might believe

ils croissent  they might believe

IMPERATIVE MODE.

cours  run

qu'il cours  let him run

Courant  running

Courant  courant

run  run

cours  let them run

qu'ils courront  let them run

PARTICULARS.

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

croyant  believing

IMPERATIVE MODE.

 cours  run

qu'il croyez  let us believe

qu'ils croissent  let them believe

Qu'il croyez  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing

CROIRE  believing
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<th>SUBJUNCTIVE MODE</th>
<th>IMPERATIVE MODE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>je cueille</td>
<td>je cueille</td>
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<td>tu cueilles</td>
<td>tu cueillisse</td>
<td>tu cueillisse</td>
<td>cueillez</td>
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<td>il cueille</td>
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<td>nous cueillissions</td>
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<td>cueillez</td>
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<tr>
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<td>je cueillerai</td>
<td>je cueillerai</td>
<td>cueillerons</td>
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<tr>
<td>tu cueilleras</td>
<td>tu cueilleras</td>
<td>cueilleriez</td>
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<td>il cueillerait</td>
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<td>ils cueilliront</td>
<td>cueilliront</td>
<td>cueillez</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**verbs**

- cueillir (to gather)
- cueillir (to gather, past participle)

**mode**

- indicative
- subjunctive
- imperative
### THE TASKS

#### INFinitive Mode

**Dormir**

**INDICATIVE MODE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Imperfect Time</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je dors</td>
<td>je dormois</td>
<td>je dormirai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu dors</td>
<td>tu dormois</td>
<td>tu dormira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il dort</td>
<td>il dormit</td>
<td>il dormira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous dormons</td>
<td>nous dormions</td>
<td>nous dormirons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous dormez</td>
<td>vous dormiez</td>
<td>vous dormirez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>ils dormirent</td>
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**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE**

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<th>Imperfect Time</th>
<th>Future Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je dormé</td>
<td>je dormoies</td>
<td>je dormirai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu dormes</td>
<td>tu dormoies</td>
<td>tu dormira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il dormit</td>
<td>il dormit</td>
<td>il dormira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous dormons</td>
<td>nous dormions</td>
<td>nous dormirons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous dormez</td>
<td>vous dormiez</td>
<td>vous dormirez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils dorment</td>
<td>ils dormirent</td>
<td>ils dormirent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE MODE**

- dors = sleep
- dormons = let us sleep
- dormez = let them sleep

**PARTICIPLES**

- dormant = sleeping
- dormi = slept.
### THE TASKS

#### INFINITIVE MODE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Present Time</th>
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<th>Imperfect Time</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je fuis</td>
<td>I flee</td>
<td>thou flee</td>
<td>he flees</td>
<td>I shall flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu fuis</td>
<td>thou flee</td>
<td>he flees</td>
<td>you flee</td>
<td>we shall flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il fuit</td>
<td>he flees</td>
<td>we flees</td>
<td>they flee</td>
<td>shall they flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous fugons</td>
<td>we flee</td>
<td>they flee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous fugez</td>
<td>you flee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils fuient</td>
<td>they flee</td>
<td></td>
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#### IMPERATIVE MODE.

<table>
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<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuis</td>
<td>let him flee</td>
<td>让他逃离</td>
<td>He should flee</td>
<td>Let them flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qu'il fuir</td>
<td>flee</td>
<td>flee</td>
<td>flee</td>
<td>flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuie</td>
<td>let us flee</td>
<td>让我们逃离</td>
<td>We should flee</td>
<td>They should flee</td>
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#### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<table>
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<th>Imperfect</th>
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<tr>
<td>je fugis</td>
<td>I may flee</td>
<td>他可能逃离</td>
<td>He may flee</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu fugis</td>
<td>thou may flee</td>
<td>他可能逃离</td>
<td>You may flee</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il fugit</td>
<td>you may flee</td>
<td>你可能逃离</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous fugions</td>
<td>we may flee</td>
<td>他们可能逃离</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous fugiez</td>
<td></td>
<td>你们可能逃离</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
<td>They may flee</td>
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<tr>
<td>ils fugient</td>
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<td>他们可能逃离</td>
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#### PARTICIPLES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participles</th>
<th>fuyant</th>
<th>fleeing</th>
<th>fled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>fleing</td>
<td>fled</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Imperfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect Time</th>
<th>Imperfect Time</th>
<th>Future Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I read</td>
<td>I read</td>
<td>I shall read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou readest</td>
<td>thou readest</td>
<td>thou shall read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he reads</td>
<td>he reads</td>
<td>he shall read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we read</td>
<td>we read</td>
<td>we shall read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you read</td>
<td>you read</td>
<td>you shall read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they read</td>
<td>they read</td>
<td>they shall read</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Time</th>
<th>Imperfect Time</th>
<th>Future Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may read</td>
<td>I should read</td>
<td>I might read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou mayest read</td>
<td>thou shouldest read</td>
<td>thou mightest read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he may read</td>
<td>he should read</td>
<td>he might read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we may read</td>
<td>we should read</td>
<td>we might read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you may read</td>
<td>you should read</td>
<td>you might read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they may read</td>
<td>they should read</td>
<td>they might read</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lire (To Read)</th>
<th>met (To Put)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participles</th>
<th>Participles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Lire (To Read)</th>
<th>met (To Put)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lisant</td>
<td>mettant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Note

The page contains a table of verb conjugation in French, including indicative and subjunctive modes, as well as imperative and participles forms. The table is divided into sections for present, past, and future times, with rows for the subject pronouns (I, thou, he, we, they) and columns for the verb forms. The right column provides the corresponding English translations. The page also includes a table for irregular verbs, with additional columns for past, perfect, and subjunctive forms.
### Imperative Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mouds</th>
<th>qu'il moul e</th>
<th>moulant</th>
<th>grinding</th>
<th>moul</th>
<th>ground</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mouds</td>
<td>qu'il moul e</td>
<td>moulant</td>
<td>grinding</td>
<td>moul</td>
<td>ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouds</td>
<td>qu'il moul e</td>
<td>moulant</td>
<td>grinding</td>
<td>moul</td>
<td>ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouds</td>
<td>qu'il moul e</td>
<td>moulant</td>
<td>grinding</td>
<td>moul</td>
<td>ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouds</td>
<td>qu'il moul e</td>
<td>moulant</td>
<td>grinding</td>
<td>moul</td>
<td>ground</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperfect Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je moul i</th>
<th>tu moul i</th>
<th>il moul</th>
<th>nous moulons</th>
<th>vous moul e</th>
<th>ils moulent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I grind</td>
<td>than grindest</td>
<td>thou grindest</td>
<td>we grind</td>
<td>you grind</td>
<td>they grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moul i</td>
<td>tu moul i</td>
<td>il moul</td>
<td>nous moulons</td>
<td>vous moul e</td>
<td>ils moulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I grind</td>
<td>than grindest</td>
<td>thou grindest</td>
<td>we grind</td>
<td>you grind</td>
<td>they grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moul i</td>
<td>tu moul i</td>
<td>il moul</td>
<td>nous moulons</td>
<td>vous moul e</td>
<td>ils moulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I grind</td>
<td>than grindest</td>
<td>thou grindest</td>
<td>we grind</td>
<td>you grind</td>
<td>they grind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je moul</th>
<th>tu moul</th>
<th>il moul</th>
<th>nous moulons</th>
<th>vous moul</th>
<th>ils moulent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I ground</td>
<td>thou groundest</td>
<td>he ground</td>
<td>we ground</td>
<td>you ground</td>
<td>they ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moul</td>
<td>tu moul</td>
<td>il moul</td>
<td>nous moulons</td>
<td>vous moul</td>
<td>ils moulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ground</td>
<td>thou groundest</td>
<td>he ground</td>
<td>we ground</td>
<td>you ground</td>
<td>they ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moul</td>
<td>tu moul</td>
<td>il moul</td>
<td>nous moulons</td>
<td>vous moul</td>
<td>ils moulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ground</td>
<td>thou groundest</td>
<td>he ground</td>
<td>we ground</td>
<td>you ground</td>
<td>they ground</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je moudrai</th>
<th>tu moudrai</th>
<th>il moudra</th>
<th>nous moudrions</th>
<th>vous moudrez</th>
<th>ils moudront</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall grind</td>
<td>thou shalt grind</td>
<td>he shall grind</td>
<td>we shall grind</td>
<td>you shall grind</td>
<td>they shall grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moudrai</td>
<td>tu moudrai</td>
<td>il moudra</td>
<td>nous moudrions</td>
<td>vous moudrez</td>
<td>ils moudront</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall grind</td>
<td>thou shalt grind</td>
<td>he shall grind</td>
<td>we shall grind</td>
<td>you shall grind</td>
<td>they shall grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moudrai</td>
<td>tu moudrai</td>
<td>il moudra</td>
<td>nous moudrions</td>
<td>vous moudrez</td>
<td>ils moudront</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall grind</td>
<td>thou shalt grind</td>
<td>he shall grind</td>
<td>we shall grind</td>
<td>you shall grind</td>
<td>they shall grind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je moule</th>
<th>tu moule</th>
<th>il moule</th>
<th>nous moulemes</th>
<th>vous moulez</th>
<th>ils moulent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may grind</td>
<td>thou mayest grind</td>
<td>he may grind</td>
<td>we may grind</td>
<td>you may grind</td>
<td>they may grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moule</td>
<td>tu moule</td>
<td>il moule</td>
<td>nous moulemes</td>
<td>vous moulez</td>
<td>ils moulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I may grind</td>
<td>thou mayest grind</td>
<td>he may grind</td>
<td>we may grind</td>
<td>you may grind</td>
<td>they may grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je moule</td>
<td>tu moule</td>
<td>il moule</td>
<td>nous moulemes</td>
<td>vous moulez</td>
<td>ils moulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I may grind</td>
<td>thou mayest grind</td>
<td>he may grind</td>
<td>we may grind</td>
<td>you may grind</td>
<td>they may grind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

- moulant: grinding
- moul: ground

### Infinitive Mode

- To Grind

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moudre</th>
<th>To Grind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INFINITIVE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Indicative Mode

- Present Time:
  - je mouds: I grind
  - tu mouds: thou grindest
  - il mouds: he grind
  - nous moulons: we grind
  - vous moul ez: you grind
  - ils moulent: they grind

- Past Time:
  - je moulais: I ground
  - tu moul ais: thou groundest
  - il moulait: he ground
  - nous moulions: we ground
  - vous mouliez: you ground
  - ils moulurent: they ground

- Future Time:
  - je moudrai: I shall grind
  - tu moudrai: thou shalt grind
  - il moudra: he shall grind
  - nous moudrons: we shall grind
  - vous moudrez: you shall grind
  - ils moudront: they shall grind

### Imperfect Mode

- Present Time:
  - je mouri: I might grind
  - tu mourrais: thou mightest grind
  - il mourrait: he mightest grind
  - nous mourrions: we mightest grind
  - vous mourriez: you mightest grind
  - ils mourrissent: they mightest grind

- Past Time:
  - je mourussiez: I might die
  - tu mourrissiez: thou mightest die
  - il mourrait: he mightest die
  - nous mourrions: we mightest die
  - vous mourriez: you mightest die
  - ils mourrissent: they mightest die

### Perfect Mode

- Perfect Time:
  - je mouri: I died
  - tu mouri: thou died
  - il mouri: he died
  - nous mourons: we died
  - vous mourrez: you died
  - ils mourront: they died

### Subjunctive Mode

- Present Time:
  - I may die
  - thou mayest die
  - he may die
  - we may die
  - you may die
  - they may die

- Past Time:
  - I died
  - thou died
  - he died
  - we died
  - you died
  - they died

### Participles

- mourant: dying
- mour: dead
### Imperative Mode

**Mouvoir**

- move
- let him move
- moving

**Naissant**

- being born

### Indicative Mode

#### Present Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je meus</th>
<th>move</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tu meus</td>
<td>thou movest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il meut</td>
<td>he moves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mouvons</td>
<td>we move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils mouvent</td>
<td>they move</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Past Imperfect Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je meuvols</th>
<th>I moved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tu meuvols</td>
<td>thou movest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il meuvolt</td>
<td>he moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mouvions</td>
<td>we moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils mouvaient</td>
<td>they moved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Future Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je mouvrus</th>
<th>I shall move</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tu mouvrus</td>
<td>thou shalt move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il mouvrat</td>
<td>he shall move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous mouvrions</td>
<td>we shall move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils mouvrions</td>
<td>they shall move</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive Mode

#### Present Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>je meuvrais</th>
<th>I might move</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tu meuvrais</td>
<td>thou mightest move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il meuvrait</td>
<td>he might move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous meuvrions</td>
<td>we might move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils meuvraient</td>
<td>they might move</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive Mode

**Mouvoir**

- To Move

**Naissant**

- To be Born
### IRREGULAR VERBS

**Plaire**

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

To Please.

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

- **Present Time.**
  - je plais
  - tu plais
  - il plait
  - nous plaisons
  - vous plaisiez
  - ils plaisent

- **Past Time.**
  - je plaisais
  - tu plaisais
  - il plaisait
  - nous plaisions
  - vous plaisiez
  - ils plaisaient

- **Future Time.**
  - je plairai
  - tu plairas
  - il plaira
  - nous plairons
  - vous plairez
  - ils plairont

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

- **Present Time.**
  - je puisse
  - tu puisse
  - il puisse
  - nous puissions
  - vous puissiez
  - ils puissent

- **Past Time.**
  - je pusse
  - tu pusse
  - il pusse
  - nous pussions
  - vous pussiez
  - ils pussent

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

- je plaise
- tu plais
- il plaise
- nous plaisons
- vous plaisiez
- ils plaisent

**PARTICIPEs.**

- plaisant
- plaisant
- plaisant
- plaisant
THE TASKS.

[Letter]

INFLEXIVE MODE.

To Be Able, or, To have Power.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pouvoir

je peux, or pouvoir

Present

tu peux

Time.

il peut

Nous pouvons

vous pouvez

ils peuvent

Past

je pouvais

tu pouvais

Imperfect

il pouvait

Time.

nous pouvions

vous pouviez

ils pouvaient

Future

je pourrai

tu pourras

Time.

nous pourrons

vous pourrez

ils pourront

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

je puisse

tu puisse

Present

il puisse

Time.

nous puissions

vous puissiez

ils puissent

Past

je pourrois

tu pourrois

Imperfect

il pourroit

Time.

nous pourroions

vous pourriez

ils pourroient

Future

je prendrai

tu prendras

Time.

nous prendrons

vous prendrez

ils prendront

IMPERATIVE MODE.

(pr prendons qu'il pruome)

[Not used in this Mode.]

PARTICIPLES.

pouvant being able

pu been able

pr prenent taking

premier present

let us take

take
### Imperative Mode

- **To Resolve**
  - Je résous
  - Tu résous
  - Il résous
  - Nous résolvons
  - Vous résolvez
  - Ilés résolvent

- **To Invest**
  - Je revêts
  - Tu revêts
  - Il revêts
  - Nous revêtons
  - Vous revêtez
  - Ils revêtent

### Indicative Mode

#### Present Time
- Je résous
- Tu résous
- Il résous
- Nous résolvons
- Vous résolvez
- Ils résolvent

- Je revêts
- Tu revêts
- Il revêts
- Nous revêtons
- Vous revêtez
- Ils revêtent

#### Past Perfect Time
- Je résoudrai
- Tu résoudras
- Il résoudra
- Nous résoudrons
- Vous résoudrez
- Ils résoudront

- Je revêtirai
- Tu revêtiras
- Il revêtira
- Nous revêtirons
- Vous revêtirez
- Ils revêtiront

#### Future Time
- Je résolus
- Tu résolus
- Il résolus
- Nous résolvons
- Vous résolvez
- Ils résolvent

- Je revêtir
- Tu revêtez
- Il revêtir
- Nous revêtez
- Vous revêtir
- Ils revêtir

### Subjunctive Mode

#### Present Time
- Je puis résoudre
- Je puis revêtir

#### Past Perfect Time
- Je résoudrais
- Je revêtirais

#### Future Time
- Je résolus
- Je revêtir

### Infinitive

- Résoudre
- Revêtir

### Participles

- Résolu
- Revêtu

---

**Note:** The text includes a table with verb conjugations for different tenses in French, along with English translations for some of the verbs.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect Tense</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Perfect Tense</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td>I laugh</td>
<td>thou laughest</td>
<td>he laughed</td>
<td>I laugh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thou</td>
<td>you laugh</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>let us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they</td>
<td></td>
<td>laugh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past</strong></td>
<td>I laughed</td>
<td>thou laughed</td>
<td>he laughed</td>
<td>I broke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td></td>
<td>you laughed</td>
<td>you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>I shall</td>
<td>thou shalt</td>
<td>he shall</td>
<td>I shall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>you shall</td>
<td>break</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they shall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Perfect Tense</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may</td>
<td>thou may</td>
<td>he may</td>
<td>you may</td>
<td>I may</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>they</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past</strong></td>
<td>I should</td>
<td>thou should</td>
<td>he should</td>
<td>I should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td></td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>you should</td>
<td>break</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they should</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>I might</td>
<td>thou might</td>
<td>he might</td>
<td>I might</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td></td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>you might</td>
<td>break</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they might</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Perfect Tense</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may</td>
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**To Know**

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- tressaillant

**PARTICIPLES.**

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- tressaillé

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

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- trai
- tressaillerez
- tressaillerez

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- tressaillé

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

- tressailliez
- tressaillé
- tressaillé

**PARTICIPLES.**

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THE TASKS.

237 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Valoir To be Worth.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.
je vaux
tu vaux
il vaux
nous valons
vous valez
ils valent

Past Imperfect Time.
je valais
tu valais
il valait
nous valions
vous valiez
ils valaient

Past Perfect Time.
je valus
tu valus
il valut
nous valûmes
vous valûtes
ils valûrent

Future Time.
je vairai
tu vairas
il vairait
nous vairions
vous vairiez
ils vairont

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.
je vaille
tu vailles
il vaille
nous vailons
vous vaillez
ils vail lent

Past Imperfect Time.
je vaudrais
tu vaudrais
il vaudrait
nous vaudrions
vous vaudriez
ils vaudrions

Past Perfect Time.
je vaudson
tu vaudserie
il vaudroit
nous vaudrions
vous vaudriez
ils vaudrions

IMPERATIVE MODE.

vaux qu'il vaillle
let us be worth
let them be worth

valent. being worth

PARTICIPLES.
val. been worth.
### THE TASKS

#### INFinitive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>To See</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je vois</td>
<td>I see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu vois</td>
<td>thou seest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voit</td>
<td>he sees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voyons</td>
<td>we see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous voyez</td>
<td>you see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voyent</td>
<td>they see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voyais</td>
<td>I saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voyais</td>
<td>thou sawest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voyait</td>
<td>he saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voyions</td>
<td>we saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous voyiez</td>
<td>you saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voyaient</td>
<td>they saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je verrai</td>
<td>I shall see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu verras</td>
<td>thou shalt see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il verrra</td>
<td>he shall see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous verrons</td>
<td>we shall see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous verrez</td>
<td>you shall see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils verront</td>
<td>they shall see</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Subjunctive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>To May See</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voie</td>
<td>I may see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voie</td>
<td>thou mayest see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voie</td>
<td>he may see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voyions</td>
<td>we may see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous voyiez</td>
<td>they may see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils volent</td>
<td>they may see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voyais</td>
<td>I should see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voyais</td>
<td>thou shouldest see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voyait</td>
<td>he should see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voyions</td>
<td>we should see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous voyiez</td>
<td>you should see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voyaient</td>
<td>they should see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je vise</td>
<td>I might see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu vises</td>
<td>thou mightest see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il vit</td>
<td>he might see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous visions</td>
<td>we might see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous visiez</td>
<td>you might see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils visissent</td>
<td>they might see</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperative Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>qu'il vole</th>
<th>voyons</th>
<th>let us see</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voie</td>
<td>see</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qu'il voie</td>
<td>let him see</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voyez</td>
<td>see</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qu'ils voyent</td>
<td>let them see</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERATIVE MODE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voirant</th>
<th>sendo</th>
<th>vu</th>
<th>seen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voyant</td>
<td>seeing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils</td>
<td>vu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous</td>
<td>seen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IRREGULAR VERBS

#### INFinitive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>To Be Willing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je veux</td>
<td>I am willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu veux</td>
<td>thou art willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il veut</td>
<td>he is willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voulons</td>
<td>we are willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous voulez</td>
<td>you are willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils vont</td>
<td>they are willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voulais</td>
<td>I was willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voulais</td>
<td>thou wast willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voulait</td>
<td>he was willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voulaions</td>
<td>we were willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous vouliez</td>
<td>you were willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voulaient</td>
<td>they were willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voula</td>
<td>I shall be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voulis</td>
<td>thou shalt be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voulit</td>
<td>he shall be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voulissons</td>
<td>we shall be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous vouliez</td>
<td>you shall be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voulissent</td>
<td>they shall be willing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Subjunctive Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>To May Be Willing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je veuille</td>
<td>I may be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu veuilles</td>
<td>thou mayest be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il veuille</td>
<td>he may be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous veuillons</td>
<td>we may be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous veuillez</td>
<td>you may be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils veulent</td>
<td>they may be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Imperfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voulais</td>
<td>I should be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voulais</td>
<td>thou shouldest be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voulait</td>
<td>he shouldest be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voulaions</td>
<td>we should be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous vouliez</td>
<td>you should be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voulaient</td>
<td>they should be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Perfect Time.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je voulet</td>
<td>I might be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu voulis</td>
<td>thou mightest be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il voulit</td>
<td>he might be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nous voulissons</td>
<td>we might be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous vouliez</td>
<td>you might be willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ils voulaient</td>
<td>they might be willing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>Verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>voulant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voula</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voir</th>
<th>Participles</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voulant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>voulis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Letter X]
241. Before I quit these conjugations of regular verbs and of irregular verbs, I must give you some further advice relative to the learning of them and of every thing relating to the verbs. You must have seen, before now, that the verbs constitute the most important part of a language. To have a thorough knowledge of this part of speech is absolutely necessary to the acquirement of any thing approaching perfection in the language. I, therefore, beseech you to bestow great pains on this part of your study. Write down the conjugations of all the regular verbs several times over. Make it a duty to conjugate a regular verb of each conjugation every day for some time. And, as to the thirty-nine irregulars, you should conjugate them all, that is to say, write the conjugations over so often, that, at last, you are able to write the whole of the conjugations down, from the first to the last, without making a single blunder; for, until you can do this, you do not understand these important words sufficiently.

242. In order to assist the memory in the case of the Genders or Nouns, I have, in paragraph 183, described a little book that I made for the purpose. To effect a similar purpose with regard to the Verbs, I made a card, which I carried constantly in my pocket-book. One side of this card exhibited an abridgment of the ten conjugations of regular verbs. So that, if I were absent from my books; if I were walking or riding, and thinking about any particular verb, I could take out my card, and refresh my memory. The other side of the card exhibited a complete list of the irregulars, with an abridged conjugation of each. I shall, presently, give you a copy of this card; and, from it, you may make one for yourself. On the Regular Side the Card leaves out the second persons of all the verbs; but, having all the rest under your eye, you can make no mistake as to these parts of the verb. On the Irregular Side of the Card you have, after the infinitive, only the first person singular of the verbs, and the two Participles. The Card will contain no more; but, these will be, in most cases, sufficient to call to your recollection the manner of conjugating the verb. At any rate, this side of the Card will always be at hand to tell you, whether any verb, about which you may want information, be a regular, or an irregular. This Card will be very convenient when you are translating from English into French. It will, in many cases, save you the trouble of searching the Dictionary, or of turning over the leaves of your Grammar.

243. When you have done all that I have directed above, you will, before you enter on the next Letter, which will introduce you to the Syntax, try yourself a little as to your knowledge of the verbs; and, this you will do in the following manner. Go back to paragraph 170. There are little Exercises from A to Z. Write down the verbs that you find in the first; that is, in A. You will find them to be: est, chanter, a, apprendre, parler, siffler and jatt. Take these verbs, write them down upon a piece of paper, and, against each, write down the number of the conjugation that it belongs to, the mode, the time, the person; and, if it be an irregular, write down that, and any other particular belonging to it. I here give you an example.

est: Irregular verb; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb être.

chante: Regular verb; first conjugation; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb chanter.

a: Irregular verb; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb avoir.

apprend: Irregular verb; conjugated like prendre; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb apprendre.

parler: Regular verb; first conjugation; infinitive mode.
244. When you have written against the verbs, look for the verbs in the Dictionary, or in your List of Irregulars, or look at your Card; and you will then find whether your descriptions be correct. When you have thus gone through one of the little Exercises, go to another, and you will get through the whole in the course of a day. These Exercises consist of sentences of very simple construction, and having a great part of their verbs in the present time; so that, when you have gone through these Exercises, in the manner above pointed out, you may take the verbs which you find in any two or three pages of your Exercises in the Syntax, where you will find verbs in all the Modes and all the Times.

245. Before I quit the conjugations, let me once more observe, that, in writing certain parts of some of the verbs, great authorities differ. I observed before, that some write je visse, and others je vis: some write je cois, and others je couds. There are several other verbs with regard to the writing of some parts of which there is some little difference in the practice of different writers. But, this is a matter of no consequence, provided you adhere to one practice.
My dear Richard,

246. In paragraph 27, which you will now read again, I described to you what Syntax meant. It is the art of constructing sentences: it is the business of making sentences according to the rules of grammar. All that you have hitherto learned is, how to construct, or make, or form words; how to vary the spelling of articles and nouns and pronouns and adjectives to make them express the different numbers and genders and cases, and how to vary the spelling of verbs to make them express the different modes, times and persons, and also to make your spelling accord with the rules relating to the conjugations. These are the things which you have hitherto learned; and they relate to the making of words: to the spelling of words in a proper manner; and to the making of the proper changes in their form, according to the change of circumstances. This is what you have learned; and this is Etymology.

247. Syntax is quite a different thing. It teaches the forming of sentences. In the forming of sentences you have to attend to what is called concord, and also to what is called government. Concord is only another word for agreement. The words of a sentence must agree with each other, according to the rules of grammar. They sometimes govern each other; that is to say, one word causes, or requires, another word to be in such or such a form. If I say le chapeau blanche, my words disagree, there is not concord, because I have the feminine adjective with the masculine noun. I ought to say le chapeau blanc; and then I have concord in my sentence.

248. As to government, if I, for instance, say, il faut que j'écris une lettre, my words do not govern each other according to the laws of grammar; for,
THE POINTS AND MARKS

il faut requires the verb that comes after it to be in the subjunctive mode; and écrire, as you will know by this time, the Indicative mode of écrire. The Subjunctive is écrire; and, therefore, I ought to say, il faut que j'écrive une lettre. But, say you, how am I to know what words govern other words, and in what manner words are to agree? You cannot know these things, until you be taught them; and Syntax is to teach you.

Besides, however, the concord and government, there is the placing of the words. We, for instance, say, in English, a wise man; but, the French say, un homme sage. We say, white paper; they say, papier blanc. Then, there is the placing of phrases, or parts of sentences; and, in both languages, we must take care that we place all the parts properly: for, if we do not, our meaning will not be clear to the reader. However, you will see enough of this when you come to the Exercises, with which the rules of Syntax will be interspersed.

THE POINTS AND MARKS USED IN WRITING.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

250. The forms of all these Points and Marks were given you in paragraph 24. Of the accents I need say nothing here. They belong to the Etymology, as they are component parts of words. But, the points and marks come under our present head; because they are necessary in the forming of sentences.

251. The Full-Point, which, in French, is, le point, and which is thus formed (. . ) is used at the end of every complete sentence. The Colon, which the French call deux points, and which is written thus ( : ) is next to the Full-Point in requiring a complete sense in the words after which it is placed.

XVII] USED IN WRITING.

The Semicolon, called, in French, un point et une virgule, and which is formed thus (; ) is used to set off parts of sentences, when the Comma is thought not to be quite sufficient. The Comma, la virgule, in French, is written thus ( , ), and is used to mark the shortest pauses in reading, and the smallest divisions in writing.

252. This work of pointing is, in a great degree, a matter of taste. Some persons put into one sentence what others would into two or three sentences. It is a matter that cannot be reduced to precise rules; but, whether we write in French or in English, these points are necessary; and we ought to be attentive in using them.

253. The Mark of Interrogation (?) is put at the close of words which put a question. The mark of Admiration (?) is used to denote surprise. The Apostrophe, or mark of Ellision, is a comma, placed above the line (‘ ). The Hyphen connects words (-).

254. As to the marks for the purpose of reference, such as, * † ‡, and the like, they do not belong to grammar. People may make them of what form they please, and may call them what they please. But, the Points and Marks in the three foregoing paragraphs belong to grammar: they assist in the forming of, and in the giving of meaning to, sentences; and, for that reason it is, that they have been now, for the second time, pointed out to your attention.

LETTER XVI.

SYNTAX OF ARTICLES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

255. You will now turn back to Letter V., and read it once more, carefully through. Then read paragraphs from 77 to 85 inclusive. These two parts of the Grammar will have taught you a great deal as to the Article. In the next Letter also,
which will treat of the Syntax of Nouns, there will, in treating of Nouns, be something about the use of the Article; but, still, there is much belonging more directly to the Article itself; and this I shall say here. The thing that you now want to know, is, how the manner of using the Articles in French differs from that of using them in English; and this we are now going to see.

256. There are, you know, the indefinite Article, the definite Article, and what I call the compound Article; that is, the Article joined with the preposition de or à.

257. Our indefinite Article is, a (which becomes an when followed by a vowel): the French is, un, or une. In both languages this Article can be applied to nouns in the singular only. We apply it to hundred, thousand, and other words of multitude; but, this is no deviation from the rule; for, we consider the hundred, or other number, as one body, parcel, or mass. The French do not, however, use this article before cent (hundred) and mille (thousand); but say, cent pommes, and not, an cent pommes; though we must say a hundred apples.

258. When we use this Article after such (tel or telle) and before a noun, the French give the phrase a complete turn: thus:

Have you ever heard talk of such a thing? Avez-vous jamais entendu parler d'une telle chose?

That is to say, "of a such thing?" We say, Mr. such an one; they say, Monseigneur un tel; that is, Mr. a such. And mind; though theirs sounds shockingly to us, ours does the same to them. We use our Article after an, in certain phrases; thus: so good a man. The French say, in such a case, un si bon homme; that is to say, a so good man.

259. We, in speaking of nouns of weight, measure, or tale, mostly use a (or an); but, the French, in such cases, use the definite Article; as:

I sell my corn at six shillings a bushel.
Je vends mon blé à six schelins le buisson.

We, in English, may, in general, use the definite Article in these cases. We may say, six shillings the bushel; five pence the score; and so on: but, we do not use this mode of expression in general; and, the French cannot do otherwise. We cannot very well do it before piece. We cannot, with any propriety, say, ducks at two shillings the piece. But, this is the mode that the French must make use of. They must say, deux schelins la pièce.

260. We, in speaking of portions of time, make use of the indefinite article, where the French make use of par (by); as: ten shillings a day; which, in French, is, dix schelins per jour. That is to say, literally, ten shillings by day; which is more evidently reasonable than our mode of expression. We say, working by the day. We also say, paid by the day. Why not say, then, ten shillings by day; and not a day? The meaning of our phrase is, so much for a day; and the meaning of the French is, so much day by day.

261. We put a (or an), after the verb to be, before a noun, in the singular, expressing profession, rank, state, situation, country, or any distinctive mark; as he is a gardener; I am an Englishman. The French do not do this: they say, il est jardinier; je suis Anglais. This observation applies, however, only to cases where the business of the phrase is solely that of expressing the distinctive mark. If it have other objects the rule does not hold; as:

He has a gardener. Il a un jardinier.
I see an Englishman. Je vois un Anglais.

You see, the article is, in the former cases, left out, in the French, with very good reason; for, the words gardener and Englishman, being used solely for the purpose of designating the profession and the country of the man, the article cannot be necessary; but in the latter cases, there is something more. Here the main business is, to make it understood, that he has a gardener, and that I see an Englishman.

262. We put a (or an) after what, in an exclama-
article, let me again remind you, that in French, these two words, un and une are indeterminate pronouns (see paragraph 99), and also adjectives of number, as well as articles. In short, they answer to our word one in all its capacities, except when our one answers to the French on, which is a word widely different from un or une. It is of great importance, that you bear in mind, that un and une answer to our one as well as to our a; as:

A man had one horse, one cow, and two oxen.
Un homme avoit un cheval, une vache, et deux bœufs.

Thus you see, un and une answer to our one as well as to our a.

265. Having now done with my rules about the indefinite article, I shall give you what is called an Exercise relating to that article: that is to say, I shall give you some phrases in English for you to translate into French. There must, of course, be, in these phrases, words of the other parts of speech; and these you must translate also; but, I shall make the phrases so simple, so easy, that you will have little to attend to besides your articles, which are, just at present, to be the object of your care. The first sentence is, “a hundred pounds, five shillings.” You look into your Dictionary, and there you find, that hundred is cent, that pounds is livre, that shilling is schelins, and that five is cinq. Your rule has just told you, that the English a is not, in this case, expressed in French. Your translation will, therefore, be this: “cent livres, cinq schelins.” If the phrase had contained a little more: thus: “He had a hundred pounds, five shillings.” You know that He is il, that had is avoit. Your translation, must, of course, be; “Il avoit cent livres, cinq schelins.” You will now proceed to the performance of the first Exercise.

EXERCISE I.

1. A hundred pounds, five shillings.
2. Pens at six shillings a hundred.
3. Ducks at ten pence a piece.

18
4. Have you heard of such a thing?
5. If such an one come hither.
6. A thousand soldiers have marched.
7. A hundred have returned.
8. I have not seen so good a boy.
9. A garden, having a wall on one side.
10. It is rare to see so by a man.
11. A good poet, but not a Boileau.
12. He is a doctor and his brother is an attorney.
13. He is rich, a thing that he likes.
14. Such a thing has seldom happened.
15. What a garden!
16. What a noise!
17. What a fine flower!
18. What a pretty girl Emma is!
19. What a rich man her father is!
20. What charms money has!
21. What a horrible cry!
22. A fool of a boy.
23. A man who has more than one fault.
24. A table which has one broken leg.
26. Give me a sentence, as an example.
27. A hen with one chick.
28. A coach drawn by one horse.
29. A veil and one sail.
30. A box of books.
32. One gardener and a footman.
33. A hundred of them.
34. An hour and a half.
35. Half an hour.

This will be sufficient for the present. Phrases like these will frequently occur, as you proceed in the future exercises. But in order that you may, when you have finished your Exercise, know whether your translation be correct; or, in other words, whether you have well learned thus far: in order that you may know this, I shall, in Letter XXVIII, put the French of all these Exercises; and as the French will have numbers to correspond with those of the English, you can, as soon as you have finished an Exercise, turn to my translation, when you will see whether yours be correct. If you work under the eye of a master, he will tell you at once. But, pray, have the good sense to finish your Exercise before you look at my translation! By a contrary mode of proceeding, you may, possibly, deceive your master for a while; but, bear in mind; it is you who must be the loser by it. As I am here giving you, for the first time, instructions relative to your Exercises, let me caution you against doing your work in a hasty and slovenly manner. Make a book to write all your Exercises in: but, before you insert any translation in your book, you must make it upon a piece of paper; and, even upon that piece of paper, you ought to write it in a clean, neat, and plain manner. Do not neglect to put any of the points, marks, or accents. When you come to see much of the writing of French people, you will find that those, among them, who are illiterate, do, as well as the English, disregard these matters in their Letters and other manuscripts; but, let that be no example for you: make your writing as correct, if you can, as print itself. This will, in the long run, save you a great deal of that precious thing, time. I shall so make the Exercises, that they will, if you be diligent, lead you gently and easily over every difficulty.

266. Let us now come to the definite article. We have, in English, only one, and it is always the. In paragraph 77 to 85, you have seen how often the French article changes its form. We are now to see how the manner of using it differs from the manner of using ours. This article is often omitted in French in cases where it must not be omitted in English; and, still oftener, is it omitted in English in cases where it is indispensably necessary in French.

267. In both languages it is a general rule that proper nouns of persons do not take the article before them. See paragraph 53 on the subject of
of too little importance to occupy a large portion of our time here. The manner of using them is hardly reducible to rule. As to the names of mountains and rivers, we generally put the article before their names in both languages, and much in the same manner. But, observe, if you use the word river, you must put the article before the proper name, if the name of the river be masculine, and only the preposition de, if it be feminine.

269. When we use proper names in the plural number, we use the article with them; as: the Tudors, the Bourbons. The French do the same, whether speaking literally or figuratively.

270. Things, of which there is but one of the kind, or one collection of the kind, in the creation; as: sun, moon, earth, world, stars, take the article in both languages, except God, which takes it in neither language; and except that heaven and hell, which do not take the article in English, take it in French. If the word God be restricted in any way, we use the article in both languages; as: the God of truth. And, thus, we may use the other article, for we may say, a God of truth. The two languages do not at all differ in this respect. These exceptions do, however, when we come to the practice, amount to very little. After a few weeks of steady application, these little difficulties all disappear.

271. We, in speaking of persons in certain situations of life, give them the appellation belonging to the situation, and put their proper names after that appellation; as: Doctor Black, Captain White. But, in French you must use the article, and say, le Docteur and le Capitaine. We do not put Mr. before any of these names of titles, offices, posts, occupations, and situations. The French do; and, you must take special care not to omit it. You must say, Monsieur le Prince, and Monsieur le commissaire de police. Mark this; for, to say Mr. the Prince, in English, would be shocking, and to say Mr. Prince, in French, would be ridiculous.

272. In speaking of a thing in general; that is to
EXERCISE II.

1. America, Asia, Africa, and Europe.
2. Prussia is a part of Germany.
3. Venice, Valenaria, Grenada.
4. He comes from Rochelle.
5. He lives at Hayre de Grace.
6. He has set out for Cayenne.
8. You come from Portugal.
9. They live in Martinico.

EXERCISE III.

They say, in merely naming the sort of thing, we do not use the article in English; as "bread is necessary to man." *Again, "dogs guard sheep."* But, in these, and all similar cases, the article is used in French; and, you must say, "*le pain est nécessaire à l'homme*" and "*les chiens gardent les moutons.*"

273. When we use the singular number to express a whole kind, as: *the dog is a faithful animal*; then the article is applied by us as well as by the French; but, if we use the noun in the plural, we say *dogs,* and the French *les chiens.* However, there is an exception to the former part of this rule; for, if we employ the singular *man,* to express the whole kind, we do not use the article, and the French do use it. Let the two great rival poets, Pope and Boileau, furnish us with examples.

The proper study of mankind is *man.*
Le plus soit animal, à mon avis c'est l'homme.

274. In the French language, as in our own, the definite article is used in some cases, and omitted in others, from, it would seem, mere habit, or fashion. We say, for instance, he is *in town;* but, we must say, he is *in the country.* And, *why must we?* They say, *en ville;* but they say, *dans la ville,* and *à la ville,* and the same of the country. There are certain *propositions* which require the article after them, and there are others after which you cannot correctly put the article. The examples afforded by the *Exercises* will, however, make all this familiar to you in a short time.

EXERCISE III.

1. She is going to Italy.
2. The Thames.
3. The Rhine.
4. The Severn, the Seine.
5. Drunkenness is detestable.
7. Laziness brings poverty.
8. Loam at top, clay next, and then chalk.
9. Barley is cheap this year.
11. The horse is an useful animal.
13. Hawks kill other birds.
14. He comes from China.
15. The wine of Burgundy.
17. The horses of Flanders.
18. The cows of Normandy.
19. Trees grow well in fine Summers.
20. Summer is past.
21. I see, that the trees grow well.
22. Captain White has set off.
24. How do you do, Captain?
25. Pears are ripe in Autumn.
26. Queen Elizabeth and Pope Sixtus.
27. Rooks eat corn.
29. The Boys kill the rooks.
30. Philosophers disagree.
31. He is in the country.
32. She was in town.
33. God, heaven, and hell.
34. Gardens look gay in Spring.
35. Flowers fade in Summer.
36. They die in Autumn.
37. Love was the subject of the letter.
38. Apples are very good fruit.
39. The apples are dear this season.
40. Foxes kill fowls.
275. The compound article (as I call it) is the last that we have to treat of. I call it compound, because it is made up of an article and a preposition. Before you go any further, read, once more, paragraph 79, and also paragraph 83. You see, then, that, the words du, de, la, des, are, in fact, not simply articles; but, a sort of compound words, answering, in many cases, to our some. In hardly any respect do the two languages differ so materially from each other as they do in this respect.

276. These little French words are sometimes partly articles, and, sometimes, they are really adjectives. When they are the former, we must render them in English by our article and preposition: when they are the latter we must render them by some word of qualification as to quantity. In this phrase, "parlez du cheval," the little word is article and preposition; and, therefore, we render it by our article and preposition, thus: "speak of the horse." But, in this phrase, "j'ai du pain," the same little word is an adjective; and, therefore, we render it by an adjective. Some is, in general, the word; but, we may say, a quantity, a pared.; or, we may use any words denoting an uncertain, or unfixed, quantity; or, if it were the plural, des, any words denoting an uncertain, or unfixed, number. The word some, and, in interrogations, the word any; and all those other words, expressive of quantity, or number, must be adjectives, as you must clearly perceive when you reflect on the office of the adjective. In my Maître D'Anglois, I had this illustration of the matter:

J'ai plusieurs amis ici, I have many friends here.
J'ai quelques amis ici, I have some friends here.
J'ai des amis ici, I have some friends here.

Now, plusieurs and quelques, thus used, are unquestionably adjectives, purely adjectives. And, if they are adjectives, is not this des an adjective also?

277. What we have to do, then, is to consider, when it is an adjective that we have to render into French, and, when it is an article along with a preposition. We have seen, that, in numerous cases, where we make use of no article at all, the French use the definite article; and, we shall now see, that, when we use some, any, or any phrase limiting the noun as to quantity or number, and, yet, leaving the quantity or number unfixed, we must render such word, or phrase, into French by du, de la, or des. Our some, or any, is made use of to designate an unfixed part of an undefined whole; as: "give me some sugar." Here the largeness, or the small-
ness, of the part is not fixed on, and the whole mass of sugar, out of which the part is to come, is not at all defined, or pointed out. But, if you define the latter, you must use the definite article; as: give me some of the sugar which you have bought to-day. Bear in mind that the French have no words, that, in this word of limiting nouns, answer to our some, or any. The business of these words is performed by du, de la, and dea.

278. Bear in mind, that a noun must be used, first, in a general, or boundless, sense, expressing the whole of a species; as, trees grow, hares run; or, second, in a strictly confined sense, expressing particular individuals, or bodies, or masses; as, the trees which are in my garden, the hares which I have killed; or, third, in a sense which signifies limitation, but without at all fixing the limits. In the first case, the Article is used in French and not in English; in the second case, it is used in both languages; in the third case, it is not used in English, but it is used in French united with de, and, in this its use, it answers to our some, or any; though, in many cases, it is used, when we omit even the some, or the any; as, in this phrase: “he sells books,” in which case the French say, il vend des livres.

279. However, if there be an adjective coming directly before the noun, the French do not use the article, but merely the preposition, as was said in paragraph 80. But, if the adjective come after the noun, the article is used, as: ils ont du pain; ils ont de bon pain; ils ont du pain blanc. We say, in these cases; they have bread; they have good bread; they have white bread; or, we may, if the case demand it, say, some bread; but, we use no article and no preposition.

280. After certain words of quantity and number, as, beaucoup (much), assez (enough), peu (few), and many others, the article is not used, but merely the preposition; which is also the case, when we have an adjective or participle passive following a word of number; as, quelque chose de bon; cinq poules de grasses; dix arpens de terre de laboures. However, bien, when used instead of beaucoup, must have the article before the next noun, though beaucoup has it not.

281. Many other niceties, relative to the article, might be pointed out; but, it would be worse than useless; because, practice, which there must be after all, will give you a knowledge of these niceties without further time bestowed on rules. In the Exercise, which I am about to give you here, you will find phrases containing examples relative to the indefinite and definite articles, as well as examples relating to what I have called the compound article. But you will find, as we advance, that the Exercises will embrace more and more of the parts of speech.

EXERCISE III.

1. He has hay to sell.
2. He has some hay in his cart.
3. Hay is abundant.
4. Hay is dear this year.
5. She wears silk.
6. She wears fine silk.
7. Silk is very light.
8. Has he any horses?
9. Yes, he has some horses.
10. He keeps dogs.
11. Have they any birds?
12. Dogs bark.
13. I hear a noise.
15. There is danger.
16. There are six white and two black.
17. Five killed and one wounded.
18. They have good meat.
19. She has fine eyes.
20. Sheep eat grass.
21. I have some sheep.
22. The sheep that I have sold.
23. You had some cheese.
24. She will have a good deal of bread.
25. A quantity of earth.
26. Give us more money.
27. Nothing very rare.
28. So many books.
29. Very little wisdom.
30. How many windows?
31. How much land?
32. Much sorrow.
33. Much pleasure.
34. Much patience.
35. Much pain.
36. What wine do you wish?
37. Give me some red.
38. They are very honest people.
39. Cabbages are plentiful at this time.
40. Some onions and some parsley in the garden.
41. The apple-tree is a garland when in bloom.
42. Cherry-trees are very handsome also.
43. The pears are very thick on that tree.
44. Pears are cheap this year.
45. Raspberry-bushes are insignificant things; but their fruit is excellent.
46. What fine strawberries!
47. The spinach and the kidney beans.
48. The market is full of vegetables.
49. Wet weather is good for that ground.
50. The hay is all spoiled.
51. Hay will be dear next year.
52. Kidney beans are very abundant.
53. Lettuces are good in salads.
54. Oil, vinegar, pepper, salt, and mustard, are very useful things.
55. Olive-oil is much better than poppy-oil.
56. The first is made in France and Italy.
57. The last is made in Germany.
58. The sand-hill is very high.
59. Stones do the land no harm.
60. Horse-feed is cheap.
61. A great quantity of land.
62. Larks remain in the fields.

64. Fish, flesh, fowl, grain, flour.
65. We have some fish.
66. Bees do not like wasps.
67. Honey is very useful in a family.

**LETTER XVIII.**

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

282. In paragraphs from 51 to 85 you had the Etymology of Nouns. That taught you, that you had to attend to the gender, the number, and the case. The task, which you had set you in Letter XIV., and in paragraphs from 174 to 180, taught you how to store your memory with regard to the gender of nouns, which, as you now well know, is the great thing of all as far as relates to this part of speech.

283. As to the placing of nouns in sentences there is little difference between the French and the English. The peculiarities are only two or three in number. These I will point out; and then, an Exercise, embracing a great variety of nouns, will be quite sufficient, especially after what has been said on the subject of the Article, which does in fact, belong also to the Noun.

284. We, in English, express possession by putting an *s* and an apostrophe to the end of the singular noun, and if the noun be plural, an apostrophe only; as: John's book, the two brothers' book. In French this mode of expression is wholly unknown. They say *le livre de Jean*, *le livre des deux frères*. We can say: the top of the house, or the house's top; but, in French, it is always the top of the house, le haut de la maison. There can be no mistake here, for the French rule is invariable.

285. There is a great proneness in our language to make compound words; as: gold-watch. The
French have none of these words: they say, monstre
d'or, watch of gold. The same may be said of our
compound words which express the kind or occu-
pation of the noun; as water-rat, school-master,
the kitchen-door. All these are rendered into French
in the way just mentioned: rat d'eau, maître d'
école, la porte de la cuisine.

286. These compound words of ours are some-
times translated into French by the help of à, and
not of de; as, drinking-glass, verre à boire. This
seems reasonable; because it means, glass to drink
with; but, they also say, cruche à eau, water-jug,
and, poudre à canon, gunpowder. It is not easy
to give a rule without numerous exceptions, for the
using of à and de in answer to our compounds;
but, this much may be said; that, when the first
part of our compound expresses an action, which
is performed by the use of the thing expressed by
the latter word of the compound, the French make
use of à and not of de; as: writing-paper, papier
d'écrire; dining-room, salle à manger. In other
cases they make use of de.

287. In translating the following Exercise pay
particular attention to the genders, and to the form-
ing of the plural numbers. Have your little book
of the genders of nouns before you. The rules for
forming the plural numbers which you have in para-
graph 88, you must look at again. Bear in mind,
that the articles and adjectives must agree in gen-
der and number with the nouns to which they apply.
Bear in mind, that there are many nouns which are
feminine in one sense, and masculine in another.
Before you translate a phrase, consider well the
meaning of the English noun; and then think of
the gender of the French noun by which you are
going to translate the English noun.

**EXERCISE IV.**

1. The house is large.
2. A hand and a foot.
3. Two houses and three fields.
45. A solitary place.
46. Solitary places.
47. He has a post.
48. In the post-office.
49. A pound of bread.
51. The king's page.
52. A page of a book.
53. At his house.
54. From the street.
55. To the field.
56. To the parks.
57. After the coach.
58. Chapter the first.
59. Book the second.
60. A treatise on grammar.
61. Walk in, Sir.
62. Ask the gentleman to come in.
63. I see some gentlemen.
64. Sir, I have seen the gentlemen.
65. Walk in, gentlemen.
66. Gentlemen, I have spoken to those gentlemen.
67. As many fine gardens.
68. Before the throne.
69. Except the servant.
70. Amongst the bushes.
71. In the birds' nests.
72. Since Tuesday last.
73. Towards London.
74. The Ladies go away.
75. The Lords stay here.
76. Get away, Mr. Impudence.
77. River-water to make beer with.
78. Madam, I have seen the lady.
79. Ladies, I am going away.
80. Go to Mr. White's.
82. Whose pen is that?
83. The situation of this country.
84. The governor's situation.
85. Sheep's wool is good to make cloth.

XIX.

OF NOUNS.

86. They talk of the lady's house.
87. Mrs. White is dead.
88. Joseph, Peter and some friends.
89. A silver-spoon full of wine.
90. A mug full of beer.
91. This path is a hundred feet long.
92. His mother's death.
93. His son's marriage.
94. His brother's good luck.
95. He has dealt in copper.
96. Coaches and horses cost money.
97. The oak is a fine tree.
98. Oak-boards are durable.
99. Elm-trees in the hedges.

LETTER XIX.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

My dear Richard,

288. Now, read over very carefully the paragraphs from 87 to 100 inclusive. Do not think that this is not necessary. It is necessary, and, therefore, do it. You will not understand what I am now about to write half so well, unless you first read over again the part that I have just pointed out.

289. Having read those paragraphs, you will have again seen, that there are FIVE CLASSES of Pronouns; that is to say, the Personal; the Possessive; the Relative; the Demonstrative; and the Indeterminate. In the paragraphs just mentioned I treated of the etymology of these: I am now going to treat of their Syntax; that is, to give rules for using them in sentences; and, as this is a very important part of speech, you ought here to be uncommonly attentive.

290. First Class, or, PERSONAL PRONOUNS. After all the repetitions in the Conjugations of the verbs, it would be waste of time to dwell upon definitions of the personal pronouns. You must know
what they are as well as I do. But, that which you cannot yet know so well is, how they are used in sentences. Look, now, at paragraph 91. Read it very carefully. I there tell you that the Syntax will teach you something; and, I am now about to make good my word.

291. These cases are things of great importance with regard to pronouns, and especially with regard to French pronouns. The French personal pronouns are, in many instances, placed in the sentence very differently from ours; and, in some instances, one word in French makes two words in English. Hence the matter demands a great deal of attention; but that attention will soon do the business.

292. The verb must now be brought into great use in the Exercises; because, without the verb, the use of the pronoun cannot be explained. For instance, I have to tell you, that, in this phrase, I see you, though the second pronoun comes after the verb in English, it must come before the verb in French; as: je vous vois. Thus, you see, we could not get on at all here without knowing a great deal about the verbs.

293. The use of the personal pronouns in their nominative cases is plain enough: je, tu, il, elle, nous, vous, ils, elles, answer to our I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they. But nous is both we and us; and, then, there is the manner of placing nous, vous, lui, and others of them in the sentence, which is very different from our manner of placing them.

294. Look at the tables in paragraph 91. There you have all the personal pronouns, first in their singular and then in their plural number. You have them exhibited in their number, person, gender and case, and in both languages. Let us now take them, then, one by one, and compare the manner of using them in French with the manner of using them in English.

295. The first person singular is I—JE. Our I is always a capital letter; but the French je is written like another word. Our I is sometimes separated from the verb, and placed after a conjunction, leaving another verb to be understood; as: you are richer than I. But the French je is never thus used: You must never say, vous êtes plus riche que je. The place of the French pronoun, je, is before the verb only; and it is never, as our I is separated from the verb, nor placed after a conjunction, as in the above case. In interrogations the je may come after the verb; but you will see enough of that by-and-by. In the possessive case our I becomes of me, and in the objective, me. In the French, the je becomes, in some cases, moi in the nominative, de moi in the possessive, and me, or moi, in the objective. We say, of me; but the French must say de moi and never de me, or a me; though, observe, their me, in other cases, answer to our me. This same moi is sometimes answered by our I. If there were only the je and the me in French to answer our I and me, we should do very well with them; but, there comes in this moi to puzzle us; and it is to this, therefore, that we have to pay strict attention. I have just said, that the place of je is before the verb; as:

je frappe souvent,
I strike often.

je bois du vin,
I drink wine.

When our I is placed after the verb, or after a conjunction, leaving a verb to be understood, it is not answered by je, but by moi: as:

It is I who act,
C'est moi qui agis.

He knows it better than I,
Il le sait mieux que moi.

He writes as well as I,
Il écrit aussi bien que moi.

She is wiser than I,
Elle est plus sage que moi.

In these instances we see moi answering to our I.

Let us now see it answering to our me; which it always does, when there is a preposition coming before the French pronoun, or when the verb in French comes before the pronoun. I beg you to pay attention to this; and to observe well the following examples:

He comes to me,
Il vient à moi.

Give me some paper,
Donnez-moi du papier.

They speak of me,
Ils parlent de moi.

It is for me,
C'est pour moi.
And not, il vient à me, and so on. But when there is no preposition coming before the pronoun, and when the verb does not come before it, the English me is rendered in French by me; as:

He strikes me,   il me frappe.
You give me some paper,   vous me donnez du papier.
They speak to me,   Ils me parlent.
It is agreeable to me,   il m'est agréable.
James has stricken me,   Jacques m'a frappé.

You see that we have no word in English that answers to this moi. We have, for the first person singular, only the I and the me, both of which, as we have just seen, are, sometimes, answered by moi; to know when this is, I hope, now taught you.

296. Before I proceed to the second person, let me tell you, that I shall reserve the rules for placing the personal pronouns, till I have, in the above way, gone through the three persons, plural, as well as singular.

297. The second person singular is THOU—TU. The pronouns of this person singular are, as you have seen in paragraph 93, very rarely used. We use, in both languages, the plural pronoun instead of the singular: we say you, and not thou; and vous, and not tu. However, we must notice them in the same way as we should if they were in common use. Thou is answered by tu; and thee, which is our other case of this pronoun, is sometimes answered by te and sometimes by toi. Look at the table in paragraph 91. Observe, that what is said of moi, or, rather, of the occasions when it is used to answer to our I and me, applies to toi supplying the place of tu and te. Toi is used, as is the case with moi, when there is a preposition or a verb before a pronoun; or when there is a conjunction before our thou, leaving a verb to be understood. I will take, as nearly as possible, the same examples that I took to explain the use of the pronouns of the first person singular.

tu frappes souvent,   thou strikest often.
Il boit du vin,   thou drinkest wine.

Thus, you see, as I and me are in certain occasions answered by moi; so thou and thee are answered by toi.

298. The third person singular is HE—IL. Gender comes in here; but we will lay the two other genders aside for the present, and speak only of the masculine. The il answers to our he; as:

Il frappe souvent,   He strikes often.
Il boit du vin,   He drinks wine.

But, here comes the French lui, to answer, in this case, the purpose which moi and toi answer in the instances above given. Look at the table in paragraph 91. You find, that he is il; that of him is de lui; and that him is sometimes lui and sometimes le. The rule that I gave before applies here. When the French pronoun has a verb or a preposition before it, or when the English pronoun has a conjunction before it with a verb understood to follow; in these cases the lui is used in French instead of il and le. I shall now take the very same examples that I have just taken to explain my meaning with regard to the first and the second person singular; and when you have well attended to them, and compared the manner of using lui with that of using moi.
and toi you will, I think, clearly understand the whole of this matter.

It is he who acts.
She knows it better than he, C'est lui qui agit.
You write as well as he, Elle le sait mieux que lui.
She is wiser than he, Elle est plus sage que lui.
We come to him, Nous venons à lui.
They speak of him, Ils parlent de lui.
It is for him, C'est pour lui
They strike him, Ils le frappent.
James has struck him, Jacques l'a frappé.

Now, mind; the three last examples, all but one, in paragraph 295, and also in 297, are here omitted; because, in the third person you cannot use the le instead of the tui, if there be a preposition before
the English pronoun, expressed or understood. Therefore you must translate those three examples as follows:

I give him some paper, Je lui donne du papier.
They speak to him, Ils lui parlent.
It is agreeable to him, Il lui est agréable.

Compare these with the three last examples but one in paragraph 297, and you will see the difference in a moment. But, now, before we quit the Singular Number, we must speak of the Genders. The feminine gender is, SHE—ELLE. Then, our she becomes, in the other cases, her, while the French elle becomes, in the objective, la, and sometimes lui, and sometimes elle besides. This appears to be very confused; but, the confusion is worn away by attention. She is answered by elle, and her is answered by la, just in the same manner that he and him, in the masculine, are answered by il and le.

She strikes often, Elle frappe souvent.
She drinks wine, Elle boit du vin.
They strike her, Ils la frappent.

But, observe (look at the table in paragraph 91), there is in the objective case elle as well as lui. This is the use of that elle; it is to be used when there is a preposition before the pronoun; and when there is not, lui is to be used; for example, speaking of a woman, we say:

C'est à elle que je parle,
Et je lui parlerai encore,
It is to her that I speak.
And I will speak to her still.

The only difference is this, that, if it had been a masculine, I must have had à lui in the first line. Now, as to the neuter gender, there is none in the French. They know nothing at all of it. Our it, therefore as a personal pronoun, has nothing to answer it in French, except masculine and feminine pronouns. So that what we have to do is this: consider what is the gender of the French noun which answers to the English noun which our it represents; as: put my knife in your pocket; but, take care, for it is pointed and, as to your pocket, it is not very good. Here are two nouns and two its. The first noun is masculine, the second feminine. The French pronouns must, therefore, correspond with them; as: mettez mon couteau dans votre poche; mais, prenez garde; car il est pointu; quant a votre poche, elle n’est pas très bonne. The lui, the à elle, and, in short, all the parts of the il or elle, when they answer to our it, are used precisely in the same way as when they answer to our he or she.

299. Plural number. I now come to the plurals of the same pronouns that I have just been treating of in the singular. Look at the table in the latter part of paragraph 91. Examine that table well; compare it with the table of singulars in the same paragraph; and then come on with me.

300. The first person plural is, WE—NOUS. Our we becomes, in the other cases (see the table), us; but the French pronoun of this person and number never changes its form; and nous answers to our us as well as to our we. A few of the examples, that we took for the singular number, will suffice.

We drink wine, Nous buvons du vin.
It is we who act, C’est nous qui agissons.
He knows it better than we, Il le sait mieux que nous.
She is wiser than we, Elle est plus sage que nous.
He comes to us, Il vient à nous.
 Give us some paper,
James strikes us,

This is very plain. Our we and our us always expressed in French by nous, which takes the pronoun before it, or the verb, just in the same manner that moi does.

301. The second person plural, is YOU—VOUS.
We have just seen that nous is both nominative and objective; that, in short, it answers for all cases. The same is to be said of vous; and, here, our pronoun is unchangeable too; for you is the same in the objective that it is in the nominative; for I say, you strike me, and I strike you. A few examples will be sufficient. Nearly the same that we took last.

You drink wine, 
Il est vous qui agissez,
He knows it better than you, 
C'est plus mieux que vous,
She is wiser than you, 
Elle est plus sage que vous,
He comes to you, 
Il vient à vous,
James strikes you, 
Jacques vous frappe,
They talk to you, 
Ils vous parlent,
You cut bread, 
Vous coupes du pain.

As in the case of nous, this pronoun vous takes the preposition before it and also the verb, like moi or toi; but, it does not, like the pronoun of the second person singular, change its form. It always remains vous.

302. The third person plural is THEY—ILS.
Here the gender comes in again; but, in English, there is no change in the third person plural of the pronouns to denote gender. We always say, they, whether we speak of men, women or trees. But the French change the form of the pronoun, in this person, to express gender. Let us first take the masculine ils which answers to our they; as: ils boivent; they drink. Our they becomes, in the other cases, them, and this them, is rendered in French by les, eux or leur. Besides this, our they is sometimes rendered by eux. The thing to know, then, is, when our they is to be ils and when eux; and when our them is to be les, when leur and when eux. As to the first, our they is to be ils when, in French, there is no preposition and no verb before the pronoun.

and when our they has no conjunction before it in the English with a verb understood to follow. It is the same as in the case of il and lui, and will be explained by the same examples.

They strike often, 
 Ils frappent souvent.
They drink wine, 
 Ils boivent du vin.
I is they who act, 
C'est eux qui agissent.
She is wiser than they, 
Elle est plus sage qu'eux.

Now, as to our them. It is to be les when it is the object of an action; it is to be eux when a preposition is used before it; it is to be leur when the verb, used with it, leaves a (to) be understood; as:

James strikes them, 
Jacques les frappe.
She talks of them, 
Elle parle d'eux.
I give them some paper, 
Je leur donne du papier.

But, I must now mention what I, until now, omitted, to avoid confusion. By looking at the table last mentioned, you see, in the nominative case, ils or eux, to answer to our they, in the masculine. Now this eux, used thus, appears very strange. But, it may be used thus, and so may lui. The feminine differs only from the masculine in this; that, in the nominative, our they is answered by elles instead of ils, and, in all the cases where eux is made use of in the masculine, elles is made use of in the feminine; and here are the examples to show it.

They strike often, 
Elles frappent souvent.
They drink wine, 
Elles boivent du vin.
I is they who act, 
C'est elles qui agissent.
He is wiser than they, 
Il est plus sage qu'elles.
James strikes them, 
Jacques les frappe.
She talks of them, 
Elle parle d'elles.
I give them some paper, 
Je leur donne du papier.

After what has just been said, at the close of paragraph 298, it would be useless to make any further remarks on our neuter gender. They and them, when they relate to neutral nouns, are to be dealt with in the same manner as directed for our it.

303. There now remains, with regard to these personal pronouns, the instructions as to the manner of placing them in the sentence, which is very
SYNTAX

304. When there is a pronoun that is the object of the action, it comes before the verb, and not after it as in English. We say, James strikes me; but, in French, you must say Jacques me frappe: that is to say, James me strikes. When the verb is in the imperative mode, indeed, the pronoun comes last; as frappez-le. But, the cause of this is obvious. The general turn of the French language brings the pronoun, when it is the object, immediately before the verb; as: je le pense, il le dit, nous le jurons; I think it, he says it, we swear it; or, word for word: I it think, he it says, we it swear.

305. These are the principal things to attend to in the personal pronouns. I shall now give you an Exercise on the subject. There are other things to notice by-and-by, connected with these pronouns, and especially the manner of placing them in negative and interrogative sentences; but, for the present, we have enough of them: and will proceed to our Exercise, which will contain an instance or two of nearly all the kinds of phrases that are necessary to our present purpose. The phrases are placed promiscuously; that is to say, not in the order of the rules which they are intended to illustrate.

EXERCISE V.

1. You and I are going to supper.
2. You and your sister and I shall have some money to-morrow.
3. She and I are very happy in this country.
4. They strike me as well as him.
5. They love me as well as her.
6. May you become rich.
7. Were you to abandon me for ever.
8. Yes, answered he. No, said he.
9. I see him and his father every day in the week.
10. He always gives them something to eat.
11. They very frequently dine at our house.
12. Do that, I pray you, for my sake.
13. The horse is mine, and the cow is hers.
14. Give me some of the wood that you have.
15. He tells them all that I say to him.
16. She had not any love for them.
17. The fields belong to them.
18. It is he that they always speak to.
19. They look for them here to-day.
20. Give her something to eat and drink.
21. I will send you some flowers: they are very fine.
22. They have sent us some fruit to-day.
23. They rob and insult us.
24. He writes and sends messengers to the Secretary.
25. They are richer than I and than he also.
26. Send a messenger to them.
27. Seize him, bind him, and put him in prison.
28. We eat meat, and drink water.
29. They often come to us to get wine.
30. I gave him gold for you.
31. You saw them go to her.

306. Second Class; POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.
—See them in their table in paragraph 94. In these there are no cases to attend to. There are only the Number, the Person and the Gender. Read paragraph 94 all through; and you will need nothing here but a brief Exercise.

307. But, in paragraph 95 there is another table
of possessive pronouns. Those also are so fully spoken of in that paragraph, that little more than the Exercise is required here. The main thing in both these is, to attend to the agreement in number and gender. This agreement must be perfect. Read with great care the two paragraphs just mentioned.

308. There is one remark to make, and this you must particularly attend to. We, in speaking of harm done to, or pain suffered in, our members, or bodies, make use of the possessive pronoun; as: My head aches, my finger smart. The French, in these cases, use the article, thus: j'ai mal à la tête; j'ai mal au doigt. He hurts my arm; il me fait mal au bras. The pronoun may sometimes be used; but this that I have been describing here is the French idiom.

309. Observe, that here, as in the case of the articles, when the noun begins with a vowel or an h mute, the singular masculine pronoun is put before it, be it of which gender it may: as: mon ami, mon amie, though one be masculine and the other feminine. The same is to be observed with regard to ton and son.

EXERCISE VI.

1. My hand, my pen, my paper, my ink, and my books.
2. Your pens are not so good as mine.
3. Take the chairs from my room and put them in his.
4. Take them from theirs and put them in mine.
5. Take them from mine and carry them to hers.
6. Their oxen are finer than yours.
7. Put my oxen into their field.
8. His shoes are better than hers.
9. Our coats are blue, but theirs are red.
10. Our field, their meadow, their sheep.
11. Your trees are well planted.
12. The table is bad: its legs are weak.
13. Its colour is ugly: its wood is rotten.
14. That coach is yours: this is mine.

XIX.]

OF PRONOUNS.

15. Brother, I beg you to come to my house.
16. Adieu, Captain. I am glad to see you, neighbour.
17. These are your birds and those are mine.
18. Thy father and mother and brothers are dead.
19. His brothers and sisters are all gone away.
20. Their servants are coming here.
21. Father, have you seen her cloak?
22. Come to me, sister, I want to speak to you.
23. No, friend, I cannot aid you.
24. Take your sheep and put them to mine.
25. Take your hens from mine.
26. His house, her house, our house, their house, your house.
27. His hand, her arm, our fingers, their legs, my feet.
28. Her gown, her cap, her head, her neck, her teeth.
29. Put your hay to mine: take yours from mine.
30. He does not talk of your beauty, but of mine.
31. They do not talk of hers, but of ours.
32. That ship is theirs.

310. Third Class; RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Look at the table in paragraph 96. You see that there are but few of these; but they require attention. Our who is answered by qui, except when a question is asked, and then it may be by quel or quelle followed by the noun or by a pronoun; as: quel sont ces hommes-là? Who are those men? But, in all other cases, our who is answered by qui; as: l'homme qui vient de sortir: the man who is just come out.

311. But, as our that may be, in some cases, used instead of who; as it may, indeed, in the instance just given; so it is, in these cases, translated by qui. But that can be rendered by qui only when in the nominative: or, rather, when it represents an antecedent which is the nominative. If it be in the objective, it must be rendered by que. Take examples:

Phom ne qui vient de partir, the man who is just gone away.
le cheval qui mange l'herbe, the horse that eats the grass.
le cheval que vous montez, the horse that you ride.
You must observe also, that, though we cannot with propriety use *who* as the relative to the names of things inanimate or irrational, the French use *qui* with such names, if its antecedent be in the nominative. *Que* is abbreviated before a vowel; but *qui* never is. Remark this: *le cheval qui a vu mon domestique*; that is, the horse which has seen my servant; but, *le cheval qu'a vu mon domestique*, means, the horse which my servant has seen.

312. Our *whose* is answered by *de qui*, or, *dont*; but, *de qui* is confined to rational animals, like our *whose* and *whom*. *Dont* is used for all sorts of objects, except when a question is asked; and then it must be *de qui*, or *duquel*, or *de laquelle*, according to the number and gender of the antecedent.

313. Our *whom* is answered by *que*; as: *l'homme que vous voyez*, the man whom you see. But, if there be a preposition, our *whom* is rendered by *qui* or *qu'el*; as: *le man to whom I have sent*: *l'homme à qui ou auquel*, j'ai envoyé.

314. Our *which*, when its antecedent is in the nominative, is answered by *qui*, as our *that* is, as we have seen in paragraph 311; but, when the antecedent of our *which* is not in the nominative, and when *which* has no preposition it is rendered by *que*; as: *le beuf* qui labourer la terre, *the ox* which ploughs the land, *le beuf que je vous ai vendu*, the *ox* which I have sold you.

Our *which* is sometimes answered by *lequel*; and this pronoun takes the article with it, as you see in paragraph 97. Indeed here is the *le* in this word, which means *the which*, being used as relative to a singular masculine. If it were a feminine, it must have been *laquelle*; *If a plural masculine, *laquels*; and so on. Observe, that the French word *où*, which means *where*, is frequently used, and very frequently too, to supply the place of *dans lequel* (in which), *dans laquelle*, and so on; as: *Fêté où je suis*: *the state in which* (where) I am.

315. Our *what* is answered by *quoi*, *que* or *quel*. But the former is not used (as a relative) in speaking of persons, and is most frequently used with a preposition; as: *de quoi, à quoi*; which means of *what, to what*. But our *what* is also frequently answered by *que*; as: *que voulez-vous?* What would you have? *Que dites-vous?* *What do you say?* Our *what* is answered by *quel*, when questions are asked with a noun; as: *what house is that? Quelle maison est celle-là?*

316. You must take care, in using relative pronouns, to keep their antecedents constantly in your eye. In my *English Grammar* (paragraph 245), I have contended, that the relative pronouns never can be the nominatives of Verbs. I will quote the passage: for it serves most admirably to illustrate what I am about to say with respect to the functions of the French relative pronouns:—*"In looking for the nominative of a sentence, take care that the relative pronoun be not a stumbling-block: for relatives have no changes to denote number or person; and, though they may sometimes appear to be, of themselves, nominatives, they never can be such.*

The men who are here: *the man who is here*: the cocks that crow: *the cock that crows*. Now, if the relative be the nominative, why do the verbs change, seeing that here is no change in the relative? No: the verb, in pursuit of its nominative, runs though the relatives to come at their antecedents, men, man, cocks, cock. *Bishop Lowth* says, however, that, *"the relative is the nominative when no other nominative comes between it and the verb;* and *Mr. Murray* has very faithfully copied this erroneous observation. *Who is in the house? Who are in the house? Who strikes the iron? Who was in the street? Who were in the street?* Now, here is, in all these instances, no other nominative between the relative and the verb, and yet the verb is continually varying. *Why does it vary? Because it disregards the relative, and goes and finds the antecedent, and accommodates its number to that antecedent.* The antecedents are in these instances, understood; *What person is in the house? What persons are in the house? What person strikes the
Cicero was one of those who were sacrificed to the vengeance of the Triumvirs.

But then, where is the antecedent in the second instance? Monsieur Restaut says, that un is the antecedent here! Why? For what? There is no reason at all. Monsieur Restaut says, that qui is sometimes in the plural and sometimes in the singular. Strange remark! And that, too, from a very clever man. But, let us have another instance. Monsieur Restaut gives his scholar this sentence: "Ctesias est un des premiers qui AIT exécuté cette entreprise." Now, mark his reasons, which I shall give in English. "The verb is here put in the singular, because its nominative qui is a relative pronoun in the singular and has for antecedent the word un. When we say, Ctesias est un des premiers qui AIT exécuté cette entreprise, we mean not only that nobody had executed it before him, but, moreover, that he executed it before all others, and that he set them the example. But when, on the contrary, we say, Ctesias est un des premiers qui AIENT exécuté cette entreprise, we mean, that several persons executed the enterprise at the outset, and that Ctesias was one of them."—Very good, Monsieur Restaut. But, then, pray, why do you call the qui the nominative of the verb? You prove as clearly as day-light, that UN is the nominative in the first example, and that DES PREMIERS is the nominative in the second; you make the verbs agree with these nominatives in number; and yet you persist in calling the qui the nominative! And, in order to give a show of reason for this, you say, that qui is in the singular in the first example, and in the plural in the second; though it never changes its form.—Therefore, mind, my dear son, the thing for us to attend to here, is this; that we are never to look upon qui as the nominative of the verb. We must look for the antecedent; and, according to that make the number and person of our verb. Les soldats qui marchent,
and, le soldat qui marche; but, if we were to look
upon qui as the nominative, why should it be mar-
chent in one case, and marche in the other? The
principle applies to both languages; but, the truth
of it is most clearly seen in the French, because in
it the verb makes such conspicuous changes in its
form to agree in number with its nominative case.

EXERCISE VII.
1. The people who lived in that street.
2. The carpenter who made my table.
3. The cow which feeds in my meadow.
4. The sheep that are on the hills.
5. The man whose friendship I value.
6. The horse that goes in their coach.
7. The wheat that you sold at the market.
8. The wheat that grows in your field.
9. Love those from whom you receive kindness.
10. The merchant to whom he owes so much money.
11. The company whom he has received to-night.
12. The bird which has seen the bird-catcher.
13. The bird which the bird-catcher has seen.
14. The age in which we live.
15. The gentleman to whom it belongs.
16. The country which I like best.
17. The weather which pleases me the most.
18. The ink that I make use of.
19. The people whom you spoke of yesterday.
20. The man whom I most dislike.
21. What do you want with us?
22. What do they say to you and your family?
23. That is the business which they spoke of.
24. It is you and your son that they are talking of.
25. There are the ladies whom he was speaking of.
26. The gentleman from whom I received so much
kindness.
27. Who are you speaking of?
28. What man is that? What boy is that?
29. Which of the two chairs do you like best?
30. Which of the three looking-glasses do you like
best?

31. The trouble from which he has escaped.
32. My friend who died yesterday, and whom I
loved so well.
33. What do you talk of? What is that?
34. What gentleman is that?
35. With what fleet did he come?
36. Who has told you that?
37. One of those who came last night.
38. One of the first who did it.
39. The hawk that my brother has shot.
40. Who can tell what may happen.

347. Fourth Class; DEMONSTRATIVE PRO-
NOUNS. Look now at paragraph 98. Attend to
the whole of it, and particularly to the table. You
see here a great variety of words to answer to our
this, that, these and those. You see he and she in
the table. That is because the French make use of
these pronouns sometimes to supply the place of
these two personal pronouns. In fact the celui is
the lui (he or him) with the ce (this) prefixed to it;
and the celle is the elle (she or her) with the ce
(dropping the e) prefixed to it. The same may be
said of ceux, which is eux (they or them) with the
c (dropping the e) prefixed to it. So that, if we
were to put these words into English literally, cett,
would be, this he; celle would be, this she; ceux
would be, this they masculine; and celles would be,
this they feminine. The cett and celle are this here
and this there. Cett-ct is this he here; and celt-
la is this he there. The same explanation holds
good as to celles-ci, celles-la, ceux-ci and ceux-la,
celles-ci and celles-la. Ci and la are adverbs,
meaning here and there.

318. The original word, as we have seen ci
(this,) which is cet before a vowel, cett for the
feminine, and cett for the plural of both genders.
This is all that there is of the word itself: all the rest
is personal pronoun and adverb. The re is greatly
used with the verb to be, être, instead of the personal
pronoun il; as: c’est une bonne chose, que de as
lever de bonne heure; it is good to rise early. It is a softer expression than il est, and it is a great favourite with the French.

319. These pronouns are, or rather this pronoun is, called **Demonstrative** because it is used to point out the noun in a direct manner: almost to show it; as: this house; that field; these oxen; those fowls. When we use these words, we seem to be almost pointing with our finger at the house, the field, the oxen, and the fowls. To **demonstrate** means to show in the clearest manner; and, therefore, these are called **Demonstrative pronouns**; or, rather, this is called a demonstrative pronoun; for, as I have shown, there is, in fact, only the pronoun ce, all the rest being the same word under different forms. Nor have we but one word of this kind; namely; this. The other three demonstratives are only so many changes in the form of this. The first change is that, the next is these, and the third, those. These changes are to express situation and number. The French, in addition to situation and number, express gender; which, in this case, we do not. We say: this boy, this girl, this hat, this pen; but, they say, ce garçon, cette fille, ce chapeau, cette plume. In the plural they have ces for both genders; but, this answers to our these and those only in part: only when there is a noun coming directly after it; as: ces garçons, ces filles: and, then, there must generally be, ce, or là, after the noun; as: ces garçons-ci; these boys: ces filles-là; those girls.

320. Our **those** is frequently used indiscriminately with the personal pronoun they; but when this can be done in English, the French requires the demonstrative; as:

- They who are wise,
- Those who are wise, 

**Ceux qui sont sages.**

In the singular number, we cannot, in English, use the demonstrative in this way. We cannot say, speaking of a man:

- This who is tall,
- That who is very rich.

**XIX.**

**OF PRONOUNS.**

We must use the personal pronoun, thus:

- He who is very tall,
- He who is very rich.

Then in speaking of a woman we must say:

- She who is very tall,
- She who is very rich.

But, in French, the demonstrative is used in all these cases; celui in the first four instances, and celle in the two last.

331. But, the main thing in regard to these demonstratives, the great difference in the two languages, and great object for you to attend to, is, the use of ce with the verb être; in which use it generally answers to our it; but sometimes to our he or she. The use of ce, in this way, is of endless occurrence. We say,

- It is a good thing.
- He is a good man.
- She is a very handsome girl.

In all these cases, the French say: c'est une bonne chose; c'est un bon homme; and so on. The ce means this, but, no matter: the French language chooses to say, this is a good thing, and not, it is a good thing. But, mind, in certain cases, you have no choice; for, when we, in English, use it with the verb to be followed by a noun or pronoun, thus, it is I who see the enemy; when we, in English, have a phrase of this sort, we must, in French, employ ce, and not il. We cannot say, il est moï qui vois Pennemi. We must say, c'est moi. In all such phrases, it was I, it is you, it was we, it was the people, and the like, you must use ce for our it; as: c'étoit moi, c'est vous, and so on, always with ce, and not with il. How the verb is to be managed in these cases you will see, when you come to the **imperative** verbs. At present we have to do with the pronouns; and particularly with the use of ce for our it. Having now, I think, pretty well, explained the nature and offices of these pronouns, I shall give you an exercise on them.
EXERCISE VIII.

1. There is a great deal of fruit in that country.
2. This garden is very full of flowers.
3. Which of these flowers do you like best?
4. Do you like this best, or that?
5. It is I who order you to do it.
6. It is the master of the house who is coming.
7. It is a very fine country.
8. It is a great pity.
9. This pen is better than that.
10. These pens are as good as those.
11. This corn is cheap, but it is not good.
12. Your land is as good as that of your neighbour.
13. Those who think that they gain by roguery deceive themselves.
14. He who goes to bed late must get up late.
15. She who thinks too much of her beauty.
16. He who lives a sober life is more happy than he who does not.
17. He does not know how fine this country is who has not seen it.
18. That which you have sent I like well.
19. He tells us what he knows of them.
20. She tells her mother all that she hears.
21. What vexes me most is, he will not see me.
22. Those only speak ill of him who do not know him.
23. They do not know what hunger is who have always had an abundance.
24. These are the oxen that I like best.
25. Those that you have are but poor animals.
26. That dog appears to be of the same kind as this.
27. Yes; but this is better than that.
28. This bird sings better than that which you have.
29. These partridges are bigger than the English ones.
30. These woodcocks fly swifter than those.
31. Which of them are best to eat?
32. Those that fly swiftly, or those that fly slowly?

322. Fifth Class; INDETERMINATE PRO-

XIX. OF PRONOUNS.

NOUNS. Now go back to paragraph 99. Read that paragraph, and also paragraph 100, very attentively; and examine well the list of indeterminate pronouns in paragraph 99. First of all, after you have looked well at this list, observe this: that, though there are certain English words placed opposite the French words, and though, in some cases, the latter answer to the former, they do not always do it. It is not this table alone, therefore, that will teach you how to use these French words, and especially the free lost, which, though called indeterminate words, are really amongst the most important in the language. When the scholar sees of it, of him, of her, of them, and nothing but the French on placed opposite them; when he sees, that this one little word is to answer to all these different phrases, the difficulty seems insurmountable. At the end, however, of a few days' attentive study, the difficulty disappears; and, before the end of an hour, you will, I trust, perceive it begin to disappear.

323. All—toute, which, as you see, becomes toute and toutes. This word answers, in this sense, to our all. This all you will bear in mind, is not a pronoun in all cases. It is not one in this very phrase “all cases.” It is an adjective. It is a pronoun only when it stands for a noun; and, it is quite clear to me, that it ought never to be called a pronoun, seeing that I know of no case, where a noun is not understood when all is used.

324. Both—l’un et l’autre. The French have no single word to answer to our both. They are obliged to say, the one and the other; and this phrase changes, you see, according to number and gender. There can, however, be no difficulty here; and the same may be said of either, neither, and one another. The first is Un ou Autre (the one or the other); the next, ni Un ni Autre (neither the one nor the other), and the last is Un Autre (the one the other); which last phrase is, you will find, if you look well into it, just as consonant with reason as our one another. It is now, I hope, unnecessary for me to
dwell on the changes to be made here on account of number and gender. These must, by this time, become as familiar to you as the use of your eyes or teeth.

325. Somebody, or some one—quien qu'un. Every body, each, every one—chaquin. These apply to things as well as persons in French; though where body is used they do not so apply in English. Chaquin has gender, you see; but no change to denote a difference in number. However, these things are so little embarrassing, that a very few instances in the Exercises will be sufficient to make them clear to you.

326. Nobody none—aucun nul, nulle. In the French all these three pronouns apply to things as well as to persons. They admit of no changes except those you see in the table.

327. Any body—quiconque is of both genders, and never used but in the singular number. Whatever is also translated by qui con que, and whatever by quel que con que.

328. Nobody—personne. This is a word much in use. It is written like the feminine noun personne (person); but it is a negative pronoun, meaning nobody, or no one; and it is wholly unchangeable in its form. Plusieurs (many) and rien (nothing), the first being always plural and the last always singular, merit no particular remark. They experience no changes in their form, and have, in all cases, the same meaning.

329. Very different is it with the remaining five pronouns, which, as before observed, are amongst the most important words in the French language. I shall devote one paragraph to each of them, and, in order to obviate confusion and to make reference easy, no more than one paragraph.

330. Le. This is, you know, the definite article, the; it is also the personal pronoun, him; it is the personal pronoun, it; as:

Le pommeur porté beaucoup The apple tree bears much de fruit. fruit.

Thus then, we have this same Le acting in three capacities. But, we are now to view it in its fourth capacity, in which we shall, agreeably to the table in paragraph 90, find it sometimes answering to so, or such, sometimes to it, and sometimes supplying the place of great part of a sentence. Let us take an instance of each.

Vous êtes laborieux, et je ne l'est pas. Je crois qu'il va venir; du moins je le désire.

Etes vous le propriétaire de cette maison? Oui, je le suis.

In the first of these instances, we should put so; in the second it; in the third nothing, or we should nearly repeat all the words of the question, and say; yes, I am the proprietor of it. So that this little word performs a great deal. It makes the sense precise and clear without repetition and a great mass of words. Perhaps, however, if we look well into the matter, we might, without any very great violence done to our language, translate this le by our it. Let us take the three examples just given:

You are industrious, and he is not it.
I believe that he is coming; at least I wish it.
Are you the proprietor of that house? Yes, I am it.

We have now done with this Le, till we come to the interrogatives and negatives, where we shall find it a great actor.

331. Ex. This word, the table says, answers to our of it, of him, of her, of them. But it answers, perhaps, to a great deal more than all these. It is a word of most extensive use. It is always in the objective case, and it never changes its form. Its use is to save repetition. This is, indeed, the office of all pronouns; but en applies in so many ways that it would fill a volume to describe minutely all its functions. You must bear in mind, that ex is, sometimes, a preposition; and that, then, it means in. However, that is wholly a different word, though containing the same letters. Ex, pronoun, may
have relation to, or may stand for, a noun of either gender, or either number. It is always preceded by some noun, expressed or understood; and it is made use of to save the repeating of that noun, or the employing of many words, which are rendered unnecessary by employing it. A few examples will give you an idea of its use:

1. Savez-vous où il y a des choux? Oui; il y en a dans mon jardin.
6. Il a vendu du sucre; mais il en a encore.
7. Ils avoient des fleurs, et ils en ont encore de très-belles.
8. Vous de belles pêches; en voulez-vous?

Now let us make, as nearly as possible, a word-for-word translation of these sentences.

1. Know you where there are cabbages? Yes; there are of them in my garden.
2. Have you spoken of the girl? Yes; of her have spoken.
3. Wish you to have some walnuts? Yes; of them wish to have.
4. Keep you dogs? Of them keep several.
5. How many sheep have you? Of them have three hundred.
6. He has sold some sugar? but he of it has yet.
7. They had flowers, and they of them have yet very fine.
8. See, here are fine peaches; of them do you wish to have?

You see, then, what an important word this is; and yet, till you come to interrogatives and negatives, you see but a part of its importance. Besides its applicability to all persons and things, it applies to place, and stands for, from this, from that, or, from this place, or, that place; as:

- Il en vient, He comes, or is come, from that place.
- Je m'en vais, I am going away.
- Allez-vous-en, Go hence: or go away.

In all these cases the en is a pronoun, though translated by a noun or an adverb. If the translation were strictly literal, it would stand thus: He from it comes; I from it go; Go you from it: or, at least from that; and from this (place). Always look well into these literal meanings; for, by doing that, you

got at the reason for the thing being thus, or thus; and, mind, it is not really learning to do a thing, unless you get at the reason for doing it.

332. Y. This is a word of the same character, and of nearly as much importance as the last. In the table (which look at very often) y is exhibited as answering to our to it, to him, to her, to them, in the same sort of way that en answers to the same pronouns with of or from before them. But, y, like en, does more than the table promises; for, it answers to at it, in it, at, or in that place; and, in short to many other phrases. Y, like en, is confined to neither gender and to neither number. It is made to relate to persons as well as things; and, like en it never changes its form. In short it performs the same functions as en, or, very nearly the same, only the nouns or pronouns which it represents have to, at, in or by, before them, instead of of or from. Let us, as before, take a few instances.

1. Il apprendra le François, parce qu'il y applique.
5. Il m'ont fait des promesses; mais je ne m'y fie pas.
6. Ils ont fait le travail; mais ils n'y gagneront rien.

These may suffice. Let us, as we did before, translate them as literally as possible.

1. He will learn French, because that he himself to it applies.
2. Have you put the looking-glass in the parlour? It in it is.
3. Have they thought of my business? Yes; they to it have thought.
4. Do you think to this poor man? Yes; to him think.
5. They to the have made promises; but I in them confide not.
6. They have done the work; but they by it will gain nothing.
7. Go to the country. I am thither going.

Observe; the French say think to, and not think of a thing. Now, look at the power of this letter v. Here we have to it, in it, to him, in them, by it, and thither, all expressed in French by this word v. And, observe, as en is besides its capacities as pronoun, a preposition, answering to our in: so y is,
333. On. I have in the table, represented this word as answering to our one, they, we, and people. We shall find, however, that this is not all. But first, pray mind, that this has nothing to do with our number one. We sometimes say, in English, one thinks, one eats, one sleeps; and the like. But this is not, in fact, English. It is a mere imitation of the French on, which has no more to do with number one, than it has to do with nine. The French on is best answered by our they, or people; as:

they

people

say, that we shall have war.

On dit que nous aurons la guerre.

Sometimes we use we; and sometimes the impersonal; as it is said, that we shall have war. Indeed we cannot be used in all cases: it cannot in the instance just given. It can never answer to the French on, except in a very large and unconfined sense, meaning all mankind, or, at least, a whole people. The on applies to persons only; but, it applies, or by use, is made to apply, to both genders and both numbers, and to all the persons, even to the first; for, it is so convenient a word, that the French often make use of it instead of je. But, the great and regular use of it is, where we use the impersonal, or the participle with the verb to be; as:

On croit qu'il viendra, It is believed that he will come.

On lit a dit de venir, He has been told to come.

We do not say, one believes that he will come; one has told him to come. This is not in the character of our language. Indeed it is shocking nonsense; because as I said before, on is no more translated by one than it is by nine. When we, in English, speak in very general terms, we may and we do, now and then, make use of one as an indeterminate pronoun; but mind, it can be merely for once and away; for, if we attempt to keep it up, we find that we are gabbling a sort of broken English. The on

is, you will observe, always in the nominative case. It is never the object in the sentence. When on is preceded by a word which ends with a vowel, it is written don for the sake of better sound; as: après cela l'on dine; after that they dine. But, if on be repeated in the sentence, it must be written all the way through in the same way that it is at the beginning. I will not here insert any more examples. Several, relating to on, will be found in the next Exercise, which will of course, relate to the whole of the Indeterminate Pronouns; of which there remains one to be attended to.

334. Se, which sometimes becomes soi. The se is self or selves; and soi is the same word, in fact, but has generally a preposition before it. It has no other changes, and applies to the third persons of both numbers and both genders. But, before you go any further, turn back to paragraph 129, where you will find my first mention of this pronoun se. You will see the principal use to which it is applied. Indeed the paragraphs from 129 to 134 inclusive contain all that is necessary to be said on the subject of se. F was, as you will see, obliged to treat of it fully there; because, without making the use of it clearly understood, I could not make myself comprehensible with regard to the reflected verbs, of which I was compelled to treat in that place. You will therefore, now read that part over again with great attention. You will see the part that acts in the conjugation of a verb. To this if we add a few instances of the manner of using soi, we may come to our promised Exercise on Indeterminate Pronouns. Soi when used in a general sense answers to our ourselves, ourselves, or oneself; as: people, or they, like themselves; in French: on's aime soi-meme. Again, people like themselves, only: on n'aime que soi. The French word, soi-disant, is almost become English. It is, literally, self-staying; and, properly translated, it is, self-calling, or self-styling. I am now going to insert the Exercise relating to all these indeterminate pro-
nouns. Consider well before you translate; and look back continually at your table and your rules.

EXERCISE IX.
1. Every body ought to be rewarded for his labour.
2. All men must have food and raiment.
3. Every one goes whither he likes.
4. The judges were seated, every one in his place.
5. Each of them gave his opinion on the subject.
6. Give some food to each of the two; but none to the third.
7. Every body knows that, and many say it.
8. Some say that he is going to quit his house.
9. Several have assured me that he is coming.
10. Some people like that way of travelling.
11. Some are better than others.
12. We must not take the goods of others.
13. Other people do not do that.
14. He spends other people's money.
15. They sent fruit and flowers to one another.
16. All is sold, and carried away from the house.
17. The sheep are all dead. What! all?
18. Whoever goes in that road will tumble.
19. Every thing whatever that is found there.
20. He will talk with any body that will talk with him.
21. Whoever neglects his business will be ruined.
22. I will maintain that against any body.
23. Give us the whole; every thing whatever.
24. He succeeds in whatever he undertakes.
25. Whatever he may say, he will not escape it.
26. Whatever may be the price, you must give it.
27. Who is the man that has stolen your money?
28. I do not know, but whoever he may be, he ought to be punished.
29. The man is caught. We do not know what he is; but, whatever he may be, he shall be punished.
30. Some plums in a little straw-basket.
31. There were two apples, a few cherries, and some apricots.
32. Some say that she will be very rich; others say that she will not.
33. However rich she may be; whatever riches she may have.
34. Whatever fine houses and gardens they may have.
35. They do not like one another, I assure you.
36. One or the other will come to-morrow; but neither will come, to-day.
37. He has done nothing for me, and he will do nothing for you.
38. Nothing succeeds that they undertake.
39. Nobody believes that. I have told it to nobody.
40. Did anybody ever see the like before?
41. Not one of his people came last night.
42. Not one of the soldiers escaped from the enemy.
43. Have you any pears? Not one, upon my word.
44. Nobody is come with the fruit and the wine.
45. We do not like that others should meddle in our family-affairs.
46. We eat when we are hungry and drink when we are thirsty.
47. We plant trees for our grandchildren; and we act wisely and justly in doing this.
48. They are going to sow wheat in that field; but they have not prepared the land well.
49. People say that you are going to be married.
50. I wish people would talk of their own affairs, and not of mine.
51. It is said that there is a great crop of wheat.
52. He has been advised to leave the country.
53. We lead a pleasant life; we rise early, we walk out, then we breakfast, and then we walk again; or, perhaps, we ride.
54. You may translate such phrases as this, and the last, in either of the two ways; that is to say, with the ex. or with the note or the noun.
55. Do you know that there are soldiers in the town? Yes: for I have seen many of them.
56. What noise is that? What is the cause of it?
57. Where are the ladies? I do not know any thing of them.
58. What have they done with my sword? I know nothing about it.
59. Are there many vessels in the port? Yes: there are more than a hundred.
60. If she come from the country to-day, she will return to it to-morrow.
61. They are praised very much; but not more than they ought to be.
62. They are very poor, but many of their neighbours are not.
63. Is that your house? Yes, it is.
64. There is my glass: put some wine in it.
65. He has bought the estate: he has been aiming at it a long time.
66. She is come home. She will leave it again to-morrow.
67. I am going off to see my plantation.
68. They care for nobody but themselves.
69. Pride becomes nobody. Covet not the goods of others.
70. Nothing is good enough for him.
71. They will go thither to her.
72. We talked of it there.
73. Give them some of it.
74. Send some of it to them.
75. He is going back to his country.
76. They have come away quickly.
77. He says and stands to it.
78. He has a great spite against you.

335. Thus I close the Letter on the Syntax of Pronouns; and now, before I go to the Syntax of the remaining parts of Speech, I shall give you a letter on the Negatives and Interrogatives, and another on the Imperatives. But, let me pray you to take great pains about the pronouns before you quit them. They are very important words; they occur in almost every sentence. They are little words of great meaning; and if great attention be not paid to their meaning it is useless to read them, and even to write them. You now begin to know how to write a little French. That is a great thing. If hard pushed, you could write a note to a French-

man to ask him to lend you a pony. That is something gained, at any rate. You have only to persevere, and you will be able to write a letter, in French, to a French lady, most humbly beseeching her to honour you with her hand at a ball.

LETTER XX.

SYNTAX OF NEGATIVES AND INTERROGATIVES.

My dear Richard,

336. Words of all the parts of speech come into negative and interrogative phrases. The words, which are called negatives, belong principally to that part of speech which are called adverbs. But, it is the placing of the words which is chiefly to be attended to in negative and interrogative sentences.

337. Our principal negatives are no and not, the former mostly applying to nouns and pronouns, and the latter to verbs; as: I have no apples, you do not walk. The French generally use two of these words where we use but one. We say, I possess no land: they say, je ne possède pas de terre. That is, I possess not of land. But, indeed, you cannot translate here word for word. Ne and pas amount, in this case, to no; and they must be made use of to answer to it. Let us take our verb tuer and conjugate it with the negatives; or, at least (for that will be enough) let us conjugate it as far as relates to the first person of each mode and time. We will put the infinitive also; for, in that case, both the French negatives come before the verb.

Not to kill.
I do not kill. Ne pas tuer.
I did not kill. Je ne tuais pas.
I shall not kill. Je ne tuerais pas.
I may not kill. Je ne puis pas.
I should not kill. Je ne pourrais pas.
I might not kill. Je ne puisse pas.

22
SYNTAX OF NEGATIVES.

Letter

338. That is the way that we use the negatives with the verb; and here, as you see, ne and pas together answer to our not. When, in English, we have a noun to use the negative with, and not a verb, we make use of no for our negative; as: I have no wine. The French, however, adhere to their ne and pas; as: je n’ai pas de vin. Sometimes, however, point is used instead of pas. There is only this difference in them, that point always requires de before the noun that follows; and pas does not always require it. Point means, more decidedly, no, not, or none at all. But we may say indifferently; Je n’ai pas d’argent; je ne possède pas de terre; or je n’ai point d’argent; je ne possède point de terre. There are a few words that require pas exclusively; but these are of such common use as to prevent all chance of error.

339. The French use Now to answer our no, when we put no other words; as: will you go with me? no. Voulez-vous aller avec moi? non. This non sometimes becomes non pas, when the speaker wishes to give a very decided negative. In cases where we should say: no indeed! The French would, perhaps, say, non pas. But, the non being sufficient, it may be best to use it only. When we say, not that, the French do very often make use of non pas; as: I eat brown bread, not that I like it better than white: je mange du pain bis, non pas que je l’aime mieux que le blanc.

340. When there is a negative word, such as pas un passonne, aucun, nul, rien, nullement, guères, jamais, and some few others, the pas or point, is not used at all; but ne is; as:

Elle n’a personne pour la con. She has nobody to console her.

Je n’ai jamais été dans ce pays-la. I have never been in that country.

Vous ne lui dites rien. You say nothing to him or to her.

There are some others which are negatives in themselves, and, of course, they do not require the double negation. There are two words, a good deal used, that require the double negative always, except when used with dire and voir; to say, and to see. These two words are not and goutte. The first means word: the last (in this negative sense) not a jot. The word not is (in this sense) understood to mean not a word. They are two very common expressions, and are used thus:

Je ne disais mot, I said not a word.
Je ne voyais goutte, I saw nothing at all.

But, with other verbs than dire and voir these are not looked upon as negative words; and, of course, they take the ne and pas, or point.

341. There are some words which require ne after them before the next verb, though there appears, at first sight, to be nothing of the negative quality in our English sentence that answers to any of those in which this ne is found; as:

Il criait que sa résolte ne soit. He fears that his crop may be spoiled.

A moins qu’il ne soit blessé. Unless he should be wounded.

But, though there may be no negative in the English phrase, there is fear, or apprehension expressed, that something may, and perhaps, hope, that something may not, happen. If the same verbs do not express a feeling of this sort; then the two negatives are used in the usual manner.

342. Ne is used without pas or point, before the verb that follows plus, moins, mieux, autre and autrement; also before the verb that precedes ni; and also after que and si, signifying until, unless, or but when these come in a sentence, the former part of
which is negative; as: je ne chante ni ne danse: I
neither sing nor dance. Je ne lui écrirai pas qui il
ne m'envoie mes livres: I will not write to him,
unless he send me my books.

343. But, there are some cases, in which the French
use but one negative, though there be no other word
of a negative nature in the sentence. These cases
are worthy of particular attention; because, to use
the two negatives instead of one, is a great and
blaring error. I shall, therefore, be very particular
in pointing out to you when the second negative is
to be omitted.

1. When de follows the verb, and is used in the
describing of a space of time; as:
Je ne lui parlerai de ma vie, I will not speak to him as long as I live.

2. With the adverb plus (more); as, Je ne viendrai
plus: I will come no more. But mind, this is
only when our more is used in the sense of
again or in addition; for, when more is used in
a comparison; when it is more than something;
then the two negatives must be used.
Pay attention to the following examples.

Je ne le verrai plus, { I will see him no more;—or,
{ I will not see him again.

Je n' en veux plus, { I do not want any more;—or,
{ I do not want of it in addition to what I have.

Je n' en veux pas du plus belle I do not want any finer than
que la vôtre, yours.
Il ne s' y en trouve pas du plus belle: There is no finer to be seen
there, there.

3. When in English we use but, in a negative
sense, or only, or nothing but, the French take
que (which is their but, though it is, sometimes,
also their than, their as, their that, their whom,
or their which; ) they take their que and leave
out their pas and point.

Vous ne possédez que deux choses,
Ils n' ont que peu de bien,
Our but, besides this, is turned into French sometimes
by que and ne coming after it. And again,
when the French si and que are used in the sense
of unless, the ne is used without the pas or point.

4. Il y a is one of the impersonal verbs. You
will see enough about them in the next letter.
This impersonal means, sometimes, it is; and,
when it is made use of in the present time of a
verb used along with the verb avoir, the negative
that follows it must be ne only; as: il y a
trois jours que vous n' avez mangé; you have
not eaten for these three days; or, literally, it
is three days that you have not eaten.

5. Only ne is used with the verbs oser, savoir,
prendre, garde, cesser, and pouvoir; and, as
these are very important verbs, and are constantly
recurring, you ought to pay particular
attention to this rule.

Il s' estant vous le dire, They dare not tell it you.
Il ne peut le faire, He cannot do it.

6. When we employ why in the asking of a ques-
tion, and the French do not employ pourquoi,
but que, to answer to our why: then the ne is
used without pas or point; as:

Que n' allez vous la voir? Why do you not go to see her?

But, mind, if you make use of pourquoi in French,
and not of que, you must employ the double nega-
tive; as: pourquoi n' allez vous pas la voir?

344. Read these rules over several times before
you enter upon the Exercise. I do not suppose,
that you will carry them all in your head; but,
some part of some of them you will make fast in
your mind at once; and, as you read in books, (for
now you may begin to read French) these rules
will occur to you; for, twenty times in an hour,
perhaps, you will meet with passages to illustrate
them.

EXERCISE X.

1. They have not been thither these four or five
years.

2. I shall not now give you such short sentences to
translate as I have given you up to this time.
3. You have not been in that country for a long while.
4. I have not seen the man who came here last night.
5. Certainly I will not give you more than ten pounds.
6. You will have been only six years in your office.
7. You have no land and no flocks.
8. That is not a good man. That is not true, Sir.
9. There is no straw and no hay in the loft.
10. I have none of those trees that you sold me.
11. I had none of the cattle that he spoke to me of.
12. I have seen none of them for some time.
13. Lend me some money. I cannot; for I have none.
14. Have they been here to-day? No.
15. Not that I dislike the people of that country.
16. Not that I cannot go if I like it.
17. Will you go with me? No: I will not.
18. She can neither read nor write.
19. He cannot write, neither can he read.
20. We shall not sail to-morrow; and, perhaps, not next day.
21. Neither master nor man will be here.
22. Neither he nor his wife nor their children have good health.
23. They have but twenty acres of land.
24. We speak to them but very rarely.
25. There is only one good man in the company.
26. Why do you not go to see your estate?
27. Why do you live continually in the town?
28. He does nothing but talk and sing.
29. They do not know what to do.
30. Did I not tell you that you could not come in?
31. Have you brought me a bag of gold? No, indeed!
32. It is not that I dislike the dinner; but I do not like the manner of cooking it.
33. He does not cease to talk and make a noise.
34. They dare not do what they threaten to do.
35. They cannot come to-morrow. I am very sure.
36. You neither eat nor drink with us; and why not my friends?
37. Why will you not sit down and dine with us?
38. No: I am much obliged to you: I cannot stop now.
39. Well, then, come to-morrow. I cannot indeed.
40. They have only bread and water to eat and drink.
41. Man is not to live on bread alone.
42. I doubt not but he will pay you what he owes you.
43. I cannot write if I have not a candle.
44. I shall not write to her unless she write to me first.
45. Take care that you be not deceived.
46. There is more wine than is wanted.
47. He said more than was necessary.
48. I will hinder them from doing mischief in the country.
49. I do not deny that I said that he was a bad man.
50. She is older than people think.
51. She is less rich than was thought.
52. He is quite different from what I expected.
53. They are better off than you thought.
54. I am afraid that he will come too soon.
55. I am afraid that he will not come soon enough.
56. She apprehends that there will be a quarrel.
57. They are afraid that their mother is ill.
58. They are afraid that the army will come.
59. They are afraid that the army will not come.
60. Not to talk too much of the matter.
61. It is good not to go too fast.
62. Do you think that this is too long? Not at all.
63. Not to do according to your word is very bad.
64. Is not this a very cold summer?
65. Not colder than the last, though cold enough.

345. We now come to the INTERROGATIVES. When you consider how large a part of all speaking and writing consists of questions, you will want nothing said by me to convince you of the importance of this part of your study. Let us take the verb come again here, and conjugate it, in the interrogative form, as we did in the negative form; for, you will observe, that, there must be a verb belonging to every negative and every question. I shall conjugate only a part of the verb; because it would be waste of room to put the whole conjugation.
That is enough. You see (and, indeed, you saw it long ago), the French have no do and did and will and shall and the like. They ask the question by the verb itself. They say, kill I? kill we? kill they? and so on. Nothing can be plainer than this. But, before I proceeded to show how questions are put, if there be a noun instead of a pronoun, let me explain a little matter that may appear odd to you. You see all these French verbs connected with the pronouns by hyphens. This is a general rule. You see it in all cases. But, in the first question of all, you see an acute accent over the e in tue. This is to soften the sound; and the accent is used, with this verb, only in this particular case. See paragraph 191, for a full explanation of this. And, see the close of that paragraph for the reason why there is a t and two hyphens placed after tue in the third question above.

346. Well, then, the above is the manner in which the French put questions with the pronoun. Let us now see how they put questions where there is a noun; where they are asking something about a third party, and making use of the noun and not the pronoun. They begin by naming the party; as:

Richard est-il venu?
Pierre est-il malade?
Mes sœurs sont-elles arrivées?
Vos chevaux courent-ils?

347. But, there is another manner of asking questions in French; and, indeed, it is the manner most
Literally it is, Which is this that this is that John says. Never think it wild, or foolish. It is all right enough, and that you will find in a short time. Do not waste your time in finding fault with the French language: learn it as quickly as you can.

Qu’est-ce que c’est que cela? What is that?

349. I will now give you an Exercise with a great variety of questions; and, before I close it, I will introduce negatives as well as interrogatives, and both in abundance. Go through this Exercise with great care; and, if you make a tolerably correct translation of it, you may truly say that you know something of the French language.

**EXERCISE XI.**

1. Are you talking to the gentlemen about the house?
2. Did the army march thence this morning?
3. Will the carpenter come to-morrow?
4. Why will he not come directly?
5. Was the house on fire when you were in the town?
6. Does not Richard come to-night?
7. Did he strike you?
8. Did they take away your coach and horses?
9. Did you think of that?
10. Is that your book? Yes, it is.
11. Is that your brother? Yes, it is.
12. Do you talk of her very often?
13. Does he go in search of the merchandise that he has lost?
14. Will they pay us what they owe us?
15. Will they have paid us when they have paid ten pounds more?
16. Would they have thought of it?
17. Has he any of it left?
18. Do you give it to me?
19. Did she tell it to him?
20. Did he not tell it to her?
21. Will they speak of it to you?
22. I get up in the morning.
23. I do not get up.
24. Do I get up?
25. Do I not get up?
26. Does he not get up early?
27. Have you not told it to me?
28. Had she told it to him?
29. Will they have paid it to us?
30. Would he have spoken of it to you?
31. Did you seek for your money in his box?
32. Did you find some of it there?
33. Will they not strike you and hurt you?
34. Does he not speak of it to them?
35. Would he not have done you great injury?
36. Do you not give it to me?
37. Do you not apply yourself to the French?
38. Did she not tell it to him?
39. Will they not give it to us?
40. Will he not speak of it to you?
41. Have you not told it to me?
42. Had she not told it to him?
43. Does corn grow well in that land?
44. Are not the trees very fine in the woods of America?
45. Not: they are not very fine in all parts of the country.
46. But the Planes are very large, are they not?
47. Would he not have spoken of it to you?
48. Would not Thomas come, if you were to send for him?
49. Are the pheasants and hares all destroyed?
50. No: but a great many of them have been caught.
51. I do not tell you not to go thither.
52. I did not tell you not to speak of it.
53. Not to talk too much of oneself.
54. I have told him not to pay more than twenty pounds.
55. Is he not a captain, or a colonel?
56. Will the fleet go to Jamaica?
57. Do you not think that it will be fine?
58. You have great estates, not to mention your ready-money.
59. Will John not be there sooner than will be necessary?
LETTER XXI.

SYNTAX OF IMPERSONALS.

My dear Richard,

350. You must now go back to paragraph 136. There I have explained the nature of the Impersonals. You must read from that paragraph to 141 very attentively. Pray, observe, that what I am now going to say you will be able to understand but very imperfectly, unless you first go back and read very attentively the paragraphs just mentioned.

351. There are, then, four principal Impersonals; that is to say; il y a; il est, or c'est; il fait; and il faut. Let us take them one by one.

352. Il y a answers to our there is, or there are, and some; as:

there is a hawk on the tree, il y a un faucon sur l'arbre.
there are birds in the nest, il y a desoiseaux dans le nid.
some men like that, il y a des hommes qui aiment cela.
some of them did not like it, il y en avoit qui ne l'aimeoit pas.
there will be ten bushels of il y aura dix boisseaux de blé.

This impersonal changes its form to express time; but not for any other purpose. You see, in the above examples, the present il y a, the past il y avait, and the future il y aura.

353. We, in speaking of distances from place to place, make use of it is; as: it is twenty-six miles from London to Windsor. The French, in such cases, make use of il y a, and say, il y a vingt six milles de Londres à Windsor; which is, mind, literally speaking, it there has twenty-six miles from London to Windsor. And this is just as reasonable as to say it is; for, one might ask, what it? What do you mean by this it?

354. The same rule applies to our it is, when employed to designate a space of time; as: it is four months since I came hither: il y a quatre mois que je suis ici. When we speak of something that happened sometime ago, the French answer our phrase by il y a and the present time of the verb; as: that tree was planted fifty years ago: il y a cinquante ans que cet arbre est planté.

355. In questions, where we begin with how long, or how far, and then proceed with our is it; in these cases the French begin with combien; that is, how much or how many. You know that how is comment, and that far is loin. But, you must not, when you go to France, and are on the road from Calais to Paris, and want to know how far you have to go to St. Omer's; you must not in this case, say to the person to whom you address yourself, comment loin (how far), but combien (how much, or many). Thus it is, too, with regard to spaces of time, and with regard to numbers. And, mind, when a question is asked, the order of the words of the impersonal is reversed. It is y a-t-il, and not il y a. You see, that the t and the double hyphen are used here. You have seen the reason for this at the close of paragraph 345, at which, however, you may now take another look. Take now a few examples.

How many cities are there in Combeien de villes y a-t-il en France?

How much sand is there in the Combeien de sable y a-t-il dans la charrette?
You see, then, the extensive use of this Impersonal. It is constantly on the tongue of those who speak French. Great care must be taken to give it its proper place in the sentence. That place is different under different circumstances; but attention will very soon make you master of the matter.

357. When the noun which the impersonal refers to is not a person, and when there is no adjective coming next after the impersonal, or when the word thing is, under any circumstances, expressed in the sentence, c'est, and not il est, to be used. But, if there be an adjective coming directly after the impersonal, and if the word thing be not mentioned in the sentence, and if the noun referred to be a person, il est is used; but, even then, not always.

358. This impersonal is sometimes used instead of il y a; but, in this case, il est is used, and not c'est, as: Il y a des gens qui ne sont jamais contents. We may say also, il y a des gens qui ne sont jamais contents. But, mind, you cannot always use il est for il y a. It is only when the noun referred to is a plural and of a general and indefinite character like gens. And, mind, you cannot employ c'est to supply the place of il y a.

359. Il est, and not c'est, is used in speaking of portions of time, as counted by the clock, or as relating to the different times of the day. The French do not say, it is twelve o'clock (which is a very odd phrase), but, it is twelve hours. They say, it is one hour, it is two hours, and so on. Now, in saying this they do not use c'est, but il est; thus, il est une heure, il est deux heures. But, in answers to questions relating to time, c'est may be used. When we ask what it is o'clock, they say, quelle heure est-il? and not quelle heure est-ce?

360. I noticed in the rules on the articles, that we say he is a captain, she is a mantua-maker, and so on, and that the French say, he is captain, she is mantua-maker, without the article. In these cases they use the personal pronoun de and il; but, if the French use the article, they use c'est.

361. In all other cases c'est may be, and, indeed, ought to be used. This impersonal may be used in the plural of the verb of the third person. It may, indeed, be also used in the singular of that person; but, it may be used in the plural; as:

c'est les loups qui ont tué les moutons.

But, in interrogations the impersonal adheres, in all cases, to the third person singular of the verb to be; as:

Est-ce les loups qui ont tué les moutons?

Est-ce le loup qui a attrapé?
that you would do this, I should repeat the whole of it again here; for, that which I am now going to say is nothing; that is, it will be of no use, unless you first read that paragraph with great care.

363. You see, then, that no two things can be more unlike than the two languages are in this respect. The *il faut* consists of the pronoun that answers to our *it* and of a part of the verb *to be necessary*; and, taken together, they answer to our *must*, but, in some cases to a great deal more than our *must*. For instance, *faut-il aller chez lui?* Is it necessary to go to his house? Then, our *must* cannot be translated literally into French. *I must*, *we must*, and the like, cannot be expressed in French at all, if they stand thus without other words. *I must go.* To answer to this the French say, *il faut que j'aille*; that is, *it is necessary that I go*, or, *I am obliged to go*, or *there is compulsion for my going.*

364. And, mind, this *il faut* applies to all persons and all things. To me, to you, to him, to her, to it; and, in short to all nouns and pronouns. It states that *there is necessity*, or *obligation*; then comes the noun, or pronoun, representing the party obliged; then comes the statement of what the necessity or obligation is to produce: as:

- *il faut que je fasse*, I must make.
- *il faut que vous fassiez*, you must make.
- *il faut qu'il fasse*, he must make.
- *il faut qu'elle fasse*, she must make.
- *il faut qu'ils fassent*, we must make.

There is, in these cases, always a *que*, you see, coming after the *il faut*; and you have seen the reason of this before. The French words, being literally translated, mean it is necessary *that I make*, and so on; and *que*, in this case, means, *that*.

365. But, it is not thus in all cases; for, there is no *que* when *il faut* is followed by the infinitive of the verb; as; *il faut aller*; it is necessary to go. Mind, the infinitive is often used thus in French to answer to English phrases in which the verb is not in the infinitive; as:

- *il faut faire son devoir*, I must do one's duty.
- *il faut faire son devoir, we must do our duty.*
- *they must do their duty.*

And, in many cases, the phrase may take this turn in English, *one's duty must be done.*

366. Where we, in English, express *a want* of something, the French sometimes make use of the verb *avoir*, followed by *besoin* (want) and *de*; as: *I want a stick; j'ai besoin d'un bâton.* This French phrase literally is, *I have want of a stick.* And this is an expression in great use.

- *j'ai besoin d'un bâton,* I want some gold.
- *vous avez besoin d'une chaise,* you wanted a chair.
- *ils auront besoin d'une brouette,* they will want a wheelbarrow.

Now, mind, *il faut* is, in many cases, made use of instead of *avoir besoin de*. But, then, the phrase must take a different form, and the pronoun must be in a different case; as:

- *il faut de l'or,* I want some gold.
- *il vous faut une chaise,* you wanted a chair.
- *ils auront besoin d'une brouette,* they will want a wheelbarrow.

Pay great attention to this turn of the phrase; for, it is in these seemingly little matters that much of the most useful part of your study lies.

367. Sometimes we express *want* by the use of the passive verb; that is to say, by the passive participle of *to want* and the verb *to be*; as: *men are wanted to make an army.* Here *il faut* is the expression; as: *il faut des hommes pour faire une armée.*

*Pour faire la guerre, il faut de.* To make war there must be *l'argent,* money.

368. When we speak of the manner of doing a thing, or of the manner of being, or of the manner of conducting oneself, and employ, in phrases of this description, *ought* or *should* as: *You do not know what you ought.* In these cases the French employ *il faut*; as:

- *you work as you ought,* *vous travaillez comme il faut*.
- *they do not write as they should,* *ils n'écrivent pas comme il faut*.
- *they do what they ought,* *ils font ce qu'il faut*.
- *I have what I ought to have,* *j'ai ce qu'il me faut.*
Comme il faut means, also, as it is necessary to be, as it is proper to be, and hence comes the expressions des gens comme il faut, une femme comme il faut, and so on; which means, respectable people, a respectable woman; or literally, people as they ought to be.

389. Il fait is the last of these impersonal verbs. Literally it means, it makes. This is an expression so different in its nature from that by which we express the same purposes, that it is necessary to notice it; though this impersonal is not of very extensive use. It is nearly confined to phrases relating to the weather, or the state of the air and sky, or that of the ground as affected by the elements. We say, for instance: it is fine weather: the French say, il fait beau temps; that is, it makes fine weather; for temps is weather as well as time. Thus, they say:

Il fait froid; it is cold.
Il fait chaud; it is hot.
Il fait jour; it is light.
Il fait sombre; it is dark.

Il fait is used in some other cases, when the English it is relates to one's being well or ill off with respect to circumstances of place. But this is rather a liberty than otherwise. As to rain, there is the verb and the noun; pleuvoir and pluie; and it is the same with hail and snow. However, the French frequently say, tomber (to fall) de la pluie, de la grêle, de la neige; and they even put il fait before these nouns as well as before the adjectives, jour et nuit, light and dark, not day and night.

370. Now, before I give you the Exercise on these impersonal verbs, I ought to observe, that every phrase may be called an impersonal, if it be the nominative, and if there be no noun to which the it relates; as: it suits well to ride on horseback. Here is no noun that the it refers to; or, at least, there is no noun that you can name. The verb valoir (to be worth) is one of those which is often used in the impersonal form, and it is in great use.

Employed in this way, it answers to our is better, was better, is not so good, and the like; as:

it is better, il vaut mieux.
it was better, il valait mieux.
it will be better, il vaudra mieux.
it was not so good as, il ne valut pas tant que.
it will not be so good as, il ne vaudra pas tant que.

This is, then, a word of great consequence. The French, you see, say, it is worth better, and not, it is better. And, we sometimes say, in English, that one thing is better worth a pound than another is worth a penny. You know this verb well: you have it fully conjugated in your third task; and you have it in your table of irregular verbs on your card. From this verb comes the appellation of Vain, which means, a good-for-nothing person. This verb, used as impersonal, answers also to our worth while, the French using peine instead of while; thus: it is not worth while; il ne vaut pas la peine.

That is: it is not worth the pain.

EXERCISE XII.

1. It is fine weather in that country almost all the year.
2. Last autumn it was very bad weather in America.
3. In that country it rains almost continually.
4. They say, that, at Lima, it never rains at all.
5. There are seven acres of land and six very fine houses.
6. There is a great quantity of mud at the bottom of the pond.
7. You must take care how you prune peach trees.
8. There is a great variety of peaches.
9. There are many of them in that garden.
10. There are wood-buds and fruit-buds.
11. There was a terrible out-cry in the town.
12. If it be stone-fruit trees that you have to prune.
13. There are many of them there.
14. As I have already observed.
15. You must examine, and be sure whether there be a good wood-bud.
16. See that there is no corner lost, and no plot that
remains uncropped.
17. You must not let any of them come in.
18. We want fine weather for the harvest.
19. Do not waste your time in talking; do what you
ought.
20. All the respectable people of the village think
well of it.
21. I want friends to assist me in so great an enter-
prise.
22. To get good corn and meat there must be good
land.
23. Plenty of manure and good tillage are necessary
to produce good hops.
24. There were twenty, the whole of the twenty
were wanted, but they left us only seven.
25. This is an act that we must never forget.
26. It was his servant who told it them.
27. There were sixty houses knocked down by the
cannon ball.
28. It is better to remain as you are for a few months.
29. It is a great deal better to be poor and healthy
than rich and unhealthy.
30. I shall go to France; that is to say, if I be in
good health.
31. It is very bad to travel when you are not well.
32. It is very painful to be obliged to leave you in
your present state.
33. He is an honest man. He is a knave.
34. He is honest. He is knavish. She is good and
wise.
35. It was your father who gave you that diamond.
36. Was it they who did so much mischief in the
village?
37. It was they who cut down the trees and set fire
to the houses.
38. No: it was she that ordered it to be done.
39. I do not know that it was she who gave the order.
40. My uncle has been dead these forty years.
41. I have lived here for more than twenty years.
42. It is seventeen miles from this place to that.

43. How far is it from this to the top of the mountain?
44. How long will it be before you come back?
45. He has been fifteen years at his work.
46. How many oxen are in the park?
47. And how many of them are in the stable?
48. People must have children to be able to feel for
parents.
49. Must I not have a good deal of patience?
50. Must there not have been great misconduct some-
where?
51. Must she not have had a great deal of property?
52. Has there not been a very long debate to-night?
53. Has there ever been a longer one?
54. There is only that which is not useful.
55. I beg of you not to come; that is, if you cannot
get a coach.
56. Are there any vineyards in this country?
57. No: there are not any that I know of. What!
are there none?
58. It is the finest land that was ever seen; but the
climate is bad.
59. How far do you think it is to his house, and do
you think it will be late before we can get to it?
60. It is about four miles, and, I suppose, that we
can get to it by nine o’clock.
61. Will it be dark before we can get to it? No:
for it is light now till past nine.
62. It is very dirty since the last rain; and it seems
as if it would rain again before to-morrow night.
63. It has been a very fine day to-day.
64. Do you believe that? Is there any one that be-
lieves it? Is there any one of whom who does
not despise the man who says it?
65. Must not a man be a wretch, then, who affects to
believe that there is any truth in it?

I must not dismiss this subject without a remark or
two upon the nature of the impersonals. In my
English Grammar, I contended, that Dr. Lowry,
Mr. Lindley Murray, and others, were in error in
supposing, that plural nouns and pronouns ought
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276    Syntax

Thomas sont malades, and not, malade. This is the general rule: but, when there are two singular nouns to which the adjective relates, and when these nouns have the same, or nearly the same, meaning, writers sometimes put the adjective in the singular. I merely mention this because it is liberty that writers take; but, I do not recommend you to take it. You may say:

un goût et un discernement excellent;
un goût et un discernement excellent.

As to agreement in gender, you must observe, that, if there be more than one noun, to which the adjective relates, and, if they be of different genders, the adjective must be put in the feminine; as:

la vache et le bœuf sont bons; and not bonnes.

But if there be two or more nouns, one or more of which is feminine, and in such a case, a feminine noun come immediately before the adjective, the adjective is, or, at least, may be, put in the feminine; as:

le bœuf et la vache blanche; and not blanche.

And, observe, the adjective is put in the singular, too, in this case, though there are two nouns going before it. However, as it certainly would not be incorrect to say, le bœuf et la vache blanche, I should employ that phrase instead of the other.—These exceptions, though worthy of notice, are but mere trifles. Nine hundred and ninety-nine times out of every thousand the adjective must agree in number and gender with the noun, or nouns, to which it obviously relates.

373. Care must, therefore, be taken to put the adjective in its proper place. You have, as you have already been taught, first to take care, that your adjective agree in gender and number with its noun. The next thing is the proper place for the adjective. You are speaking of a cow, for instance. You want to say, in French, that she is brown. You know that the singular number of the adjective is without an s; you know also, that the feminine of this adjective, is brune, there being an e to brun. But, you do not know where to put this adjective. You do not know whether it be to come before or after the noun vache. Observe, then, that adjectives which express colours are put after the noun; as: vache brune.

Also those that express nationality; as: du drap Anglais.
Also those that express shape; as: chapeau rond.
Also those that express the qualities or condition of the elements, or that relate to any natural productions; as: de l'eau froide.
Also those which end in ic, ique, and if; as: un verbe passif.
Also those ending in able; as: un état misérable.
Also those ending in esque, ile, ude; as: une pièce burlesque.

Also the participles when they are used as adjectives; as: un homme respecté.

374. Adjectives put before the noun are all those of number; as: une porte, six carrosses; le premier bourg, le second village. The Royal style indeed, makes Henry the Fourth, Louis the Eighteenth, and so on.

Also pronouns when they act the part of adjectives; as: chaque prune.

Also the following ones, of very common use: beau, bon, brave, cher, chétif, grand, gros, jeune, mauvais, méchant, meilleur, moindre, petit, saint, vieux, vrai.

375. When there are two adjectives used with the same noun, you may sometimes put them before the noun; but you cannot do wrong in putting them after it. If there be more than two adjectives, they must follow the noun. There are some exceptions to these rules; but these are of no importance. If you attend well to the above, you will, in a short time, place your adjectives properly.

376. So much for the placing of the adjectives.

We have three more things to attend to relating to
this part of speech. The first of these is, that there are certain adjectives, which, in French, require the preposition de before the next noun, pronoun, or infinitive verb; as: capable de tout; capable d'aller. Then there are other adjectives, which require the preposition à before the next noun, pronoun, or infinitive; as: semblable à l'or. These adjectives are, however, too many in number to be inserted in a rule. If, at any time you have a doubt about the matter, the Dictionary will put you right; for, it has the à, or the de, placed after those adjectives that require these prepositions after them.

377. The next thing is, that, adjectives of dimension come before the words which express the measure, and not after those words, as ours do; as:

Une rivière large de trois cents A river three hundred paces long.
Une tour haute de soixante A tower sixty feet high.

The French, however, have other modes of expressing dimensions. They put the noun instead of the adjective; une rivière qui a trois cents pas de longueur. Thus they make use of longueur and of hauteur, leaving out the adjective altogether. However, this is no very important matter: one Exercise of a dozen sentences is quite enough to prevent you from ever making a mistake in the use of these words of dimension.

378. Lastly comes comparison; but, that has been so fully explained before, in the paragraphs from 101 to 111, and again more recently in the use of que and moins and plus with the negatives; that it would be, I hope, a waste of time, to say any thing more upon the subject of comparison.

EXERCISE XIII.
1. The tower is four hundred and forty feet high.
2. Your room is twenty feet long and ten wide.
3. A square field and a high gate.
4. A saucy, lazy, and foolish man.
5. A young and fine ox, and a pretty little dog.

6. He is a great deal older than she is.
7. You are not so tall as he by a great deal.
8. They have more than six thousand acres of land.
9. This is a very bad hat; the worst I ever had in my life.
10. This is a better day than yesterday; but this is cold and miserable enough.
11. This is the worst road that I ever saw.
12. That is the greatest rogue that exists.
13. Have you many bottles of wine in your cellar?
14. Give him a little wine and a few grapes.
15. I have not much oil, but have a great many olives.
16. Has he not many horses and a great deal of hay?
17. Give me a few nuts, and bring a little of that sugar.
18. He is equally zealous in a good and in a bad cause.
19. Sixty thousand pounds for an estate and household goods.
20. One thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
21. London, fourth of June, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
22. George the Fourth and Charles the Tenth reign at this time.
23. I like an open enemy better than a secret one.
24. You are unworthy of honour and distinction.
25. He was overjoyed at seeing her arrive.
26. They are perfectly free from blame on that account.
27. He is fit for any sort of business.
28. They are given to all sorts of mischief.
29. We are subject to a legal process for your neglect.
30. He is a man very much esteemed in that country.
31. She is a French woman, he is an Englishman, she is an American woman.
32. A French hat, an English coat, an American shoe.
33. A black hat, a blue coat, a white shoe.
34. White as snow, black as the chimney, heavy as lead.
35. You are taller than he by two inches.
36. I do not think that he is so tall as she.
37. They are the most wicked of all mankind.
38. It is the most unjust and most abominable of acts.

It should be noticed, that there are some adjectives, which have one sense when placed before the noun, and another sense when placed after it: as: un homme honnête, means, a civil or well-behaved man. But, un honnête homme, means, an honest man. Un grand homme means, a man of great merit; but, un homme grand, means, a man of a great size. Une femme sage means a sensible and modest woman; but une sage femme means a midwife. However, there are very few adjectives that vary their meaning thus, and you will find little difficulty in the use of them. It is, nevertheless, a matter not to be disregarded. I know of no adjectives that thus change their meaning, except, bon, commun, mauvais, brave, certain, cruel, furieux, galant, gentil, grand, gros, honnête, pauvre, plaisant, sage, vilain. There are some words, which some persons call adjectives, which are indistinguishable; that is, which do not change their form to express number and gender. But these are, in fact, adverbs, and not adjectives: they express place, time, or manner, and not quality or characteristic mark.

LETTER XXIII.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

My dear Richard,

379. This, as you have been before told, is the most important of all the parts of speech. There can, as I have observed in my English Grammar, be no sentence, there can be no sense in words, unless there be a verb, either expressed or understood. Each of the other parts of speech may, alternately, be dispensed with; but, the verb never can. This being the case, you will, I hope, set about the study of this letter with an uncommon degree of resolution to be industrious and attentive.

380. You must, that you may have the whole subject clearly before you, that you may not drop abruptly into the middle of it, go back to paragraph 96, where I have described the nature and character and functions of the verb, and shown how it differs from other parts of speech. You must then go to paragraph 112, and read from that to paragraph 141 inclusive. When you have done that, and in a very attentive manner, cast your eye over the Conjugations; and then come to the subject of the present Letter.

381. The parts of the Grammar, which I have here referred to, teach you what a verb is, distinguish it from other parts of speech, show you all the variations of form to which it is liable, tell you how it changes that form to fit itself to divers circumstances; but, it remains for me to tell you something about the manner of using it in sentences, something about that concord and that government, which I mentioned in paragraph 247; something about when the verb is to be used in this number, and when in that number; when in this person, and when in that; when in this time, and when in that; and, when in this mode, and when in that. I shall, therefore, place my matter under four heads: first, The Number and Person, because they depend one on the other: second, The Tense: third, The Mode: fourth, The Participles.

382. The NUMBER AND PERSON. The verb must have a noun or a pronoun used with it. The verb speaks of an action, a feeling, or a state of being of some person or thing. Therefore there must be a noun or a pronoun to express that person or thing. And, whatever person and number that noun or pronoun may be in, the verb must be in the same person and number. This is what is called agreement, or concord. The ploughmen in Hampshire invariably say, they walks, and the like; and it is very curious, that those of Norfolk and Suffolk as
invariably say, he walk, and the like. The illiterate country people in France say, fallons and favons. This is not to be expected from any person who has ever looked into a book; but in writing French, we English people must take care, or else we shall fall into very gross errors of this sort.

383. When two or more nouns, or pronouns, are the nominative of the same verb, the verb is in the plural number, though each of the nouns and pronouns be in the singular number. They are taken together, and thus they make a plural, and, of course, the verb must be in the plural; as:

Le cheval, le bœuf et le chien étaient dans l’écurie.

The horse, the cow and the dog were in the stable.

384. In French, as in English, two nouns or pronouns with ou (or) between them, take the verb in the singular, because the or, though it connect them on the paper and in speech, disjoins them in sense; as:

Le seigle ou l’orge ont cer dans le champ.

The rye or the barley that is in the field.

But, in French, if the conjunction be not ou, the verb is generally in the plural; as:

Ni le seigle ni l’orge ne se vendent cher.
Neither the rye nor the barley sells dear.

Here, you see, the verb is in the plural in French and in the singular in English. If there be several nouns, which are nominatives of the verb, and if there be one or more of them in the plural number, the verb must be in the plural, though some of the nouns may be in the singular; as:

Le maître ou ses gens viendraient demain, si...

The master or his people would come to-morrow, if...

This holds good in both languages; but, if the last noun be preceded by make (but), the verb is put in the singular. This happens when there is non-seulement (not only), or some phrase of that meaning, in the former part of the sentence. It is, however, the same in both languages, and no error can well happen in the constructing of such sentences. But, there is one difference in the two languages, respecting the number of the verb, that must be carefully attended to; it is this; we, in English, when we use a noun of multitude; such as crowd, assembly, public, or any other, may, as we please, consider the noun a singular or a plural, and, of course, we may use as relating to such noun, pronouns and verbs in the singular, or in the plural. This cannot be done in French. Whatever the noun is, the pronoun and the verb must agree with it. Examples:

The crowd made a great noise, La foule faisait un grand bruit.

They were in the street,—or They were in the street, Elle était dans la rue.

The public do not like that, Le public n’aime pas cela.

They have rejected it,—or They have rejected it, Il a rejeté.

The French adhere to this even in the use of the word people. They say, as we do, le peuple; but they always make the word a singular, and give it singular pronouns and verbs. We, on the contrary, cannot very well use these singulars with people, though we, in speaking of a nation, sometimes say, a people. In other cases we make use of plurals with the word people, and the French never do; as:

The people are tired of being treated in that manner.
Le peuple est d’être traité de la sorte.

They will not be treated thus much longer.
Ils ne souffriront pas qu’on les traite longtemps ainsi.

The people have their follies; but they are not wicked.
Le peuple a ses folies; mais ils n’ont pas méchanceté.

Thus, you see, pronoun, verb, adjective; all are in the singular in French, and, in English, the two former are in the plural and the latter has no change to express number. But, there are some few exceptions to this, and those you will find particularly dwelt on in the Syntax of the relative pronoun, paragraph 316; and in the Syntax of the Adjective, paragraph 372. You must now read both those paragraphs very carefully over. Their contents belong to the numbers of verbs as well as to the heads under which they are placed.

385. When there are two or more pronouns, which are the nominative of the verb, and which are of different persons, the nominative must agree with
the first person in preference to the second, and with the second in preference to the third. It is, however, the same in English: as you and I are poor: vous et moi nous sommes pauvres. Mark, however, the manner of forming these phrases in French. You see there is a pronoun more here in French than in English.

Vous et moi nous irons à la campagne la semaine prochaine, You and I shall go to the country next week.

Lui, Monsieur Lechamp, et moi nous nous en allons, He, Mr. Lechamp, and I are going away.

Elle, vous et votre oncle vous allez votre promener, She and you and your uncle were going to take a walk.

Sentences of this sort may be turned thus:

Nous irons à la campagne vous et moi la semaine prochaine. You alliez vous promener, elle, vous et votre oncle.

However, the verbs are in the plural in both languages; and that is the main thing that you have to attend to here. I might, in the Letter on personal pronouns, have spoken of this manner of using these pronouns; but, I thought it would be best here, when I came to speak of the agreement between the pronoun and the verb. You see the additional pronoun is used to make all clear. Our mode of expression is not so unequivocal. Take an example:

He, she, and I have been very ill.

We understand this very well. We are almost sure, that it is meant that all three have been sick. But it is really not a point beyond dispute. The French say, therefore:

Lui, elle et moi nous avons été très-malades. He, she and I have been very ill.

And, to a certainty, this is a better mode of expression, because it is perfectly unequivocal.

386. You will see, that the verb is placed in the sentence much about in the same manner that ours is, when nouns are used with it; but when pronouns are used, very different is the manner of placing the French verb, of which, indeed, you have seen instances enough. When the verb has a noun, or nouns, as its nominative, its place is, as in English; after the

noun: as le mouton mange l’herbe, l’oiseau vole dans l’air. Thus it is also in English. But, in both languages, when a sentence is thrown into the middle of the main sentence, the verb goes first; as:

I will not give it to you, said Richard, unless you come after it. Je ne vous le donnerai pas, dit Richard, & moins que vous ne veniez le chercher.

This manner of using the verb is, in cases like this, the same in both languages. But, the French sometimes put the verb before the noun when we do not, especially after que (whom, which, or that) and comme (as):

Le chien que m’a vendu le garde chasse, The dog that he has sold me.

This is, word for word; but we say, the dog that the gamekeeper has sold me. Take an example with comme:

Les chiens, les asperges et les oignons sont gâtés, & co que dit Richard.

The cabbages, the asparagus and the onions are spoiled, as Richard tells me.

Again, the verb is frequently put after où (where, in which, in which place).

La campagne où demeure mon ami, The country place where my friend lives.

Il endroit où se cachent les renards et les loups, The place where the foxes and wolves hide themselves.

These are very common expressions with the French, who make wonderful use of this as, and especially with the verb trouver (to find), which they make use of instead of être, in innumerable instances; as:

I am very well, Je me trouves fort bien, [tenant?]

How is he now? Comment se trouve-t-il maintenant?

We are very well here, Nous nous trouvons bien ici.

EXERCISE XIV.

1. We see such things as that every day.
2. Neither threats nor money will make him cease complaining of it.
3. The carpenters or the masons will finish their work to-morrow.
4. He or she will pay for the dinner and the wine.
5. It was they who said that she should go away.
6. Not only the oats and the hay, but the very straw was carried out of the yard.
7. John, Paul, Stephen, Mary and their mother will write to-morrow.
8. John, Paul, Stephen, Mary and you will write to-morrow.
9. Your brother and she have read a great deal to-day.
10. My grandfather and I have travelled from one end of the country to the other.
11. The cucumbers and the melons grow well in that soil.
12. The gardener as well as his people like flowers.
13. It was very far from being good, as the gardener told me.
14. The piece of ground where the shrubs were planted.
15. The hedge where the thorns were growing.
16. The plantations that my grandfather made.
17. The house that the brother and sister live in.
18. The basket that the flowers have been put into.
19. The committee has been sitting this month.
20. They will not have finished for two months to come.
21. The people have been very quiet.
22. They have been exceedingly well used.
23. Nobody can deceive them.
24. The best way is always to tell them the truth.
25. He hates the people and always speaks evil of them.
26. I will give you a pound, said he, if you will tell me the truth.
27. Ah! said they, we have caught you, then.
28. No, answered I, you have not caught me.
29. Well said he to them, say no more about it.
30. Go off as soon as you can, I beg of you.
31. She and I are the owners of that wood.
32. They wish to write to them.
33. Clover and sunshine grow well in that land.
34. They are excellent for all sorts of cattle.
35. Turnips or mangel wurzel is good for cows in winter.

36. Neither hay nor straw are sold in the town.
37. The greatest part of the world do the same.
38. A great part of his friends left him.
39. The curious plants that my friend has given me.
40. The painter that my sister has sent.
41. The painter who has sent my sister.
42. The printer that the people like so much.
43. The printer who likes the people so much.
44. I plant lettuces and celery.
45. Give me some of both, if you please.

387. THE TIMES. You have just seen enough (for you have just been reading the Etymology of verbs) of the reason for there being changes in the form of the verb to denote different times. You have seen enough also, and, I hope, know enough, of the matter of making those changes. You have now to learn when one of the Times is to be used, and when another; for as you have seen, there are two past times in French; and, besides this, the French do not, in all cases, use their times so as to answer to the corresponding times in English.

388. Time is, and must be present, past, or future. To express the present, we, in English, have three forms as:

I kill.
I do kill.
I am killing.

The French have only this one form to answer to the whole of the three. We, from our infancy, learn to distinguish with the greatest nicety the import of one of our forms from that of either of the other two; but, in the present case, we are happy in having to do with a language, which has but one present time at any rate.

I am writing a letter.
I write letters every day.
I write to my friends very often.
It is, you see, always écrits. This is very easy, then? Yes, much too easy to last long. Every blockhead would learn French, if all were as easy as this.
389. The French have two past times. We have, in our past time, the do and the ing: that is to say, the do become did, and, in the above example, the am become was: as: I was writing; I did write: I wrote. Aye; but the French have two distinct sets of words to express the past by. Look now again, for a moment, at the conjugation of True, in paragraph 118. There you see, that, in what they call the past imperfect time, I killed, is, je tuais, and, in the past perfect time, I killed, is, je tuai. In the other persons of the verb, the change is greater: so great indeed as for the words to appear not to belong at all to one another. Nous tuions is the past imperfect, and nous tuames the past perfect. Now, mind, each of these means we killed.

390. Well, but as they mean the same thing, cannot they be used indifferently? Indeed they cannot; for, though we express them in English by the same word, they have a meaning in French, clearly distinct from each other. To know when one of them is to be employed, and when the other, attend very earnestly to what I am now going to say. But, first of all, let me, in an extract from a French history, show you how these two past times are used. I shall give the translation. It is an account of an explosion in the fortified town of Vernon in France.

Le 18 November, 1727, le moulin à poudre, construit dans cette ville, sauta en l’air, par la force, dit on, d’un ouvrier, qui eût voulu sécher de la poudre dans une poêle. Les effets furent affreux. La terre s’enfonça en cet endroit de plus d’un quart de pie ; l’hémisphère passa tout en feu, et la terre trembla à plus de deux lieues à la ronde. Cet accident aboutit de fond en comble cinquante maisons des environs. Tout ce qui s’y trouvoit, hommes, femmes, enfants, domestiques, eût été sous les ruines. Il fut étonné sous les ruines. Il enfants, serviteurs, were crushed under the ruins. There were seventy other houses very much damaged, not one of which could be inhabited until repaired. Besides these, there were set fire to the doors of which were torn from their posts, although locked and bolted: and all the windows in the lower-town were smashed to pieces. These were also marks of the violence of this shock in the upper-town, and in the citadel, though at seven o’clock in the evening, the powder-mill, that was fortified in the citadel, was built after the ground-work was done. On the 18 November, 1727, the powder-mill, built in this town, blew up from the fault, it is said, of a workman, who was drying some powder in a frying pan. The effects were dreadful. The ground at the place itself was forced down more than fifteen feet; the hills, misère seemed all on fire, and the ground shook for more than two leagues round. This accident knocked down, from top to bottom, fifty houses of the neighbourhood. All who were in them, men, women,
ought not to make use of this past time to denote any time, which is not further back than the day in which we are talking. So that we must not say, je fus malade ce matin. We must say, j'ai été malade ce matin. Also we must not use the past perfect in speaking of this year, this century, nor of time, any part of which remains yet to pass away. To this he adds, that “the past perfect time must, on no account, be employed except as applied to a time absolutely completely passed; whereas, there are many cases, in which it is not a fault to use, instead of the past perfect, the compound of the present; as: Alexandre roy le plus grand, capitaine de son siècle; or, Alexandre a été le plus grand capitaine de son siècle.

391. Now, how does this agree with the above passage? Read that passage attentively, and look at, and compare with one another, the several verbs in it. It is very true, that the year 1727 is wholly gone and past; that no part of it remains; that we are no longer in it. Therefore it is very right, of course, to say,

\[
\text{sauté en l'air,}
\text{s'enfonça,}
\text{parut en feu,}
\text{s'enflamma,}
\text{but écrasé,}
\text{et et etc.}
\]

and not

\[
\text{météoro en l'air,}
\text{s'enfonça,}
\text{parut en feu,}
\text{s'enflamma,}
\text{but écrasé,}
\text{et etc.}
\]

This is all very right, and according to the rules of Monsieur Restaunt, who has said, as I have just quoted; and who says, with regard to the imperfect, that it is to be used to denote the past with regard to the present; and that it designates that a thing was present in a time that is now past; as: “I was at table when you came. My being at table is now past; but, this manner of using the verb points out, that it was present when you arrived.”

394. So far all is very well; and it is easy enough for you to know one case when the imperfect ought to be used; namely, when we use the active participle and the verb to be in the past time; I was at table, that is, sitting at table, when you arrived.

Thus you see very clearly why "faisoit sécher" was put, instead of jil sécher, in the first sentence of the above extract; for this is the translation:

Un ouvrier, qui faisait sécher le sucre. A workman who was drying sugar in a pan, some powder in a frying pan.

Here is the active participle and the past time of the verb to be. But, in the last sentence of this passage, there is the verb consistoit. You cannot say was consisting. How will Monsieur Restaunt here make out something that was present when another thing happened, which other thing is now passed also? But, stop: here is another verb in the same sentence, and in the past perfect too. "La quantité de poudre, qui prit feu, consistoit en quatre milliers de poudre fine." Why, then, I ask, have we prit instead of pretend? Or, why have we consistoit instead of consists? You cannot turn consistoit into was consisting; any more than you can turn prit feu into was taking fire. The time, observe, is quite past. It is entirely gone. We are no longer in it. The verb consistoit cannot be turned into was consisting; and yet it is in the imperfect time.

395. The rules are, then, defective. The instructions are not clear. The distinctions are obscurely stated. First it is clear enough, that the imperfect, or (which is a much better word) the unfinished, form of the French verb, must always be used when we can turn the phrase into English by the active participle and the verb to be; when we can turn it into English by the verb and our word used; or, when we can turn it into English by the help of any word, signifying the habit of doing or being; as:

I was planting peas yesterday, je plantais des pois hier, when.
I wrote to him every week, je lui écrivais toutes les semaines.
I was in the habit of going thither, j'avais coutume de lui aller.
They continued there for six years, ils y venaient pendant six ans.
I used to eat a good deal of sugar, je mangeais beaucoup de sucre.
But, when you can discover none of these English marks of a demand for the imperfect, or, unfinished, form of the verb, observe this: that we sometimes make use of the past time of the verb, without having any intention to mark any time at all; but, to point out a fact; a fact, indeed, relating to a past time, but the time being, nevertheless, of no importance; as: the Jews were a wicked race; les Juifs étoient une méchante race; they were seditious and avaricious: ils étoient séditieux et arnaçons.

Here, you see, is continuity. The Jews were, and went on to be, a bad race of people; but, here is nothing finished, nothing brought to a close; and that, mind, is necessary to justify the use of the past perfect time.

390. Look again at the above quoted passage, and at the sentence before the last. There are two verbs in that sentence, the first in the past perfect, the last in the past imperfect. "Les dames de la Congrégation furent les plus maltraitées, leurs dortoirs ayant été renversés pendant qu'elles étoient à Complies." Here are furent and étoient in the same sentence, and applying to the same persons. But, if you look well into the matter, the reason is as clear as daylight. Furent relates to a matter done with, finished, completely over, and, that, too, in a past time. But, in that same past time, the ladies were at their Complies, or Evening Prayers: elles étoient à Complies: their dormitories were demolished while they were at Prayers. The prayers were, in the time spoken of, going on; but, the dormitories were done for: the misfortune of the ladies was over.

391. Let us take another instance. "Sédan (a town of France) d’était autrefois une petite Souveraineté, de laquelle dépendait dix-sept villages. Elle appartenait anciennement aux archevêques de Reims, un desquels l’échangea avec le Roi pour Cornay." Now, you see, était autrefois and appartenait all include the idea of continuation. This little district was formerly a lordship. We might say, that it used to be a lordship. We might also say, that the villages used to depend upon it, and that it used to belong to the archbishops of Rheims. But (and now mind) we could not say that one of these bishops used to exchange it with the king. That was an act done, finished; not going on: not spoken of as being (in the past time alluded to) in a state of being continued.

398. Now the matter clears up. We begin to see the reason for this distinction in the past times; for, if you can, by a change in the ending of the verb, discover at once, whether an act was finished, or was going on, at a certain time, it is a great advantage. You can now see, I think, the reason for employing consistait, as mentioned in paragraph 394, and also for using prit in the same sentence. "La poudre, qui prit feu, consistait en quatre milliers." Why not, said I, put consistait as well as prit? You could now, I hope, tell me why; namely because the taking of fire was a thing done with. The fire took, the mill blew up, and there was an end. The matter was finished in the past time alluded to. But, mind, the powder's consisting of such a quantity was a matter without any limit as to time. It had consisted for some time; its consisting had been going on. There had been continuation in it; and, therefore, the writer could not say consista. Take two more instances, and then, I think, I may leave this matter.

Il l'aimait long-temps, et à la fin, il l'épousa; and, at last, he married her. Hier, qui étoit dimanche, il alla. Yesterday, which was Sunday, he went to church.

Here, you see again, there is continuity in the going and in the Sunday; but none in the act of marrying nor in that of going to church. But, Elle l’accosta comme il allait à la église, going to church.

Here, you see, the case is different. His going to church is here spoken of as a thing that was going on.
on at the time alluded to; a thing that was, in that

399. Thus have I, I think, made this matter clear.

However, it is, observe, one of the great difficulties

of the French language; and it is one which the

makers of grammars have taken special care to

slide by without scarcely touching it. In grammars

written for French people, to go into the matter thus

 minutely is not necessary, because they are, from their

infancy, in the habit of making use of these words in

their two forms. But, without explanation, and

clear explanation too, how are we to know when

he had is to be il avoit, and when it is to be il eut?

400. Having now done with these two Times, let

us speak a little of the rest. We have seen, in the

rule of Monsieur Rétaut, that the compound of

the present time may be frequently used instead of

the past perfect time; and this is very common; as:

Elle chanta hier soir—or (She sang last night.

We do not make use of this manner of expression

in English. We do not say, she has sung last night.

We say, she sang last night.

401. As to the future time, it has, in the Etymology,

been explained to you, that our will and

shall, which help to form the future time of our

verbs, are wholly unknown in the French language,

which, with more elegance and ease, and with less

equivocation, expresses, by a change in the ending

of the verb itself, all that we express, and that we

wish to express, by the use of those nasty little harsh-

sounding words. Foreigners have great difficulty in

learning when they ought to use will and when

shall. Those who learn French have no such dif-


I shall put my hand in my

pocket;

I will put my hand in my

pocket;

And thus it is always. If, however, shall is used

to denote obligation and will to denote determina-
tion, they must be answered in another way, as we

shall see by and by; but, as far as simply declaring,
or stating, goes, the above is the manner of rendering
the English future into French.

402. I have said, and well I may, that time must

be present, past, or future; yet some grammarians

have contrived to find, in French and English, a

great many more times than three; or, at least,

states of the verb which they call times. It may,
in some languages, be necessary to make those nu-

merous distinctions under the name of times. In

French and English, it is not only unnecessary;

but, it produces great confusion and tends greatly

to bewilder and disgust the learner, whether of En-

lish or of French. I will give you an instance of

this, and will keep to our old verb tuer.

je tue, present, I kill.

je tuais, past imperfect, I killed.

je tuaïs, past perfect, I had killed.

je tuai, future, I shall kill.

j'ai tué, the past indefinite, I have killed.

j'avais tué, the more perfect, I had killed.

j'eu tué, the past perfect anterior, I should have killed.

j'aurai tué, the future anterior, I shall have killed.

It is in the grammar of Monsieur de Levizac that I

find these pretty names given to times. The two

forms for the past times are, as we have seen, ne-

cessary in French, and they must, of course, have

two names. But, of what use are the four names

here placed under the line? What are these times,
after all, more than those above the line? Above

the line, you have the changes in tuer to mark the

time; and, below the line, you have the changes

in avoir to mark the same four times. If, indeed,
tuer changed its form here eight times instead of

four, it would be necessary to have eight names to

distinguish them by. But, as it is, the four addi-
tional names only serve to puzzle, retard, and dis-
gust the scholar.

403. In paragraphs from 125 to 128 I have fully
explained the offices of avoir and être, as auxiliary verbs. When they are used with the verb, the several times are said to be **compound**, which they are, because they consist of more than one thing; thus: **I have killed** is the compound of the present time; because **have** belongs to one verb and **killed** to another. Why, then, not call these times, the compound of the present, of the past, and of the future?

I have killed, j'ai tué.
I had killed, j'avais, or j'eus tué.
I shall have killed, j'aurai tué.

It is, you see, the verb to have, used in all its times with the passive participle of the principal verb (tuer) coming after it. It is, in fact, a mere conjugation of the verb to have with that participle always coming after it.

404. But, as you have seen, in paragraph 132, the **compound times** are formed with être and not with avoir when the verb is reflected. And, observe also, that été, the passive participle of être, is, as in English, sometimes, and very frequently, used along with avoir and the passive participle of the principal verb; as: je **ai été tué.** I have been killed. This may be called the compound of the passive; that is all. The verb **avoir** is conjugated throughout all its times, and the two passive participles come after it. Now, let us see an instance of each of these that I have been speaking of in the three foregoing paragraphs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I kill</th>
<th>I killed</th>
<th>I shall kill</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>je tué</td>
<td>je tuais, or tuas.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>je tuerais.</td>
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<tr>
<th>I have killed</th>
<th>I had killed</th>
<th>I shall have killed</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j'ai tué.</td>
<td>j'avais, or j'eus tué.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>j'aurai tué.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have been killed</th>
<th>I had been killed</th>
<th>I shall have been killed</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j'ai été tué.</td>
<td>j'avois, or j'eus, été tué.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j'aurai été tué.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

405. As to the times of the **Subjunctive Mode**, all that has here been said holds good with regard to them. Time is always present, past, or future; and, there can be no need of imagining other times, and giving names to them. When the times are compound; that is to say, when avoir, or (in reflected verbs), être, comes into use, you are to take it, and conjugate it, instead of the principal verb, the passive participle of which you are to add all the way through, as you see it done in the six last of the nine examples just given you. But, mind, you are to conjugate the compound times with être, instead of avoir, in a few **neuter** verbs as well as in all the reflected verbs. These neuter verbs are, accourir, aller, aborder, arriver, choisir, décéder, descendre, dériver, entrez, monter, mourir, naître, partir, retourner, revenir, sortir, tomber, venir. Thus, you must say, je suis entré dans la chambre; and not, j'ai entré dans la chambre.

406. I shall conclude my remarks on the times of verbs by noticing some little peculiarities in the use of the French times. I have already noticed, that in French, the **compound of the present** is very frequently employed instead of the past perfect; and even instead of the future; as:

je *dine* chez lui hier—or
"duis* dine* chez lui hier,
avez-vous bien, tuis?"

We cannot choose thus in English. We cannot say, *I have dined* with him yesterday. When we make use of the compound of the present it must relate to some portion of time not completely passed. The French may say, la récolte fut bonne l'année dernière, or, a été bonne; but we must say, the crop was good. But, on the other hand, we can apply the past time to a period not ended; as: she was here this morning. Whereas, as we have seen, the French cannot apply their past time to a period not ended.

407. When there is no time at all specified, or
cared about, we can, in both languages, make use of the compound of the present; as:  
We have seen evil enough. Nous avons eu assez de mal.  
The reason is, that in our lives, in our time, in our day, or something denoting a period not passed, is understood; as: he has read much; il a lu beaucoup. But, in this respect the two languages are very nearly alike.
408. There is one thing more to point out, but it is of importance. The French frequently make use of the present of the verb être instead of the compound of avoir and être.
Il y a un mois que le vent est à l'Est,  
Elle est depuis plus d'un mois de chez elle.  
Il y a plus d'un an que je suis malade.  
Je suis depuis dix jours en route.  

This is a word for word translation as nearly as I can well make it. Now, we never express ourselves thus. We say,

The wind has been in the East for a month.  
She has been more than a month from home.  
I have been sick more than a year.  
I have been ten days on my journey.

The French may use the same form, and they frequently do; as: Il y a un mois que le vent a été à l'Est; j'ai été malade il y a plus d'un an.

EXERCISE XV.
1. The guide who conducted the observer, from whom I had the description, told him that, sometime before the war which closed with the peace of Ryswick, having guided the Germans to this spot, they found it covered with snow.
2. The palace was a temple, dedicated to the tutelary gods. Its form was oblong, and it had eight columns on each side longwise, and four

along each end, which made up the number of twenty-four; of which eight remained, when they were taken down in order to enlarge the castle.
3. The fountain which is called d'Audege sends forth so large a quantity of water, that it forms a rivulet, very useful to the tanners who live in the suburbs.
4. Do you study well, and do you not neglect any part of your duty.
5. When he has finished building his house, he will go to the country.
6. When she goes to town she will find a great many friends very glad to see her.
7. Every thing is to be done that can be done for him.
8. He has been very ill-used by those who owed him a great deal.
9. She was very sick; she suffered exceedingly. They did all they could to comfort her.
10. He has been to the church.
11. She fell from the top of the house.
12. They went away last year.
13. We have not been to see the play.
14. He went to bed at ten o'clock last night.
15. He had gone to bed earlier.
16. They rise early.
17. We rose every morning at four o'clock.
18. You ought to rise much earlier than you do.

409. THE MODES. Now, though you, at the beginning of this letter; that is to say, at the beginning of your study of the Syntax of Verbs, though you read throughout, the Etymology of verbs, yet, these Modes are a matter of so much importance, that you must, once more, read paragraphs 116 and 117; and read them, too, with very great attention.
410. As I have there observed, the modes would be a matter of less consequence if the French verbs did not change their form in order to accommodate themselves to the different modes; or, at least,
this never were the case; but, as you will find, it is almost always the case. In English we say, I make; but in French, we must say, je fais, il faut que je fasse. Ours is make in both cases; but, in French, it is fait, in one case, and fasse in the other. If you were, in translating I make, to say, je fais; or, in translating, I must make, to say, il faut que je fasse, French people would hardly understand you. They might guess at your meaning; but that would be all. They would not laugh outright at you, as we generally do at French people when they speak broken English; but, they would laugh to themselves. This is, then, an affair of great consequence.

411. You have just read (in paragraph 116) a description of the four modes. I need not, if you have read that paragraph and the next, describe those Modes again. What I have now to do is, to teach you when the one is employed and when the other. The Imperative, as being the root of the verb, stands first in the conjugations; but, I shall speak of it last. I shall take the other three in their due order; the Indicative, the Subjunctive, and the Imperative.

412. But, before I speak of the manner of using these modes, let me again caution you, not to look upon the signs of our verbs, as you see them placed in the conjugations; let me caution you, not to look upon those signs, I mean, should, could, would, may, and might, as being to be translated upon all occasions as you see them translated in the conjugations. I have, indeed, in these conjugations, put only shall, may, should, and might, for want of room for the others. The danger is, that, seeing should, for instance, placed against a certain time in a certain mode, you will conclude, that our should must always be translated in that manner. This is not the case; and therefore, you must take care not to adopt this notion of the matter. It was necessary to place some signs before our verbs in the conjugations; those which I have there placed, do, in certain cases, answer, with their verb, to the verb against which they are placed: but, mind, they do not thus answer in all cases; and this you must take care not to forget.

413. We are to begin now with the Indicative Mode. As you have before been told, it simply indicates or declares, as its name imports. It does not express an action or state of being, which is dependent on any other action or state of being. It is the unconditional state of the verb affirming or denying, without, as our saying is, “any of your ifs and ands,” as:

I go to London,  je vais à Londres.
I do not go to London, je ne vais pas à Londres.

These verbs are in the indicative: but, if there be a dependance, a condition, a something subjunctive, the verb is in the subjunctive, as:

il importe que j’aille à Londres, it is of consequence for me to go to London.

il importe que je n’aille pas à Londres, it is of consequence for me not to go to London.

Here you see, is a consequence attached to the thing expressed by the verb. There is something subjunctive, or joined on, to the simple act of going, or not going, to London. Accordingly, you see that the verb changes its form. Aller (to go) is, you know, an irregular verb. Look at the conjugation of it in paragraph 203. You there see that vais is the first person singular of the Indicative; and that allez is the first person singular of the Subjunctive.

There are, perhaps, a hundred verbs in the Indicative for one in the Subjunctive. The infinitive is attended with little difficulty, and the Imperative with less. The great thing, then, as to the Modes, is to know when we ought to put the verb in the subjunctive. The indicative may be said to be the rule, and the subjunctive the exception. The exception, is, however, very extensive: but, there are rules relating to it, and those rules we are now going to see. In English we have no change, or very little, in the form of the verb to distinguish the sub-
junctive from the indicative; but, if we had, the
guide would not be perfect: for it is not always that
a French verb in the subjunctive is properly trans-
lated by an English verb in the same mode.
414. The subjunctive must always be used after
certain conjunctions, which are said to govern that
mode. But, first of all, it is best to seek for
some principle; for, even if we fall short of per-
fection in principle, the very effort does something
for us. We have seen that the subjunctive is used
where there is a dependence on some other act or
state of being. It is also used generally when pas-
sion, desire, or strong feeling is expressed; as: je
veux qu’il s’en aille. I wish him to go away; or,
literally, I will that he himself from this go. Verbs
also denoting joy, sorrow, doubt, fear, suspicion,
permission and prohibition, take the subjunctive.
But, to teach you every verb which requires the next
verb to be in the subjunctive would be to usurp the
office of the dictionary-maker, seeing that the dic-
tionary tells you when the verb requires the sub-
junctive after it. If you look for the verb permettre,
for instance, you will find that it is noted as govern-
ing the subjunctive. This verb causes the one that
follows it to be in the subjunctive; as: permettre
que je vous le dise: permit me to tell it you. If
this last verb, dire, tell, were in the indicative, it
would be dis; but being in the subjunctive, it is
dire. Now, observe:

vos savez que je le dis,
you know that I say it,
you permit me to say it.
vous jurez qu’elle le fait,
you swear that she does it.
vous desirez que l’elle le fasse,
you desire that she may do it.

Here, you see, are dis and dire, fait, and fasse, only
because savez and jurez govern the indicative, and
permettez and desirez the subjunctive. You see,
too, that there is a twisting in our English. We do
not say after permit and desire what we say after
know and swear. After desire we have a real sub-
junctive; may do.
415. However, the dictionary must be resorted to

here. When you are going to use a verb (until you
know them all), look to see whether it governs the
subjunctive. If it do, the verb which it so governs
must be put in the subjunctive mode.

416. The subjunctive mode has, in almost every
instance, que before it. Sometimes it has qui; but
not often. However, the use of these words is not
confined to this mode by any means; so that you
are not to suppose, that a verb is in the subjunctive
merely because it may have que or qui before it.

417. The French subjunctive, in the present time,
is very often used to answer to the English future
of the indicative; as:

Craignez-vous qu’elle ne Do you fear that she will die?
meure?
Croyez-vous qu’elle le fasse? Do you believe that she will do?
Pensez-vous qu’il vienne? Do you think that he will come?

A great deal of attention, and a great deal of writing,
will very soon put you in possession of a knowledge
of this matter. You see, that there is, in all these
cases, more or less of uncertainty, of doubt, of fear,
of something creating a dependance of one verb
upon the other. Still, however, always remember,
that, if you have any doubt, the safe way is to look
into the dictionary for the verb which is to govern
in the sentence. After all, there must, as to the ex-
amples just given, be something left to be acquired
by experience, by the habit of reading, writing and
speaking; for, while you may say, and, indeed, must
say, croyez-vous qu’elle le fasse; you must, if the
first verb be in any time but the present or the future
of the indicative, put the second verb in the past per-
fet of the subjunctive; as:

Croyez-vous qu’elle la fuit,
and not

Cropez-vous qu’elle la fasse.

Because croyez is not in the present, nor in the fu-
ture, of the indicative. There are certain pronouns
and conjunctions, which with que after them, govern
the Subjunctive mode. The pronouns are, quelque,
quòique and quel-que, when these words bear the
sense of whatsoever, whatever, or, however. This
mode is used also after si, when it answers to our
if; and also after si when si means so, or so much
of, or, when si has any such comparative
meaning and when it is followed by que.
Quelque riches qu'elle soit, However rich they may be.
Quoique vous soyez riches, Though you may be rich.
Quel-que soit le voy-
geurs, Whatever the travellers may be.
Quelques arbres qu'on puisse
avoir, Whatever trees they may have.
Quelque vieille qu'elle fût, However old she might be.
Quoiqu'il en soit, However it may be; or, be it as
it may.
Quelles que fussent ses seurs, Whatever his sisters might be.
Quoiqu'on endiace, they moura-
Si vous y alles et que vous y
réster, If you go there and remain
there.
Elle n'est pas si prudente qu'
elle n'ait jamais de faute,
 Ils n'étaient pas si généreux qu'
ils donassent tout leur bien.
418. There are certain Adjectives, which, with il
est (impersonal) before them, require the subjunctive
mode after them; or, as it is called, they govern
the subjunctive mode. I do not like to insert lists
of words: it is the business of the dictionary to do
that. But, as the dictionary does not always place
against these Adjectives the fact that they, with il
est before them, govern the subjunctive, I shall
insert these Adjectives here. They are as follows:
agréable, dur, juste,
ainé, disgracieux, injuste,
affligeant, ennuyeux, malheureux,
à propos, étonnant, mal-aisé,
bienfaisant, facile, moins (with ceut before it),
beau, fastidieux, mortissant,
chagrinant, grisâtre, nécessaire,
cruel, lugubre, possible,
expédient, heureux, platonien,
dangereux, important, sensible,
difficile, heureux, souvenant,
devant, imposant, doux,
douloureux, indifférent, dur.

These must have the il est before them to make
them require the subjunctive after them. Some of
them may always have c'est instead of il est; for,
you may say, il est impossible qu'il aille; or, c'est
impossible; but at any rate, you can always use
c'est, if you employ the word choose; as:
il est possible que cela soit,

When I say, the Impersonal il est, I mean il with
some part of the verb être. It may be il est, or il
était, or il sera, as we have seen in the Letter on
Impersonal verbs. You know this already; but, it
is not amiss to remind you of it. We, in English,
do not use this manner of expression, except with
some of these adjectives; or, rather with our own
adjectives that answer to these. We say, it is
possible that that may be; but, we do not say, it is
shameful that that may be. In this case we may
say should be. It is therefore necessary to attend to
the above rule. Write this list of adjectives down
ten or twenty times, and you will seldom forget
them afterwards. To fix a thing well in the memory,
there is nothing equal to the putting of it into
writing.
419. But, besides these Adjectives, there are cer-
tain nouns and conjunctions which also govern
the subjunctive mode. They, like the adjectives, all
have a meaning that makes us perceive, that there
is a dependance of one act, or state of being, on
another act, or state of being. The nouns are bien-
veillance, nécessité. These take the il est also; and
they take the article: d'une nécessité, de la bien-
veillance. Then there are moyen, honneur, deshonneur,
honte, gloire, with the article before them preceded
by il y a; as, il n'y a pas moyen qu'elle fasse cela.
420. You have seen instances enough already of
il faut requiring the subjunctive mode. Importer is
a verb, which means to signify, or, to be of con-
sequence, or, as we say, sometimes, to matter. To
signify is, in French, signifier; but they do not use
this verb very often to answer to our signify. They do not employ it commonly to express mattering, or being of consequence. They use the verb faire, in some cases, and the verb importer, in others; and in this case, importer requires the subjunctive after it; as: il importoit qu'ils le fissent, and not qu'ils le firent.

It is of consequence that you should be solen.

This verb importer, when used with il before it, is of great use in French. No expression in the whole language is more common than n'importe; and this answers to our no matter. This word importer is, mind, a verb, which is used in all its times, like another verb; but, we are now speaking of it in its capacity of Impersonal, used with que after it, and governing the subjunctive mode.

It was of no consequence whether they came or not.

Is it of any consequence whether we go or not?

Of what consequence is that? or what matters that? or what signifies that?

These two last examples do not belong, properly, to our present subject, because they do not include a subjunctive; but having this word importer in hand and knowing how much it is in use, it was right to dwell thus upon it. The phrases of no consequence, do not signify, is no matter, what signifies? are, as you know, of very common use in English. Those phrases which answer to them must, of course, be of very common use in French; and, therefore, it is of very great importance, it is absolutely necessary, for you to learn how these phrases are expressed in French. The French have, as well as we, the nouns

consequence and matter and the verb to signify: and they write them thus: conséquence, matière, signifier. We are, therefore, apt to (and indeed, we always do it till we learn better) use the words consequence, matter, and signify in French, in these cases; and this is a very great error. A few examples will make this matter plain to you, and will, I hope, prevent you from making, in such cases, literal translations of the English into French.

That is of no consequence, Cela n'est point de conséquence.

That does not signify, Cela ne signifie pas.

That is no matter, Cela n'est point de matière.

What does that signify? Qu'est-ce que cela signifie?

This is a literal translation as nearly as possible; and a Frenchman would certainly not comprehend you. He might guess at the meaning; but that would be all. The fourth French phrase is, indeed, good French; but it does not mean what it is here intended to mean. The French verb, signifier, though it sometimes answers to our verb signify, does not answer to it in this sense. In English signify has two meanings: one is, to mean, and the other, to be of consequence; and it is not used in this latter sense in French. Therefore, Qu'est-ce que cela signifie? means what does that mean? and not, what does that signify? Now, then, let us see:

That is of no consequence, Cela n'importe en rien.

That does not signify, Cela n'importe pas.

That is no matter, Cela n'importe pas.

What does that signify? Qu'est-ce que cela importe?

Does it signify? Importe-t-il?

Does it much matter? Importe-t-il beaucoup?

That did not signify much, Cela n'importe pas beaucoup.

Observe, that the verb faire (which is a great actor in French) may, in many such cases be used instead of importer: as: cela ne fait rien. There are some little differences in the use of the two; but, faire is more familiar than importer. But, mind (and this brings us back to our subject) il fait does not govern the subjunctive; nor is the verb faire one of those which require the subjunctive after it.
421. The verb convenir, when it is used as an impersonal, requires the subjunctive after it. This verb means to fit, to suit, to become, in short, to be convenient. It is a verb of great use, as ours which answer to it.

You see, here, that we, after our sitting, suits, and becomes, use our infinitives, to be and to go. The same may be done in French when there is a noun or pronoun the actor in the phrase: as:

Afin que
avant que
à la bonne heure que
au cas que
à moins que
à condition que
à Dieu ne plaise que
bien que
bien entendu que
bien loin que
ce n'est pas que
de peur que
de craindre que
Dieu veuille que
encore que
en cas que
excepté que
horrible que
hors que
loin que
malgré que
mayennant que
non que
non pas que
nonobstant que
pour que
post le cas que
pourvu que
pour peu que
plais, or plutôt, à Dieu que
quoique
stén que

422. The Conjunctions, mentioned at the beginning of paragraph 419, as governing the subjunctive mode, are thirty-seven in number, and are these which follow:

Avant que
si
Pour que
Pourvu que
En cas que
si

There are some conjunctions which govern the indicative mode, and some that govern the infinitive; but if you place the above list well in your memory, you will very soon cease to confound the modes, as far as they are governed by Conjunctions. The Conjunctions that govern the subjunctive have always que after them, but as there are some Conjunctions which have que after them, and which govern the indicative mode, mistakes will happen if you do not take great care. For instance:

au cas qu'il aille,
in case he go.
n'assiste qu'il y a,
as soon as he goes.
d'ailleurs que nous soyons,
except that we may be.
dès que nous serons,
as soon as we shall be.

You see, here, that the two conjunctions, that I have taken from the above list, have the verbs in the subjunctive mode. Look at the conjugation of aller and être. The act, in the first of the two examples, is to go. The actor is the third person in both instances. Yet, in one case, the verb is aille, and in the other it is va; and this is only because one of the verbs has au cas que before it, and the other aussitôt que. It would be useless to give a list of the conjunctions which govern the indicative; because all the conjunctions which govern the subjunctive have que, and all which have que before them, and which are not in the above list of thirty-seven, govern the indicative. Fix, therefore, the above thirty-seven, well in your memory; or, rather, make them familiar to your eye, and you will never make mistakes respecting them. Let us take a few examples relating to those conjunctions and their government of modes.

suppose that they did it,
provided that they did it,
unless they did it,
not that they did it,
When they did it, even as they did it, because they did it, besides that they did it, the moment they did it, the subjunctive is used after qui, when qui comes after an adjective in the superlative degree, or after a negative; as:

le plus joli jardin qu’il y ait dans ce pays-là.

and not

le plus joli jardin qu’il y a dans ce pays-là.

It is the qui, observe, coming after le plus, that demands the subjunctive of the verb. If there were no qui, or, if there were qui without the le plus, the indicative would be used. Let us take an example of the three.

la plus joli fille qu’il y ait in this town.
la plus joli fille est dans cette ville, in this town.
la joli fille qui est dans cette ville, the pretty girl that is in this town.

It is, you perceive, the superlative and the qui to-

Thus, you see, while it is always did in English, it is, in French, fissent above the line, and faisissent under the line. This difference is occasioned solely by the conjunctions. There is, you see, a very striking difference, between the form of the one and that of the other; and, the sound is very different also. It might have been firent instead of faisissent, the one being, as you know, the perfect and the other the imperfect of the indicative; but, neither bears much resemblance to fissent. It is, then, of great importance to have well fixed in your mind the conjunctions that require, or govern, the subjunctive. There are but thirty-seven of them. Write them over and over till they become very familiar to your eye; and then you will have only to bear in mind, that all other conjunctions followed by qui govern the indicative; and that these thirty-seven are all the conjunctions that govern the subjunctive.

423. The subjunctive is used after qui, when qui comes after an adjective in the superlative degree, or after a negative; as:

le plus joli jardin qu’il y ait dans ce pays-là.

Not only qui, however, but any other relative pronoun proceeding from qui, if such relative come between two verbs, expressing desire or necessity. But, first, let us take an example of the effect which the negative has upon the mode in this case.

il n’y a pas d’homme qui soit there is no man who is more plus estimé que lui, esteemed than he.

il y a un homme qui est plus there is a man who is more estimé que lui, esteemed than he.

je ne vois pas de fleurs qui soient je see no flowers which are finer plus belles que celles-ci, than these.

je vois des fleurs qui sont plus je see flowers which are more belles que celles-ci, finer.

These examples make the matter plain so far. They show you, that it is the negative, which requires the subjunctive, and which causes you to have, in the first examples, soit, while in the second, you have est, though both are in the present time and both in the third person singular, and though both are translated into English by is. The same remark applies to the third and fourth examples, except that they are in the plural instead of the singular. Here you have soient in one case and sont in the other, though both are translated into English by are. But, as I noticed above, any relative pronoun, proceeding from qui, if such relative come between two verbs, and if it relate to a person or thing that is desired, wanted, or wished for, requires the subjunctive; as:

I want a servant who is industrious, I me faut un domestique qui soit laborieux; find me a house that is large, trouvez moi une maison qui soit grande et commodé.

I wish to have a meadow that you think good, and that is to be sold, je veux un pré que vous trouvez bon, et qui soit à vendre.

However, if qui or que do not relate to a person or thing that is desired, wanted, or wished for; then the subjunctive is not used; as: je n’aime pas un domestique qui fait son devoir à contre cœur. But let us take an example or two more.
I want a garden which is well-situated,
he has a garden which is full of weeds,
tell me, said she, of a husband who is young and handsome and rich at the same time.
I despise a man who is nothing but rich,
I wish to have some flowers that you have in your basket.
I have seen some flowers that you have in your basket.

You see, when the qui or que: that is, the who or whom, or which, relate to a person or thing that is desired, or wished for, or for the having of which, or the existing of which there is necessity, want, or need; then the verb that follows must be in the subjunctive; otherwise not. This is, I think, made quite clear by the above examples.

424. It now remains for me to speak, as far as the subjunctive mode is concerned, of the different times of the subjunctive. There is a present, a past imperfect, and a past perfect. Now mark: when the verb which goes before the subjunctive is in the present, or in the future, of the indicative; then the present time of the subjunctive must be used: as:

You see it is vienne after the present and the future of the indicative, and vint after the past times and after the compound times.

425. We have might come in these examples; but, it is not always that this translation takes place. In the conjunctions, you find, you may be, put against vous souyez. But, though you may be is, in some cases, the translation of vous souyez, it is far indeed from being always such: now mind; for this is a very important matter. We have good use for one of our subjunctives here, in order to say, "il importe que vous fassiez là plus grande attention à ce que je dis":

That is enough! Here is souyez translated by may be, and, in the next line, by should be. Some grammarians say, that should does not belong to the subjunctive. Yet we here see it answering to souyez. In short, our signs, will, shall, should, would, could, may and might, cannot be reduced to any thing like a comparison with the different terminations of the French verbs. These signs, besides helping to show the time, have meanings which the endings of the French verbs have nothing at all to do with. The should, for instance, in the last of the above examples, has in it something of the meaning of ought. The French verbs do not answer to these signs, except in part. To answer to these signs, the French have principal verbs; of which I shall speak by-and-by. What I wish to do here, is, to caution you against supposing that might, should, and the rest of those words, are always translated into French in the same manner. Take another instance:

Here, in these two last examples there are the would and the may, in English, to answer to the French vienne. The truth is, that, besides express-
ing the wish of the party speaking, the would expresses the power to act in the person who is wished to come, while may simply expresses the wish that he may come.

426. There is one instance where the subjunctive is used without either verb or conjunction to govern it. This is in the case of the verb savoir, which, in the first person singular, and when it has a negative, takes the subjunctive instead of the indicative form: as: je ne sauche pas, instead of, je ne saute pas. But there must be a negative, mind, or else the rule does not hold good.

427. So much for the indicative and the subjunctive modes. I observed before, that the far greater part of the verbs, or rather, forms of verbs, are indicative. You may sometimes read whole pages of print without meeting with a verb in the subjunctive. But, there is, nevertheless, an absolute necessity to learn this part of the grammar well, in order to become a French scholar: for, observe, to say il faut que je vais is broken French. It is as bad and as broken as I must went, would be in English. The modes embrace some very abstruse matter; but, if there were no difficulties to overcome, there would be no honour and no pleasure in the acquisition.

428. The IMPERATIVE MODE. This will give us but little trouble. It has been fully explained in the Etymology. It subjects the verb to no changes. It has no times. It is simply the verb, in its present indicative time, uttered, or addressed to the second persons singular and plural, and, in the first person plural and the third persons of both numbers, it is the verb in the present of the subjunctive. The whole thing is, in fact, exhibited at the end of every one of the conjugations. I will, however, for convenience sake, exhibit it again here, and then make a few short remarks on the use of the imperative mode.

va, go, or go thou.
qu'il (or qu'elle) aille, let him, or her go.
Voici and voilà are used to express parts of our verb to be, used with our adverbs here and there: as:

here is a basket of cherries for voici un panier de cerises pour you.
there are ten baskets for them; voilà des paniers pour eux.

But, these words are made use of instead of that is, this is, and it is, and instead of other pronouns, used with être.

Le voici qui travaille, here he is working, or, at work.
La voilà qui chante, there she is singing.
Ne voilà-t-il pas une drôle, is not this an odd affair?

donnaire,
voici qui est beau, this is fine.
voilà qui est beau, that is fine.
voilà donc qui est fini, there then, it is all over.

In narratives, when the writer or speaker wishes to give life to his narrative, he uses voilà, and thus, in a manner, brings the persons and things before you: as:

il commence à pleuvoir, et moi, it began to rain, and there was voilà sans abri.
I without shelter.
comme nous allions nous mettre as we were sitting down to take a table voilà un messager quitter, a messenger entered the entre dans la salle à manger, a dining room.

In this last example there is, in the English, neither there nor is. The viola is not expressed at all; nor can it be with propriety. We do, indeed, see, even in printed translations, attempts to translate the voilà in sentences like this; we do hear translators say: “as we were sitting down to take a table voilà un messager entered.” But, this is not English language. We must have entered, and who enters; and, if we have not the entering in the present time, what becomes of the behold?
Take care, then, how you translate passages with voici, or voilà, in them.

ne voilà-t-il pas une belle, is it not a fine day?

j'ai donné au Monsieur que. I have given it to that gentleman.

I beg you to pay great attention to what I have said

with regard to these words. They are in constant use. They occur, perhaps, on an average, once a minute in every conversation. We may say, in French, il commence à pleuvoir, et j'étais à sans abri: but this is not French language, though the words are French.

430. THE INFINITIVE MODE. Read again (though you have so recently read it) paragraph 114, and then go on with me. One of the greatest differences in the two languages lies in the manner of employing the infinitive and the active participle. We, in English, make continual use of the latter; the French very little; and, in many cases where we always use it, they never can. This is the case, as we have seen, in the present and past times; as:

I am drinking, je bois, and je suis buvant.
you were eating, vous mangez, and vous êtes mangeant.

The three last are not only not good French, but they are nothing at all. They are letters and sounds, marks upon paper, and noise; but they form no part of language. Pray mind this: for, there is nothing that we English break ourselves of with so much difficulty as of the proneness to cling to our ings, and to force the French language to admit the words which literally answer to them.

431. The French use, in many cases, the infinitive, when we use the active participle; but I shall notice this more under the head of PARTICIPLES. The main thing respecting the infinitive is this: that, there are certain verbs and adjectives, which require de before the infinitive; certain other verbs and adjectives, which require à before the infinitive; certain other verbs that take neither de nor à nor any other preposition before the infinitive; certain other verbs that take neither de nor à before the infinitive; and, last of all, certain nouns that take de before the infinitive. But, to give any thing, under the name of rule, to teach you when to use à and when to use de, would be to disgust you at
the end of each of twenty rules, or more, there
must come more, perhaps, than twenty exceptions,
making four hundred in the whole; so that to enter
detail here would be to go far in the making
of a Dictionary.

433. But, there are these observations to make;
that when our English verb is followed by the pre-
position of, from, at, upon, about, with, or after,
before an active participle, the is commonly used
before the infinitive in French; and that, when our
preposition is, to, in or for, the French preposition
commonly is a; as:

I employ myself in writing, je m'occupe à écrire.
I keep myself from writing, je m'abstiens de lire.

That is to say, I employ myself in to write: I keep
myself from to write. The sense of the words af-
fords a good reason for the use of a, and of de, in
these cases: but this is far from being always the
case. The use of these pronouns, before verbs in
the infinitive, seems, in numerous cases, to be quite
capricious. All that we can say is, that the French
language will have it thus: and, that the difficulty
being great, our perseverance and patience must be
great also. However, you will, even by this time,
have acquired, from writing, reading, and speaking,
the habit of using a and de in a proper manner
three times out of four.

433. Besides de and a, there is pour, used before
the infinitives of French verbs. This pour is used
when our to means in order to, or for the purpose
of; as:

de l'eau pour boire, water to drink.

But, pour is also used in cases where we use for
followed by the active participle; as:
Il sera récompensé pour avoir travaillé. He shall be rewarded for having worked well.

We might say for working. But neither of these;
neither pour avoir nor pour travailler can be used
in French. Guard yourself against the attempt by
all means; for this mode of expression is no more

the language of the French than it is the language
of horses.

434. When the infinitive is (as was observed in
paragraph 118) a noun; as: to quarrel is disagree-
able; it may be expressed in French by the active
participle, as quarrelling is disagreeable. But, in
French, you must adhere to the infinitive, and say,
disputer est désagréable. It is much better to say,
it est désagréable de disputer; but, at any rate, you
must avoid translating quarrelling by disputant.

435. A verb which has before it a word expressing
sufficiency, or too much, takes pour; as: ils sont assez forts pour le faire: they are strong
enough, to do it. But, observe, if the word of suf-

cien
cy do not come before the verb, there is no
pour before it.

436. THE PARTICIPLES. In paragraph 117,
I spoke of the Participles; I told you why they
were so called; and, in the conjugations, you have
seen enough of them as far as relates to their for-

tation. I have just spoken also of our English active
participle as answering, in many cases, to the
French infinitive. This active participle is, with
us, verb, adjective, noun, alternately; as:

1. seeing, that he was going away, I spoke to him,
2. a seeing man is not easily deceived,
3. seeing is believing.

Now, as verb we use this participle in French; but
never as adjective, nor as noun. Therefore, when
we find it either of these, in English, we must give
the French phrase a wholly different turn.

1. Voyant qu'il s'en allait, je lui parlai.
2. Un homme qui sait n'est pas facile à tromper.
3. Votre c'est croir.

And never, un voyant homme, voyant c'est croire:
never, on any account is a word of this sort to be
considered an adjective or a noun. Therefore, this
participle is always indeclinable; that is, it never
changes its form to denote either number, or gen-
der. There are a few law-terms, indeed, that ap-
pear to be exceptions; but even these are not; and,
you will be sure to bear in mind, that it is, in French, _never_ adjective and _never_ noun. This constitutes one of the great differences in the two languages. When you have an ING to translate into French, take good care how you attempt to translate it by the French active participle.

437. Even in its _verbal_ capacity this participle must be used very sparingly. We, in English, say, for instance, instead of going: the French never: they say, _a lieu d’aller_: that is, instead of to go. After almost all the prepositions we, in English, use this participle; but the French use it after _en_ (in) only.

_after having_, _for fear of being_, _for want of asking_, _without speaking_, _by writing_, _instead of swimming_, _savo giving_.

I give you all these examples, that you may have a visible and striking proof of the difference in the two languages in this respect.

438. The active participle is frequently used after _en_ when it is a preposition, answering to _in_; and, at times, when it answers to our _by_, or _while_, and, perhaps, some other of our prepositions and adverbs; as:

-en faisant cela vous m’oblige – _in doing_ that you will much more be obligé.
-C’est en étudiant qu’on apprend une langue étrangère._ _by studying_ that one _learns_ a foreign language.
-tout en brandissant mon omelette, elle me tomba._ _while_ she _were_ burning my omelette she kept crying me from head to foot.

I have introduced this word _toiser_ to give you an instance of how much is sometimes said by a word more than can be said by any other word (answering to that one) in another language.

439. The active participle is, as we have seen, in some cases, in English, a _noun_; as, _the falling_ of the house killed the inhabitants. Here are article, _noun_ in the nominative case, verb, and _noun_ in the objective case. Literally the sentence would be thus translated:

_The falling of the house killed_ the inhabitants,

_Le tombant de la maison tua_ les habitants.

Now, mind, the like of this can never be said in French. The language of geese would be as intelligible to a Frenchman as this. You must say,

_Le château de la maison tua_ the inhabitants,

_or_ _Le maison, en tombant, tua_ les habitants.

Either of these English phrases will do; but neither is so good as that from which the French language flees as from head-splitting dissonance. Whenever there is, in English, an article, a possessive pronoun, or any word, which, being put before the active participle, shows it to be a _noun_, it never can be rendered in French by the active participle, unless with _en_; it must be answered by a _noun_ or by an _infinitive_:

_the bleating of the sheep_, _le bêlement des moutons_.
_the cheating of his master_, _la fourberie fait à son maître_.
_the cause of his going away_, _la cause pour quoi il s’en alla_.

BOILEAU, in one of his poems, addressed to Louis XIV. exclaims:

“Grand Roi! cesse de vaincre ou je cesse d’écrier.”

Now though we say,

_Great King, cease to conquer, or I cease to write_,

we may also say,

_Great King, cease conquering, or I cease writing_; but this you must never attempt to say in French; and against such attempts I cannot too often caution you. I know of no part of our language, which so puzzled me to turn into French, as those sentences in which we find the _article_, or the _possessive_ pronoun, before our _active participle_; and I cannot refrain from adding another example or
two in order to make this matter quite clear to
you.

The running away of the army, the left town exposed to the enemy.

The defeat of the enemy, the left town exposed to the enemy.

His perfect sobriety and his perfect parfaite state grand.

Great industry has been the cause of his being so much respected.

Her being young is much in her favour.

Their coming hither has ruined them. It has ruined to a cause quite.

I expect his coming with great impatience.

Our going to America was expected by nobody.

Your landing your sight was such a thing that you may well

His coming here has made it do fortune.

Her pleasing them made her a rich husband.

Nothing can more strongly characterize the two languages. Not the least resemblance is there between them in this respect.

440. It only remains for me to speak of the employing of the French active participle before an adjective, or before a passive participle, or with que before a noun, or a pronoun; as:

having been at the play last, saying that it was going to you, which all the pleuvoir.

having heard that they were going, perceiving that it was not very apparis qu'il n'alloit pas late.

knowing very well that she had not come, believing that he dared not go.

The manner of using the participle is, in this case, nearly the same in both languages. We say, having seen; the French say, ayant vu: we say, seeing that; they say, voyant que. So that, in this respect, there is no difference worth speaking of. Indeed, nearly all that you have to do with regard to the French active participle is never to employ it as an adjective, nor as a noun.

441. We now come to the passive participle.

You know it well, as to what it comes from, and as to the reason of its name. You ought to go back to paragraph 117, and there read my description of the nature of the participles. Here you see, then, that, while the active participle sometimes performs the office of an adjective, at others of a verb, and, at others, of a noun, the passive participle sometimes performs the office of an adjective, and, at others, of a verb. We have just seen a great deal about the active participle; but, let us take a view of both together; thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{active,} & \quad \text{a} \text{proscribing man,} & \quad \text{un homme qui proscrie.} \\
\text{proscribing,} & \quad \text{a} \text{man who is proscribing,} & \quad \text{un homme qui est à proscrire} \\
\text{proscribing is horrible,} & \quad \text{proscrier est horrible.} \\
\text{passive,} & \quad \text{a} \text{proscribed man,} & \quad \text{un homme qui a proscri.} \\
\text{proscribed,} & \quad \text{a} \text{man who has proscribed,} & \quad \text{un homme qui a proscri.}
\end{align*}
\]

Here we see both these words in all their functions. It is the passive participle that we have now to do with; and here you see in it both its capacities, namely, that of an adjective and that of a verb. These distinctions would be useless, were the form of the word always the same. Little need we, English, care, when our passive participle is adjective, or when it is verb, seeing that we always write it with the same letters. The active participle is, in both languages, unchangeable in its form, and is, therefore, attended with little difficulty, compared with the passive participle, which, in French, is
liable to changes in its form; which, in fact, like an adjective, changes its form to agree in number and gender with its noun; and which makes its changes precisely according to the rules laid down in Letter VII., for the forming of the numbers and genders of adjectives. How different from our passive participle, which never undergoes any changes of form! It is always written in the same way. We say a proscribed man, a proscribed woman; but the French must say un homme proscrit, une femme proscrite. We say two proscribed men; they, deux hommes proscrits. But, we know how to form plural numbers and feminising genders? Yes; but, the French passive participle is not, in all cases, liable to changes of form. It is, in some cases a word, which, like an adverb, has no changes of form. And, our difficulty is, to know, when we ought to make it a changable word, and when we ought not. This is a real difficulty, though it, like all our other difficulties, is to be quickly overcome, if we be attentive and industrious. You must perceive, that it is of great consequence to know, when you are to write (and pronounce also) proscrit, when proscrits, when proscrite, and when proscribles. And, mind, you cannot ascertain this from the Dictionary, as you can the gender of nouns and many other things. This is a matter which depends upon the construction of the sentence, and upon other circumstances, which are of infinite variety and are purely contingent. In such a case, therefore, no Dictionary can exhibit examples to be of any use. Take an instance in the use of the passive participle of our old acquaintance, Tué.

Puis tué une brebis et après-midi; mais elle n'est pas si bonne que la brebis que j'ai tuée ce matin.

Now, you see, here, that the person who kills is the same in both instances, the thing killed is, in both instances, the same in number and in gender; and yet, in one instance we make use of tué, and,

in the other, of tuée. In the first instance we use the participle without changing its termination, and, in the last, we change its termination to make it agree in gender with brebis. Take a few more examples:

Avez-vous tué la poule? Have you killed the hen?
Oui; je l'ai tué.

Oui; je les ai tuées.
Avez-vous tué les poules? Have you killed the hens?
Oui; je les ai tuées.
Avez-vous tué le coq? Have you killed the cock?
Oui; je l'ai tué.

Avez-vous tué les coqs? Have you killed the cocks?
Oui; je les ai tués.

Thus, you see, it is always killed in English, though it is tué, tuée, tués, or tué in French. And you see, that these changes take place in the French participle only sometimes. You see, that tué and tuée are both applied to the killing of the poule; that tué and tués are both applied to the killing of the poules; and that it is the same with regard to the killing of the coq, and the coqs. It is clear, then, that the changes in the form of the passive participle must depend, not upon the numbers and genders of the nouns only, but partly upon the construction of the sentences; that is to say, the manner in which, with regard to other words, the participle stands in the sentence.

442. Let us now see, then, what rules we can take for our guide here, beginning with those cases in which the passive participle is subject to the changes above mentioned.

First. It is subject to change (generally speaking) when it has the verb être before it. But, mind, this is only generally. It is, however, always, subject to change, when it is used merely as an adjective. I will take the verb proscire for my illustration here, as far as it will suit. Proscire is, you know, (see paragraph 201), conjugated like écrire, which you find conjugated in paragraph 216. The passive participle is, you see, écrit; and, therefore, the passive participle of proscire is proscrit...
crit. This, to make the plural masculine, changes to *proscrits*; to make the singular feminine, it changes to *proscrire*; and, to make the plural feminine, it changes to *proscrites*.

Now, then, observe, the passive participle is always subject to change its form when it is used merely as an adjective; as:

- un homme *proscrit*, a proscribed man.
- deux hommes *proscrires*, two proscribed men.
- deux femmes *proscrites*, two proscribed women.

Now, observe, this is invariably the case, when the participle is thus used plainly and clearly as an adjective. But, we ought to notice, that the *être* is understood in all these instances; but, we mean, un homme qui a été proscri: a man who has been proscribed. The passive participle is, as I said before, generally subject to change when it comes after the verb *être*. And, mind, the passive participle must always have either *être* or *avoir* before it. For, though we use it sometimes without expressing *être*, that verb is, in such cases, as we have just seen, always understood. Well, then, let us see, first, how the participle is used with *être*, and then, how it is used with *avoir*.

**Second.** The participle changes its form when it is used with *être*, when the verb to which it belongs is a neuter verb, or when it is a passive verb, whether reflected or not; as:

- Neuter Verb: Il est parti, he is gone away.
- Elles sont partis, elles sont partis, they are gone away.
- Elle est partis, she is gone away.
- Elles sont partis, they are gone away.
- Il est proscri, he is proscribed.
- Elle est proscrie, she is proscribed.
- Il s'est coupé, he has cut himself.
- Elles n'ont coupé, elle s'est coupée, ils se sont coupés, they have cut themselves.
- Elles se sont coupées, she has cut herself.

But, now, there are some seeming exceptions to this; and these you must very exactly attend to.

If the verb *être* can have its place conveniently supplied by *avoir*, which often happens in using the participles of reflected verbs, the participle does not change its form; as:

- Elle s'est coupé le bras, She has cut her arm.

You see, this may be expressed by *avoir*: elle a coupé son bras. But, the truth is, that here is *action*, and the action is done to the arm. The participle is not *really passive*. It has *être* before it, but *être* as you know, is used instead of *avoir* in conjugating the reflected verbs. The two participles *allé* and *venu*, when there is a pronoun in the objective case before *être* and a verb after the participle, do not change their form; as:

- Il lui est allé parler, he is gone to speak to him.
- Ils leur ont allé parler, they are gone to speak to them.

But, this is not the case, if the place of the pronoun in the objective case be changed; for then the participle does change its form; as:

- Il est allé lui parler, he is gone to speak to him.
- Ils ont allé lui parler, they are gone to speak to them.

In the first of these cases (*allé parler*), the two words make in some sort, but one. *Gone to speak to*. But, in the latter case, there is a clear separation. The verb *être* is the only one that has any connection with *allé*. *Speak to* is a fresh verb, and it governs *les* in the objective case; whereas in the former instance *allé parler* govern *lui* and *leurs*.

But, besides, *allé* and *venu*, there are some participles which do not, when followed by another verb, change their form, though they have *être* before them; as:

- le livre qu'il s'est proposé de, the book that he has proposed to read.
- les livres qu'il s'est proposé de lire.

Here is no change in the form of the participle; and the reason is, that, in such cases as this, the participle is closely connected with the verb that follows. The proposing to read and the reading make but one *affair*, one act.
443. Thir. I now come to the use of the passive participle with avoir. Generally the participle does not change its form, when it has any part of avoir before it. Let us take avoir with proscrit and coupé. We cannot take it with parti; for avoir is not used with neuter verbs.

Il a proscrit;                        he has proscribed.
Il est proscrit;                     they have proscribed.
Elle a proscrit;                    she has proscribed.
Elles ont proscrit;                 they have proscribed.
Il a coupé;                        he has cut.
Il est coupé;                       they have cut.
Elle a coupé;                      she has cut.
Elles ont coupé;                   they have cut.

Here, you see, there are no changes in the form of the participle as there are when it is used with être. But this is not always the case: and now we are going to see how the participle is affected by the construction of the sentence, of which I spoke at the close of paragraph 441, and which you will now look at again. You saw in paragraph 441, the instances of posàe and cog. Look at them again; and then we will take another example.

Il a proscrit l'an dernier; les femmes qu'il a proscrites il y a un an. He has proscribed the women who he proscribed last year.

Here the person who proscribed is the same in both cases, the persons proscribed are the same in both cases, and yet, the participle does not change its form in one case, to express number and gender, and does change its form for that purpose in the other case. Now, the reason is this: in the first instance the participle has an active meaning, and in the second, a passive meaning. In both instances we have the compound time of the verb proscire; but, in the first, the object is to express what the man has done; and, in the second, to express what the women have had done to them. In the latter instance the meaning is passive; it means that the women were proscribed, furent proscrites, last year. The participle, in this last instance,
The other exception is similar to that mentioned in the last paragraph; namely, that, when the participle is followed by a verb, which, together with the participle expresses but one idea, when the two are rather one word than two; as: the man that I have seen killed; the woman that I have made sing; the coat that I have had made. When this is the case, though the pronoun, or noun, which is in the objective, come before the participle, the participle does not change its form; as:

- l'homme que j'ai vu tuer,
- la femme que j'ai vu tuer,
- l'homme que j'ai fait chanter,
- la femme que j'ai fait chanter,
- les femmes que j'ai fait chanter,
- l'habit que j'ai fait faire,
- les habits que j'ai fait faire,
- l'homme que j'ai entendu parler,
- les hommes que j'ai entendu parler.

You see, that in all these cases, there is a verb coming after the participle, and expressing, together with the participle, but one idea. If it were not for this reason, the participle would change its form; as:

- l'habit que j'ai fait,
- les habits que j'ai faits.

There is another exception; but it seems rather matter of taste: good authors differ in opinion about it. I will, however, give an example or two relating to it. The French sometimes put the nominative case after the verb; thus: le taureau qu'a vendu Jacques. The usual order of the words is, le taureau que Jacques a vendu. Now, these authors say, that when the nominative is placed, thus, after the verb, the participle is indeclinable; as:

- le taureau que Jacques a vendu Jacques,
- la vache que Jacques a vendu Jacques,
- les taureaux qu'a vendu Jacques.

If the nominative had gone before the verb, the participle must have changed its form; as:

- le taureau que Jacques a vendu,
- la vache que Jacques a vendu,
- les vaches que Jacques a vendues.
The same authors insist, that, when there comes, next after the participle, a noun, in the objective case, or an adjective relating to the noun or pronoun which has gone before, the participle ought not to change its form. Monsieur Restaure gives this example: Dieu les avoit créé innocents. The les (them) would require créés; but, those authors say, that the adjective innocent, coming after the participle, and having relation to les, the participle ought not to change its form. However, this seems to be a disputed point: we may adopt either the one manner or the other; and I have mentioned this matter here only to enable you to account for what might otherwise appear strange to you. I here conclude my remarks on the passive participle. They are long; but the matter is of uncommon importance. Every page of French print contains, in general, many of these words. When you are about to use one of them, you cannot, as in the case of the gender of nouns, get your information from the Dictionary. You must have it, if you have it at all, from principles and rules. — I shall now give you an exercise relating to the Modes of Verbs, which, of course, include the Participles.

EXERCISE XVI.

1. She is not rich enough to live without working.
2. He did that to provoke his brothers and sisters.
3. They will be too wise to prevent the land from being cultivated.
4. What does he deserve for having betrayed his country to its most deadly enemy?
5. Coming here has made the fortunes of thousands of adventurers.
6. Putting up a house on that barren spot of land is very unwise.
7. Study constantly if you be in good health.
8. Give to the poor rather than take from them.
9. Little means as she may have, she makes a pretty good figure.
10. It is for you to talk to them about an affair which belongs to you.
11. It is very proper for you to take effectual means to punish him.
12. He is exceedingly addicted to the shameful vice of gaming.
13. I am tired of living here and doing nothing.
14. Go and tell my bailiff to come to me as soon as he can.
15. Go and inquire about our neighbour who was so ill the other day.
16. They greatly rejoice at your victory over your enemies.
17. By going to London you will gain a great deal.
18. In minding your business you will make yourself and your parents happy.
19. I wish with all my heart that you may do it.
20. I know nothing more fortunate than that.
21. It is better for a country to be destroyed than for it to be governed by wicked men.
22. It was better for him to go on horse-back than to ride in a coach.
23. It is of great consequence that they should explicitly declare themselves.
24. I do not believe that the weather will be fine tomorrow.
25. If the fine weather begin and continue for some time.
26. He is the greatest rogue in the whole world.
27. Coming to England has saved his life.
28. Going to France, in the summer time, is very pleasant.
29. Mowing, or reaping, is hard work.
30. It does not become you to be very nice about it.
31. Whatever they may say about it, it is a bad affair.
32. I know nothing more provoking than that.
33. Few things are more dishonourable than lying.
34. Drinking to excess soon makes a man despised.
35. Eating, drinking and sleeping are necessary.
36. I am very sorry that your brother is not come.
37. Why should he not come next week?
38. It seems that they set off very early in the morning.
39. Is it well known, that the town is taken?
40. It is well known, that the town is taken.
41. It is clear as day-light that the evil will come.
42. It is not quite clear that the evil will come.
43. It was evident, that he could not defend himself.
44. It was not evident that he could not defend himself.
45. It seems to me that you are in the wrong.
46. It seems that he is in the wrong.
47. It is not just, nor is it decent, that he should do that.
48. Do you believe that you will come next Saturday?
49. Would to God that he were well.
50. Were you to lose your fortune you ought to go.
51. God grant that she may recover her health.
52. You say that she will recover: God send it!
53. I hope she will not die. God forbid!
54. God forbid that I should do any such thing.
55. What! should we pardon them for that?
56. What do you want me to do?
57. I want you to rise early and to be industrious.
58. I want a good saw. Do you think that I shall find one?
59. I think that you will not find one in this village.
60. I do not doubt you will find one in the town.
61. They must be very industrious if they suppress him.
62. I do not doubt of that, I confess.
63. I doubt that he will do it.
64. I doubt that he will not do it.
65. I do not believe that she will come next week.
66. His talking to them has done the mischief.
67. Their babbling has made their master angry.
68. The singing of birds is very delightful.
69. What I like best in birds is their singing.
70. Though he sell his land, he will not be ruined.
71. He was killed during the last war.
72. The tents have been taken by the enemy.
73. The tents which the enemy has taken.
74. What tents has he taken?
75. He has taken all the tents that we had.
76. I am surprised that you have done it.
77. They are writing in my room.

78. You have lost your money by not having asked for it.
79. It is very indecent to behave in this manner.
80. My father is seeking for a large and fine farm.
81. They are very angry that you have been able to do it.
82. They insist absolutely that she shall stay no longer.
83. We were all very much surprised.
84. There are four men planting trees.
85. I see the greyhounds running after the hare?
86. Bring us some good and hot coffee.
87. Let us have a large and fat leg of mutton.
88. I am far from saying or from thinking, that she will die.
89. There he is coming to ask you how you do.
90. This is my whip: there is yours: and there is theirs.
91. Do you suppose that I will give you my house and furniture for nothing?
92. The corn was sold in the market.
93. The apples were sold to him.
94. The oxen were sold last week.
95. The cows have been sold this week.

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LETTER XXIV.

SYNTAX OF VOULOIR, POUVOIR, AND DEVOIR.

My dear Richard,

444. Before you enter on the subject of this letter, look at paragraphs 424 and 425. Indeed, you must not only look at them but read them with attention. You see, then, that the different endings, the differences in the form, of the French verbs, are not always sufficient to express in French that which is expressed in English by our little words, which are called signs, and which are, shall, will, can, could, might, should, would and ought. We
have must besides; but that is, as we have seen, answered by the il faut of the French. Let us take an example of this insufficiency.

I shall come here to-morrow; je viendrai ici demain.
I will come here to-morrow; je viendrai ici demain.

Thus, you see, there is only one French word, viendrai, to answer to shall come, and will come; and, we all know how different these are in their meanings. When I say I shall come, I simply tell you of my intention; but, will come, expresses my resolution, or at least, a promise, or assurance, on my part. Yet, the French verb has no change to express this difference. Their verb does for the simple telling or announcing; but, to do justice to I will, the French must have some other word, or words, brought in; such as, je vous promets or je suis résolu.

You shall not have that card, vous n'aurez pas cette carte.
You will not have that card, vous n'aurez pas cette carte.

The French verbs are the same, you see, in both cases; but, in the first phrase, I express my will and determination against your having the card; and, in the second, I merely foretell or observe, that you will not have the card. See, now, how the proper translation of these two English phrases would stand, supposing me to be talking to you.

You shall not (l je ne veux pas que vous ayez cette carte—or have that card, je ne vous permettrais pas d'avoir cette carte.
You will not have that card, vous n'aurez pas cette carte.

In the latter case I say, in this French phrase, simply, that you will not have the card; but, in the other case, I say, my will is that you have not the card; or, I will not permit you to have the card. So that, you clearly see that the changes in the form of the French verb are by no means sufficient to express that which is expressed in English by our little words. As long as the business of the verb is merely to announce or declare, the French changes answer the purpose pretty well; but, wherever our little words or verbal signs; wherever there is will, permission, power, or duty expressed by these signs; there the changes in the form of the French verb fail of being sufficient for the purpose of answering fully and clearly to our verbs.

446. But, the French have words, which (in great part at least) make up for this deficiency. These are three verbs which express, respectively, will, power, and duty; and which, therefore, are employed to answer (in most cases) to our will and would; our may, can, could, and might; and our should and ought. I say in great part, in most cases; because, there is no complete rule as to the matter. You will observe (and, indeed, you must already have observed in the conjugations), that vouloir, pouvoir, and devoir, are verbs complete in all their parts. In short, you know them perfectly well in all their numbers, persons, times, and modes; and you can, I hope, write down the conjugations of them without looking even at your card of verbs. You will, however, mind, now, that vouloir means to will, to be willing, to desire, to wish, to be determined, to be resolved, and when in the negative, it expresses objection and opposition. You will mind also, that pouvoir means, to be able, to have power, to have liberty or permission, to do or to be. Mind, moreover, devoir, though it means to owe, means also to have the duty of doing or of being. Now, then, mind, that, in general, these signs of ours are answered by some part of these French verbs, as placed in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Verb</th>
<th>French Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td>vouloir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>pour s'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>pouvoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>devoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
<td>il faut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>devoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>pouvoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>pouvoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>devoir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought</td>
<td>devoir</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After all, however, you must bear in mind, that it is not always that any of these signs are thus turned...
into French. But, you will soon learn (after all that you have learned) to make use of these important French words properly.

446. We will begin with vouloir. When we make use of our signs, will, would, the French employ the infinitive of their verb; and they employ some part of vouloir to answer to our will, or would; as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I will kill,} & \quad \text{je veux tuer.} \\
\text{you will kill,} & \quad \text{vous voulez tuer.} \\
\text{they will kill,} & \quad \text{ils veulent tuer.}
\end{align*}
\]

This is always the manner of turning these signs into French. Our will applies to both present and future. I suppose it here to apply to the present, where it expresses will or resolution, and must be translated by vouloir. When it simply intimates, or foretells, the changes in the French verb are sufficient; as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{you will kill,} & \quad \text{vous tuez.} \\
\text{he will kill,} & \quad \text{il tuer.}
\end{align*}
\]

The French, you see, take our principal verb; they translate it; they put it in the infinitive; they then put before it a part of the verb vouloir, to answer to our will or would. Thus, in this sentence:

\[
\text{I will write in spite of him,} \quad \text{je veux écrire malgré lui.}
\]

You see, they take our write (not our to write), and put écire in place of it; and then they put a part of their verb vouloir, according to mode, number and person. If, instead of will, or would, we use any part of to wish, to desire, to be willing, or the like, the French take this verb, and translate it by some part of vouloir; as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I wish him to write to me,} & \quad \text{je veux qu’il m’écrive.} \\
\text{I desire him to write,} & \quad \text{je veux qu’il écrive.}
\end{align*}
\]

We may also say, je souhaitez qu’il m’écrive, je désire qu’il écrive; but custom and idioms lean strongly towards vouloir. I should observe before I quit this verb, that, when we use the verb to be willing, or any expression of the same, or nearly

the same, meaning the French, in rendering the phrase, put bien before vouloir; as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I am willing for him to write,} & \quad \text{or} \quad \text{je veux bien qu’il écrive.} \\
\text{I consent to his writing,} & \quad \text{or} \quad \text{je veux bien qu’il écrive.}
\end{align*}
\]

When we use the verb to have with will or would, the French use vouloir without noticing our to have; as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{we will have him go,} & \quad \text{we voulons qu’il y aille.} \\
\text{you would have it so,} & \quad \text{vous le vouliez ainsi.} \\
\text{they would always have it their own way,} & \quad \text{ils le voulent toujours à leur manière.} \\
\text{I will have it so,} & \quad \text{je le veux ainsi.}
\end{align*}
\]

When we make use of the verb want to express wishing or desiring, the French render it by vouloir; and, in this way vouloir is in very common use; as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{what do you want?} & \quad \text{quoi voulez-vous?} \\
\text{I want some bread and some wine, if you please.} & \quad \text{je veux du pain, et du vin, s’il vous plaît.} \\
\text{I want to see fine weather.} & \quad \text{je voudrais voir un beau temps.} \\
\text{she does not know what she wants.} & \quad \text{elle ne sait ce qu’elle veut.}
\end{align*}
\]

Very numerous are the uses of the verb vouloir; but what has been here said respecting it, will, I trust, be sufficient.

447. Pouvoir. This word, besides being a verb, is a noun, meaning power. As a verb, its meaning has just been described in paragraph 446. The verb pouvoir means, then, in general, to be able. Our may, might, can, and could, are all translated into French by pouvoir. Great care is necessary, in foreigners, to distinguish when one of these is to be used, in English, and when the other; but there is no difficulty in turning them into French, seeing that they are all rendered into that language by one and the same verb. And, as to the circumstances of time and mode and person, the French verb changes its form as in other cases. It is, in fact, the conjugation of pouvoir, with another verb: pouvoir, like vouloir, being used, in this case, instead of our signs; examples:
When an English phrase, having either of these words in it, is to be put into French, look to pouvoir.

448. We now come to Devoir, which answers to our should and ought; or, at least, to should generally, and to ought always. Devoir means to owe, and our ought is, doubtless, a part of our verb to owe; for, what is, I ought to go, but I owe to go? The origin of should is less evident; but, the main difference in the two is, that ought takes the to after it before a verb, and that should does not. This shuts out should from being used before infinitives, and ought from being used before the other parts of the verb. But, in the eye of the French language they appear to be of equal merit and power; for Devoir answers to both; as:

You ought to be obedient to your master, vous devez obeir. You should be obedient to your master, vous devriez obeir.

There is, however, this difference in these two English verbal signs; that ought always implies duty, while should does not always do this. And, which is the material point for us, ought must always have doit to answer to it, while should may be rendered by a change in the form of the French verb; as:

if he should travel in Spain, s’il voyageât en Espagne. If he ought to travel in Spain, s’il devrait voyager en Espagne.

Devoir is made use of sometimes for most. It is in cases where most does not imply any command or necessity; as: you must be very hungry; vous devez avoir grand faim. You may say, in French, il faut que vous ayez grand faim. One may be as good as the other; but, observe this phrase; il doit se marier demain. You cannot say, as a translation to this, he must be married to-morrow. Neither will should or ought do. The real English of it is: he is to be married to-morrow. You see that these verbs are of great importance. They answer to whole English phrases in many instances. They are of more consequence than hundreds of other

you may come next week, vous pouvez venir la semaine prochaine.

he may go away when he will, il peut aller quand il veut.

eyou can read and write very well, ils peuvent lire et écrire fort bien.

they could not come yesterday, nous ne pouvons venir hier.

they might be rich if they possessed more riches et ils pourraient être riches.

Thus, then, it is merely conjugating the verb pouvoir, as in the case of vouloir, and putting the French principal verb in the infinitive. This verb, like vouloir, is in constant use, as, indeed, it must, from the nature of its functions, necessarily be. It is often employed to express capability, possibility, and the like, and in many other cases which have nothing to do with can, could, may, and might; or, at least, where they are not employed in English; as:

that is not possible, cela ne se peut.

he was quite done for, il est tout fini.

These are odd expressions. Such they appear to us; but, they are correct, and they are lively and smooth. However, they forcibly characterize this verb pouvoir. Again:

can he come? peut-il venir?

may he ride your horse? peut-il monter votre cheval?

could he ride your horse? pouvait-il monter votre cheval?

could he not ride my horse? ne pouvait-il pas monter mon cheval?

Mind, in some cases savoir is employed synonymously with pouvoir. In this sense savoir means to know how; and, if you observe, to know how to do a thing is, in English, nearly the same thing as to be able to do it; as:

I know how to make books,—je sais faire des livres.

I am able to make books, je peux faire des livres.

But, it is pouvoir that you are to look to for the answering to our signs may, might, can, and could.
verbs. They are amongst the pivots, on which the French language turns. To this knowledge that I have of their importance you have to ascribe this present Letter, which, when I have added a short Exercise to it, will, I trust, leave you with very little to do in the learning of the French language.

EXERCISE XVII.
1. Now will I give you the seventeenth Exercise.
2. Shall it be a long one, or a short one?
3. If I should find your son, I will send him home.
4. He would soon make a fortune, if he might work the mines.
5. Would you soon make a fortune if you might soon work them?
6. I cannot ride that wicked horse without breaking my neck.
7. You and he might take that liberty, but she might not.
8. She ought not to do it at any rate.
9. You should give him that farm.
10. If he could give it to them he would do it.
11. He will go from this place, and his brother shall go.
12. We shall sell our corn and wine and they shall sell theirs.
13. They shall have all that I ought not to keep.
14. I am very willing to let you stay here.
15. But I am unable to give you victuals and drink.
16. Can that be? What can he want with me?
17. What do they want with us?
18. Is it possible that they want our money?
19. Can there be such wicked people in the world?
20. Did they wish to see the town on fire?
21. Will you have some kidney beans, or some peas?
22. I do not want any of either.
23. What do you wish to have, then?
24. Shall she have some flowers?
25. Does she desire to have any of those that I sowed?
Inclusive, I gave you rules for the forming of the words of this part of speech. You will now read all those paragraphs over again, and pay strict attention to what you find in them.

450. I have, in this place, only to make a remark or two as to the placing of the adverb in sentences. The place of the French adverb is, in many cases, the same as that of our adverb; but not in all cases. It generally comes after a verb and before an adjective; as:

- Il travaille bien, they work well.
- Le vin est très-bon, the wine is very good.

451. When the French verb is in the infinitive, the adverb is sometimes put before it, when it is not put before it in English; as: pour bien faire; in order to do well. But, this is very rarely the case.

452. When adverbs are compounded; that is to say, consist of more than one word, (as was before fully explained), they follow the verb invariably. There is, and there can be, no difficulty attending the use of this part of speech. The only difference, worth notice, in the two languages, with respect to the using of the adverb, is this: the French hardly ever put the adverb before the verb, and we often do it; as: je *écris souvent*; and not, as we say, je *soup* écris.

**EXERCISE XVIII.**

1. They, at this moment, do not know it.
2. They do not now go on horse-back.
3. It is the fashion now-a-days to go on foot.
4. I will do it directly.
5. She came yesterday and also the day before.
6. Formerly there were trees in that field.
7. They told me of it before.
8. You must come hither to-morrow.
9. I beg you to write to me very soon.
10. I often eat cherries and apples.
11. They will very soon finish their work.
12. We shall write to-morrow or next day.
13. He will go shortly, to see his father.

**LETTER XXVI.**

**SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.**

My dear Richard,

453. It is almost mere matter of form to make separate divisions relative to the Syntax of these indeclinable parts of speech. The words belonging to them are nothing of themselves; they cannot be used without nouns, pronouns, and verbs; and therefore, in treating of the Syntax of these, I have, in fact, treated of that of Prepositions.

454. Go back, however, to paragraph 38; and also to the whole of Letter XI, including paragraphs from 152 to 161. Pay attention to what you there find; and, there is little to add here. The business of Syntax is, first, to teach us how to make our words agree with each other in sen-
translations. There can be no disagreement in the case of prepositions; for they never change their form. Then, as to government, prepositions, when put before nouns and pronouns, cause them to be in the objective case. But, this has been most amply explained in the letters relating to nouns and pronouns. As to the placing of the prepositions in the sentence, there is no difference worthy of notice in the two languages. We say, in the house, for the horse, to the town, against the door, upon the floor; and the French say dans la maison, pour le cheval, à la ville, contre la porte, sur le plancher. There are certain French prepositions, which, in different cases, must be rendered in English in a different manner. It is nearly the same with regard to our prepositions, when rendered in French. I have before noticed, that, while we say, think of a thing, the French say, think to a thing. But, to notice all the instances of difference between the two languages would require a book ten times as large as the French and English Dictionary in quarto. It would, besides, be to load the memory in vain; seeing that all the difficulties arising from this cause are speedily removed by practice.

**EXERCISE XIX.**

1. Have you thought of the affair that I spoke to you of?
2. Yes; but I do not know what to do about it.
3. Whose book is that? It is John’s or his sister’s.
4. The house must be built by next Christmas.
5. They fought with bayonets and swords.
6. You enjoy your riches.
7. They live near to your country-house.
8. You ought to obey your master.

I give these few instances merely to warn you against literal translation. You will see, that the French say, near of your house; and obey to your master; and enjoy of your riches. But, a short time will give you a complete knowledge of all these matters.

**LETTER XXVIII.**

**TRANSLATION OF THE EXERCISES.**

**Exercise.**

My dear Richard,

436. The Translation of the Exercises is given, in order that you, when you have finished your translation of an Exercise, may refer to this Translation, in order to see whether you have done your work correctly. But, mind, it would be mere childishness to be looking at this translation, until you have finished an Exercise. When you have finished an Exercise, and consulted with your Grammar as to every phrase in it: then make a fair copy of it: look at it attentively over and over again; and, when you have made it what you look upon as complete: when you have put all the points: all the accents: every thing: then, turn to this translation, and compare your translation with it, phrase by phrase.

**EXERCISE I.**

1. Il est arrivé rarement une chose semblable.
2. Quel jardin!
3. Quel bruit!
4. Quelle belle fleur!
5. Quel sot de garçon!
6. Quel sot de garçon!
7. Quel sot de garçon!
8. Quel sot de garçon!
9. Quel sot de garçon!
10. Quel sot de garçon!
11. Quel sot de garçon!
12. Quel sot de garçon!
13. Quel sot de garçon!
14. Quel sot de garçon!
15. Quel sot de garçon!
16. Quel sot de garçon!
17. Quel sot de garçon!
18. Quel sot de garçon!
19. Quel sot de garçon!
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21. Quel sot de garçon!
22. Quel sot de garçon!
23. Quel sot de garçon!
24. Quel sot de garçon!
25. Quel sot de garçon!
26. Quel sot de garçon!
27. Quel sot de garçon!
28. Quel sot de garçon!
29. Quel sot de garçon!
30. Quel sot de garçon!
31. Quel sot de garçon!
32. Quel sot de garçon!
EXERCISE II.

1. L'Amérique, l'Asie, l'États-Unis, l'Europe.
2. La Prusse fut partie de l'Allemagne.
3. Venise, Valence, Grenade.
4. Il vient de la Rochelle.
5. Il demeure au Havre de Grâce.
6. Il est parti pour la Californie.
8. Vous venez du Portugal.
9. Il résident à la Marquise.
10. Elle va en Italie.
11. La Tamise.
12. Le Rhin.
13. La Sévere, la Seine.
15. Le meurtre fit la mort.
16. La paix conduit à la paupérette.
17. De la marine à la surface, ensuite de la terre glaise, et puis de la craie.
18. L'orge est chère cette année.
20. Le cheval est un animal utile.
21. Les oiseaux volent; les chats saccotent.
22. Les fruits ont les autres oiseaux.
23. Il vient de Chine.
24. Le vin de Bourgogne.
25. Le drap d'Angleterre.
26. Les chevaux de Flandres.
27. Les vaches de Normandie.
28. Les arbres viennent bien les étés favorables.
29. L'été est passé.
30. Je vous que les arbres viennent bien.
31. Le Capitaine White est parti.
32. Les oiseaux chantent dans le printemps.
33. Comment vous portez-vous, M. le Capitaine?
34. Les poires sont mûres en automne.
35. Le Docteur Johnson crainoit la mort.
36. La reine Elizabeth et le Pape Sixte.
37. Les groseilles mangent du bœuf.
38. Les garrons tuent les groseilles.
39. Les garçons tuent les groseilles.
40. Les philosophes ne s'accordent pas.
41. Il est à la campagne.
42. Elle était en ville.
43. Dieu, le ciel, et l'enfer.
44. Les jardins ont un aspect rival au printemps.
45. Les fleurs se ferment en été.
46. Elles meurent en automne.
47. L'amour fit la même chose au printemps.
48. Les pommes sont un bon fruit.
49. Les pommes ne sont pas chères cette année.
50. Les rois sont des rois.
51. Du pain, de la viande, de la farine, du beurre.
52. La terre, l'air, le feu et l'eau, tout s'allie.
53. L'air est froid aujourd'hui.
54. L'hiver approche.
55. Il est beaucoup hier.
56. L'avoine est très-chère.
57. Le fumage est très-terreux.
58. Je préfère le noir au bleu.
59. Je aime la chasse.
60. L'exercice est bon pour l'homme.
61. Il se tua à force de boire.
62. Les hommes prudens évitent les querelles.
63. Les oiseaux chantent tandis que les paresseux ronflent.
64. L'homme, vénérable de la femme, alliez par-là?
65. De bois, de fruit et de feu.
66. La lumière et l'obscurité.
67. Les articles forment une partie du discours.
68. Il a des bras.
69. Il a des chevaux noirs.
70. Les Hollandais ont le commerce.
71. Les Américains partagent les fêtes avec les Anglais.
72. Il vient au Canada.
73. La nouvelle Écosse est un pays frivole.
74. Le blé vient bien en France.
75. Le tabac est une production de la Virginie.
76. Le coton vient de la Géorgie.
77. De la Floride et du Brésil.
78. Les Péruviens ont de l'or en abondance.
79. Les Mexicains ont de l'argent en grand quantité.

EXERCISE III.

1. Il a du foin à vendre.
2. Il a du foin dans sa charrette.
3. Le foin est abondant.
4. Le foin est cher cette année.
5. Elle porte de la soie.
6. La soie qu'elle porte est belle.
7. Le blé est très-légère.
8. A-t-il des chevaux?
9. Oui, il en a quelques-uns.
10. Il a des chèvres.
11. Où ont-ils des moutons?
12. Les chiens aboyent.
15. Il y a du danger.
16. Il y en a six de blancs et de noirs.
17. Cinq de tufs et un de bleus.
18. Ils ont de bonne viande.
19. Elle a de beaux yeux.
20. Les moutons mangent de l'herbe.
22. Les moutons que j'ai venus.
23. Vous aviez du fromage.
24. Elle aura beaucoup de pain.
25. Une quantité de terre.
26. Donnez-nous encore de l'argent.
27. Rien de bien rare.
28. Tant de livres.
29. Fort peu de sagesse.
30. Comme de fédérals.
31. Coublé de terre.
32. Beaucoup de charbons.
33. Beaucoup de plaisir.
34. Beaucoup de patience.
35. Beaucoup de peine.
36. Quel vin souhaites-tu?
38. De bien honnêtes gens.
39. Il y a maintenant beaucoup de choux.
40. Des oignons et du persil dans le jardin.
41. Le pommier est une grimpante lorsqu'il est en fleur.
42. Les cerisiers sont aussi très-beaux.
43. Ce poivron est bien chargé de fruit.
44. Les poires sont à bon marché cette année-ci.
45. Les courges de pomboisiers n'ont rien de remarquable.
46. Mais leur fruit est excellent.
47. Quelles belles fraises !
48. Les épisards et les haricots.
Un temps humide est bon pour ce terrain.

Tout le foin est gâté.

Le foin sera cher l'année prochaine.

Les barbecots sont très abondants.

Les laitues sont bonnes en salade.

L'huile, le vinaigre, le poivre, le sel et la moutarde sont des choses fort utiles.

L'huile d'olive est bien meilleure que celle de paves.

La première se fait en France et en Italie.

La seconde se fait en Allemagne.

Le mont de sable est très haut.

Les pierres ne font point de mal à la terre.

Le fourrage est à bon marché.

Une grande quantité de terre.

Les ablettes restent dans les champs.

Du poisson, de la viande, de la volaille, du grain, de la farine.

Nous avons du poisson.

Les aïeules n'aiment pas les guêpes.

Le miel est très utile dans une famille.

EXERCISE IV.

1. La maison est grande.
2. Une main et un pied.
3. Deux maisons et trois champs.
4. Quatre fils, cinq filles.
5. Six enfants, sept amis.
6. Un cheval, une vache, un cochon.
7. Huit chevaux, neuf vaches, dix cochons.
8. Onze noix, une noix.
10. Un engagement.
11. Trente engagements.
12. Quarante choux.
13. Un fort beau chou.
15. Beaucon de richesses.
16. Quinze chapeaux.
17. Sept hibous.
18. Dix-sept cloches.
19. Un très-grand mal.
20. Un grand nombre de maux.
22. Mes yeux sont foibles.
23. L'eau est Claire.
24. Les eaux de Bath.
25. Dix-huit paniers.
27. Vingt portes de jardin.
29. La tête du loup.
30. Les griffes du chat.
31. Le palais du roi.
32. Trente chandeliers d'or.
33. Quarante assiettes d'étain.
34. Quarante-cinq cuillers d'argent.
35. Soixante souliers de cuir.
36. Soixante-dix huttes de bois.
37. Quarante-vingt pelles à fum.
38. Quarante-vingt-dix arceaux.
39. Un agneau et un mouton.
40. Cent bœufs.
41. Mille chevaux.
42. Un oiseau et un regard.
43. Dieu est tout-puissant.
44. Les deux des Graces.
45. Un lieu solitaire.
46. Des lieux solitaires.
47. Il a un emploi.
48. À la poste aux lettres.
49. Une livre de pain.
50. Un livre pour vous.
51. Le pêche du roi.
52. Une page pour vous.
53. À sa maison.

EXERCISE V.

1. Vous et moi, nous allons souper.
3. Nous sommes fort heureux dans ce pays, elle et moi.
4. Ils me frappent aussi bien que lui.
5. Ils m'aiment aussi bien qu'elle.
6. Puisquez-vous devenir riches.
7. Si vous m'abandonnez pour toujours.
10. Il leur donne toujours quelque chose à manger.
11. Ils disent très-souvent ensemble.
12. Faites cela, je vous prie, à ma considération.
13. Le cheval est à moi, et la vache est à elle.
14. Donnez-moi un peu de votre bois.
15. Il leur rapporte tout ce que je lui dis.
16. Elle n'avait aucune affection pour eux.
17. Les champs leur appartiennent.
Let us translate this into English:

**EXERCISE VI.**

1. Ma main, mes plumes, mon papier, mon encré et mes livres.
2. Vos plumes ne sont pas aussi bonnes que les miennes.
3. Emportez les chaises de ma chambre, et mettez-les dans la sienne.
6. Leurs beaux sont plus beaux que les vôtres.
7. Mettez mes beaux dans leur champ.
8. Ses souliers sont meilleurs que les siens.
9. Nos habits sont bleus, mais les leurs sont rouges.
11. Vos arbres sont bien plantés.
12. La table est mauvaise; ses pieds sont tétés.
13. Elle est d’une vilaine couleur; les bois en est pourri.
14. Voici votre carrosse; voici le mien.
15. Mon frère, je vous prie de venir chez moi.
17. Ces oiseaux sont à vous, et ceux-là à moi.
18. Ton père, ta mère et tes frères sont morts.
20. Leurs domestiques viennent.
21. Mon fils, avez-vous son manteau?
22. Approchez-vous, ma sœur, j’ai besoin de vous parler.
23. Non, mon ami; je ne puis vous secourir.
26. Sa maison; sa maison; notre maison; leur maison.
27. Sa main, son bras, ses doigts, leurs jambes, ses pieds.
28. Son robe, son bonnet, sa tête, son cou, ses dents.
29. Mettez votre voie avec le mien; séparez le vôtre du mien.
30. Il ne parle pas de votre maison, mais de la mienn.

**EXERCISE VII.**

1. Les personnes qui demeurent dans cette rue.
2. Le menuisier qui fit ma table.
3. La vache qui pâtit dans ma prairie.
4. Les moutons qui sont sur les collines.
5. L’homme dont je prend l’amitié.
6. Le cheval qui conduit leur voiture.
7. Le blé que vous avez vendu au marché.
8. Le blé qui croît dans ses champs.
10. Le marchand auquel il doit tant d’argent.
11. La compagnie qu’il a reçue ce soir.
12. L’oiseau qui a vu l’oiseleur.
13. L’oiseau que l’oiseleur a vu.
14. Le siècle dans lequel nous vivons.
15. Le monsieur auquel il appartient.
16. Le pays que j’aime le mieux.
17. Le temps qui me plaît le plus.
18. L’encre dont je me sers.
19. Les personnes dont vous parlez hier.
20. L’homme qui me déplait le plus.
21. Que nous voulez-vous?
22. Que disent-ils à vous et à votre famille?

**EXERCISE VIII.**

1. Il y a beaucoup de fruit dans ce pays-là.
2. Ce jardin est bien garni de fleurs.
3. Laquelle de ces fleurs aimez-vous mieux?
4. Aimez-vous mieux celle-ci ou celle-là?
5. C’est moi qui vous ordonne de le faire.
6. C’est le maître de la maison qui vient.
7. C’est un fort beau pays.
Cet oiseau chante mieux que celui que vous avez.

EXERCISE IX.

1. Tout le monde doit recevoir le salaire de son travail.
2. Tous les hommes doivent être nourris et vêtus.
3. Chacun va où bon lui semble.
4. Les juges étaient assis, chacun à sa place.
5. Chacun d'eux donnait son opinion sur cette affaire.
6. Donnez à manger à chacun des deux; mais ne donnez rien au troisième.
7. Tout le monde sait cela, et plusieurs le disent.
8. Quelques-uns disent qu'il va quitter sa maison.
9. Plusieurs m'ont assuré qu'il va quitter.
10. Quelques-uns aiment cette manière de voyager.
11. Quelques-uns aiment cette manière de voyager.
12. Nous ne devons pas prendre le bien d'autrui.
13. D'autres ne font pas cela.
15. Il se couvrent réciproquement du fruit et des fleurs.
16. Tous est vendu dans la maison et enlevé.
17. Les oiseaux sont tous morts. Quoi à tous?
18. Quiconque prendra ce chemin y tombera.
19. Tout ce qu'on y trouve sans en rien céder.
20. Quiconque n'écoute pas les autres ne saurait grandir.
21. Il y a deux pommes une petite quantité de cerises et quelques abricots.
22. Quelques-uns disent qu'ils ont vécu un siècle.
23. Qui est l'homme qui a volé votre argent?
24. Je l'ignore, mais que ce puisse être, il doit être puni.
25. L'homme est pris. On ne sait que c'est; mais que ce soit il sera puni.
26. Quelques promis dans un petit panier de paille.
27. Il y avait deux pommes une petite quantité de cerises et quelques abricots.
28. Quelques-uns disent qu'elle sera très riche; d'autres que ce soit pas.
29. Quelques riche qu'elle puisse avoir.
30. Quelques belles maisons et quelque beaux jardins qu'ils aient.
31. Ils se couvrent réciproquement du fruit et des fleurs.
32. Ils se couvrent réciproquement du fruit et des fleurs.
33. Il est allé à la campagne et il ne rentra pas.
34. Quiconque prendra ce chemin y tombera.
**EXERCISE X.**

1. Ils n' y ont pas été depuis quatre ou cinq ans.
2. Je ne vous donnerai pas maintenir d' autant de phrases à traduire.
3. Y a-t-il vingt acres de terre?
4. Je ne suis pas bien homme qui vint ici hier-soi.
5. Certainement, je ne vous donnerai pas plus de dix livres sterling.
6. Vous n' aurez été que six ans dans votre bureau.
7. Vous n' avez ni terres ni troupeaux.
8. Ce n' est pas un honnête homme. Ce n' est pas vrai, Monsieur.
9. Il n' y a ni paille ni foin dans le grenier.
10. Je n' ai aucun des arbres que vous m' avez vendus.
11. Je n' ai aucun des bastiaux dont il me parler.
12. Je n' ai vu aucun depuis quelque temps.
14. On ne dit pas ce qui n' est pas vrai.
15. Non que je ne sache point les gens de ce pays-là.
16. Non que je ne puisse y aller, si cela me plaît.
17. Voulez-vous venir avec moi? Non; je ne le veux point.
18. Elle ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
19. Elle ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
20. Nous ne mettrons pas à la volée demain, ni peut-être après demain.
21. Ni l' homme ni le valet ne sont ici.
22. Ni lui, ni sa femme, ni ses enfants ne jouissent d' une bonne santé.
23. Ils n' ont que vingt acres de terre.
24. Nous ne leur parlons que très-rarement.
25. Il n' y a qu' un homme de bien dans la compagnie.
26. Pourquoi n' allez-vous pas voir votre terre?
27. Pourquoi habitez-vous continuellement la ville?
28. Il ne fait que causer et chanter.
29. Ils ne savent que faire.
30. Ne vous ai-je pas dit que vous me l' ai-je dit qu' il était méchant.
31. Ne puis-je pas vous apprendre un sac d' or? — Non, en vérité.
32. Ce n' est point que le dîner me déplaise, mais je n' aime pas la manière dont on l' apprête.
33. Il ne cesse de parler et de faire du bruit.
34. Il n' a point de quoi faire ce dont ils menacent.
35. Ils ne peuvent venir demain, il en est très-sûr.
36. Vous ne pouvez ni boire ni manger avec nous? Et pourquoi pas, messieurs?
37. Pourquoi ne pas vous asseoir et dîner avec nous?
38. Non; je vous ai vu très-obligé; je ne peux m' arrêter à présent.
39. Eh bien, donc, venez demain. Je ne vous renaissait pas; ou je ne sainrais réellement.
40. Ils n' ont que du pain à manger et de l' eau à boire.
41. L' homme ne doit pas vivre de pain seulement.
42. Je ne doute pas qu' il ne vous pâti ce qu' il vous doit.
43. Je ne peux écrire si je n' ai pas de lumière.
44. Je ne lui écrirai pas qu' elle n' eût écrire la première.
45. Prenez garde qu' on ne vous trompe.
46. Il y a plus de vin qu' il n' en faut.
47. Il en dit plus qu' il ne fallot.
48. Je les empêcherai de faire du mal dans la campagne.
49. Je ne sais pas que je m' aie dit qu' il était méchant.
50. Elle est plus vieille qu' on ne pense.
51. Elle est moins rich qu' on ne la croyoit.
52. Il est tout autre que je ne le croyoist.
53. Il est plus à leur aise que vous ne pensez.
54. Je crains qu' il ne vienne trop tôt.
55. Je crains qu' il ne vienne pas assez tôt.
56. Elle apprehende qu' il n' ait une querelle.
57. Ils craignent que leur mère ne soit malade.
58. Ils ont que l' armée n' arrive.
59. Ils craignent que l' armée n' arrive.
60. Ne pas trop parler de l' affaire.
61. Il convient de ne point aller trop vite.
EXERCISE XI.

1. Parlez-vous de la maison à ses messieurs?
2. L’armée est-elle partie ce matin?
3. Le charpentier viendra-t-il demain?
4. Pourquoi ne vient-il pas tout de suite?
5. Le feu prit-il à la maison lorsque vous étiez en ville?
6. Richard ne vient-il pas ce soir?
7. Vous frappez-il?
8. Emmenèrent-ils votre voiture et vos chevaux?
9. Pendez-vous à cela?
10. Est-ce là votre livre? Oui, c’est mon livre.
11. Est-ce là votre frère? Oui, c’est lui.
12. Parlez-vous très-souvent d’elle?
13. Fait-il des recherches pour les marchandises qu’il a perdues?
14. Nous payeront-ils ce qu’ils nous doivent?
15. Nous auront-ils tout payé, quand ils nous auront payé dix livres sterling de plus?
16. Y auront-ils pensé?
17. Lui en reste-t-il?
18. Me le donnez-vous?
19. Le lui dit-il?
20. Ne le lui dit-il point?
21. Vous en parlez-il?
22. Je me lève le matin.

EXERCISE XII.

1. Il fait beau dans ce pays.

2. Je ne vous dis pas de ne point en parler.
3. Ne pas trop parler de soi.
4. Je lui ai dit de ne pas payer plus de vingt livres sterling.
5. N’est-il pas colonel, ou capitaine?
6. La flotte ira-telle à la Jamaica?
7. Ne croyez-vous pas qu’elles soient belles?
8. Vous avez de grandes propriétés, sans parler de votre argent comptant.
9. Jean n’y sera-t-il pas plus tôt qu’il ne faut?
10. Je ne le crois pas.
11. N’y voyez-vous rien du tout?
12. Ne vous a-t-il pas dit un mot à ce sujet?
13. Ne craignez-vous pas que l’argent ne vienne trop tard?
14. N’ont-ils vu personne aller de ce côté-là?
15. Est-ce que les laboureurs n’ont-ils pas à boire et à manger?
16. Celui-là n’est-il pas le plus pauvre, qui a moins à manger, et moins de vêtements pour se couvrir?
17. Ils ne l’auront jamais, à moins qu’il ne leur demande pardon.
18. Ma chambre n’est-elle pas remplie?
19. Cet exercice-ci n’est-il pas bien long?
20. Il est bien long; mais pas plus long, j’espère, qu’il n’est utile.

XXVIII.

1. II fit bien mauvais temps, en Amérique, l’automne dernier.
2. Il pleut presque toujours dans ce pays-là.
3. On dit qu’il ne pleut jamais à Lima.
4. Il y a sept acres de terre, et six fort belles maisons.
5. Il y a beaucoup de vases au fond du vivier.
6. Vous devez bien faire attention à la manière dont vous taillez les péchères.
7. Il y a beaucoup d’espèces de pêchères.
8. Il y en a plusieurs dans cet hort.
9. Il y en a à Lima, dans le pays-à.
10. Il y a des bottons à bois et des bottons à fruit.
11. Il y eut dans la vallée un cri terrible.
12. Si ce sont des arbres de fruit à nouer que vous avez à tailler.
13. Il y en a à Lima, dans le pays-à.
15. Il faut l’examiner, et vous assurer s’il y a un bon bourgeois à bons.
16. Veillez à ce qu’il n’y ait pas de terrain perdu et sans récolte.
17. Il ne faut en laisser entrer aucun.
18. On a besoin de beaux temps pour la maison.
19. Ne perdez pas de temps à causer, faites ce que vous avez à faire.
20. Tout ce qu’il y a de respectable dans le village en a bonne idée.
22. Il faut un bon terrain pour recoller de bon blé et élever de bon bétail.
23. Pour produire de bon houblon, il faut beaucoup de fumier et une bonne culture.
24. Il y en a de vingt; il faloit tous les vingt; mais on en nous en a laissé que sept.
25. C'est un acte que nous ne devons jamais obliger.
26. Ce fut son domestique qui le leur dit.
27. Il y eut soixante maisons de renversées par le canon.
28. Il va mieux rester comme vous êtes, pendant quelque mois.
29. Il va beaucoup mieux être pauvre et bien portant, qu'être rich et malade.
30. J'irai en France; c'est-à-dire, si je ne porte bien, on ne portera pas.
31. C'est une mauvaise chose que de voyager quand on ne porte pas bien.
32. Il est bien pénible de vous quitter dans l'état où vous vous trouvez.
33. C'est un honnête homme; c'est un fripon.
34. Il est honnête. Il est fripon.
35. Ce fut votre père qui vous donna ce diamant.
36. Est-ce que ceux qui causent tant de mal dans ce village?
37. Ce furent eux qui coupèrent les arbres, et mirent le feu aux maisons.
38. Non; ce fut elle qui ordonna de le faire.
39. Je ne sache pas que ce fut elle qui donna l'ordre.
40. Il y a quarante ans que mon oncle est mort.
41. Il y a plus de vingt ans que je demeure ici.
42. De cette place à celle-là, il n'y a que sept miles.
43. Combien y a-t-il d'ici au sommet de la montagne?
44. Combien serez-vous de retour?
45. Il a travaillé quinze ans à son ouvrage.
46. Combien y a-t-il de bouvons dans le parc?
47. Et combien y en a-t-il dans la vallée?
48. Il faut avoir des enfants pour pouvoir sentir pour un père et une mère.
49. Ne donnez pas avoir beaucoup de patience.
50. Ne doit-il pas y avoir beaucoup d'indicité de que part?
51. N'a-t-elle pas dû avoir beaucoup de bien?
52. N'y a-t-il pas eu un très-long débat ce soir?
53. Y en a-t-il jamais eu de plus long?
54. Il n'y a que cela qui ne soit pas utile.
55. Je vous prie de ne pas venir; je vous prie de ne pas ne trouvez pas de voiture.
56. Y a-t-il des vignes dans ce pays?
57. N'est-il n'y en a point que je sache. Comment! Il n'y en a aucune.
58. C'est le plus beau pays qu'on ait jamais vu; mais le climat est mauvais.
59. Quelle distance croyez-vous qu'il y a d'ici à sa maison? Croyez-vous qu'il soit tard avant que nous y arrivions?
60. Il y a quatre milles, et je pense que nous pourrons y arriver à neuf heures.
61. Fera-t-il nuit avant que nous y arrivions?
62. Non, car il fait maintenant plusieurs heures depuis qu'il pleut et qu'il parfut qu'il pleuvra du nouveau avant demain soir.
63. Il a un très-temps de repos aujourd'hui.
64. Croyez-vous cela? Y a-t-il quelqu'un qui le croit? Y a-t-il quelqu'un qui le dit?
65. Celui qui affecte de croire cela est vrai, n'est-il donc pas un misérable?

EXERCISE XIII.

1. La tour a quatre cont quarrante pieds de hantier.
2. Votre chambre a vingt pieds de long et dix de large.
3. Un champ carré et une grande barrière.
4. Un homme impertinent, fichu et paresseux.
5. Un bœuf jeune et beau, et un joli petit chien.
6. Il est beaucoup plus vieux qu'elle.
7. Vous n'êtes pas aussi grand que lui de beaucoup.
8. Ils ont plus de six mille acres de terre.
9. C'est un très-mauvais cheval; le plus mauvais que j'ai eu de ma vie.
10. Il a plus beau jour d'hui qu'hier; encore faudra-t-il un temps froid et assez triste.
11. C'est la plus mauvaise route que j'ai jamais vue.
12. C'est le plus grand coquin qui existe.
13. Avez-vous beaucoup de bouteilles de vin dans votre cave?
15. Je n'ai pas beaucoup d'huile; mais je sais beaucoup d'olives.
16. N'a-t-il pas beaucoup de chevaux, et une grande quantité de foin?
17. Donnez-moi quelques noix, et apportez-moi un peu de ce sucre.
18. Il est aussi 265 pour une homme, que pour une mauvaise cause.
19. Soixante mille livres sterling pour une terre et les meubles.
20. Mil huit cent vingt-huit.
22. George IV et Charles X régneront actuellement.
23. J'aimerai mieux un ennemi déclaré qu'un ennemi caché.
24. Vous êtes indignes de tout honneur et de toute distinction.
25. Il fut transporté de joie en voyant a rire.
26. Ils ne méritent point de reproche à cet égard.
27. Il est propre à toute espèce d'affaires.
28. Il n'y a pas de mal qu'ils ne fassent.
29. Votre pitié nous expose à des poursuites juridiques.
30. C'est un homme très-estimé dans ce pays-là.
31. C'est une Française; c'est une Anglaise; c'est une Américaine.
32. Un chapeau François, un habit Anglais, un soulier Américain.
33. Un chapeau noir, un habit bleu, des souliers blancs.
34. Blanc comme la neige, noir comme la cheminée, lourd comme du plomb.
35. Vous êtes plus grand que lui de deux poings.
36. Je ne crois pas qu'il soit aussi grand qu'elle.
37. Ce sont les plus meuchans de toute l'espèce humaine.
38. C'est de toutes les actions la plus injuste et la plus abominable.

EXERCISE XIV.
1. Nous voyons tous les jours des choses pareilles à celle-là.
2. Ni les menaces ni l'argent ne le feront cesser de s'en plaindre.
3. Les charpentiers ou les maçons finiront leur ouvrage demain.
4. Lui ou elle payera le dîner et le vin.
5. Ce furent eux qui dirent qu'elle devait s'en aller.
6. On n'a pas seulement emporté l'avoine et le foin, mais on a même emporté la paille de la cour.
7. Jean, Paul, Étienne, Marie et leur mère écrivent demain.
8. Jean, Paul, Étienne et vous, vous écrivez demain.
9. Votre frère et elle ont beaucoup lu aujourd'hui.
10. Mon grand-père et moi, nous avons voyagé d'une extrémité du pays à l'autre.
11. Les concombres et les melons viennent bien dans cette terre.
12. Le jardinier, ainsi que ses gens, aime les fleurs.
13. Il n'est fallu de beaucoup qu'il fût bon, d'après ce que m'a dit le jardinier.
14. La pluie de fer où étaient plantées les arbustes.
15. La hâte où croisent les épinés.
16. Les plantations que mon grand-père fit.
17. La maison qu'habitent le frère et la sœur.
18. Le panier où bon a mis les fleurs.
19. Il y a un mois que la comté tient séance.
20. Ils n'auront pas fini de faire les mois.
21. Le peuple a été fort tranquille.
22. Ils ont été extrêmement bien traités.
23. Personne ne peut les tromper.
24. Le meilleur moyen est toujours de leur dire la vérité.
25. Il hait le peuple, et il en dit toujours du mal.
26. Je vous donnerai une livre sterling, dit-il, si vous me dites la vérité.
27. Ah! dirait-il, nous vous avons donc attrapé.
28. Non, répond-je, vous ne m'avez point attrapé.
29. En bien ! leur dit-il, n'en parlons plus.
30. Partez aussitôt que vous le pourrez, je vous aime.
31. Nous sommes, elle et moi, les propriétaires de ce bois.
32. Ils désirent leur écrire.

XXVIII.]

OF THE EXERCISES.

33. La trille et le sainfoin viennent bien dans ce terrain.
34. Ils sont excellents pour toute espèce de bestiaux.
35. Les navets ou les betteraves sont bons pour les vaches en hiver.
36. On ne vend dans la ville ni parle ni pain.
37. La plus grande partie du monde fait de même.
38. Une grande partie de ses amis le quittent.
39. Les plantes curieuses que m'a données mon ami.
40. Le peintre que ma sœur a envoyé.
41. Le peintre qui a envoyé ma sœur.
42. L'imprimeur qui le peuple aime tant.
43. L'imprimeur qui aime tant le peuple.
44. Je plante de la faïence et du céleri.
45. Demandez-vous un peu de l'un et du autre, s'il vous plaît.

EXERCISE XV.

1. Le guide qui conduisit l'Observateur duquel je tiens la description, lui rapporta que, quelque temps avant la guerre qui se termina par la paix de Rywicz, ayant mené les Allemands à cet endroit, ils le trouveront couvert de neige.
2. Le palais était un temple dédié aux dieux tutélaires. Il était de forme oblongue, et avait huit colonnes de chaque côté, en longueur, et quatre le long de chaque extrémité.
3. Ce qui faisait en tout vingt-quatre colonnes, dont huit subsistaient jusqu'au moment où on les abattit pour agrandir le château.
4. La fontaine qu'on nomme d'Audége, jette une si grande quantité d'eau, qu'elle forme un ruisseau très-utile aux tanneurs qui demeurent dans les faubourgs.
45. Il aurait fini de bâtir sa maison, il ira à la campagne.
46. Quand elle ira à la ville, elle y trouvera un grand nombre d'ami qui seront bien aînés de la voir.
47. Tout ce qu'on peut faire pour lui, on le doit faire.
48. Il a été fort maltraité par ceux qui lui devaient beaucoup.
49. Elle était très-maladie et souffrait excessivement. Ils firent tout ce qu'ils purent pour la soulager.
50. Il a été à l'église. La tombe du haut de la maison.
51. Ils s'en allèrent l'année dernière.
52. Nous n'avons pas été au spectacle.
53. Ils se couchent hier-soir.
54. Il s'était couché de meilleure heure.
55. Ils se levèrent de bon matin.
56. Nous nous levions, tous les jours, à quatre heures.
57. Vous devriez vous lever de meilleure heure que vous ne le faites.
EXERCISE XVI.

1. Elle n'est point assez riche pour vivre sans travail.
2. Il fit cela pour provoquer ses frères et ses sœurs.
3. Ils seront trop sages pour empêcher qu'on ne cultive la terre.
4. Que mèfrie-t-il pour avoir livré son pays à son plus mortel ennemi?
5. Des milliers d'aventuriers ont fait leur fortune en venant ici.
6. Ce n'est pas être sage que de bâtir une maison sur un terrain stérile.
7. Est-il sans cesse, si vous êtes en bonne santé?
8. Donnez aux pauvres plutôt que de les depouiller.
9. Quelque peu de moyens qu'elle ait, elle n'en fait pas moins une belle figure.
10. C'est à vous à leur parler d'une affaire qui vous concerne.
11. Il convient que vous preniez des mesures efficaces pour le punir.
12. Il est excessivement adonné à vos hontes du jeu.
13. Je suis las de vivre ici et de ne rien faire.
14. Allez dire à mon homme d'affaires de venir le plus tôt qu'il pourra.
15. Allez vous informer de notre voisin qui est-il malade l'autre jour.
16. Ils se rejoignent beaucoup de ce que vous avez triomphé de vos ennemis.
17. En allant à Londres, vous gagnerez beaucoup.
18. En veillant à vos affaires, vous vous rendrez heureux, ainsi que vos parents.
19. Je désire de tout mon cœur que vous le fassiez.
20. Je ne connais rien de plus heureux que cela.
21. Il veut mieux qu'un pays soit dévasté, que d'être gouverné par des méchants.
22. Il valait mieux qu'il allât à cheval qu'en voiture.
23. Il importe beaucoup qu'ils se décident formellement.
24. Je ne crois pas qu'il fasse beau demain.
25. Si le beau temps commence et continue pendant quelques jours.
26. C'est le plus grand coquin qui soit au monde.
27. Il s'est sauvé la vie en venant en Angleterre.
28. Il est très-acceptable d'aller en France pendant l'été.
29. Faucher ou moissonner est un ouvrage pénible.
30. Il est vain si le point est à se déliciter sur cet article.
31. Quoi qu'ils en disent, c'est une mauvaise affaire.
32. Je ne connais rien qui irrite plus que cela.
33. Peu de choses sont plus déshonorantes que le mensonge.
34. Boire à l'excès rend un homme incapable d'agir.
35. Manger, boire et dormir sont des choses nécessaires.
36. Je suis fort fâché que votre frère ne soit pas venu.
37. Pourquoi ne viendroit-il pas la semaine prochaine?
38. Il parait qu'ils sont partis de très-bonne heure.
39. Est-il bien certain que la ville soit prise?
40. Il est bien certain que la ville est prise.
41. Il est clair comme le jour que ce malheur arrivera.
42. Il n'est pas bien certain que ce malheur arrivera.
43. Il est évident qu'il ne pourroit se défendre lui-même.
44. Il n'est pas certain qu'il ne pût se défendre lui-même.
45. Il me semble que vous avez tort.
46. Il semble qu'il a tort.
47. Il n'est ni juste ni convenable qu'il le fasse.
48. Croyez-vous venir Samedi prochain?
49. Plutôt-Dieu qu'il se portât bien!
50. Si vous perdiez votre fortune, il faudroit vous en aller.
51. Dieu veuille qu'elle recouvre sa santé.
52. Vous dites qu'elle se rétablit; Dieu le veuille!
53. J'espère qu'elle ne mourra pas: Dieu l'en préserve!
54. A Dieu ne plaît que vous fassez parfaite chose.
55. Quoi! nos larmes paraissent cette faute.
56. Que voulez-vous que je fasse?
57. Je veux que vous vous leviez de bonne heure, et que vous soyez laborieux.
58. Mon père, cherchez une bonne scié, pensez-vous que je l'aime?
59. Je crois que vous n'en trouverez pas dans le village.
60. Je ne doute pas que vous n'en trouviez dans la ville.
61. Il faudra qu'ils se donnent bien des soins pour être compris.
62. Je n'en doute nullement, je l'apprécier.
63. Je doute qu'il le fasse.
TRANSLATION

XXVIII.

OF THE EXERCISES. 367

35. Peuvent-ils être en colère contre moi?
36. Y aura-t-il des crues pour souper?
37. Mes yeux s'obstrueront.
38. Pourquoi ne pas donner un maul à ta fille?
39. Il sera vivement affligé s'il perd sa cause.
40. Ce livre devront contenir 400 feuilles.
41. Vous devrez cueillir des fleurs.
42. Ils seront deuil la semaine prochaine.
43. Son œil sera bientôt guéri.
44. Je voudrais qu'il s'installent de suite.
45. Il pourrait s'en aller s'il vous le demandait.
46. Qu'ils viennent quand il leur plaira.
47. Il devait partir pour Paris la semaine dernière.
48. Vous devriez leur dire ce que vous en pensez.
49. Il peut se faire qu'ils ne s'en aillent.
50. Il peut se faire qu'ils ne se cachent pas écrire.
51. Peut-être qu'il serait mieux.
52. Vous ne devriez pas le prendre.

EXERCISE XVIII.

1. Ils l'ignorent pour l'instant.
2. Ils ne mentent plus à cheval maintenant.
3. C'est la mode maintenant d'aller à pied.
4. Je vais le faire tout de suite.
5. Elle vient ici et avant hier.
6. Il y avait judes des arbres dans ce champ.
7. Il me le dirait au matin.
8. Il faut que vous veniez ici demain.
9. Je vous prie de me dire.
10. Je mange souvent des cerises et des pommes.
11. Ils finissent bientôt leur ouvrage.
12. Nous écrivons demain ou après demain.
13. Il ira bientôt voir son père.
14. L'affaire se terminera le lundi suivant.
15. Où ont-ils été pendant tout ce temps?
16. Donnez-leur à manger de temps en temps.
17. D'où vient tout ce monde?
18. Pourquoi viendront-ils tous ici?
19. Qui les engage à passer par ici?
20. Ils partent dîner, chaque jour, à une heure.
21. Quand vous monterez, vous resterez en haut.
22. Il y a trop d'eau dans votre vin.
23. Peut-être le verrez-vous ramper.
24. Ils l'ont dit en plaisantant; mais ce n'est que vrai.
25. Il écrivent et lisent sans cesse.
26. On la prit de force.
27. Ce fut bien méchant de leur part.
28. Vous parlez à tort et à travers.
29. Combien de fois y avez-vous été?
30. Quelle distance y a-t-il
33. Je sais bien ce que vous voulez dire.

EXERCISE XIX.

1. Avez-vous pensé à l’affaire dont je vous ai parlé?
2. Oui; mais je ne sais que faire à ce sujet.
3. À qui appartient ce livre? Il appartient à Jean, ou à sa sœur.
4. Il faut que la maison soit bâtie d’ici à la Noël.
5. Ils se battirent à la baïonnette et à l’épée.
6. Vous jouissez de vos richesses.
7. Ils demeurent près de votre maison de campagne.
8. Vous devriez obéir à votre maître.

EXERCISE XX.

1. Que vous le fassiez ou non, je viendrais.
2. Un grand bâtiment ou de brique ou de pierre.
3. Il les loua par amour, ou par crainte.
4. Que deviendrions-nous s’ils venaient à mourir?
5. Que diriez-vous s’ils y consentaient?
7. Quand ils viendront, ils resteront long-temps.
8. Si vous désirez vous en aller, et être de retour à temps.
10. S’il donnait même tout sa fortune.